Lab Notes

Chapter 5

OpenIntro Biostatistics

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Lab 1 introduces hypothesis testing in the two-sample context, discussing the two-sample *t*-test for paired data and independent group data.

Lab 2 discusses the control of Type I and Type II error and explores the factors influencing the power of a statistical test via simulation.

Lab 3 introduces the analysis of variance procedure for comparing the means of several groups.

Lab 4 examines the multiple testing problem and concept of experiment-wise error in the context of the Golub leukemia data.

Lab 5 integrates the ideas of conditional probability and hypothesis testing to present a broader understanding of *p*-values, Type I error, and statistical power in a research context.

Lab 1: Two-Sample Tests

Hypothesis Testing with t.test(), cont.

The **t.test()** function has the following generic structure:

```
t.test(x, y, alternative = "two.sided", mu = 0, conf.level = 0.95, paired = FALSE)
```

where x and y are numeric vectors of data values, alternative specifies the form of the alternative hypothesis, mu is $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ (in the paired context, δ_0), and conf.level refers to the confidence level. The argument for alternative can be either "two.sided" ($H_A: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$), "less" ($H_A: \mu_1 < \mu_2$), or "greater" ($H_A: \mu_1 > \mu_2$). By default, confidence level is set to 95%, and a two-sided alternative is tested with the independent group test.

To conduct a test on data contained in variable y that is grouped by the variable x, use the tilde syntax:

```
t.test(y ~ x, ...)
```

The following example shows a hypothesis test for mean standing height in centimeters in the artificial NHANES population, using a random sample of 135 adults. The null hypothesis is that the population mean height for females is equal to the population mean height for males. A one-sided alternative is tested against the null; the output includes the *t*-statistic, degrees of freedom, *p*-value, 90% confidence interval, and the sample means of both groups.

```
##
##
   Welch Two Sample t-test
##
## data: nhanes.samp.adult$Height by nhanes.samp.adult$Gender
## t = -10.777, df = 132.95, p-value < 2.2e-16
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is less than 0
## 90 percent confidence interval:
         -Inf -11.91326
##
## sample estimates:
## mean in group female
                          mean in group male
##
               162.9729
                                    176.5031
```

The following example shows two ways to conduct a hypothesis test for the difference in mean maximal swim velocity between swimmers wearing wetsuits versus swimsuits. The data are paired, since each participant completed two trials: one wearing a wetsuit and one wearing a swimsuit. The null hypothesis of no difference of H_0 : $\delta = 0$ is tested against the two-sided alternative H_A : $\delta \neq 0$.

The first method uses the two-sample test syntax, while the second method uses the one-sample test syntax on the vector of velocity differences.

```
#load the data
library(oibiostat)
data("swim")
#two-sample test syntax
t.test(swim$wet.suit.velocity, swim$swim.suit.velocity, alternative = "two.sided",
       paired = TRUE)
##
##
  Paired t-test
##
## data: swim$wet.suit.velocity and swim$swim.suit.velocity
## t = 3.7019, df = 11, p-value = 0.00349
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to {\tt 0}
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.02534062 0.09965938
## sample estimates:
## mean of the differences
##
                    0.0625
#one-sample test syntax
t.test(swim$velocity.diff, mu = 0, alternative = "two.sided")
##
##
   One Sample t-test
##
## data: swim$velocity.diff
## t = 3.7019, df = 11, p-value = 0.00349
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.02534062 0.09965938
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
      0.0625
##
```

Lab 2: Statistical Power

Simulating Values from a Distribution

R has built-in functions for drawing random values from a distribution. The function rnorm() is used in Lab 2 to draw observations from normal distributions with specified parameter values. For reference, details for sampling values from other distributions are also discussed in this section.

The function **rnorm()** has the generic structure

```
rnorm(n, mean = 0, sd = 1)
```

where n is the number of observations sampled. By default, R assumes that mean and standard deviation are 0 and 1, respectively.

The following code shows how to draw 10 values from a normal distribution with mean 100 and standard deviation 5. As with any random sampling, it is necessary to specify a seed with set.seed() for the results to be reproducible.

```
#set seed for pseudorandom sampling
set.seed(2018)

#draw values
rnorm(10, mean = 100, sd = 5)

## [1] 97.88508 92.25061 99.67785 101.35441 108.67642 98.67644 110.49735
## [8] 104.31676 96.94706 103.18528
```

The function **rbinom()** has the generic structure

```
rbinom(n, size, prob)
```

where n is the number of observations sampled, size is the number of trials n, and prob is the probability of success p.

The following code shows how to draw 10 values from a binomial distribution with 10 trials and success probability 0.35.

```
rbinom(10, 10, 0.35)
## [1] 2 4 2 2 5 4 3 6 4 1
```

The function **rpois()** has the generic structure

```
rpois(n, lambda)
```

where n is the number of observations sampled and lambda is the rate parameter λ .

The following code shows how to draw 10 values from a Poisson distribution with rate parameter $\lambda = 3$.

```
rpois(10, 3)
```

```
## [1] 1 5 0 3 3 4 0 1 3 1
```

The function **rgeom()** has the generic structure

```
rgeom(n, prob)
```

where n is the number of observations sampled and prob is the probability of success *p*.

The following code shows how to draw 10 values from a geometric distribution with probability of success p = 0.35.

```
rgeom(10, 0.35)
## [1] 1 0 0 1 4 2 3 1 2 0
```

The function **rnbinom()** has the generic structure

```
rnbinom(n, size, prob)
```

where n is the number of observations sampled, size is the number of successes r, and prob is the probability of success p.

The following code shows how to draw 10 values from a negative binomial distribution with number of successes r = 4 and probability of success p = 0.8.

```
rnbinom(10, 4, 0.8)
## [1] 0 0 0 0 0 2 1 0 1 1
```

The function **rhyper()** has the generic structure

```
rhyper(nn, m, n, k)
```

where nn is the number of observations sampled, m is the total number of successes m, n is the total number of failures N-m, and k is the sample size n.

The following code shows how to draw 10 values from a hypergeometric distribution with total number of successes m = 10, total number of failures N - m = 15, and sample size n = 8.

```
rhyper(10, 10, 15, 8)
## [1] 3 3 3 4 3 2 2 3 3 4
```

Power and Sample Size Calculations with power.t.test()

The **power.t.test()** function can both compute the power of a one- or two-sample *t*-test and determine necessary parameters (e.g., sample size) to obtain a target power. The function has the generic structure

where n is the sample size (per group), delta is the effect size, sd is the standard deviation, sig.level is the significance level, and power is the statistical power. The argument for type can be either "one.sample", "two.sample", or "paired", where two-sample implies independent groups. The argument for alternative can be either "two.sided", "less", or "greater".

Exactly one out of n, delta, sd, or sig.level must be entered as NULL; this is the parameter of interest that will be calculated based on the provided information.

The following code shows how to calculate the power for a one-sample test where n = 100, $\Delta = 3$, $\sigma = 12$, $\alpha = 0.05$, with a two-sided alternative.

The following code shows how to calculate the sample size for a one-sample test where $\Delta = 3$, $\sigma = 12$, $\alpha = 0.05$, and power of 0.70, with a two-sided alternative.

##

##

##

##

sig.level = 0.05

alternative = two.sided

alternative = two.sided

power = 0.6969757

```
power.t.test(n = NULL, delta = 3, sd = 12, sig.level = 0.05,
             power = 0.70, type = "one.sample", alternative = "two.sided")
##
##
        One-sample t test power calculation
##
##
                 n = 100.6887
             delta = 3
##
##
                sd = 12
##
         sig.level = 0.05
             power = 0.7
##
```

Lab 3: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The tapply() Function

The **tapply()** function is related to the apply() function introduced in Chapter 1. As with apply(), tapply() allows a specific function to be applied to a matrix; the function can be a predefined R function like mean() or a user-defined function. The power of tapply() is that it allows for a vector to be split into groups, with the function applied to each group.

The function has the generic structure

```
tapply(y, x, FUN)
```

where y is the vector of data, x is the grouping variable, and FUN is the function of interest.

The following code shows how to calculate the mean change in non-dominant arm strength for each genotype group in the FAMuSS data.

```
#load the data
library(oibiostat)
data("famuss")

tapply(famuss$ndrm.ch, famuss$actn3.r577x, mean)

## CC CT TT
## 48.89422 53.24904 58.08385
```

Fitting an ANOVA Model

The **aov()** function fits an ANOVA model to data; wrapping with the summary() function outputs the ANOVA table, which contains the *F*-statistic and associated *p*-value. The input to aov() must be in the form of a formula using the tilde syntax:

```
aov(y ~ x)
```

where y is the data vector and y is the grouping variable.

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

The following code shows the summary of the ANOVA model fit for the association of change in non-dominant arm strength by genotype at the r577x locus on the ACTN3 gene.

Conducting Pairwise Tests with pairwise.t.test

The pairwise.t.test function is used to conduct pairwise comparisons with corrections for multiple testing. Note that the input to this function uses different syntax from aov(): instead of the tilde, the comma is used to separate the data variable and grouping variable. The generic structure of the function is

```
pairwise.t.test(y, x, p.adj)
```

where y is the data vector, x is the grouping vector, and p.adj can be one of several adjustment choices, such as "none" for no correction and "bonf" for Bonferroni.

The following code shows how to conduct pairwise two-sample *t*-tests between mean change in non-dominant arm strength for each of the genotype groups in the FAMuSS data.

```
#no correction
pairwise.t.test(famuss$ndrm.ch, famuss$actn3.r577x, p.adj = "none")
##
##
   Pairwise comparisons using t tests with pooled SD
##
## data: famuss$ndrm.ch and famuss$actn3.r577x
##
##
      CC
            CT
## CT 0.179 -
## TT 0.011 0.144
##
## P value adjustment method: none
#Bonferroni correction
pairwise.t.test(famuss$ndrm.ch, famuss$actn3.r577x, p.adj = "bonf")
##
   Pairwise comparisons using t tests with pooled SD
##
##
## data: famuss$ndrm.ch and famuss$actn3.r577x
##
      CC
##
            CT
## CT 0.537 -
## TT 0.034 0.433
##
## P value adjustment method: bonferroni
```

Note that when the Bonferroni correction is applied, R multiples the p-value by K, the number of comparisons; thus, the values output from pairwise.t.test when p.adj = "bonf" should be compared to α , not α^* . Comparing an unadjusted p-value to α/K is equivalent to comparing the quantity $(K \times p$ -value) to α .

Lab 4: Multiple Testing

The for loop was introduced in Chapter 2; nested loops were introduced in Chapter 3 in the context of simulating geometric, negative binomial, and hypergeometric random variables. This section specifically discusses nested for loops and the logic behind the simulation code for estimating experiment-wise error in the Golub leukemia dataset.

Nested for Loops

Understanding a nested for loop requires keeping track of more than two counters (i.e., index variables). In the following basic example, there are two counters: the outer counter, k, runs from 1 through 4, while the inner counter, j, runs from 1 through 2.

- For the first iteration, k = 1. Upon encountering the second loop, R cycles through j = 1 and j = 2. Thus, there are two values of the product $k \times j$ for this first iteration: $1 \times 1 = 1$ and $1 \times 2 = 2$.
- For the fourth iteration, k = 4. The two values of the product $k \times j$ are then $4 \times 1 = 4$ and $4 \times 2 = 8$.

```
for(k in 1:4){
    for(j in 1:2){
        print(k*j)
    }
}
```

[1] 2 ## [1] 2 ## [1] 4 ## [1] 3 ## [1] 6 ## [1] 4 ## [1] 8

Question 2 of the lab refers to a simulation for estimating experiment-wise error rate when two independent one-sample hypothesis tests are conducted. The approach shown in the lab is to create two separate vectors of observations. While this approach is straightforward, it is impractical for a large number of tests.

The following code demonstrates a more flexible approach that hinges on using nested for loops. When the number of tests is specified as a parameter, the simulation can simply be re-run to model experiment-wise error for any number of tests.

- The outer loop, with index variable *k*, runs from 1 to the specified number of iterations. The inner loop, with index variable *j*, runs from 1 to the specified number of tests.
- Each time the outer loop runs, a set of data (i.e., observations in samples to be tested) is

generated. The matrix obs.matrix has number of columns equivalent to num.tests and number of rows equivalent to num.obs. It is populated with $num.tests \times num.obs = 100 \times 100$ draws from a standard normal distribution. This is a more efficient way to generate the simulated data than running rnorm() 100 times and creating 100 vectors.

- The inner loop proceeds through each column of obs.matrix, conducting a t-test on the values in column i and storing the p-value as the ith entry of the vector p.vals.
- The last instruction in the outer loop is to record the minimum value in p.vals as the k^{th} entry in the vector min.p.vals. Note how the values in obs.matrix and p.vals are rewritten with each iteration of the outer loop, but not the values in min.p.vals.
- The reject vector is also defined more efficiently than in the version of the simulation shown in the lab. If the k^{th} entry in min.p.vals is larger than α , then the k^{th} iteration represents one instance of experiment-wise error occurring. This logic was discussed in Question 7.
- The result of the simulation agrees closely with the algebraic solution from Question 3 of the lab. From simulation, the estimated experiment-wise error is 0.995; the probability of at least one incorrect rejection in 100 independent tests conducted at $\alpha = 0.05$ is 0.994.

```
#set parameters
num.tests = 100
num.obs = 100
num.iterations = 1000
alpha = 0.05
#set seed
set.seed(2018)
#create empty lists
p.vals = vector("numeric", num.tests)
min.p.vals = vector("numeric", num.iterations)
#run simulation
for(k in 1:num.iterations){
 obs.matrix = matrix(rnorm(num.tests*num.obs),
                      nrow = num.obs, ncol = num.tests)
 for(j in 1:num.tests){
    p.vals[i] = t.test(obs.matrix[, j], mu = 0)$p.val
 }
 min.p.vals[k] = min(p.vals)
}
```

```
#view results
reject = (min.p.vals <= alpha)
table(reject)
## reject</pre>
```

```
## FALSE TRUE
## 5 995
```

Lab 5: Bayesian Hypothesis Testing