

Hypotheses tests with continuous variables

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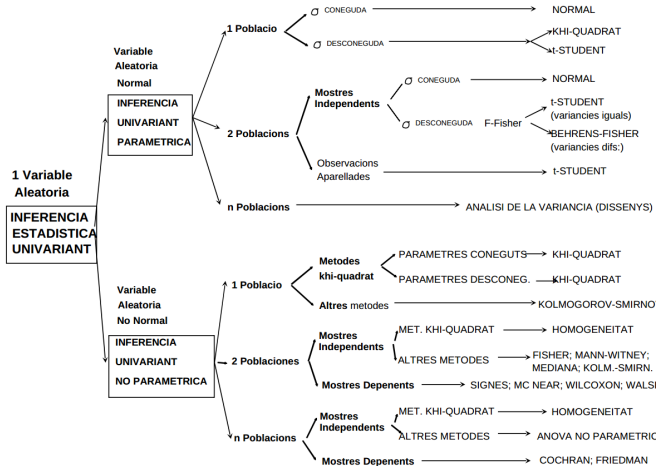
Outline

- 1 INTRODUCTION
- 2 TYPE OF TESTS
- 3 NORMALITY TESTS
- 4 ONE GROUP COMPARISON
- 5 TWO GROUPS COMPARISON IN INDEPENDENT SAMPLES
- 6 TWO GROUPS COMPARISON IN DEPENDENT SAMPLES
- 7 *K GROUPS COMPARISON IN INDEPENDENT SAMPLES*
- 8 *Multiple comparisons and multiple testing*

Introduction

- Once the concept of hypothesis testing is established,
- Researchers face the problem of *which test should be applied at every possible situation*.
- For this, ideally, they should. . .
 - understand the problem and the questions addressed,
 - know available tests for each problem,
 - know (how to check) applicability assumptions of each test,
 - know how robust each test is to assumptions violation.
- Easier to say than to do.
 - Sometimes cheatsheets may be helpful, but be warned against a blind use, that is understand and be critic with the steps.

Which test is appropriate for which problem



Example situation (1): Introduction

- Many experimental questions may be answered through hypothesis testing.
- Imagine, for example, a study designed to compare two distinct hypertension control programs.
- 60 individuals with HTA were randomly assigned to either one or the other group (30 per group)
- Blood pressure was measured each month during a year
 - For simplicity we may keep only data at months 1 and 12

Example situation (2): Data collected

```
hta <- read_excel("datasets/hta.xls")
htaSimple <- hta %>% select(grupo, sexo, tas1, tad1, tas12, tad12)
head(as.data.frame(htaSimple))
```

##	grupo	sexo	tas1	tad1	tas12	tad12
## 1	B	VARON	150	100	150	80
## 2	B	MUJER	160	90	150	90
## 3	B	MUJER	150	90	110	85
## 4	A	VARON	120	80	130	90
## 5	A	MUJER	150	85	120	80
## 6	B	MUJER	140	75	140	90

Example situation (3): Reasonable questions

- The goal of the study is to compare the treatment effect so a reasonable question is:
 - *Is the average decrease in “tad” the same in both groups A and B?*
- Or, if we are testing a new treatment “B”, hat is intended to be batter than “A”
 - *Is the average decrease in “tad” greater in group B?*
- *Although they are not planned in this study* other relevant questions may lead to questions that need a test to be answered, such as:
 - *Is the average tad above 150?*
 - *Has the average tad (in group A) decreased in 12 months?*
 - *Is the average tad different in men and women at basal time?*

Types of tests (1): Confirmatory vs Independence

Distinct classifications can be found in textbooks

- Confirmatory
 - Is average HTA above 150?
 - Is the the tas1 variable normally distributed
- Independence
 - Is sex related to HTA (or is $\text{mean}(\text{HTA})$ the same in men or women)
 - Is average HTA decrease the same for both groups?
- *This classification is useful but artificial, not to say that the term “independence” is slightly abused*

Types of tests (2): Parametric vs Non-parametric

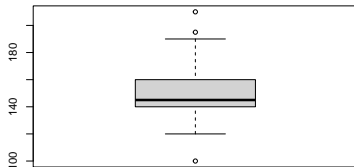
- Parametric tests
 - assume some underlying distribution for the data
 - pose the test in terms of the distribution's parameters
 - E.g. the t-test assumes normality and relies on the normal and t-distribution's parameters
- Non-parametric tests
 - Do not assume an underlying distribution, but they are not assumption-free!
 - Check: Distribution free is not assumption free
- Permutation tests
 - If sample size is not tiny *permutation tests* are a good alternative.

Hands on: Always start looking at the data

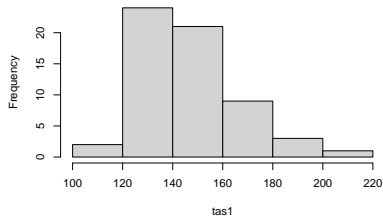
```
oldpar<-par(mfrow=c(1,1)) # Guarda los parámetros para el plot
par(mfrow=c(2,2)) # Dibuja cuatro gráficos por grafico
with(hta, boxplot(tas1, main="Box-plot") )
with(hta, hist(tas1) )
with(hta, qqnorm(tas1, main="Normal QQplot") )
with(hta, qqline(tas1) )
par(oldpar) # Vuelve a los parámetros de dibujo originales
```

Data visualization

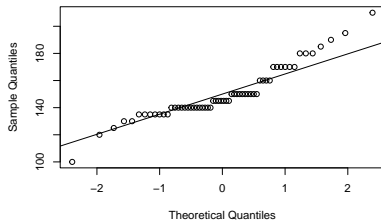
Box-plot



Histogram of tas1



Normal QQplot



Normality and tests

- The choice of test seems to pivot around the question of ¿is my data normally distributed?
- Leaving apart a tence to repeat what we have been taught, why is this so?
 - If the data is normally distributed there exist some *optimal tests* for some one or two sample problems.
 - Data show often a bell-shaped form that can be assimilated to have a gaussian distribution (it is *normal* to observe this).
 - Even if data is not bell-shaped, if sample size is big enough the sample mean tends to be bell-shaped as sample size increase.
- In summary, normality is not only “practical” but common.
- As a consequence checking normality has become one of the first steps of any data analysis.
 - It doesn't hurt, but it is clearly over-rated.

Normality Test

- Normality tests can be used to decide if the data can be considered to follow a normal distribution.
- This is more a theoretical than practical issue because ...
 - If the sample size is too small, the test is not powerful enough.
 - If the sample size is too big, the test will almost always reject the normality hypothesis
- Normality can be tested
 - Graphically:
 - Check if it is a symmetric distribution
 - Probability graphs (QQ-plots)
 - Using Hypothesis test (Normality)
 - Kolmogorov tests
 - Shapiro-Wilks test

Normality test: Shapiro-Wilks

- In normality test, the null hypothesis is normality
- That is, rejecting the null suggests departure of normality.
 - H_0 : The data follow a normal distribution
 - H_1 : The data do not follow a normal distribution

```
with(hta,shapiro.test(tad1) ) # Shapiro Wilk test
```

```
##  
##  Shapiro-Wilk normality test  
##  
## data:  tad1  
## W = 0.96622, p-value = 0.09512
```

One sample tests

- One sample tests refer to a single characteristic of the population such as:
 - *Is it true that the average tad in HTA population is above 150?*
- It is often said that they are less interesting because they are rarely used in most practical situations where the main goal is comparison
- *However*, noticing that a paired tests is equivalent to a one sample tests for the difference makes us realize their relevance.

One sample parametric vs non-parametric tests

- If we assume normality an appropriate test for a hypothesis about the mean is the *t*-test
 - $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0, \quad H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0, (\mu > \mu_0, \mu < \mu_0).$
- If we don't assume normality we can rely on
 - Wilcoxon rank test, if data re symmetrical
 - Sign test in other cases

Hands on one sample tests (1): t-test

- Is tad in HTA patients above 90?
- Notice that even if we are interested in “above 90” the null is “equality”

- $H_0 : \mu = 90, \quad H_1 : \mu > 90.$

```
with(hta,t.test(tad1,mu=90, alternative="greater") ) # One sample t-test
```

```
##
```

```
## One Sample t-test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: tad1
```

```
## t = -1.2137, df = 59, p-value = 0.8852
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is greater than 90
```

```
## 95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
## 86.23664 Inf
```

```
## sample estimates:
```

```
## mean of x
```

```
## 88.41667
```

Hands on one sample tests (2): Wilcoxon test

- In wilcoxon test the null hypothesis is about the median.

```
with(hta,wilcox.test(tad1,mu=90, alternative="greater") ) # One
```

```
##
```

```
## Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction
```

```
##
```

```
## data: tad1
```

```
## V = 429, p-value = 0.8934
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true location is greater than 90
```

Homogeneity variance Test

```
library(car)
hta%>%
  group_by(sexo) %>%
  summarise(var = sd(tas1))
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
##   sexo    var
##   <chr> <dbl>
## 1 MUJER  17.6
## 2 VARON  22.1
```

```
with(hta, leveneTest(tad1~factor(sexo), center="median"))
```

```
## Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance (center = "median")
##           Df F value Pr(>F)
## group    1  1.3506 0.2499
##           58
```

- p value is over 0.05
- We can assume homogeneity of variances

T test when variances are equal

```
with(hta,t.test(tas1~factor(sexo),var.equal=TRUE ))
```

```
##
```

```
## Two Sample t-test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: tas1 by factor(sexo)
```

```
## t = -0.2471, df = 58, p-value = 0.8057
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means between groups
```

```
## 95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
## -11.603461 9.053519
```

```
## sample estimates:
```

```
## mean in group MUJER mean in group VARON
```

```
## 149.5946 150.8696
```

- Type I Error is over than 0.05
- We cannot reject mean equality

T test when variances are unequal

```
with(hta,t.test(tas1~factor(sexo),var.equal=FALSE ))
```

```
##
```

```
## Welch Two Sample t-test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: tas1 by factor(sexo)
```

```
## t = -0.23436, df = 39.098, p-value = 0.8159
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means between groups
```

```
## 95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
## -12.277927 9.727986
```

```
## sample estimates:
```

```
## mean in group MUJER mean in group VARON
```

```
## 149.5946 150.8696
```

- Same conclusions as before
- Test is also known as Welch test

U Mann-Whitney or Sum Rank non parametric test

```
with(hta,wilcox.test(tad1~factor(sexo)  
  ,alternative='two.sided',exact=TRUE, correct=FALSE))
```

```
##
```

```
## Wilcoxon rank sum test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: tad1 by factor(sexo)
```

```
## W = 434, p-value = 0.8955
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true location shift is not equal to 0
```

```
hta%>%
```

```
  group_by(sexo) %>%
```

```
  summarise(median = median(tad1))
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
```

```
##   sexo median
```

```
##   <chr>   <dbl>
```

```
## 1 MUJER      90
```

```
## 2 VARON      90
```

- Null Hypothesis cannot be rejected

Paired T-test

```
with(hta,t.test(tas1,tas12,paired=TRUE))
```

```
##  
## Paired t-test  
##  
## data: tas1 and tas12  
## t = 6.0672, df = 51, p-value = 1.609e-07  
## alternative hypothesis: true mean difference is not equal to  
## 95 percent confidence interval:  
## 8.518285 16.943253  
## sample estimates:  
## mean difference  
## 12.73077
```

```
summary(hta$tas1)
```

```
##      Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.  
##    100.0   140.0   145.0   150.1   160.0   210.0
```

```
summary(hta$tas12)
```

Paired Sign-Rank Wilcoxon Test

```
with(hta,wilcox.test(tad1,tad12,  
    exact=TRUE, paired=TRUE))
```

```
##
```

```
## Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction
```

```
##
```

```
## data: tad1 and tad12
```

```
## V = 478.5, p-value = 0.05333
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true location shift is not equal to 0
```


Read diabetes data

```
library(readxl)
library(dplyr)
library(magrittr)
diabetes <- read_excel("datasets/diabetes.xls")
sapply(diabetes, class)
```

```
##      numpacie      mort      tempsviu      edat      bmi      edatdiag
## "numeric" "character" "numeric" "numeric" "numeric" "numeric"
##      tabac      sbp      dbp      ecg      chd
## "character" "numeric" "numeric" "character" "character"
```

```
diabetes_factor <- diabetes %>%
  mutate_if(sapply(diabetes, is.character), as.factor) %>%
  select (-numpacie)
```

```
diabetes%>%
  group_by(ecg) %>%
  summarise( n=n(),
             mean = mean(edat),
             sd=sd(edat))
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 4
##   ecg      n mean   sd
##   <chr> <int> <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 Anormal    11  64.9  6.76
## 2 Frontera   27  53.8 11.4
## 3 Normal   111  50.5 11.5
```

ANOVA

```
anova<-aov(edat~ecg,data=diabetes_factor)
summary(anova)
```

```
##              Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value    Pr(>F)
## ecg           2    2166   1083.0     8.619 0.00029 ***
## Residuals    146   18347    125.7
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1
```

Multicomparison

```
library(multcomp)
tuk <- glht(anova, linfct = mcp(ecg = "Tukey"))

print(summary(tuk)) # pairwise tests

##
## Simultaneous Tests for General Linear Hypotheses
##
## Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts
##
##
## Fit: aov(formula = edat ~ ecg, data = diabetes_factor)
##
## Linear Hypotheses:
##
##           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## Frontera - Anormal == 0 -11.094      4.010  -2.767 0.016504 *
## Normal - Anormal == 0  -14.405      3.543  -4.065 0.000216 ***
## Normal - Frontera == 0   -3.310      2.405  -1.376 0.345695
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## (Adjusted p values reported -- single-step method)
```

```
print(confint(tuk, level=0.95)) # confidence intervals
```

```
##
## Simultaneous Confidence Intervals
##
## Multiple Comparisons of Means: Tukey Contrasts
##
##
## Fit: aov(formula = edat ~ ecg, data = diabetes_factor)
##
## Quantile = 2.3459
## 95% family-wise confidence level
##
##
## Linear Hypotheses:
##           Estimate lwr      upr
## Frontera - Anormal == 0 -11.0943 -20.5007 -1.6879
## Normal - Anormal == 0  -14.4046 -22.7171 -6.0921
## Normal - Frontera == 0   -3.3103  -8.9533  2.3326
```

Multicomparison plot

```
plot(confint(tuk))
```

Kruskal-Wallis Test

```
diabetes_factor%>%  
  group_by(ecg) %>%  
  summarise(median = median(edat))
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 2  
##   ecg      median  
##   <fct>    <dbl>  
## 1 Anormal      64  
## 2 Frontera     53  
## 3 Normal       49
```

```
kruskal.test(edat~ecg, data=diabetes_factor)
```

```
##
```

```
## Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test
```

```
##
```

```
## data: edat by ecg
```

```
## Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 17.483, df = 2, p-value = 0.0001
```

Dunn Test for multiple comparison

```
library(dunn.test)
with(diabetes_factor,dunn.test(edat,ecg,method="bonferroni"))
```

```
##    Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test
##
## data: edat and ecg
## Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 17.4826, df = 2, p-value = 0
##
##
##                                     Comparison of edat by ecg
##                                     (Bonferroni)
## Col Mean-|
## Row Mean |      Anormal    Frontera
## -----+-----
## Frontera |      2.721182
##           |      0.0098*
##           |
## Normal   |      4.075469    1.467464
##           |      0.0001*      0.2134
##
```