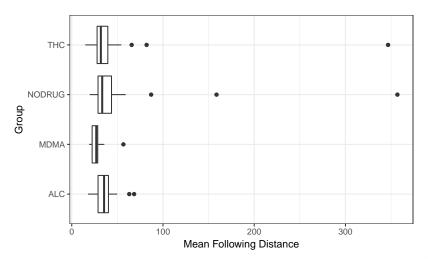
### Transformations and Outliers

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#### **Outliers**

- We've previously analyzed the tailgating data when learning about the Bonferroni adjustment
- ▶ In that analysis I neglected to show several large outliers



#### Practice - Outliers

With your group, load the Tailgating Data into Minitab (the variable "D" contains each subject's average following distance), then:

- Use Minitab to evaluate the difference mean following distances for the MDMA and THC groups using a two-sample t-test (Hint: perform the test using summary statistics)
- 2. Manually delete the outlier in the THC group and repeat the test
- 3. How does the p-value change after deleting the outlier?

#### Outliers

- ▶ With the outlier included the *p*-value of the *t*-test is 0.09
- ▶ If the outlier is deleted, the *p*-value is 0.03
- ▶ It is tempting to remove the outlier, imagine your team spent hundreds of hours on this study. . .
  - But should the outlier be discarded?
- Selectively discarding data raises major ethical questions
  - p-values calculated when data is selectively discarded are at best questionable and at worst meaningless
  - Unfortunately these situations occur regularly and can be impossible for outsiders discover

## Is it Ever Okay to Remove Outliers?

- ▶ Discarding recorded data should be approached with caution, but sometimes there are valid reasons to remove outliers:
  - ► Recording/measurement errors (a pulse of 0, or a "teen" with an age of 155)
  - Or, in the tailgating study, the outliers could have been individuals who weren't taking the study seriously
  - In any of these cases those values don't belong in the analysis and should be excluded
- ► When outliers are real data points, it is better to alter the analysis approach instead of manipulating the raw data
- Sometimes, outliers are the most interesting and important components of the data
  - ▶ A famous example involves NASA's monitoring of the Earth's ozone layer

### Ozone, Outliers, and the Nimbus-7

- ► In the mid 1980's a large hole in the ozone layer above Antarctica was discovered, garnering worldwide attention
- ➤ Since the early 1970's, NASA had been monitoring the Earth's atmosphere using data collected by the satellite Nimbus-7
  - However, this data collection seemed to have completely missed the ozone hole! Or did it...
- Technology in the 1970s was prone to measurement errors, leading scientists build data processing programs that automatically discarded certain unusual observations as errors
- During the controversy of the 1980's, scientists revisited the Nimbus-7 raw data (including what was automatically being discarded)
  - Evidence of the ozone hole existed nearly a decade earlier, but in the data that was being automatically excluded!

## How to Analyze Data with Outliers

- As demonstrated in the drug use and tailgating example, outliers can severely reduce the power of many statistical tests
- There are two popular approaches to analyzing data with outliers:
  - Transform the variable of interest so that its distribution is more normal
  - ▶ Use a **non-parametric test** (ie: test the difference in medians)
- We'll first explore the former approach, specifically using log-transformation

## Logarithms

Statisticians use "log" to refer to what most call the natural logarithm:

$$log(X) = T \leftrightarrow X = e^{T}$$

A key property of logarithms is that differences on the log-scale correspond with ratios on the original scale after exponentiating:

$$log(X) - log(Y) = log(X/Y)$$
$$e^{log(X/Y)} = X/Y$$

### Logarithms - Example

- For the tailgating study, we can perform a log-transformation using a Minitab formula creating new columns containing "log(following distance)"
- ► For the THC and MDMA groups, the means of this new variable are 3.54 and 3.28 respectively
  - ▶ The difference in means on the log-scale is 0.26
  - = exp(0.26) = 1.30 = mean following distance of THC group is 30% higher than the mean in the MDMA group
- ► This concept applies to confidence intervals too:
  - ► The 95% CI on the log-scale is (0.05, 0.47), which we can exponentiate to (1.05, 1.60)
  - ▶ So we can be 95% confident the mean following distance is somewhere between 5% and 60% higher for THC users in the population these data represent

## Logarithms - Additional Details

- ▶ On a technical note,  $\sum log(x_i)/n \neq log(\sum x_i/n)$ ; the exponentiated mean of the log-transformed data is actually the geometric mean
  - ► So 1.30 (in the last example) was actually the ratio of geometric means, not the ratio of arithmetic means
  - This is a technical detail which I mention for completeness, it is not an important distinction practically speaking
  - the big picture take-away is that analyzing the log-transformed data allows us to measure relative changes across groups (after the transformation is undone via exponentiation)

## Example - Applying the Log-transformation

#### Using the Tailgating Data:

- 1. Use a Minitab formula to create a new variable: "LogDistance", check that it matches the existing variable "LD"
- 2. Construct the 95% confidence interval for the mean *relative increase* in following distance of No Drug and THC users
- Perform a two-sample t-test using the log-transformed data for No Drug and THC groups, compare the results with a two-sample t-test on the untransformed data

## Example - Solution

- 1. Not shown
- 2. The 95% CI on the log scale is (-0.151, 0.318), exponentiating the interval yields (0.86, 1.37) which it's plausible that the mean following distance in the "no drug" group could be anywhere from 14% shorter to 37% longer than the THC group
- 3. The test statistic on the log scale is 0.71 and the *p*-value is 0.478, on the original scale the test statistic is 0.39 and the *p*-value is 0.70.

The test is much more powerful on the log-transformed data, though neither test indicates a statistically significant difference in the average following distance of these two groups.

#### Remarks

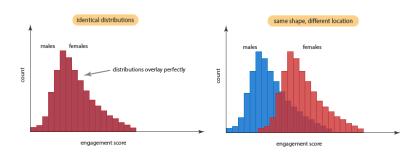
- There are many transformations that statisticians sometimes apply to non-normally distributed data
  - The log-transformation is popular because it retains interpretability (we can use exponentiation make relative comparisons)
- Non-parametric tests are a completely different alternative to transforming the data
  - ► In the slides that follow I will briefly introduce a couple of non-parametric analogs to the one-sample and two-sample t-tests
  - You will not be responsible for understanding the details of these tests, but you should be aware of when they might be used (and you should consider them for your final project)

# Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (one-sample test)

- ► The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test is a non-parametric analog to the one-sample *t*-test (single mean)
  - ▶ It is most often used to test whether the *median difference* in a paired design is zero
- Formally, the test specifies  $H_0$ :  $m=m_0$ , or the median is some theoretical median
  - It proceeds by ranking the data-points (1:N) based upon how far they are from  $m_0$
  - Next signs are given to these ranks based upon whether the data-point was above  $m_0$  (+ sign) or below  $m_0$  (- sign)
  - ► Under the null hypothesis, the sum of the signed-ranks is expected to be zero, so we can use this sum to derive a null distribution and a *p*-value (something we won't cover)

## Mann-Whitney U-test (two-sample test)

- ► The Mann-Whitney U-test is commonly used as a non-parametric analog to the two-sample t-test (difference in means)
  - It tests whether the location of one distribution is shifted relative to another
  - ▶ In doing so it makes no assumptions regarding the shape of the distributions (they could both be skewed, have outliers, etc.)



# Mann-Whitney U-test (two-sample test)

- Formally, the Mann-Whitney U-test specifies  $H_0: \operatorname{dist}(X_1) = \operatorname{dist}(X_2)$  and  $H_A: \operatorname{dist}(X) \neq \operatorname{dist}(Y)$ 
  - ► It proceeds by ranking each data-point, regardless of group, from smallest to largest (1:N)
  - These ranks are summed within each group, yielding the quantities  $R_1$  and  $R_2$
  - $ightharpoonup R_1$  and  $R_2$ , along with  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are used to construct the U-statistic
- An exact test or a z-test can be performed using U (something we won't cover)

### Example - Non-parametric Tests in Minitab

- 1. Using the tailgating data, use a Mann-Whitney U-test to evaluate the difference in following distances of the No Drug and THC groups. How do the results of this test compare with the p-value of the t-test on the log-transformed data (0.48), and the p-value of the t-test on the un-transformed data (0.70)?
- 2. Using the wetsuits data, create a new column "difference" and then use the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test to evaluate whether swim velocity when wearing a wetsuit differs from swim velocity without a wetsuit. How do the results of this test compare with the *p*-value of the paired *t*-test (0.000)?

## Example - Solution

- 1. The *p*-value of the Mann-Whitney test is 0.43, a *p*-value that is very similar to the log-transformed result. This illustrates how a non-parametric test or a log-transformation can both be effective strategies for data with skew and/or outliers.
- The p-value of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test is 0.003, when the assumptions of parametric tests (such as the paired t-test) are satisfied that test is generally the more powerful than its non-parametric analogs.

#### Conclusion

#### Right now you should...

- 1. Understand the concerns involved with excluding outliers from a statistical analysis
- 2. Recognize situations where removing outliers is a appropriate
- 3. Understand how to apply and interpret log-transformations
- 4. Be aware of non-parametric tests as an alternatives to the one-sample and two-sample *t*-test

If you'd like another perspective on this topics read Ch 15 of "Introduction to the Practice of Statistics" available here: http://bcs.whfreeman.com/webpub/statistics/ips9e/9781319013387/companionchapters/companionchapter15.pdf