# Multiple Comparisons & Statistical Power (MD4 & 5)

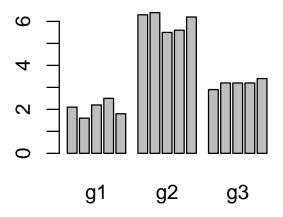
Paul Gribble

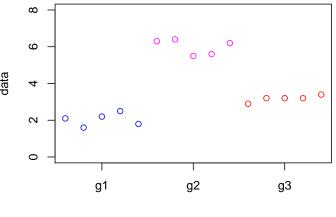
Winter, 2017

## GLM & ANOVA: an example

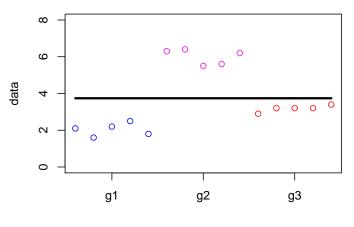
G1	G2	G3		
2.1	6.3	2.9		
1.6	6.4	3.2		
2.2	5.5	3.2		
2.5	5.6	3.2		
1.8	6.2	3.4		
means				
2.0	6.0	3.2		

### GLM & ANOVA: an example

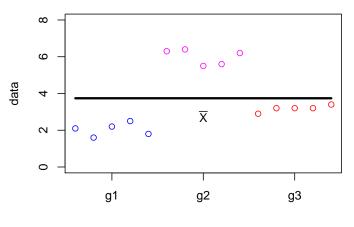




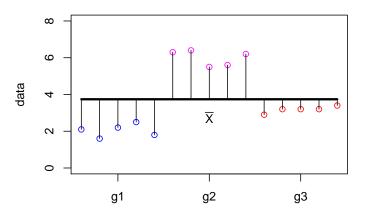
$$H_0: Y_{ij} = \mu + \epsilon_{ij}$$
  $E_r = \sum (Y_{ij} - \bar{X})^2$ 



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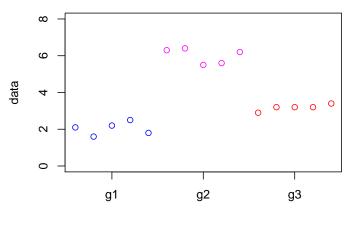


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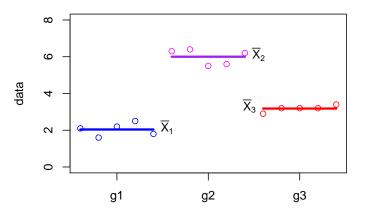
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## the model comparison approach: full model



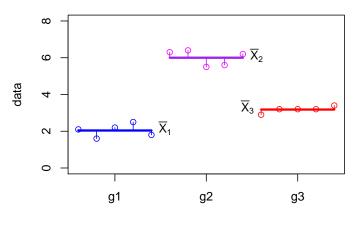
$$H_1: Y_{ij} = \mu_j + \epsilon_{ij}$$
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## the model comparison approach: full model



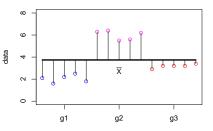
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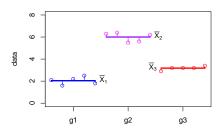
## the model comparison approach: full model



$$H_1: Y_{ij} = \mu_j + \epsilon_{ij}$$
  $E_f = \sum (Y_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2$ 

### which model has smaller error?

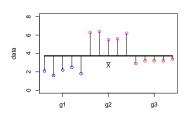


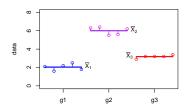


- estimate 1 parameter
  - $\triangleright$   $\mu$

- estimate 3 parameters
  - $\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3$

### which model has smaller error?





▶ Is the reduction in error you get with the full model worth the extra parameters you need to estimate in *H*<sub>1</sub>?

### Statistical Power

- power is the ability of a statistical test to detect real differences when they exist
- $\triangleright$   $\beta$  is the probability of failing to reject the null hypothesis when it is in fact false (Type-II error)
- β is the probability of failing to reject the restricted model when the full model is a better description of the data, even with the requirement to estimate more parameters

power = 
$$1 - \beta$$

power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is in fact false



## Type-I vs Type-II error \ hypothesis testing outcomes

		Reality	
		$H_0$ is true	$H_1$ is true
Research	$H_0$ is true	Accurate $(1-lpha)$	Type-II error $(\beta)$
	$H_1$ is true	Type-I error $(\alpha)$	Accurate $(1-\beta)$

### Statistical Power

- how sensitive is a given experimental design?
- how likely is our experiment to correctly identify a difference betweeen groups when there actually is one?
- what sample size is required to give an experiment adequate power?
- how many subjects do we need to include in each group sample?

### Effect Size

- we need some way of assessing the expected size of the effect we are proposing to detect
- one measure is the standardized measure of effect size, f

$$f = \sigma_m/\sigma_\epsilon$$

$$\sigma_m = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (\mu_j - \mu)^2}{a}} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum \alpha_j^2}{a}}$$

$$\mu = \left(\sum_j \mu_j\right)/a$$

$$\sigma_\epsilon = \text{within-group standard deviation}$$

### Effect Size

- ▶ If you have pilot data you can compute values for *f*
- ▶ If not, Cohen (1977) suggests the following definitions:
  - "small" effect: f = 0.10
  - ▶ "medium" effect: *f* = 0.25
  - ▶ "large" effect: *f* = 0.40
- ▶ so for medium effect, standard deviation of population means across groups is 1/4 of the within-group sd

### Power Charts

- ► Cohen (1977) provides tables that let you read off the power for a particular combination of numerator df, desired Type-I error rate, effect size f, and subjects per group
- four factors are varying tables require 66 pages!
  - seriously
- It's 2015, Let's use R instead
  - power.t.test()
  - power.anova.test()

### An example

- e.g. you are planning a reaction-time study involving three groups (a = 3)
- ▶ pilot research & data from literature suggest population means might be 400, 450 and 500 ms with a sample within-group standard deviation of 100 ms
- suppose you want a power of 0.80 how many subjects do you need in each sample group?

### An example

```
power.anova.test(groups=3, n=NULL,
  between.var=var(c(400,450,500)),
  within.var=100**2, sig.level=0.05,
  power=0.80)
```

Balanced one-way analysis of variance power calcuit

```
groups = 3

n = 20.30205

between.var = 2500

within.var = 10000

sig.level = 0.05

power = 0.8
```

NOTE: n is number in each group



### ... but since we know how to program in R

- simulate! Simulate sampling from two populations
  - whose means differ by the expected amount
  - whose variances are a particular value
  - postulate a particular sample size N
- sample and do your statistical test many times (e.g. 1000) and see what proportion of times you successfully reject the null (your power)
- ▶ If power is not high enough, try a larger sample size *N* and repeat. Keep increasing *N* in simulation until you get the power you want
- computationally intensive, but allows you to test any experimental situation that you can simulate
- ▶ e.g. see http://goo.gl/COmIO

# Cautionary note: calculating "observed power" after rejecting the null

- ▶ you run an experiment, do stats, and end up failing to reject H<sub>0</sub>
- two possibilities:
  - 1. there is in fact no difference between population means, and your experiment correctly identifies this
  - 2. there is a difference, but your experiment is not statistically powerful enough to detect it (for e.g. because within-group variability is high)
- ► can we use power calculations to see if we "had enough power" to detect the difference?
- ▶ no not appropriate use of power analysis (although frequently taught)

## Hoenig & Heisey (2001)

- doing a power analysis after an experiment that failed to reject the null, to see if "there was enough power" to detect the difference, is inappropriate
- the result of a post-hoc power analysis is completely redundant with the probability (p-value) obtained in the original analysis
- one can be obtained directly from the other
- you don't learn anything new by doing a post-hoc power analysis
- ► See Hoenig & Heisey (2001) for the full story

### Challenges of power analyses

- you must have estimates of expected difference between means
- you must have estimates of within-group variability
- computing power for more complex experimental designs can be complicated — see Maxwell & Delaney text for examples

### Testing differences between individual means

- last time we learned about one-way single-factor ANOVA
- ► F test of null hypothesis

$$\mu_1 = \mu_2 = ... = \mu_n$$

- called the "omnibus test"
- omnibus test doesn't tell us which means are different from each other
- ▶ it does give us permission to start looking for differences between individual means

### Two kinds of multiple comparisons

#### planned comparisons

- ▶ in advance of looking at your results you know which groups you want to compare
- you are restricted to performing only certain comparisons
- the comparisons must be orthogonal to each other

#### post-hoc comparisons

- ▶ the results dictate which means you test (you are chasing the biggest differences)
- you can test as many as you like (usually)
- few (if any) restrictions on the nature of the tests you can perform
- Type-I error is controlled for by making each test more conservative



recall the null hypothesis & restricted model:

$$H_0$$
:  $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \cdots = \mu_a$   
 $Y_{ij} = \mu + \epsilon_{ij}$ 

suppose we wanted to test a new hypothesis that only groups 1 and 2 are equal and the rest are different

$$H_0$$
:  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$   
 $Y_{i1} = \mu^* + \epsilon_{i1}$   
 $Y_{i2} = \mu^* + \epsilon_{i2}$   
 $Y_{ij} = \mu_j + \epsilon_{ij}$ , for  $j = 3, 4, ..., a$ 

- just as before we can compare full and restricted models by computing sums of squared errors for each (see Maxwell & Delaney for details)
- just as before we end up with an F ratio:

$$F = \frac{(E_R - E_F)/(df_R - df_F)}{E_F/df_F}$$

$$E_R - E_F = \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 + n_2} (\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2)^2$$

$$df_F = N - a$$

$$df_R = N - (a - 1) = N - a + 1$$

$$df_R - df_F = 1$$

after some more tedious algebra:

$$F = \frac{n_1 n_2 (\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2)^2}{(n_1 + n_2) MS_W}$$

or for equal group sizes n:

$$F = \frac{n\left(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2\right)^2}{2MS_W}$$

- ► MS<sub>W</sub> is mean-square "within" term (error term) from ANOVA output
- ▶ df numerator = 1
- df denominator is given in ANOVA output for  $MS_W$  term

- so what we have now is an F test for a full versus restricted model
- full model is as before (different mean for each group)
- restricted model has same mean for groups 1 and 2, and different means for the rest
- restricted model is less restricted than the original restricted model with a single parameter (the grand mean)
- but still more restricted than full model

$$F = \frac{n\left(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2\right)^2}{2MS_W}$$

- research questions often focus on pairwise comparisons
- sometimes you may have a hypothesis that concerns a difference involving more than 2 means
- e.g. 4 groups: is group 4 different than the average of the other three?

$$H_0: \frac{1}{3} (\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3) = \mu_4$$

we can rewrite this as:

$$H_0: \frac{1}{3}\mu_1 + \frac{1}{3}\mu_2 + \frac{1}{3}\mu_3 - \mu_4 = 0$$

$$H_0: \frac{1}{3}\mu_1 + \frac{1}{3}\mu_2 + \frac{1}{3}\mu_3 - \mu_4 = 0$$

this is just a linear combination of the 4 means so in general we can write:

$$H_0: c_1\mu_1 + c_2\mu_2 + c_3\mu_3 + c_4\mu_4 = 0$$

- c<sub>1</sub> through c<sub>4</sub> are coefficients chosen by the experimenter to test a hypothesis of interest
- simple pairwise comparison of mean 1 vs mean 2 would be:

$$c_1 = -1$$
 $c_2 = +1$ 
 $c_3 = 0$ 
 $c_4 = 0$ 

an expression of the form:

$$H_0: c_1\mu_1+c_2\mu_2+c_3\mu_3+c_4\mu_4$$

is known as a "contrast" or a "complex comparison"

- linear combination of means in which the coefficients add up to zero
- ▶ in the general case of a groups, we can write:

$$\psi = \sum_{j=1}^{a} c_j \mu_j$$

our expression for the F test can be simplified (see M&D) to:

$$F = \frac{\psi^2}{MS_W \sum_{j=1}^a \left(c_j^2/n_j\right)}$$

#### where

- $\rightarrow$  df denominator = 1
- ightharpoonup df numerator = N-a

$$H_0: \psi = \sum_{j=1}^a c_j \mu_j = 0$$

- some texts present contrasts not as F tests but as t-test
- when df numerator = 1, t-test is just a special case of the F-test

$$t^2 = F$$
$$t = \sqrt{F}$$

### Testing more than one contrast

- how many contrasts can we test?
- two issues:
  - 1. orthogonality
  - 2. inflation of Type-I error
- is it permissible to perform multiple tests using an  $\alpha$  level of 0.05?
  - better question: does it make sense to perform multiple tests and still assume that Type-I error rate remains at 0.05?
- does it matter if the contrasts were planned before the data were examined, or arrived at after looking at the data?

# How many contrasts?

- if a = 3 there are 3 possible pairwise contrasts (choose(3,2))
  - ▶ 1-2, 2-3 and 1-3
  - in addition there are an infinite of possible complex comparisons
- with an infinite \ contrasts, some information will be redundant
- new question: how many contrasts can be tested without introducing redundancy?

#### Non-redundant contrasts

are these three contrasts redundant?

$$\psi_1 = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

$$\psi_2 = \mu_1 - \mu_3$$

$$\psi_3 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 + \mu_2) - \mu_3$$

yes, because:

$$\psi_3 = \psi_2 - \frac{1}{2}\psi_1$$

• value of  $\psi_3$  is compelely determined if we already know  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$ 

#### Non-redundant contrasts

- ▶ in general with a groups, there are a-1 contrasts without introducing redundancy
- mathematical concept for lack of redundancy is orthogonality
- two contrasts are orthogonal if:

$$\psi_1 = \sum_{j} c_{1j} \mu_j$$

$$\psi_2 = \sum_{j} c_{2j} \mu_j$$

$$\sum_{j} c_{1j} c_{2j} = 0$$

or for unequal group sizes:

$$\sum c_{1j}c_{2j}/n_j=0$$



# Orthogonal contrasts

- e.g. what about 2 contrasts  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ :
- $c_{11} = +1, c_{12} = -1, c_{13} = 0$
- $c_{21} = +1, c_{22} = 0, c_{23} = -1$
- orthogonality test:  $\sum c_{1j}c_{2j}=0$ 
  - (1)(1) + (-1)(0) + (0)(-1) = 1 + 0 + 0 = 1
  - ▶ these 2 contrasts are not orthogonal

# Orthogonality

- who cares?
- primary implication: orthogonal contrasts provide non-overlapping information about how the groups differ
- formally: when two contrasts are orthogonal, then the two sample estimates  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  are statistically independent of one another
- each provides unique, non-overlapping information about group differences
- they are asking separate, different, distinct questions about the data

- suppose you have conducted an ANOVA on 4 groups
- suppose you want to test the following 3 contrasts:

$$\psi_1 = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

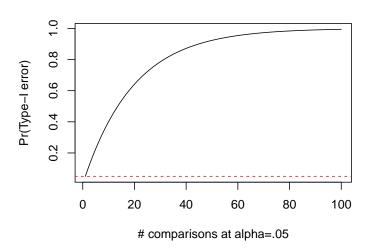
$$\psi_2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 + \mu_2) - \mu_3$$

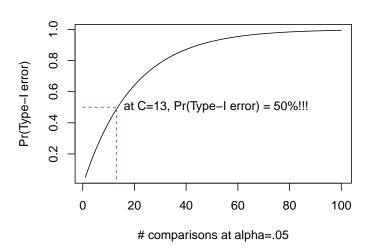
$$\psi_3 = \frac{1}{3}(\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3) - \mu_4$$

- are these orthogonal?
  - $\psi_1$ : (+1.0)(-1.0)(+0.0)(+0.0)
  - $\psi_2$ : (+0.5)(+0.5)(-1.0)(+0.0)
  - $\psi_3$ : (+0.3)(+0.3)(+0.3)(-1.0)

- if you test each of the three contrasts at  $\alpha = 0.05$ , what is the true Type-I error rate?
- greater than 0.05
- we are testing three contrasts each at the 0.05 level
- ▶ at first glance you might think true error rate should be (3)(0.05) = 0.15
- close, but not quite right

- contrasts are independent events
- probabilities don't simply sum (see M&D text)
- ▶ Pr(at least one Type-I error) = 1 Pr(no Type-I errors)
- $ightharpoonup = 1 (1 \alpha)^{C}$
- C is number of contrasts tested
- e.g. if  $\alpha = 0.05$ , C = 3, then p = 0.143
- if C = 10, p = 0.40 (big!)





- ▶ is this a problem? Pr(Type-I error) > 0.05 ???
- M&D text discusses some different concepts:
- error rate per contrast  $\alpha_{PC}$ 
  - probability that a particular contrast will be falsely declared significant
- experiment-wise error rate  $\alpha_{EW}$ 
  - probability that one or more contrasts will be falsely declared significant in an experiment
- family-wise error rate α<sub>FW</sub>
  - has to do with multiple factor experiments (more later in the course)

- ▶ In our example,  $\alpha_{PC} = 0.05$
- experiment-wise error rate  $\alpha_{EW} = 0.143$
- so which error rate should be controlled at the 0.05 level?
- this is an issue "about which reasonable people differ"
  - i.e. intelligent and informed people have different approaches
- ▶ M&D suggest controlling  $\alpha_{EW}$  at the 0.05 level
- see chapter for an interesting discussion of the pros and cons of different approaches

# Methods of controlling $\alpha_{EW}$ at 0.05

- planned vs post-hoc comparisons
- ▶ 3 methods
  - Bonferroni, Tukey, Scheffe
- ► M&D have a flowchart (decision tree) to help you decide which procedure to use

#### Planned vs Post-hoc contrasts

#### 1. Planned Contrast

- a contrast that an experimenter decided to test prior to any examination of the data
- (i.e. the data do not influence your choice of which contrast(s) to test)

#### 2. Post-Hoc Contrast

- a contrast that an experimenter decided to test only after having looked at the data
- ▶ i.e. a contrast "suggested by the data"
- e.g. following large differences you observe in your dataset

#### Planned vs Post-hoc contrasts

- why is this distinction important?
- ▶ If the contrast(s) to be tested are suggested by the data, e.g. the largest differences are tested
- the sampling distribution of "differences between any 2 means" has a very different distribution than the "largest difference between means"
- ► Type-I error rate ends up being inflated if you only test the largest differences in your dataset
- M&D have a nice discussion of this in the chapter
- we will show it in R using monte-carlo simulations

# Multiple Planned Comparisons

- ► The Bonferroni adjustment is remarkable simple
- compute the F statistic and p-value for each contrast, as usual
- ▶ then instead of comparing each p-value to  $\alpha$  (e.g. 0.05), instead compare it to  $\frac{\alpha}{C}$ , where C is the total number of contrasts you will be testing
- lacktriangleright lpha gets lowered in proportion to the number of contrasts
- each contrast is therefore more conservative
- ▶ OK for small values of C but overly conservative for large values of C

# Multiple Planned Comparisons

- ► Holm-Bonferroni method : https: //en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HolmBonferroni\_method
- less conservative than straight Bonferroni
- graded adjustment with larger corrections for less significant p-values
- check online for examples
- can use the p.adjust() function in R

# Multiple Planned Comparisons

- Keppel (and others) suggest a different approach
- ightharpoonup you're allowed to test up to a-1 orthogonal planned contrasts without any adjustment of lpha
- he argues that Bonferroni correction unfairly penalizes planned orthogonal contrasts
- ightharpoonup if contrasts are planned, orthogonal and number a-1 or fewer, then because the set of contrasts is not data-driven, and do not overlap, then there should be no need to adjust lpha level
- lacktriangle overall lpha level should be no different than that for the omnibus F test

# Post Hoc Pairwise Comparisons

- Tukey's procedure allows you to perform tests of all possible pairwise comparisons in an experiment and still maintain  $\alpha_{EW}=0.05$
- ▶ the TukeyHSD() function in R will do this for you
- Tukey procedure makes each pairwise test more conservative
- designed to take into account the idea that data-driven tests will involve higher Type-I error rates
- there are various modifications of Tukey's procedure when sample variances are unequal or when samples sizes are unequal (see M&D)

# Post Hoc Pairwise Comparions

- Scheffe method maintains  $\alpha_{EW}$  at 0.05 when at least some of the contrasts to be tested are complex, and suggested by the data (post-hoc)
- ▶ see M&D text for a detailed description of the method
- Scheffe method is quite conservative
- ▶ see tables 5.4 & 5.5 for comparison between methods

#### Other Procedures

- Dunnett's procedure
  - useful when one of the groups is considered a control and is involved in all contrasts
- ► Fisher's LSD (least significant difference)
- Newman-Keuls
- see M&D text for details about these other methods

### What should I do?

- decide which approach you think is most reasonable, given your data and your experimental design
- be ready to defend your approach to reviewers
- be ready to use a different approach if necessary
- what's the "culture" in your lab / field / journal?

### R Code

- ANOVA using the aov() function in R
- computing Fcomp manually
- using TukeyHSD()
- monte-carlo simulations of multiple comparison Type-l error rates
  - planned vs pos-hoc comparisons