Correlation Power analysis Analysis of variance (ANOVA) Multiple hypothesis testing



Biostatistics Course 2023 Lecture 4 Thursday, 27 July 2023 1:00pm - 3:00pm

Correlation

sensitivity	fatty_acid
250	17.9
220	18.3
145	18.3
115	18.4
230	18.4
200	20.2
330	20.3
400	21.8
370	21.9
260	22.1
270	23.1
530	24.2
375	24

Borkman et al. (1993) wanted to understand why insulin sensitivity varies so much among individuals. They hypothesized that the lipid composition of the cell membranes of skeletal muscle affects the sensitivity of the muscle for insulin.

They determined the insulin sensitivity of N = 13healthy men by infusing insulin at a standard rate (adjusting for size differences) and quantifying how much glucose they needed to infuse to maintain a constant a blood glucose level...

They also took a small muscle biopsy from each subject and measured its fatty acid composition. We'll focus on the fraction of of polyunsaturated fatty acids that have between 20 and 22 carbon atoms ("fatty_acid").

Correlation is used to describe relationships between real-numbered variables

- a measure of relatedness of two variables, X and Y
- independent of measurement units
- ranges between -1 and 1



summary statistics

	pearson
N	13
r	0.77
95% CI	[0.38, 0.93]
r ²	0.593
P-val	0.00207701

The formula for variance is

$$\widehat{\operatorname{var}}(x) = \sigma_x^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i - \hat{\mu}_x)^2$$

Covariance is estimated in a manner similar to variance

$$\widehat{\text{cov}}(x, y) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_x)(y_i - \hat{\mu}_y)$$

The corresponding "correlation coefficient" is

$$r = \frac{\widehat{\operatorname{cov}}(x, y)}{\widehat{\sigma}_x \, \widehat{\sigma}_y}$$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pearson_correlation_coefficient

This is what the correlation coefficient looks like



Pearson's *r* ranges from -1 to 1.

r = 0 implies independence or no relationship, i.e. $p(x, y) = p(x) \cdot p(y)$.

 $r = \pm 1$ when the two variables share a deterministic linear relationship.

r close to 1 implies nearly perfect positive dependence

r close to -1 implies nearly perfect negative dependence

Adding a constant to all x or all y, or a multiplicative rescaling of all x or all y, do not change r.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pearson_correlation_coefficient

This is what the correlation coefficient looks like



In the deterministic case, *r* is unaffected by the magnitude of the slope relating two variables, while the sign of *r* is equal to the sign of the slope.



Sometimes r = 0 when two variables have a non-linear relationship. Note that the correlation coefficient only captures **linear relationships** between two variables.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pearson_correlation_coefficient



Cor[x,y] = -0.01

The <u>coefficient of determination</u> is simply r^2 , which is also often written as R^2 .

 r^2 is always between 0 and 1 (inclusive)

Remember that $r^2 \leq |r|$, so beware of people reporting *r* instead of r^2 to make a correlation seem stronger.

 r^2 is commonly interpreted as the <u>fraction of variance</u> in y explained by x (or the other way around). Null hypothesis is "no correlation between the variables"

 $H_0: \rho = 0$

Alternative hypothesis is "there is a relationship between the variables"

 $H_a: \rho \neq 0$ (two-sided), or $H_a: \rho < 0$ (one-sided less, or) $H_a: \rho > 0$ (one-sided greater)

Test statistic is t-statistic that has a t_{n-2} under the null hypothesis

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}$$

Null hypothesis is "no correlation between the variables"

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Alternative hypothesis is "there is a relationship between the variables"

$H_a: \rho \neq 0$	(two-sided), or
$H_a: \rho < 0$	(one-sided less, or)
$H_a: \rho > 0$	(one-sided greater)

Lots of different-looking datasets will have the same value for r.

"Anscombe's quartet": r = 0.816 for all 4 datasets



Anscombe, F. J. (1973). "Graphs in Statistical Analysis". American Statistician. 27 (1): 17–21.

Interpreting the correlation coefficient *r*, and especially the associated P-value, requires multiple assumptions:

- Each data point (x, y) is independently sampled from a 2D Gaussian distribution.
- In particular, *x* and *y* each follow a 1D Gaussian distribution
- All covariation between x and y is **linear**, with perfect concordance disrupted only by Gaussian noise.

There are usually many explanations for why two variables might correlate

Possible reasons for a correlation between lipid levels and insulin sensitivity:

- The lipid content of membranes affects insulin sensitivity
- The insulin sensitivity affects membrane lipid content
- Both insulin sensitivity and lipid content are under the control of some third factor, such as a hormone.
- Lipid content, insulin sensitivity, and other factors are all part of a complex molecular/biochemical/physiological network, perhaps with positive and/or negative feedback components. The correlation observed is just a peak at a much more complex set of interdependent relationships.
- Membrane lipid content and insulin sensitivity don't actually correlate at all; the result is just a coincidence.

Correlation is NOT causation!!!

XY

Colun

Group

Survival

Nested

EXISTING FILE

Open a File

LabArchives

Clone a Graph

Graph Portfolio

Continger cy

Parts of Whole

Multiple variables

GraphPad

NEW TABLE & GRAPH

Welcome to GraphPad Prism

XY tables: Each point is defined by an X and Y coordinate



Data table:

O Enter or import data into a new table

Start with sample data to follow a tutorial

Options:

- X: ONUmbers
 - Numbers with error values to plot horizontal error bars
 - Dates

Elapsed times

- Y: Enter and plot a single Y value for each point
 - replicate values in side-by-side subcolumns ter 3

nter and plot error values already calculated elsewhere



Prism Tips



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		11	Title	270	23.1	
		12	Title	530	24.2	
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Survival analyses	Select All Deselect All
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Compute r for X vs. every Y data set:	
X: sensitivity	\$
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X: sensitivity	\$
A: fatty_acids	\$
ssume data are sampled from Gaussian distributions?	
• Yes. Compute Pearson correlation coefficients	
No. Compute nonparametric Spearman correlation	
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	-	6	P value		
Family	>>	7	P (two-tailed)	0.0021	
		8	P value summary	**	
		9	Significant? (alpha = 0.05)	Yes	
		10			
		11	Number of XY Pairs	13	
		12			
		13			
		1/			

Spearman's rank correlation is a non-parametric measure of dependence

Spearman's ρ is just Pearson's *r* computed on the ranks of the *x* and *y* values which is a robust measure of correlation.

X	У
17.9	250
18.3	220
18.3	145
18.4	115
18.4	230
20.2	200
20.3	330
21.8	400
21.9	370
22.1	260
23.1	270
24.2	530
24.4	375

x rank	y rank
1.0	6.0
2.5	4.0
2.5	2.0
4.5	1.0
4.5	5.0
6.0	3.0
7.0	9.0
8.0	12.0
9.0	10.0
10.0	7.0
11.0	8.0
12.0	13.0
13.0	11.0

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spearman%27s_rank_correlation_coefficient

compute correlation	n between which pairs of columns?
Compute r for ev	very pair of Y data sets (Correlation matrix)
Compute r for X	vs. every Y data set:
X: sensitivity	\$
O Compute r betw	een two selected data sets:
X: sensitivity	\$
A: fatty_acids	\$
Assume data are sa	mpled from Gaussian distributions?
Yes. Compute P	earson correlation coefficients
No. Compute no	onparametric Spearman correlation
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Power analysis

power:

The probability of getting a statistically significant result if the null hypothesis actually is actually false.

power analysis:

The process of assigning and/or computing four quantities (sometimes more) that describe one's experiment:

- 1. The sample size N
- 2. The false positive probability α (confidence = 1α)
- 3. The false negative probability β (power = 1β)
- 4. The anticipated effect size

Motulsky, Ch. 20

- 1. Confidence level: $1 \alpha = 95 \%$
- 2. Number of birth records: N = 19500
- 3. Hypothesized effect size: |p(boy) p(girl)| = 2%

The key parameter is q = p(boy), so we use $q_{null} = 50 \%$, $q_{alt} = 51 \%$



4. We compute a statistical power of: $1 - \beta = 80 \%$



False Negative Probability: $\beta = 0.20$ (or 80% power)

There are four relevant parameters: N, α , β , and effect size.

Power analysis involves <u>assuming values for any three parameters</u> and <u>computing the value of the forth</u>

"Controlling the false positive rate at $\alpha = 5~\%$, the statistical power at $1 - \beta = 80~\%$, and assuming an effect size of 2~%, our study will require using N = 19500 birth records."

"Using N=19500 birth records, controlling the false positive rate at $\alpha=5~\%$, and assuming a $2~\%\,$ effect size, our study will have $1-\beta=80~\%\,$ power."

"Controlling the false positive rate at $\alpha = 5$ %, the statistical power at $1 - \beta = 80$ %, and using N = 19500 birth records, our study will be sensitive to an effect size of 2 %."

"Using N = 19500 birth records, assuming an effect size of 2 %, and holding the statistical power to $1 - \beta = 80$ %, our study will be able to hold the false positive rate to $\alpha = 5$ %."

What happens to the sample size if:

- SD increases
- Power increases
- Detectable difference decreases
- Level of significance decreases

You are supposed to do this:

- 1. Assume a false positive rate of $\alpha = 5\%$ (standard)
- 2. Assume a power of $1 \beta = 80 \%$ (standard)
- 3. Assume what you consider to be a biologically significant effect size
- 4. Compute & use the required sample size N.

You'll actually probably do this:

- 1. Assume a false positive rate of $\alpha = 5$ % (standard).
- 2. Assume a power of $1 \beta = 80 \%$ (standard)

If the detectable 3. Assume a reasonable / affordable sample size *N* effect size 4. Compute & report the detectable effect size. is too small

- 1. Assume a false positive rate of $\alpha = 5$ % (standard).
- 2. Assume a power of $1 \beta = 80\%$ (standard)
- 3. Assume what you consider to be a biologically significant effect size: $\Delta \mu \ge 0.1$ F. $\Delta \mu = 0.2$ F The key parameter is the "normalized effect size": $\frac{\Delta \mu}{\sigma}$ From preliminary data, we know $\sigma \approx 0.7$ F
- 4. Compute the required sample size: N = 1540 N = 386Too big! OK.

There are a number of online power analysis calculators

http://powerandsamplesize.com/



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Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Where we stand: to compare numerical data in multiple independent groups



Assumptions:

- Errors should be random and independent
- Normality
- Homogeneity of variances

If assumptions violated,

- Transform your data and see if they meet assumptions
- If still violated, try nonparametric approach (Kruskal-Wallis test)

- Idea: Instead of doing multiple pairs of comparisons, why don't we do a single test?
 - This test will tell us whether there is difference in any of the means.
 - We do multiple comparisons between pairs **only after** we know there is difference in means across the groups.

• Hypotheses:

•

•

- H₀: All group means are the same. (H₀: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = ... = \mu_p$)
- H_a: At least one group mean is different.

Process:

- (p> α) fail to reject H₀ \rightarrow all group means are the same \rightarrow No further investigation
- \circ (p<α) reject H₀ → At least one group mean is different → Post-hoc analysis (i.e., pairwise comparison) to identify which group(s) mean(s) are significantly different.

One-way ANOVA example: hormone levels in runners

Hetland et al. (1993) investigated the level of luteinizing hormone (LH) in runners. Runners were classified into three groups: elite runners, recreational runners, and nonrunners.



GROUP	LOG(LH)	SD	SEM	Ν
nonrunners	0.52	0.25	0.027	88
recreational runners	0.38	0.32	0.034	89
elite runners	0.40	0.26	0.049	28
One-way ANOVA analyzes whether group means are significantly different

Null hypothesis: All group means are the same

Alternative hypothesis: At least one group mean is different



One-way ANOVA analyzes whether group means are significantly different



The null hypothesis, implies that: $F \sim FDist(DF_{between}, DF_{within})$

One-way ANOVA analyzes whether group means are significantly different



	SOURCE OF VARIATION	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MS	F RATIO	P VALUE	
	Between groups	0.93	2	0.46	5.69	0.0039	
-	Within groups (resid.)	16.45	202	0.081			
=	Total	17.38	204				

This shows that the at least one group have significantly different mean. It does **NOT**, however, tell which means are different. If there are differences in means, *post-hoc analysis* are typically required to identify which groups are different.

Tukey's test analyzes which pairwise comparisons in a one-way ANOVA, if any, are significant.



Tukey's test automatically incorporates the necessary multiple hypothesis correction into the test of significance.

There are other ANOVA post-hoc tests as well.

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Welcome to GraphPad Prism



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Two-way ANOVA tests whether to see if there is an interaction between groups

(data curtsey of Tobias Janowitz)

Null model: $y_i = \beta_0 + \epsilon_i$

Alternative model #1: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$

Alternative model #2: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \beta_{12} x_{i1} x_{i2} + \epsilon_i$ interaction term

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Welcome to GraphPad Prism

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Remove baseline and column math	
Transpose X and Y	
Fraction of Total	
▶ XY analyses	
Column analyses	
Grouped analyses	
Two-way ANOVA (or mixed model)	
Three-way ANOVA (or mixed model)	
Row means with SD or SEM	
Multiple t tests - one per row	
Contingency table analyses	
Survival analyses	
Parts of whole analyses	
Multiple variable analyses	
Nested analyses	
Nested analyses Generate curve	

1		Para	meters: Two-Way	ANOVA (or Mixed Model)	
	RM Design	RM Analysis	Factor Names	Multiple Comparisons	Options Residuals
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R	/ Design	RM Analysis	Factor Names	Multiple Comparisons	Options Residua	ls
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ODor	't correct	for multiple com	parisons. Each c	omparison stands alone.		
Tes	t: Fisher's	s LSD test				
Aultiple	comparis	ons options				
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Q~ Search	E ANOVA results × E Multiple comparisons × ×											
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PPARa	6	Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?						
▼ Lavouts	» 7	Interaction	9.695	0.0291	*	Yes						
Hew Layout	8	Row Factor	57.11	<0.0001	****	Yes						
	9	Column Factor	7.185	0.0561	ns	No						
	10											
	11	ANOVA table	SS (Type III)	DF	MS	F (DFn, DFd)	P value					
	12	Interaction	0.4856	1	0.4856	F (1, 18) = 5.623	P=0.0291					
	13	Row Factor	2.860	1	2.860	F (1, 18) = 33.12	P<0.0001					
0	14	Column Factor	0.3599	1	0.3599	F (1, 18) = 4.167	P=0.0561					
Family	» 15	Residual	1.554	18	0.08636							
= 2way ANOVA	16											
	17	Difference between column means										
	18	Predicted (LS) mean of LM	1.515									
	19	Predicted (LS) mean of C26	1.256									
	20	Difference between predicted means	0.2585									
	21	SE of difference	0.1266									
	22	95% CI of difference	-0.007533 to 0.5246									
	23											
	24	Difference between row means										
	25	Predicted (LS) mean of NF	1.021									
	26	Predicted (LS) mean of KD	1.750									
	27	Difference between predicted means	-0.7288									
	28	SE of difference	0.1266									
	29	95% CI of difference	-0.9949 to -0.4628									
	20		OVA of PPARa	<u>لہ</u>	P ▼ Row 1. Column A					Θ		•

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Q- Search	ANOVA results × = Multiple comparisons × ×												
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▼ Layouts »>	7	Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Significant?	Summary	Adjusted P Value							
0	8												
	9	NF:LM vs. NF:C26	-0.04178	No	ns	0.8247							
	10	NF:LM vs. KD:LM	-1.029	Yes	***	0.0002							
	11	NF:LM vs. KD:C26	-0.4703	Yes	*	0.0404							
	12	NF:C26 vs. KD:LM	-0.9874	Yes	***	0.0002							
	13	NF:C26 vs. KD:C26	-0.4285	Yes	*	0.0450							
• Eamily	14	KD:LM vs. KD:C26	0.5588	Yes	*	0.0178							
I PPARa	15												
E 2way ANOVA	16												
	17	Test details	Predicted (LS) mean 1	Predicted (LS) mean 2	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	SE of diff.	N1	N2	t	DF			
	18												
	19	NF:LM vs. NF:C26	1.000	1.042	-0.04178	0.1859	5	5	0.2248	18.00			
	20	NF:LM vs. KD:LM	1.000	2.029	-1.029	0.1859	5	5	5.537	18.00			
	21	NF:LM vs. KD:C26	1.000	1.470	-0.4703	0.1721	5	7	2.733	18.00			
	22	NF:C26 vs. KD:LM	1.042	2.029	-0.9874	0.1859	5	5	5.313	18.00			
	23	NF:C26 vs. KD:C26	1.042	1.470	-0.4285	0.1721	5	7	2.490	18.00			
	24	KD:LM vs. KD:C26	2.029	1.470	0.5588	0.1721	5	7	3.248	18.00			
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Multiple hypothesis testing

The problem of multiple subgroups

https://xkcd.com/882/

The family-wise error rate increases rapidly with the number of tests performed

Scenario:

we perform null hypothesis tests on K independent datasets, for each of which the null hypothesis is true.

Family-wise error rate:

Probability of having at least one false positives in multiple comparisons

 $p(\text{FP} \ge 1 | \text{null hypothesis}) = 1 - \text{confidence}^{K}$

FWER for different number of comparisons given different significance levels:

	1	3	6	10	15	21	28	36	45
0.05	0.05	0.14	0.26	0.4	0.54	0.66	0.76	0.84	0.90
0.01	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.1	0.14	0.19	0.25	0.30	0.36

Approach	What you control	Expression
No correction	α: if all null hypotheses are true, the <u>fraction of tests</u> that produce a significant result	$\alpha = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{FP} + \text{TN}}$
Bonferroni / Dunn-Sidak	 α: if all null hypotheses are true, the <u>chance of obtaining one or</u> <u>more</u> significant results 	$\alpha = p(\#\text{FP} > 0)$
False discovery rate (FDR)	Q: the fraction of all discoveries for which the null hypothesis is actually true	$Q = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{FP} + \text{TP}}$

Lucas et al. (2005)

Bonferroni correction:

$$\alpha_{\text{Bonferroni}} = \frac{\alpha}{K}$$

Dunn-Sidak correction:

$$\alpha_{DS} = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^{1/K}$$

Dunn-Sidak is the exact solution; Bonferroni is an approximation

Example: differential expression (simulation)

First, convert data to p-values

Benjamini–Hochberg procedure

Choose α_{BH} such to match the target False Discovery Rate (10% here):

$$FDR = Q = \frac{FP}{TP + FP} = \frac{P}{P}$$

Declare all P-values below $\alpha_{\rm BH}$ as "discoveries".

"Most scientists are oblivious to the problems of multiplicities. Yet they are everywhere. In one or more of its forms, multiplicities are present in every statistical application. They may be out in the open or hidden. And even if they are out in the open, recognizing them is but the first step in a difficult process of inference. Problems of multiplicities are the most difficult that we statisticians face. They threaten the validity of every statistical conclusion."

from Berry (2007, p. 155), in Motulsky, Ch. 23

multiple subgroups:

You perform tests on multiple subgroups of your data.

multiple ways to dichotomize:

You do pairwise comparisons between different combinations of subgroups.

multiple sample sizes:

You keep collecting data until you find P < 0.05.

DO NOT DO THIS.

multiple ways to preprocess the data:

You analyze data preprocessed in multiple different ways.

multiple statistical tests:

You use different statistical tests on the same data before finding P < 0.05.

Motulsky, Ch. 23

multiple ways to select relevant variables:

You try to model your data using different subsets of possible variables.

multiple ways to analyze your data ("garden of forking paths"):

You try lots of qualitatively different analysis strategies.

outcome switching:

You change the quantity you care about after you've looked at the data.

multiple geographic areas:

E.g., you investigate a "cancer cluster" you hear about in the news.

Motulsky, Ch. 23

Scenario 1:

If readers can be reasonably expected to account for multiple comparisons on their own.

Scenario 2:

Before looking at the data, you have clearly defined one outcome as primary and others as secondary.

Scenario 3:

You make only a few planned comparisons and your P-values are not marginal.

Scenario 4:

A large fraction the tests you perform are significant.

Motulsky, Ch. 19
Practical advice of avoiding multiple hypothesis pitfalls

Raise your standards: use $\alpha = 0.01$, not $\alpha = 0.05$.

Separate exploratory data analysis from confirmatory data analysis.

Distinguish <u>critical p-values</u> from <u>ancillary p-values</u>.

Don't spend too much time analyzing a small dataset.

When generating small expensive datasets (e.g. mice), blind your experiments as best you can, and plan your analysis ahead of time

When in doubt, double-check your hypothesis with <u>new data</u>

Don't worry about informal multiple hypothesis testing when $P < 10^{-4}$.

Questions?