



UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII

Office of Biostatistics & Quantitative Health Sciences

JOHN A. BURNS SCHOOL OF MEDICINE

P-value & Other Statistical Strangeness

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Family Medicine Resident Research Session
March 13, 2019

Outline

- What exactly is p-value?
- Re-introduce some key concepts related to hypothesis testing
- Statistical strangeness: a few examples

Lecture Note: <http://biostat.jabsom.hawaii.edu/Education/training.html>

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The Value of P-value



AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION
Promoting the Practice and Profession of Statistics®

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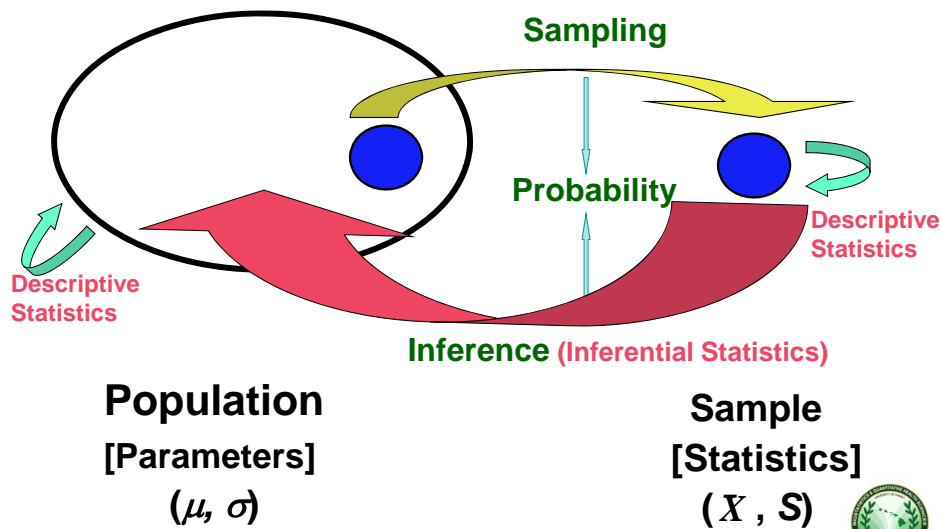
AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION RELEASES STATEMENT ON STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND P-VALUES

*Provides Principles to Improve the Conduct and Interpretation of Quantitative
Science*
March 7, 2016

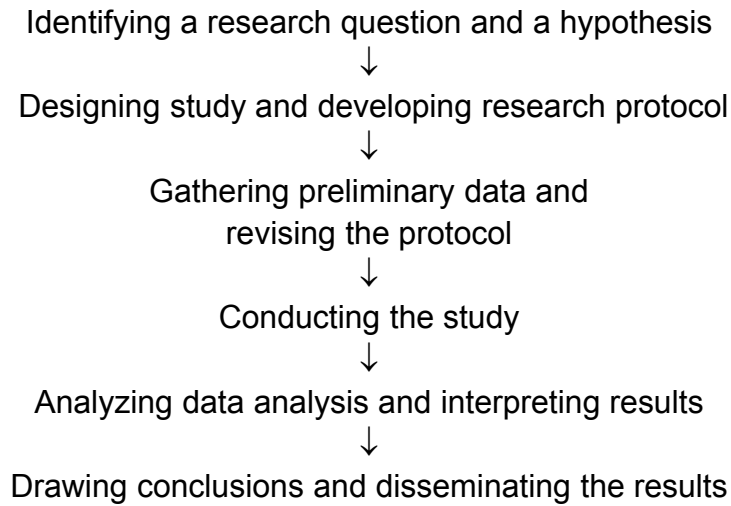
"To address misconceptions and misuse of the p-value."



The Goal of Statistics



Standard Research Process

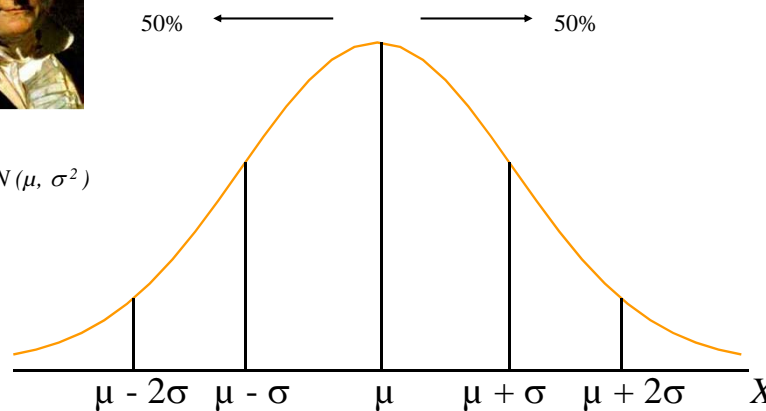


The Normal Distribution



Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777-1855)

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

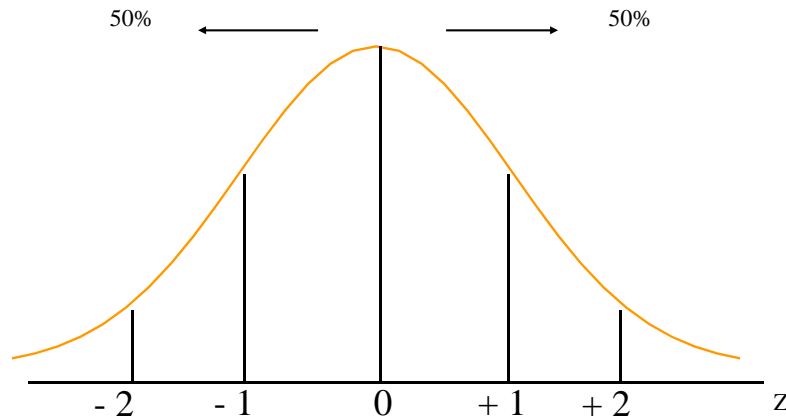


We usually are interested area under the curve (AUC).



Standard Normal Distribution

Standard normal distribution: $Z \sim N(\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1)$

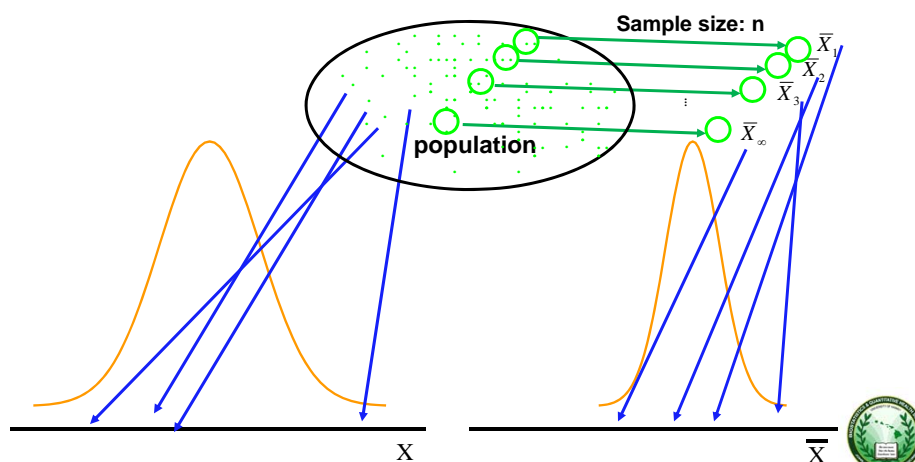


Given $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we have $Z = (X - \mu) / \sigma$.



Sampling Distribution

The distribution of individual observations versus the distribution of sample means



Central Limit Theorem

The distribution of sample means (sampling distribution) from a population is approximately normal as long as the sample size is large, i.e.,

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\mu_{\bar{X}}, \sigma_{\bar{X}}^2) \quad \rightarrow \quad Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0,1)$$

1. The population distribution can be non-normal.
2. Given the population has mean μ , then the mean of the sampling distribution, $\mu_{\bar{X}} = \mu$.
3. If the population has variance σ^2 , the standard deviation of the sampling distribution, or the standard error (a measure of the amount of sampling error) is

$$\sigma_{\bar{X}} = s.e.(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$



Hypothesis Testing

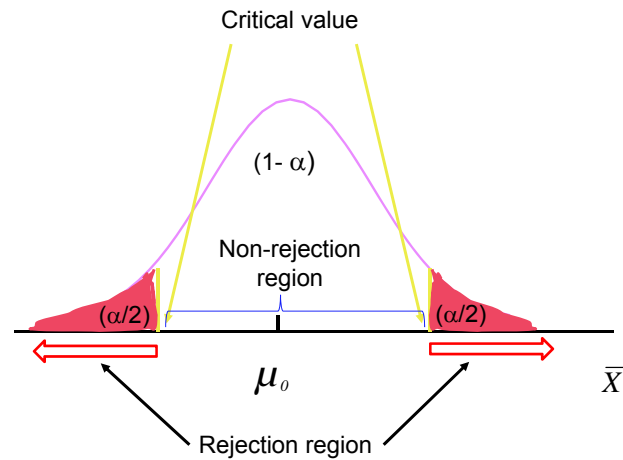
An Example:

Normal serum creatinine level may depend on the population being studied. From the literature a FM resident found that one well-established study showed an average sCr of 0.73 mg/dL (with a standard deviation of 0.15 mg/dL) among Caucasian women living on the east coast. But based on her knowledge and experience, she believed that the μ of sCr among Japanese women in Hawaii should be different.

After discussing with her mentors and her biostatistician, she decided to assess this by measuring sCr of 49 local Japanese women.



Hypothesis Testing (cont.)



Hypothesis Testing

Basic steps of hypothesis testing:

1. State null (H_0) and alternative (H_1) hypotheses
2. Choose a significance level, α (usually 0.05 or 0.01)
3. Determine the critical (or rejection) region and the non-rejection region, based on the sampling distribution and under the null hypothesis
4. Based on the sample, calculate the test statistic and compare it with the critical values
5. Make a decision, and state the conclusion



Errors, Power, and Statistical Decision

Type I Error (α)

- False positives
- Reject H_0 when H_0 is true

Type II Error (β)

- False negatives
- Don't reject H_0 when H_1 is true

Power: $(1 - \beta) = 1 - P(\text{Type II Error})$

		Truth	
		H_0 True	H_0 False
Decision	Reject H_0	α	$1 - \beta$
	Not reject H_0	$1 - \alpha$	β

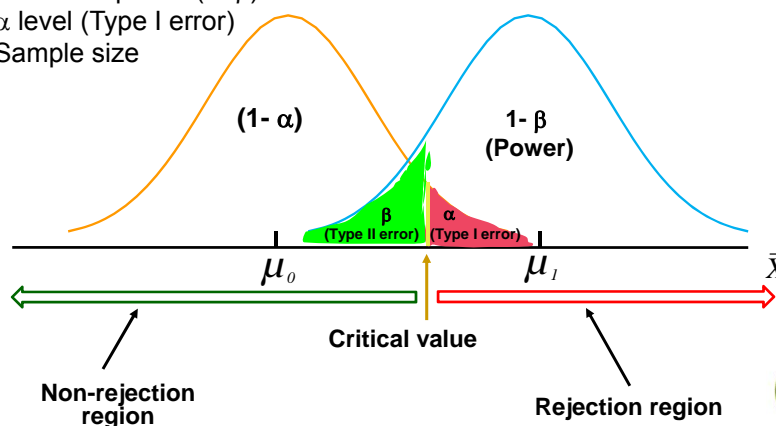


Statistical Design & Decision

General Design Factors:

1. Effect difference
2. Variability
3. Statistical power ($1 - \beta$)
4. α level (Type I error)
5. Sample size

Now, what is a p-value?



***p*-values**

Interpretation:

The *p*-value is the probability of obtaining a result as extreme or more extreme than the one observed based on the current sample, given the null hypothesis is true.

Note: “Statistically significant” does not necessarily mean “biologically (or clinically) significant”!!!



Hypothesis Testing (cont.)

Example (cont.): Say, the average sCr of the sample of 49 locals is 0.68 mg/dL and the population standard deviation is 0.15 mg/dL (based on the literature).

Step 1. State H_0 : and H_1 :

$$H_0: \mu_{sCr} = 0.73 \text{ vs. } H_1: \mu_{sCr} \neq 0.73$$

Step 2. Choose a significant level, say, $\alpha = 0.05$.

Step 3. Calculate the test statistic:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_{sCr}}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{0.68 - 0.73}{0.15 / \sqrt{49}} = -2.33.$$



Hypothesis Testing (cont.)

Step 4. Determine the critical region and the non-rejection region:

The critical value: ± 1.96 .

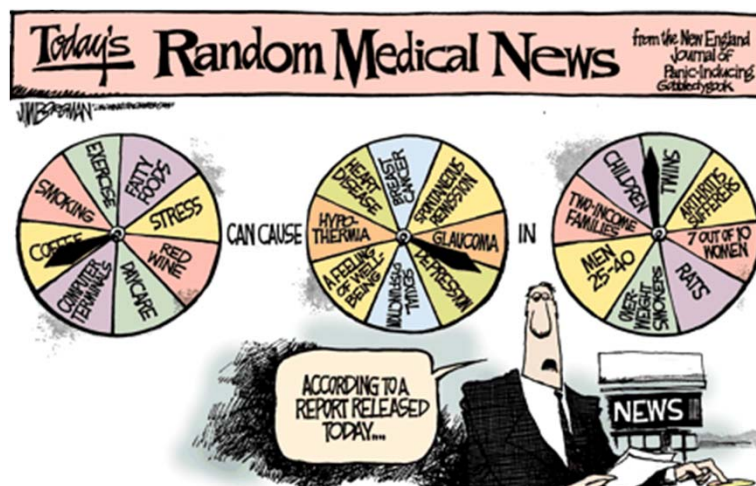
The rejection region: $|Z| \geq 1.96$.

The non-rejection region: $|Z| < 1.96$.

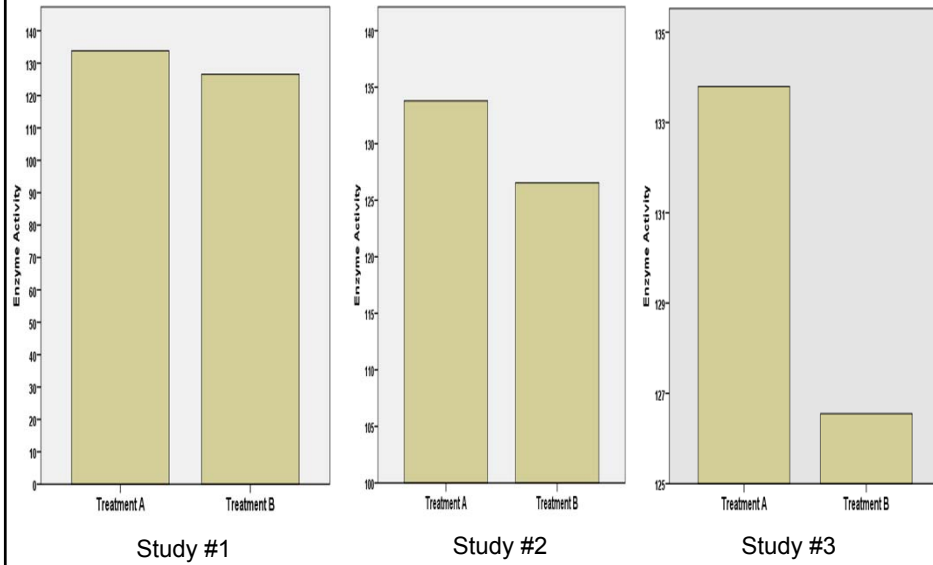
Step 5. Make a decision, based on the sample, and state the conclusion: As the test statistic $|Z| = 2.33 > 1.96$, it is within the rejection region. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that there is statistical evidence that the average sCr among local Japanese women is different from 0.73 mg/dL, with a p-value=0.02.



Medical Research, Media, and Public Health



Enzyme Activity Studies



Yao and Mini-Me: The Height Study



Appropriate Level of Replicates:
Technical vs Biological



Mini-me Yao
(Each measured 5 times. Error bar represents SEM. *: $P < 0.05$)



Guinness & The Student's *t*-Test



William S. Gosset (1876 – 1937)

- A small sample from normal distribution
- Unknown population standard deviation, σ

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \quad \text{with } n-1 \text{ degrees of freedom.}$$

The (Student's) *t*-distribution is very similar to normal distribution, with heavier tails.



Two-Sample Student's *t*-Tests

	Group	Risk_Score	Num
1	1	17	1
2	1	25	2
3	1	18	3
4	1	24	4
5	1	14	5
6	1	12	6
7	2	11	1
8	2	18	2
9	2	13	3
10	2	20	4
11	2	12	5
12	2	9	6

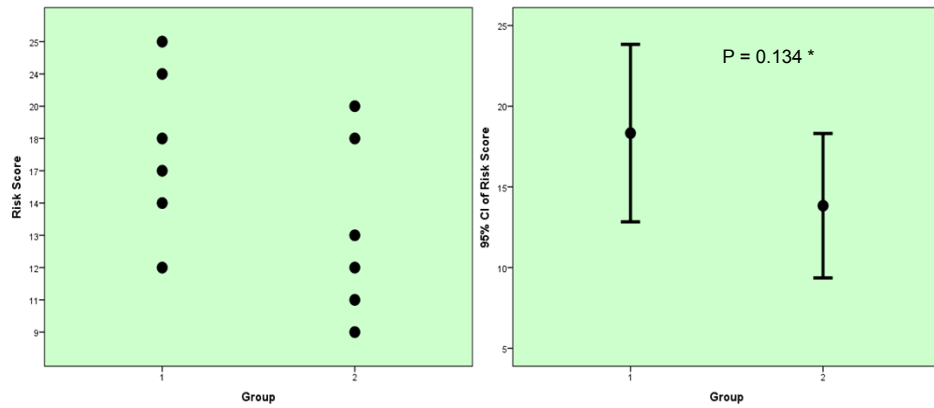
Study of reduction of diabetes risk score before (group 1) and after (group 2) the intervention of six patients.

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Risk_Score	1	6	18.33	5.241	2.140
	2	6	13.83	4.262	1.740



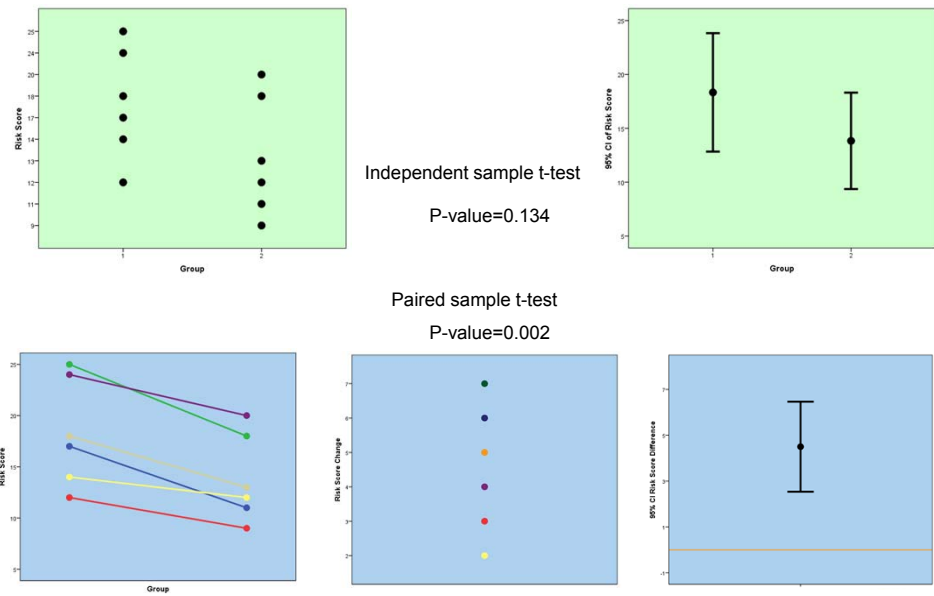
Two-Sample Student t-tests



*: P-value was based on two independent sample t-test.



Two-Sample t-tests: Unpaired versus Paired



Sources of Multiple Testing

1. Multiple treatments (e.g., multiple comparisons problem)
2. Multiple endpoints (or outcome measures)
3. Multiple measurements over time (e.g., repeated measures problem)
4. Subgroup analyses
5. Interim analyses (e.g., the multiple looks problem)



Consequences of Multiplicity

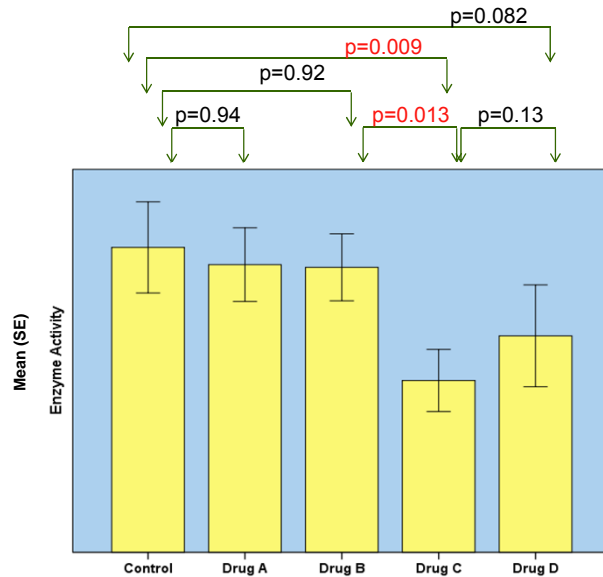
Given a planned $\alpha=0.05$,

m: # of independent tests	1	2	3	4	5	10	20	50	100
Probability of at least one false-positive results	0.05	0.10	0.14	0.19	0.23	0.40	0.64	0.92	>0.99

$$P(\geq 1 \text{ false - positive}) = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^m.$$



Multiple Treatments

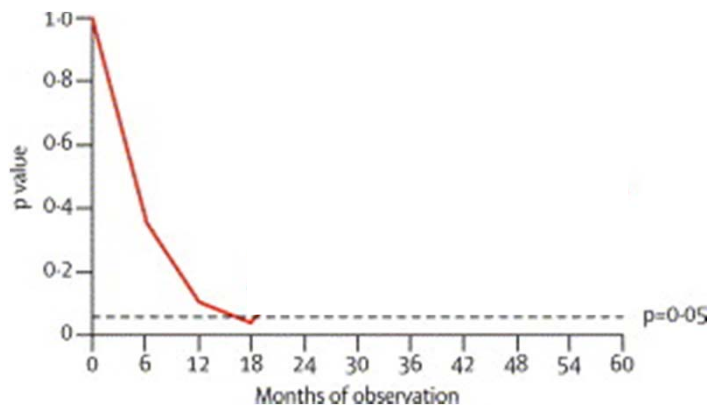


With Bonferroni adjustment for multiple comparisons:

Control vs. A: 1.00
 Control vs. B: 1.00
 Control vs. C: 0.054
 Control vs. D: 0.50
 B vs. C: 0.078
 C vs. D: 0.78



Interim Analysis / Early Stopping



Interim analyses done every 6 months for 5 years.
 The p-value is shown for the comparison between the treatment group and control group.



Recommendation on Interim Analysis

- All interim analyses should be planned in advance, including the pre-specified statistical stopping method
- Best be done by an independent data and safety monitoring committee (DSMC)
- Main goal: make sure overall probability of type I error is controlled
- You have to pay a price with an interim analysis



Simpson's Paradox

Kidney Stone Treatment (Charig et al. 1986. BMJ)

Treatment	Open Surgery	Percutaneous Nephrolithotomy
Success Rate	78% (273/350)	83% (289/350)

Stone size \ Treatment	Open Surgery	Percutaneous Nephrolithotomy
Small stones	93% (81/87)	87% (234/270)
Large stones	73% (192/263)	69% (55/80)



Master of Science in Clinical and Translational Research



The Clinical and Translational Research (CTR) graduate program will prepare graduates with skills for successful careers in clinical and translational research and research support.

<h3 style="text-align: center; margin: 0;">Clinical Research (CR) Track</h3> <p>Develop knowledge and skills to investigate clinical research topics through coursework and research projects focused on research design, methodologies, quantitative methods, scientific writing, ethical issues, and the capacity in obtaining research funding.</p>	<h3 style="text-align: center; margin: 0;">Quantitative Health Sciences (QHS) Track</h3> <p>Courses and research projects focus on biostatistical and bioinformatic methods development and application to improve population and individual health. Students will acquire big data skills and master the scientific principles and methodologies that underlie basic science, clinical, and translation research.</p>
<h3 style="text-align: center; margin: 0;">Career</h3> <p>Research, research support, data analyst positions at:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Academia -Hospitals -Government agencies -Healthcare organizations -Pharmaceutical companies 	<h3 style="text-align: center; margin: 0;">Program Curricula</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -2-year 34 total credit hours graduate program -Plan A (Thesis): 24 credits of didactic courses -Plan B (Capstone Project): 28 credits of didactic courses
<h3 style="text-align: center; margin: 0;">How to Apply</h3> <p>Visit http://manoa.hawaii.edu/graduate/content/clinical-research to either fill out an application or download a PDF form Application Deadline: May 30</p>	<h3 style="text-align: center; margin: 0;">For more information</h3> <p>Phone: (808) 692-1840 Email: GradCTR@hawaii.edu Web: http://msctr.jabsom.hawaii.edu</p>

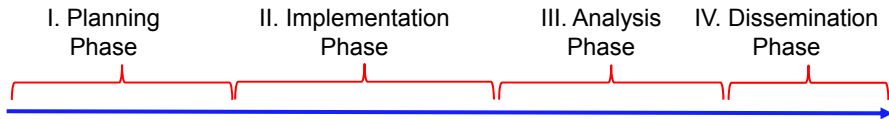
MSCTR Curriculum

- BIOM 640 Introduction to Clinical Research (3 credits)
- BIOM 641 Legal & Regulatory Issues and Bioethics (2 credits; cross-listed with CMB626)
- BIOM 644 Translational Research Methods (2 credits)
- BIOM 645 Clinical Protocol Development (3 credits)
- BIOM 654 Medical Genetics (2 credits)
- QHS 601 Biomedical Statistics I (3 credits; cross-listed with TRMD 655)
- QHS 602 Biomedical Statistics II (3 credits)
- QHS 610 Bioinformatics I (3 credits; cross-listed with TRMD 653)
- QHS 611 Bioinformatics II (3 credits)
- QHS 620 Introduction to Clinical Trials (2 credits)
- QHS 621 Design and Analysis of Clinical Trials (2 credits)
- QHS 650 Secondary Data Analysis (2 credits)
- QHS 651 Secondary Data Analysis Practicum (2 credits)
- QHS 675 Biostatistical Consulting (2 credits)
- QHS 676 Biostatistical Consulting Practicum (1 - 2 credits)

MSCTR Graduate Program Website: msctr.jabsom.hawaii.edu



A Statistician Can Help



- I.
 - Provide a new and less biased perspective on your study
 - Clarify and formalizing the research hypothesis
 - Define the primary and secondary outcome variables
 - Determine the appropriateness of the research design
 - Consider the issues of bias, blinding, stratification, missing data, data and safety monitoring
 - Figure out justifiable sample size and statistical power
 - Specify a detailed and appropriate statistical analysis plan
- II.
 - Provide interim analysis for data and safety monitoring
 - Conduct data checking for quality control
 - Develop or adapt statistical tools for the study
- III – IV.
 - Execute the statistical analysis plan: descriptive and inferential analyses
 - Statistical methods section, TLG, and results interpretation for publications



Collaboration with A Biostatistician

1. Early and often
2. Start the discussion when you have the initial idea
3. It is an iterative process
4. A collaborative effort: equal and fair
5. Ask questions so you can discuss about the general statistical approach without the statistician

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<http://biostat.jabsom.hawaii.edu>



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