

# Hypothesis Testing

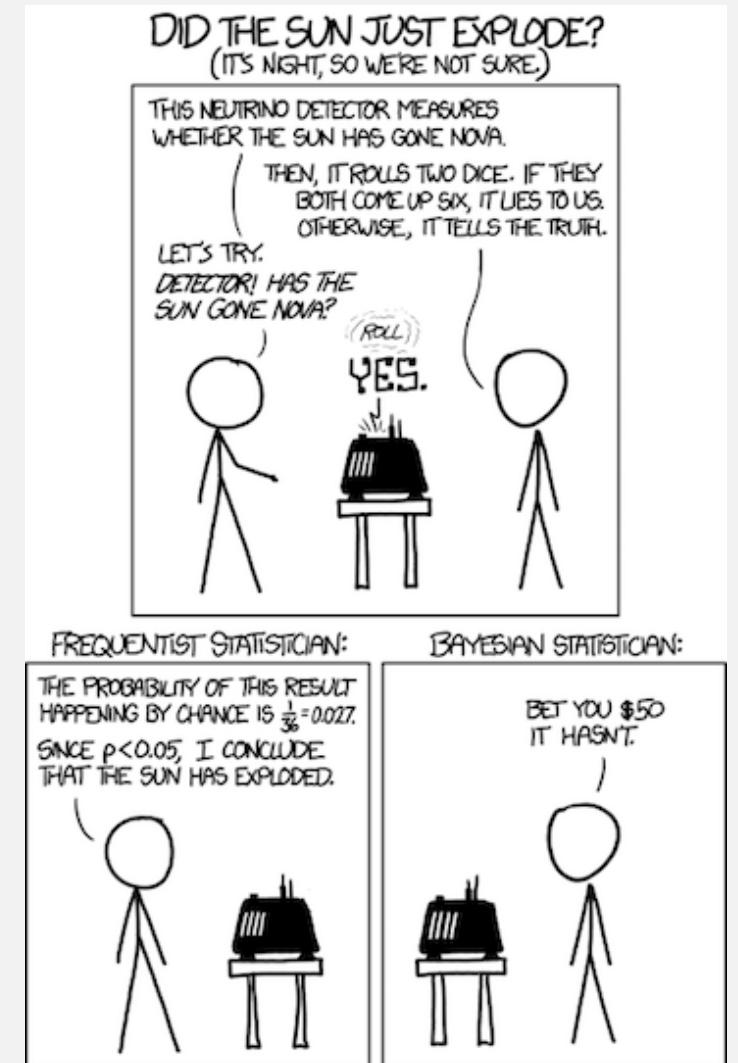
## Biology 683

Lecture 4

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# Last week

1. What is “unfair” about this comic?
2. Give a biological example of a conditional probability



# Today

1. General experimental considerations
2. Binomial test
3.  $\chi^2$  Test

# Some Experimental Design Considerations

## Why do I need a control?

Hardly anything is absolute – we are comparing things to each other

To interpret an experiment, we need to compare the experimental subjects to the correct reference group

## What is an appropriate control?

Ideal controls are identical to the experimental population, except for the one parameter being manipulated

The control population should be similar in all other respects to the experimental population

The control population should experience sham manipulations that simulate any manipulations applied to the experimental population

## Sometimes I might need multiple different controls.

# Avoiding Experimenter Bias

**Experimenter bias is real**

The results of your study can be influenced by your expectations

**Some precautions**

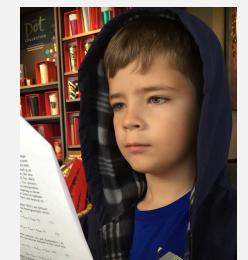
Randomize assignment of subjects to controls and treatments (use R or random.org).

Humans are bad at recognizing randomness.

H H H H T T T H T H H H T T T T H H H H

```
sample(c("H", "T"),  
       replace = T,  
       size = 10)
```

T H T T H T H T H H T T H H T H T T H T



# Avoiding Experimenter Bias

## **Use a blind or double-blind experimental design**

Blind: the subject doesn't know whether it's an experimental or control subject

Double-blind: neither the researcher nor subject know which subjects are experimental versus control

## **How can you apply this to your research?**

# Confounding Variables

1. A difference between groups that the experimenter fails to account for
2. A hidden variable that creates an apparent causal relationship that isn't real
3. **An experiment with confounded variables can be impossible to interpret and impossible to fix**

# Confounding Example

## Study type

Expression level

Diversification

Lung cancer and coffee

Behavior

Effective population size

## Confounding variable

recent gene duplication

unobserved traits

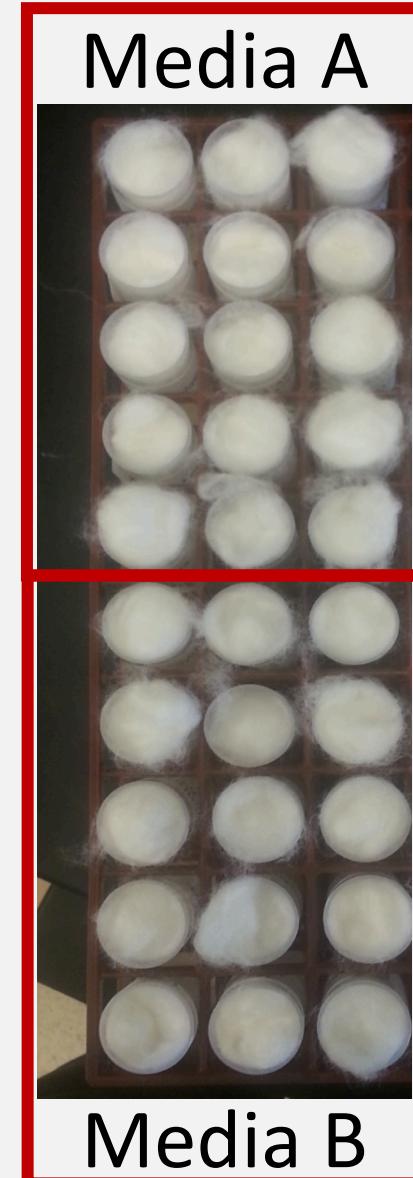
coffee smoking correlation

maternal effects

elevated inbreeding

# Redesign the procedure

- Collect 750 beetles from a population cage.
- Create 30 new vials with 25 beetles each.
- Make the first 15 of these control vials and use food media A.
- Make the next 15 of these experiment vials and use food media B.
- Place in a rack as shown and place in the incubator.



# Pseudoreplication

Occurs when measured subjects are not independent draws from the population

1. 10 rats are studied and tested on three consecutive days, resulting in 15 observations for the control group and 15 observations for the treatment groups
2. The experiment is conducted in two tanks: tank 1 has EE2 added, tank 2 is the control tank. 10 fish are tested per tank.
3. We are testing for the effects of monogamy on brain transcript levels. We use 5 monogamous seahorses and 5 polygamous pipefishes from a single genus. Why is this pseudoreplication?
4. Fish are segregated by sex into two tanks, with 10 individuals per tank. I draw a pair at random and test them, returning them to the tanks at the end. I perform a total of 40 such tests. What's the problem?

# Biological and Technical Replicates

- A biological replicate involves a new, independent test subject
- A technical replicate involves repeating the same procedure on a new sample from the same subject
- Technical replicates do not contribute to your estimates of population-level parameters, but they can increase the precision of measurements on individuals

# Which kind of replication

- In general, biological replicates are superior to technical replicates, because biological replicates increase power.
- Technical replicates are useful when the technique in question sometimes produces extremely inaccurate results, which must be pruned from the dataset. An example is qPCR, where occasional extreme outliers are common.

# Best Practices

- Ensure as much as possible that controls and experimental individuals are from identical populations (except for the factor of interest)
- Treat your controls as similarly as possible to the experimental subjects (sham injections, placebos, etc.)
- Conduct your control manipulations in parallel with your experimental manipulations
- Think about all possible confounding variables and establish a plan to eliminate or correct for them before you start!

# Everything I do is an Experiment

You should approach everything you do in the lab from the perspective of an experiment

Always do the appropriate controls for PCR, transformations, etc.

Troubleshooting is experimenting

Think about how you will describe the experiment before you embark on it

You will see that simplicity is extremely valuable

Think about the analysis you will do before you get started

In science, if you don't publish it, then you didn't do it

# The Null Hypothesis

To analyze your data, you will need a statistical hypothesis to go with your scientific hypothesis

A statistical hypothesis is most easily constructed as a null hypothesis

A null hypothesis posits that the factor of interest has no effect

Frequentist test we will be looking at p-value  $\Pr(\text{data}|\text{null})$

Bayesian approach does the posterior estimate of the parameter of interest overlap in our two treatments.

# Examples of Null Hypotheses

Fertilizer has no effect on the growth rate of oak trees.

Blocking olfactory cues has no effect on mate choice in swordtail fishes.

Rates of genome evolution are the same in two populations.

Mutations in the 5' UTR of *msl-2* have no effect on translation.

# Rejecting the Null

- Your statistical test will attempt to reject the null hypothesis
- If you reject the null, then one of the alternative hypotheses must be true – though not necessarily the one you think is coolest!
- You cannot prove a hypothesis, but you can find support for an alternative or reject the null.

# Type I versus Type II Error

Type I error refers to rejecting a true null hypothesis

Type II error refers to failing to reject a false null hypothesis

Power is a description of our probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis

We usually set up statistical tests to avoid Type I errors, at the expense of possibly committing Type II errors

**Type I error = FALSE POSITIVE**

**1 – Type 2 error = POWER**

# Analyzing Proportions

Several chapters in the book deal with this topic

The experiment boils down to this:

- I have identified two groups
- The groups differ with respect to one factor
- I am interested in the frequency of occurrence of something else as a function of this factor

When would this type of problem come up in the biological sciences?

# Analyzing Proportions

- Epidemiological Studies

Does Zika virus cause Guillain-Barre syndrome?

Compare proportion of Zika infected people with Guillain-Barre to the proportion of uninfected people with Guillain-Barre

Eating at Chipotle causes *E. coli* infections.

Does *Helicobacter pylori* cause stomach cancer?

# Binomial Test

An exact test to determine whether or not the observed proportion adheres to the expected proportion under the null hypothesis

Some possible uses:

- Are frogs equally likely to be right or left handed?
- Is the sex ratio half male and half female?
- Are the offspring phenotypes a 3:1 ratio?

# Binomial Test

As in most statistical tests, a test statistic is compared to a distribution

In this case, the test statistic is just the observed number (number of right-handed toads, number of females in the population)

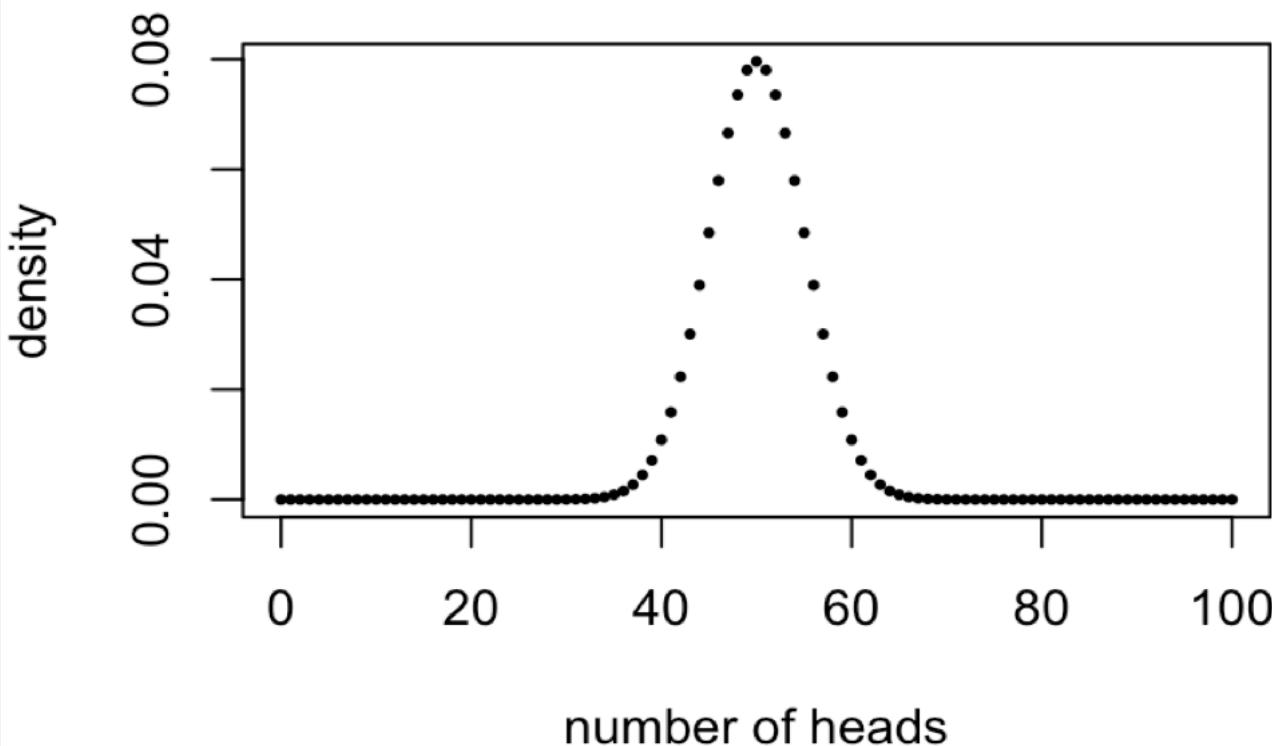
Note that this test is only appropriate when there are two categories of individuals

# Binomial Test

With the binomial test our null hypothesis is the probability of one of the two outcomes. This probability and the number of observations defines the distribution we will compare our observation to.

Distribution when the null is 50% and we have 100 observations

```
x <- 0:100  
y <- dbinom(x, size = 100, prob = .5)  
plot(y~x, pch=16, cex=.5,  
      xlab="number of heads")
```



# Binomial Test

Lets look at an example with sex ratio. You are hybridizing closely related species (with XY sex chromosomes) so you know Haldane's rule states that the males might be more rare. When you survey the offspring you find 23 males out of 65 offspring. Does this result support Haldane's rule occurring in your system?

```
binom.test(x = 23, n = 65, p = .5)
```

# Binomial Test

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```
binom.test(x = 23, n = 65, p = .5)
```

```
data: 23 and 65
number of successes = 23, number of trials = 65,
p-value = 0.02481
```

# Binomial Test

binom.test has an argument alternative

alternative indicates the alternative hypothesis and must be one of "two.sided", "greater" or "less". You can specify just the initial letter.

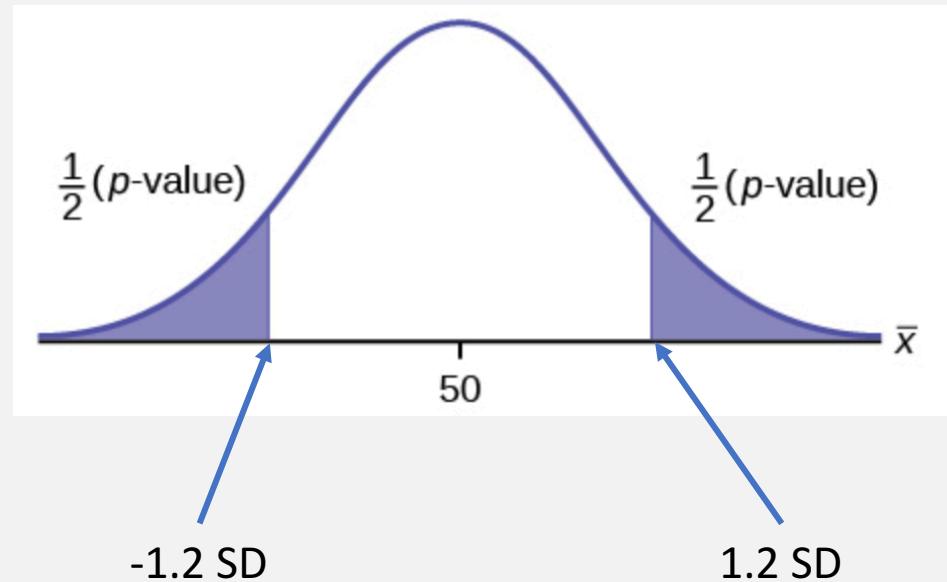
```
binom.test(x = 23, n = 65, p = .5, alternative = "t") # p-value 0.02481  
binom.test(x = 23, n = 65, p = .5, alternative = "g") # p-value 0.99370  
binom.test(x = 23, n = 65, p = .5, alternative = "l") # p-value 0.01241
```

# Binomial Test

**Alternative = two.sided**

What is the probability that I would see a skew in the sex ratio this great or greater.

In this case our observed number of males was -1.2 standard deviations from the mean. So our p-value is the area under the curves above 1.2SD and below -1.2SD.

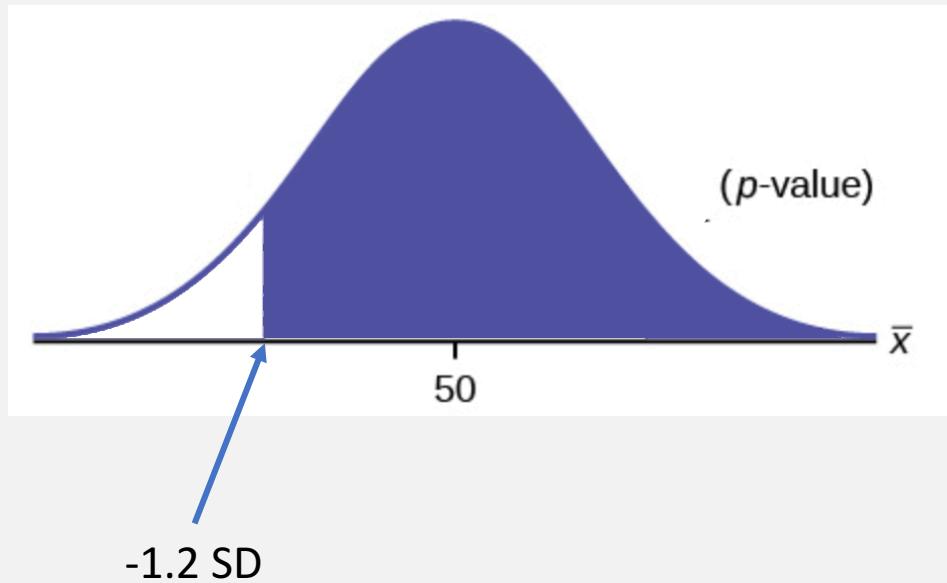


# Binomial Test

**Alternative = greater**

What is the probability that I would see a larger number of males.

In this case our observed number of males was -1.2 standard deviations from the mean. So our p-value is the area under the curves above -1.2SD.

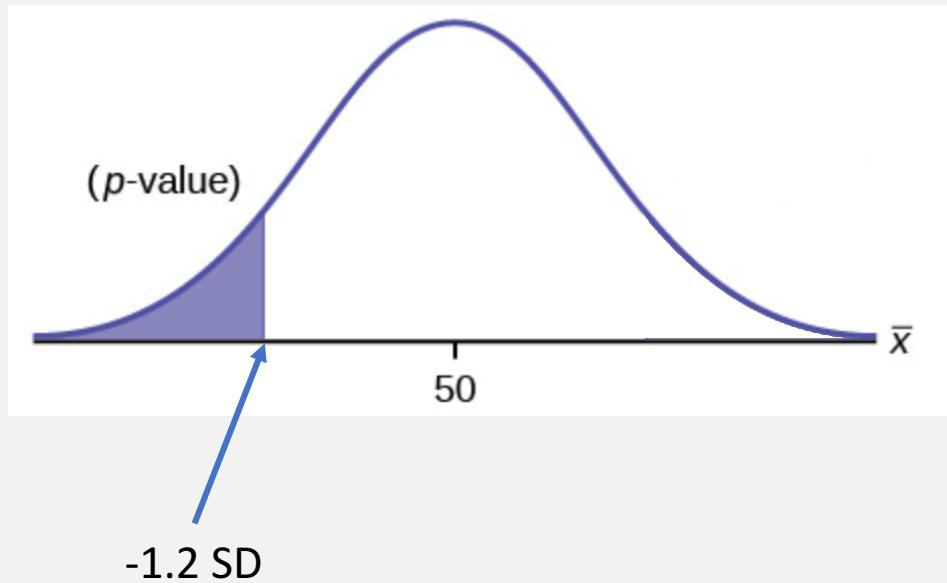


# Binomial Test

**Alternative = less**

What is the probability that I would see this many or fewer males.

In this case our observed number of males was -1.2 standard deviations from the mean. So our p-value is the area under the curves below -1.2SD.



# Reporting the Results

This populations shows a significant departure from a 1:1 sex ratio (0.35, 95% CI: 0.24-0.48, binomial test,  $n = 65$ ,  $p < 0.025$ ).

For very small  $p$ -values, we just say that  $p$  is very small ( $< 0.001$  or  $< 0.0001$ ).

Most journals/subdisciplines will have conventions about how certain tests are presented.

Most journals italicize mathematical variables, so  $n$  and  $p$  would be italicized. They also normally would be lower case.

# $\chi^2$ Test

This test compares the observed number in each category to expectations based on the null hypothesis (if there are only two categories, it approximates the binomial test)

It can also be used to test for independence of two variables, and then it is called a contingency  $\chi^2$ -test.

We will use data from the Titanic and see if some females were more likely to survive than others.

Female adults on the Titanic		
	Survived	Died
1st	140	4
2nd	80	13
3rd	76	89
Crew	20	3

# $\chi^2$ Test

To calculate the statistic we just sum up the standardized deviations from the expected values in each category.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

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Female adults on the Titanic			
	Survived	Died	total
1st	140	4	144
2nd	80	13	93
3rd	76	89	165
Crew	20	3	23
total	74.4%	25.6%	

# $\chi^2$ Test

To calculate the statistic we just sum up the standardized deviations from the expected values.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

Female adults on the Titanic		
	Survived	Died
1st	140	4
2nd	80	13
3rd	76	89
Crew	20	3
total	74.4%	25.6%

Expected		
	Survived	Died
1st	.744 x 144	.256 x 144
2nd	.744 x 93	.256 x 93
3rd	.744 x 165	.256 x 165
Crew	.744 x 23	.256 x 23

# $\chi^2$ Test

To calculate the statistic we just sum up the standardized deviations from the expected values.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

Female adults on the Titanic		
	Survived	Died
1st	140	4
2nd	80	13
3rd	76	89
Crew	20	3
total	74.4%	25.6%

Expected		
	Survived	Died
1st	107	37
2nd	69	24
3rd	123	42
Crew	17	6

# $\chi^2$ Test

To calculate the statistic we just sum up the standardized deviations from the expected values.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

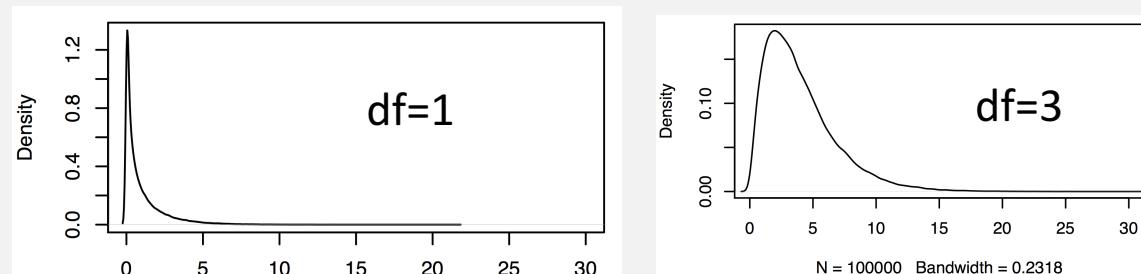
Observed		
	Survived	Died
1st	140	4
2nd	80	13
3rd	76	89
Crew	20	3

Expected		
	Survived	Died
1st	107	37
2nd	69	24
3rd	123	42
Crew	17	6

$$\chi^2 = 117$$

# $\chi^2$ Test

The shape of the chi square distribution depends on the degrees of freedom (df).



$$df = (\text{no. rows} - 1)(\text{no. cols} - 1)$$

Female adults on the Titanic		
	Survived	Died
1st	140	4
2nd	80	13
3rd	76	89
Crew	20	3

$$df = (4 - 1)(2 - 1)$$

$$df = 3$$

```
> x
 [,1] [,2]
[1,] 140   4
[2,] 80    13
[3,] 76    89
[4,] 20    3
> chisq.test(x)
```

Pearson's Chi-squared test

```
data: x
X-squared = 117.31, df = 3, p-value < 2.2e-16
```

# Some other tests

- An odds ratio test compares the probability of something happening in two different groups: odds of cancer in smokers versus non-smokers
- The Fisher's Exact Test computes exact probabilities (much like the binomial test) for a 2x2 contingency table
- A G-test of independence is basically a  $\chi^2$ -test with a slightly different test statistic

```
fisher.test(x)
```

```
library(DescTools)  
GTest(x)
```

# For Thursday

Read chapter WS 6-9

Bring laptop to class!

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