

1 **Unequal sample sizes according to the square-root allocation rule are useful when**
2 **comparing several treatments with a control**

3 Short running title: Sample sizes for comparisons with a control

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9

10 **Abstract:** A common situation in experimental science involves comparing a number of
11 treatment groups each to a single reference (control group). For example, we might compare
12 diameters of fungal colonies subject to a range of inhibitory agents to those from a control group
13 to which no agent was applied. In this situation the most commonly applied test is Dunnett's
14 test, which compares each treatment group separately to the reference whilst controlling the
15 experiment-wise type I error rate. For analyses where all groups are treated equivalently
16 statistical power is generally optimised by dividing subjects equally across groups. Researchers
17 often still use balanced groups in the situation where a single reference group is compared to
18 each of the others. In this case it is in fact optimal to spread subjects unequally: with the
19 reference group getting a higher number of subjects (n_0) than each of the k treatment groups (n
20 in each case). It has been previously suggested that a simple rule of thumb, the so-called square-
21 root allocation rule $n_0 = \sqrt{k} n$ offers better power than a balanced design, without necessarily
22 being optimal. Here we show that this simple-to-apply rule offers substantial power gains (over
23 a balanced design) over a broad range of circumstances, and that the more-challenging-to-
24 calculate optimal design often only offers minimal extra gain. Thus, we urge researchers to

25 consider using the square-root allocation rule whenever one control group is compared with a
26 number of treatments in the same experiment.

27 Keywords: Dunnett's test, power, sample size, square-root allocation rule, unbalanced samples

28

29 **Introduction**

30 When investigating a specified group, generally a control, and k other groups, called treatment
31 groups hereafter, often the control group is compared with each of the other groups. In this
32 many-to-one situation, Dunnett's test (Dunnett, 1955) is recommended for normally distributed
33 data. Generalized Dunnett tests exist for other types of data, e.g. there are analogues for
34 proportions and nonparametric approaches (Hothorn, 2016). However, here we focus on the
35 original test proposed by Dunnett (1955). This test controls the experiment-wise type I error
36 rate.

37 Dunnett's test is based on t test statistics. However, the pooled variance estimate is based on
38 data from all groups and the correlation between the t statistics is considered (see e.g. Bretz et
39 al, 2011, pp. 71-75). Thus, the method is more powerful than a Bonferroni adjustment made
40 after multiple two-sample tests (Bretz et al, 2011, p. 74).

41 When applying Dunnett's test, appropriately chosen unbalanced sample sizes can give a more
42 powerful test than a balanced design, even when there is no difference in variability between
43 groups. Here, we seek to promote greater awareness of this. Groups of equal size are sometimes
44 suggested very generally, see e.g. Curtis et al. (2018). Neuhäuser and Ruxton (2018) mentioned
45 three situations where unequal sample sizes might be useful: (1) unequal variances between
46 groups, (2) situations where one treatment involves more potential for suffering (or higher
47 expense), and (3) the many-to-one situation considered here.

48 For Dunnett's test, Dunnett (1955) recommended the square-root sampling allocation rule.

49 Hence, this rule is not new, it is mentioned in textbooks (e.g. Hochberg and Tamhane, 1987;

50 Brock and Mounho, 2014; Rosenberger and Lachin, 2015; Green et al., 2018; Kieser, 2020).
51 Nevertheless, the rule is rarely used. We searched for Dunnett's test in this journal *Ethology*. We
52 found 14 papers since 2000, none of them applied or even mentioned the square-root allocation
53 rule.

54 In the scenario where the control group is compared to each of the treatment groups, the control
55 group plays a special role making it plausible to enlarge its sample size compared to each of the
56 other groups (Hochberg and Tamhane, 1987). The design of the square-root allocation involves
57 the same sample size n for each of the k treatment groups, but a larger sample size for the
58 control group, namely $n_0 = \sqrt{k}n$. This design gives a test with higher power, or a test with the
59 same power but a lower total sample size, than a design with equal group sizes $N/(k + 1)$ for
60 every group (Liu 1997), where $N = n_0 + kn$ denotes the total sample size.

61 In order to illustrate the square-root allocation rule let's consider an example with $k = 4$
62 treatment groups, a control group and $N = 60$ observations in total. Here, $\sqrt{k} = 2$, thus the
63 sample size of the control group is $n_0 = 2n$, twice the sample size of each treatment group.
64 Hence, with $N = 60$ we have $n = 10$ observations per treatment group and $n_0 = 20$ observations
65 in the control group, instead of an equal group size of $N/5 = 12$ observations for all $k + 1$ groups.

66

67 **Methods**

68 Here, we demonstrate the benefit of square-root allocation (SRA) in comparison to equal size
69 allocation (ESA) based on a simulation study performed in R (version 4.0.4).

70 We do this on the basis of samples drawn from normal distributions. The standard deviation of
71 these distributions is always one, but the mean value for the control group μ_0 is set to zero while
72 a non-zero positive value μ_i is used for all of the k treatment groups. However, this mean value
73 is the same for all treatment groups in our simulation. We explore the ability of Dunnett's test to
74 detect this difference between the control and treatment groups as a function of total sample size

75 N . The values used for the treatment group means are given in Table 1, we make the value of μ_i
76 lower as total sample size increases (since total sample size and this effect size have opposite
77 effects on statistical power). We estimate statistical power as the fraction of 10,000 replicate
78 simulations where the Dunnett's test detected the underlying difference in distributions, based
79 on a nominal experiment-wise type I error rate of 0.05. The R code used for our simulations is
80 available at www.hs-koblenz.de/profilepages/neuhaeuser/programme.

81 As well as SRA and ESA, we also considered the optimal allocation (OA), that is, the allocation
82 that maximizes the power without changing the total sample size. The above-mentioned
83 simulations were also used to search for the OA. To be precise, we determined the power for all
84 possible allocations with a specific total sample size N . The allocation with maximum power is
85 the OA. A user could obtain the OA by simulation or by programming a search procedure such
86 as the one presented by Kwong et al. (2010), see Liu (1997) for mathematical details. Thus, for
87 a user it is much easier to apply the square-root allocation than search for the optimal allocation.
88 There are several alternative ways in which statistical power could be measured in the case of
89 multiple tests (Bretz et al., 2011). For our situation with $\mu_i > \mu_0$ we report on two of these:

- 90 • the probability of correctly rejecting all k false null hypotheses $\mu_i = \mu_0$, called the
91 conjunctive power, and
- 92 • the probability of correctly rejecting at least one false null hypothesis $\mu_i = \mu_0$, called the
93 disjunctive power.

94 That is, we report the fraction of replicate simulations where Dunnett's test suggests (correctly)
95 that all treatment groups are different from the control, and the larger fraction where the test
96 suggests that at least one of the treatment groups is different from the control.

97 In evaluating Dunnett's test we assume that we are dealing with a situation where negative
98 values of μ_i are considered implausible and so one-sided testing is adopted.

99

100

101 **Results and examples**

102 The consistent pattern seen across the results shown in Table 2 and Figures 1 and 2 is that the
103 square-root allocation rule consistently gives higher power values than equal sample sizes
104 although the benefit is smaller for small numbers of treatment groups. Another consistent
105 pattern is that the additional benefit due to the optimal allocation is very low in the scenarios we
106 considered.

107 Having considered the theoretical advantages of SRA in an idealised simulation, we now want
108 to explore its practical application. First, we re-examine a recent publication that used Dunnett's
109 test (Adamo and McKee, 2017). In their figure 2, the number of eggs laid per day per cricket
110 *Gryllus texensis* is shown for three groups with $n = 40$ per group; hence there are $k = 2$ treatment
111 groups in their design. The maximum difference in means is around 6 eggs with a standard error
112 of around 2. Thus, we can estimate a standard deviation of approximately $\sigma = 2\sqrt{40} \approx 12.6$.
113 This standard deviation is approximately twice as large as the difference in means. If we take
114 these values for the effect size and the standard deviation, we can estimate power in exactly the
115 same way we did previously. We assume one-sided testing again, and a nominal experiment-
116 wise type I error rate of 0.05.

117 For this scenario, with equal-size allocation (ESA) used by the original authors with 40 in each
118 group the disjunctive power is 0.7682. With the square-root allocation (SRA), the sample sizes
119 would be 35 for the two treatment groups and 50 for the control, and the disjunctive power is a
120 little higher: 0.7916. The conjunctive power is 0.6102 for ESA and 0.6199 for SRA. From these
121 calculations we see that adoption of SRA application would have offered these researchers more
122 power, albeit only slightly more than with the ESA design that they used.

123 We can also use similar simulations to ask how much the sample size could be reduced by
124 adopting SRA while still delivering the same power as adopting ESA. As mentioned above the
125 disjunctive power is 0.7682 under ESA. If we require a power of at least 80% we would need
126 126 rather than 120 animals when applying ESA (i.e. 42 rather than 40 in each group), then the

127 disjunctive power is 0.8040. With SRA 123 animals (51 in the control group and 36 in each
128 treatment group) are sufficient for a power > 80%; with 51 in the control group and 36 in each
129 of the other two groups, we predict disjunctive power of 0.8140. Thus, again we see in this
130 example that with a low number of comparisons, since there are only two treatment groups –
131 there is still a benefit to square-root allocation, but this benefit is small.

132 However, this benefit can be much larger when we have just a few more groups. We consider
133 the hypothetical situation where the original study had two more treatment groups (four instead
134 of two). Now with ESA we need a total sample size of 195 for a power > 80% (the estimated
135 disjunctive power is 0.8211). With SRA a total sample size of 156 is sufficient for a power of
136 0.8020. If we require a power of 0.8211 (as for ESA), then 162 animals are sufficient (power =
137 0.8238). Thus, in this situation, SRA allows a big decrease in sample size without loss of power.

138 In order to illustrate how Dunnett's test can be applied in R we consider another example
139 situation (using data presented by Dunnett, 1955, p. 1099). In this data-set, a blood count
140 (millions of cells per cubic millimetre) was measured on three groups of animals, a control
141 group (here group 0) and two groups treated with different drugs (groups 1 and 2). Dunnett's
142 test is available with the function `glht` of the R package `multcomp`, and can be applied to this
143 data as follows:

```
144 count <- c(7.4,8.5,7.2,8.24,9.84,8.32,9.76,8.8,7.68,9.36,12.8,9.68,  
145           12.16,9.2,10.55)  
146 group <- as.factor(c(rep(0,6), rep(1,4), rep(2,5)))  
147 anova.model <- aov(count ~ group)  
148 library(multcomp)  
149 summary(glht(anova.model, linfct = mcp(group = "Dunnett"), alternative =  
150           "greater"))
```

151

152

153 This yields the following output:

154 Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses

155 Multiple Comparisons of Means: Dunnett Contrasts

156

157 Fit: aov(formula = count ~ group)

158

159 Linear Hypotheses:

160 Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>t)

161 1 - 0 <= 0 0.6500 0.7584 0.857 0.32498

162 2 - 0 <= 0 2.6280 0.7115 3.694 0.00291 **

163 ---

164 Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

165 (Adjusted p values reported -- single-step method)

166

167 From this, we can infer that group 2 is significantly different from the control group ($p =$

168 0.0029), however, there is no significant difference between group 1 and the control ($p =$

169 0.3250). Simultaneous confidence intervals are computed when `summary` is replaced by

170 `confint` in the R code above. Two-sided tests and confidence intervals can be obtained using

171 `alternative = "two.sided"`. The use of the function `glht` is described in much more details

172 by Bretz et al. (2011), including plots to display the results graphically. Bretz et al. (2011) also

173 explain how Dunnett's test can be combined with a closed testing procedure in order to increase

174 power (see also Hayter and Tamhane, 1991).

175

176 Discussion

177 The square-root allocation, already proposed by Dunnett (1955), is rarely used. Instead equal

178 group sizes dominate applications. However, the square-root allocation is convenient to

179 implement, and increases power as shown above. It is also possible to obtain the same power

180 with fewer experimental units, preferable due to ethical aspects for experiments with animals or

181 humans. Sample size calculations might be performed using the web application developed by
182 Grayling and Wason (2020), or by simulation (Colegrave and Ruxton, 2021).

183 Although the square-root allocation seldom yields exactly the optimal sampling allocation, it
184 provides a reasonable approximation of the optimal allocation (Kwong et al., 2010). Kwong et
185 al. (2010) presented a search procedure to obtain an optimal design, and they recommend its
186 application if the cost of additional observations is relatively high. However, as shown here, the
187 difference between the square-root allocation and the optimal allocation is often very small.

188 Our simulations only considered the case where underlying assumptions of Dunnett's test of
189 normally distributed data and homogeneity of variance hold. However, the advantage of SRA
190 over ESA even holds when variances increase in some treatment groups (Brock and Mounho,
191 2014). It is true that problems of unreliability due to heterogeneity of variance can be amplified
192 by unequal sample sizes (Hothorn, 2016), but even the well-studied ANOVA F-test is known
193 not to be always robust to variance heterogeneity when sample sizes are equal (Rogan and
194 Keselman, 1977).

195 When a researcher has reason to question whether the homogeneity of variances is likely to hold
196 in their system then switching to the robust procedure proposed by Herberich et al. (2010) seems
197 useful. For this method no assumptions regarding distribution or variance homogeneity are
198 necessary.

199 In this article we focus on the many-to-one situation where several treatment groups were
200 compared to a control. There are other options, for example so-called Helmert contrasts which
201 compare each group to the mean of preceding groups. This approach might be useful when
202 several dose groups are investigated (Hothorn, 2016). Helmert contrasts are orthogonal (i.e.
203 uncorrelated) which makes the underlying computations numerically less complex. However,
204 the research question should dictate which statistical tests to apply. And with the above-
205 mentioned function `g1ht` of the R package `multcomp`, non-orthogonal contrasts can easily be
206 handled. Nevertheless, we would like to note that the SRA also provides a reasonable

207 approximation to the OA for the orthogonal contrasts investigated by Hayter and Tamhane
208 (1991).

209 We recommend routine use of SRA in situations where several treatments are compared to a
210 single reference group. This design requires trivial extra effort implement, and always offers
211 some power benefit. Any benefit should be attractive, but the benefits can be substantial when
212 the number of treatment groups is larger. The SRA may not be optimal, but our simulations
213 suggest it may be recommended as “near optimal”.

214

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216 manuscript. No animals were used for our study.

217 Ethics approval was not required for this research.

218

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220

221 **References**

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258

259

260 Table 1: Mean differences between groups used in the simulation study depending on N

Total sample size N	Difference in means $\mu_i - \mu_0$
< 25	1.2
26 to 50	0.95
51 to 75	0.85
76 to 100	0.75
101 to 150	0.7
151 to 200	0.675
201 to 250	0.65
251 to 300	0.625

261

262

263 Table 2: Disjunctive and conjunctive power $1 - \beta$ of equal-size allocation (ESA) and square-root
264 allocation (SRA) for different values of k and N [see next page]

265

266

267 Figure captions

268

269 Fig. 1: Disjunctive and conjunctive power of equal-size allocation (ESA) and square-root
270 allocation (SRA) for different values of k and N

271 A: $k = 2$ treatment groups

272 B: $k = 3$ treatment groups

273 C: $k = 4$ treatment groups

274 D: $k = 5$ treatment groups

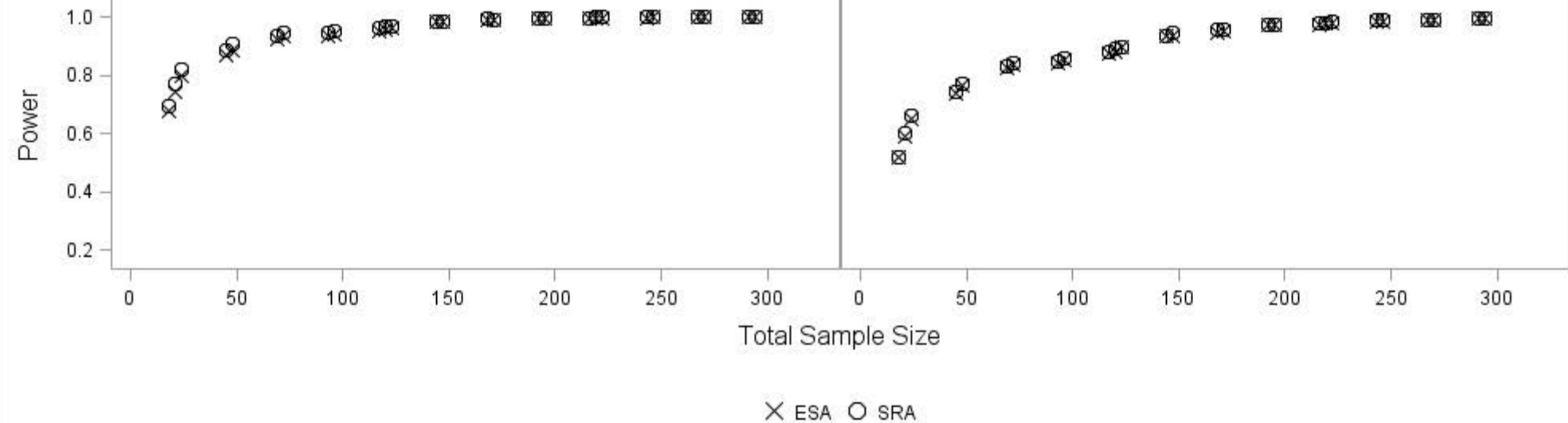
275 E: $k = 6$ treatment groups

276 Fig. 2: Comparison between disjunctive and conjunctive power for equal-size allocation (ESA),
277 square-root allocation (SRA), and the optimal allocation (OA) for $k = 5$ and $N = 102$
278

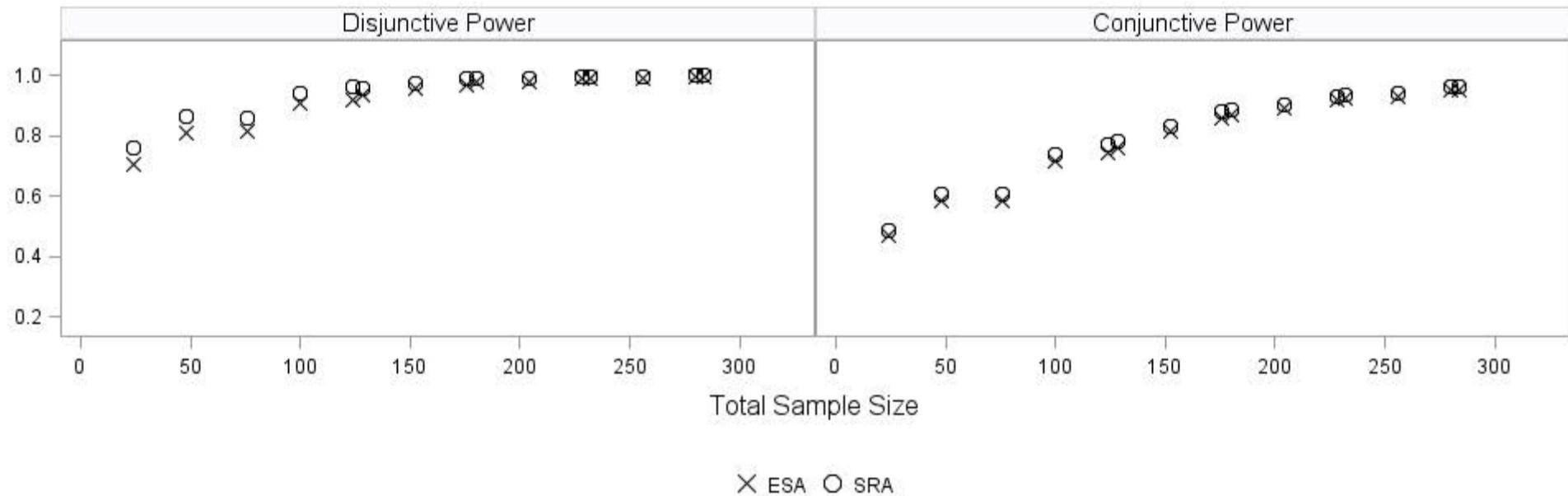
k	N	μ_i	Square root allocation				Equal size allocation			
			n_0	n	$1 - \beta$		n_0	n	$1 - \beta$	
					disjunctive	conjunctive			disjunctive	conjunctive
2	18	1.200	8	5	0.6930	0.5195	6	6	0.6760	0.5202
2	21	1.200	9	6	0.7696	0.6016	7	7	0.7449	0.5918
2	24	1.200	10	7	0.8197	0.6620	8	8	0.7998	0.6524
2	45	0.950	19	13	0.8837	0.7440	15	15	0.8675	0.7354
2	48	0.950	20	14	0.9048	0.7728	16	16	0.8879	0.7641
2	69	0.850	29	20	0.9350	0.8278	23	23	0.9218	0.8236
2	72	0.850	30	21	0.9438	0.8441	24	24	0.9341	0.8354
2	93	0.750	39	27	0.9479	0.8486	31	31	0.9371	0.8415
2	96	0.750	40	28	0.9523	0.8584	32	32	0.9426	0.8512
2	117	0.700	49	34	0.9639	0.8806	39	39	0.9506	0.8726
2	120	0.700	50	35	0.9659	0.8882	40	40	0.9585	0.8819
2	123	0.700	51	36	0.9696	0.8953	41	41	0.9646	0.8946
2	144	0.700	60	42	0.9850	0.9366	48	48	0.9824	0.9344
2	147	0.700	61	43	0.9861	0.9428	49	49	0.9824	0.9373
2	168	0.675	70	49	0.9926	0.9545	56	56	0.9876	0.9479
2	171	0.675	71	50	0.9919	0.9552	57	57	0.9876	0.9524
2	192	0.675	80	56	0.9963	0.9736	64	64	0.9941	0.9707
2	195	0.675	81	57	0.9961	0.9736	65	65	0.9939	0.9709
2	216	0.650	90	63	0.9971	0.9784	72	72	0.9940	0.9732
2	219	0.650	91	64	0.9976	0.9810	73	73	0.9970	0.9764
2	222	0.650	92	65	0.9977	0.9813	74	74	0.9966	0.9800
2	243	0.650	101	71	0.9981	0.9867	81	81	0.9974	0.9856
2	246	0.650	102	72	0.9983	0.9878	82	82	0.9978	0.9866
2	267	0.625	111	78	0.9990	0.9884	89	89	0.9982	0.9874
2	270	0.625	112	79	0.9993	0.9896	90	90	0.9986	0.9890
2	291	0.625	121	85	0.9990	0.9932	97	97	0.9994	0.9928
2	294	0.625	122	86	0.9997	0.9938	98	98	0.9991	0.9931
3	24	1.200	9	5	0.7606	0.4857	6	6	0.7057	0.4696
3	48	0.950	18	10	0.8615	0.6048	12	12	0.8097	0.5830
3	76	0.750	28	16	0.8602	0.6056	19	19	0.8130	0.5842
3	100	0.750	37	21	0.9410	0.7397	25	25	0.9055	0.7134
3	124	0.700	46	26	0.9595	0.7716	31	31	0.9204	0.7455
3	128	0.700	47	27	0.9576	0.7826	32	32	0.9319	0.7605
3	152	0.675	56	32	0.9751	0.8297	38	38	0.9552	0.8121
3	176	0.675	65	37	0.9867	0.8775	44	44	0.9693	0.8552
3	180	0.675	66	38	0.9875	0.8851	45	45	0.9757	0.8688
3	204	0.650	75	43	0.9912	0.9035	51	51	0.9804	0.8891
3	228	0.650	84	48	0.9962	0.9316	57	57	0.9881	0.9186
3	232	0.650	85	49	0.9966	0.9347	58	58	0.9890	0.9224
3	256	0.625	94	54	0.9959	0.9410	64	64	0.9901	0.9285
3	280	0.625	103	59	0.9982	0.9593	70	70	0.9944	0.9490
3	284	0.625	104	60	0.9981	0.9603	71	71	0.9946	0.9510
4	30	0.950	10	5	0.6179	0.2924	6	6	0.5486	0.2834
4	60	0.850	20	10	0.8328	0.4825	12	12	0.7565	0.4542
4	90	0.750	30	15	0.8819	0.5540	18	18	0.8124	0.5180
4	120	0.700	40	20	0.9289	0.6304	24	24	0.8706	0.5992
4	150	0.700	50	25	0.9677	0.7376	30	30	0.9258	0.7008
4	180	0.675	60	30	0.9803	0.7895	36	36	0.9491	0.7520
4	210	0.650	70	35	0.9851	0.8184	42	42	0.9640	0.7911
4	240	0.650	80	40	0.9942	0.8738	48	48	0.9772	0.8426
4	270	0.625	90	45	0.9952	0.8868	54	54	0.9809	0.8567
4	300	0.625	100	50	0.9982	0.9182	60	60	0.9889	0.8915
5	66	0.850	21	9	0.8310	0.4240	11	11	0.7296	0.3929
5	102	0.700	32	14	0.8556	0.4524	17	17	0.7567	0.4182
5	138	0.700	43	19	0.9342	0.5937	23	23	0.8637	0.5524
5	174	0.675	54	24	0.9660	0.6757	29	29	0.9138	0.6268
5	210	0.650	65	29	0.9794	0.7259	35	35	0.9354	0.6826
6	77	0.750	23	9	0.7674	0.3112	11	11	0.6416	0.2838
6	119	0.700	35	14	0.8833	0.4412	17	17	0.7715	0.3981
6	161	0.675	47	19	0.9389	0.5472	23	23	0.8510	0.4929
6	203	0.650	59	24	0.9673	0.6241	29	29	0.8942	0.5670

Disjunctive Power

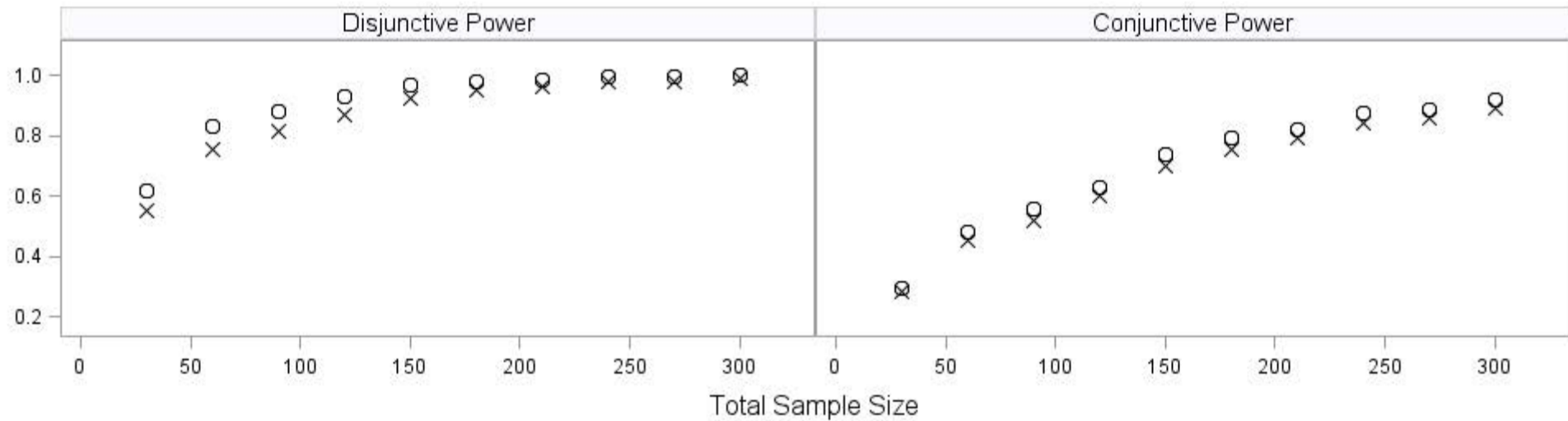
Conjunctive Power



Power



Power



× ESA ○ SRA

Power

Disjunctive Power

Conjunctive Power

1.0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

50

100

150

200

250

300

Total Sample Size

0

50

100

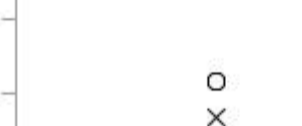
150

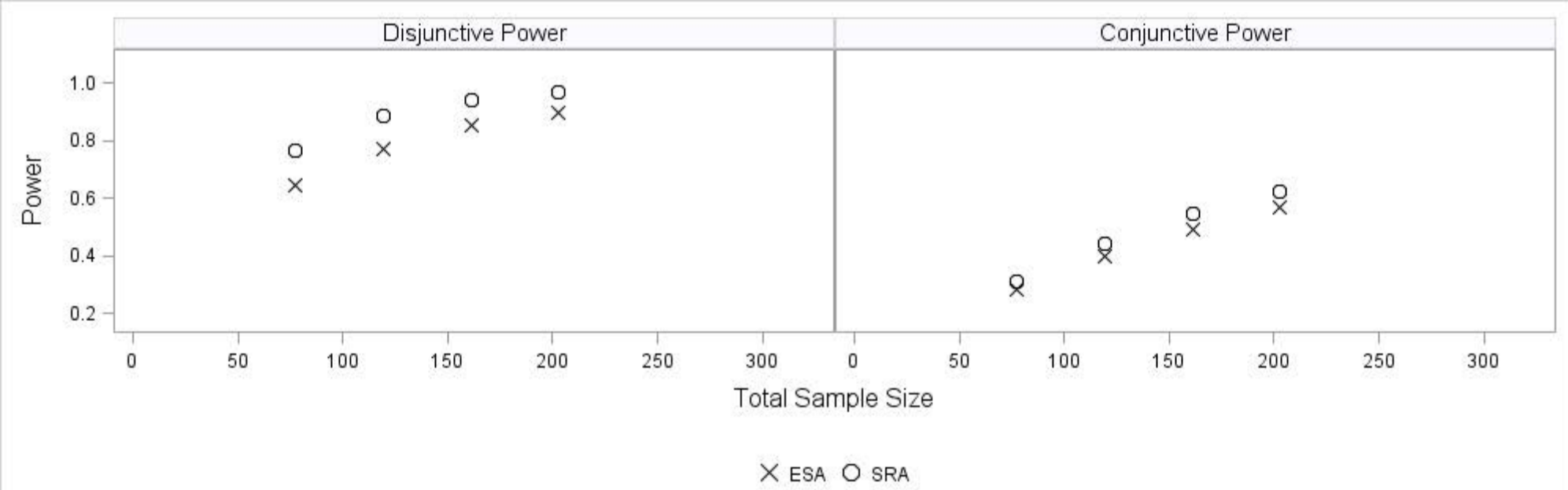
200

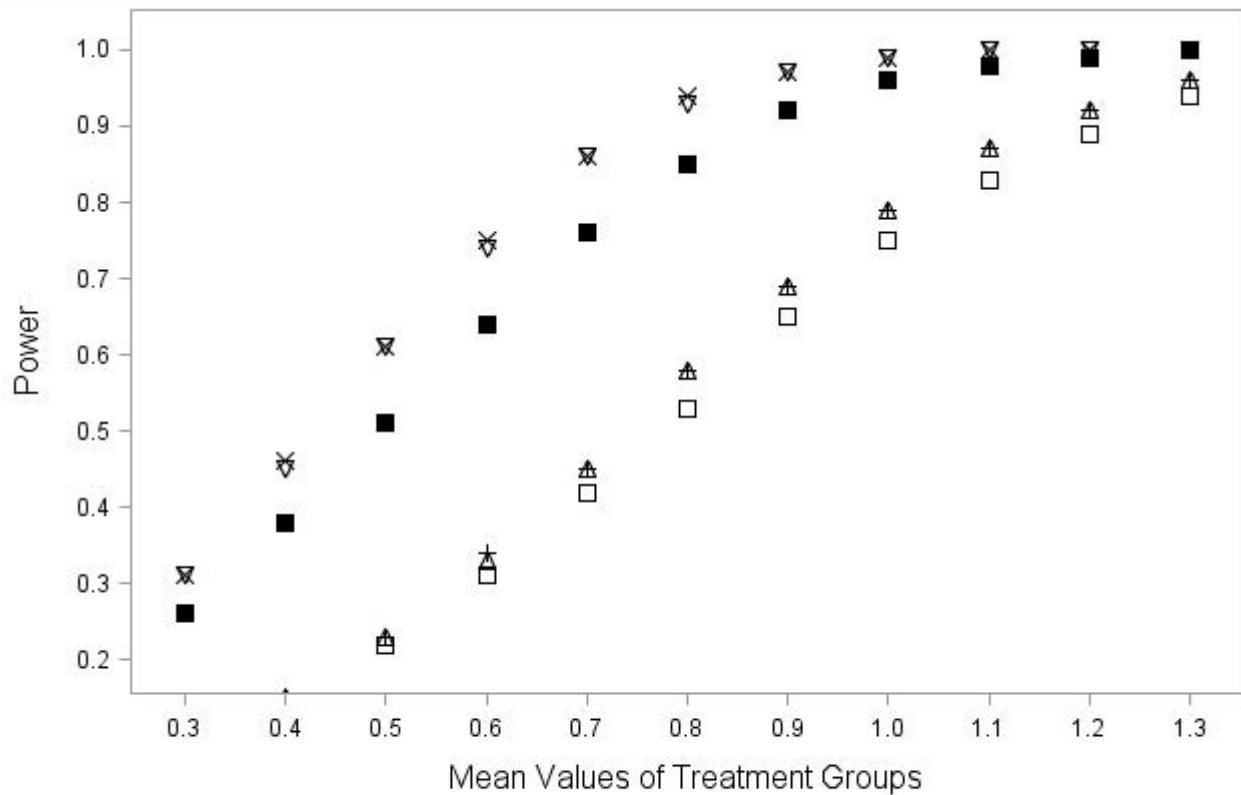
250

300

X ESA O SRA







+ Conjunctive Power - OA Δ Conjunctive Power - SRA □ Conjunctive Power - ESA
 × Disjunctive Power - OA ▽ Disjunctive Power - SRA ■ Disjunctive Power - ESA