Application of Hypothesis Tests

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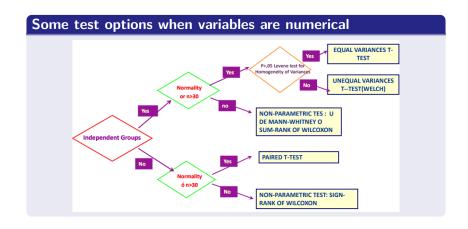
Outline

- INTRODUCTION. TYPES OF TESTS
- NORMALITY TESTS
- ONE GROUP COMPARISON
- TWO GROUPS COMPARISON IN INDEPENDENT / DEPENDENT SAMPLES
- CATEGORICAL VARIABLES
- PROPORTION TESTS
- INDEPENDENCE TESTS

Introduction

- Once the concept of hypothesis testing is established,
- Researchers face the problem of which test should be applied at every possible situation.
- Best solution:
 - understand the problem and the questions addressed
 - know available tests for each problem
 - be aware of applicability assumptions of each test and how to check them.
- 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.

Select the test according to each situation (1)



Introductory Example

- A study was 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

В	С	D	E	F	G	Н	- 1
sexo	grupo	tas1	tad1	tas2	tad2	tas3	tad3
VARON	В	150	100	150	90	170	
MUJER	В	160	90	170	90	160	
MUJER	В	150	90	110	90	115	
VARON	Α	120	80	140	90	140	
MUJER	Α	150	85	145	85	160	
MUJER	В	140	75	160	70	135	
MUJER	Α	150	100	140	90	130	
VARON	Α	160	90	170	90	170	
MUJER	Α	145	105	170	95	140	
MUJER	Α	210	110				
MUJER	Α	170	100	170	90	170	
MUJER	В	140	90	140	90	100	

Introductory Example (2)

```
hta <- read excel("datasets/hta.xls")</pre>
print(head(hta))
## # A tibble: 6 x 27
                     numero sexo grupo tas1 tad1 tas2 tad2 tas3
##
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        tad
                         <dbl> <chr> <chr> <dbl> <dbl > <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl > <dbl >
##
                                          1 VARON B
                                                                                                              150
                                                                                                                                        100
                                                                                                                                                                                                                    170
## 1
                                                                                                                                                                 150
                                                                                                                                                                                              90
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  90
## 2
                                          2 MUJER B
                                                                                                              160
                                                                                                                                           90 170
                                                                                                                                                                                              90
                                                                                                                                                                                                                    160
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 80
                                                                                                                                                                110
## 3
                                          3 MUJER B
                                                                                                              150
                                                                                                                                           90
                                                                                                                                                                                              90
                                                                                                                                                                                                                   115
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 90
## 4
                                         4 VARON A
                                                                                                             120
                                                                                                                                           80 140
                                                                                                                                                                                              90
                                                                                                                                                                                                                   140
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 90
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 90
## 5
                                          5 MUJER A
                                                                                                           150 85 145 85
                                                                                                                                                                                                                   160
## 6
                                          6 MUJER B
                                                                                                             140
                                                                                                                                          75 160
                                                                                                                                                                                              70
                                                                                                                                                                                                                   135
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 7!
## #
                      ... with 14 more variables: tas6 <dbl>, tad6 <dbl>, ta
## #
                             tas8 <dbl>, tad8 <dbl>, tas9 <dbl>, tad9 <dbl>, tas9
## #
                             tas11 <dbl>, tad11 <dbl>, tas12 <dbl>, tad12 <dbl>
```

Some questions to be answered

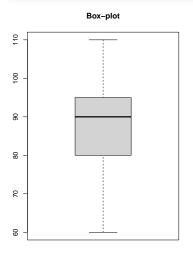
- Is diastolic (min) tension above 90, "on average", at the beginning of the study?
- Are samples at baseline equivalent? In Age? Sex%? Sist?
 Diast?
- Has there been a change in BP between month 1 (first measure) and month 12?
- Has this change been different between treatment groups?

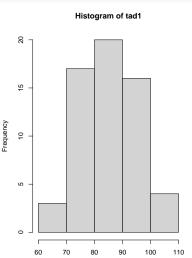
What type of test for each question?

- Is diastolic (min) tension above 90, "on average", at the beginning of the study?
 - One variable. Test about the mean
- Are samples at baseline equivalent?
 - Comparison between distinct groups of individuals in two groups (A/B, Male/Fem)
- Has there been a change in BP between month 1 (first measure) and month 12?
 - Comparison between same individuals at different time points

Always start looking at the data

```
par(mfrow=c(1,2)) # Draw four plots in one panel
with(hta, boxplot(tad1, main="Box-plot") )
with(hta, hist(tad1) )
```

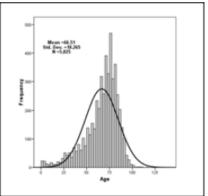




General approach

- Hypothesis tesing is useful to answer some questions in problems.
- These can be applied in distinct scenarios:
 - With numerical/continuos or categorical variables.
 - With data distribued as a gaussian population or not
 - With one or more groups of data.
 - With dependent or independent data.
- Try not to blindly apply recipes
 - Think about the situation that generated the data
 - Think about how your question becomes a test
 - Think about the assumptions of the test, how to check them and how robust may the test be to assumption violations.
 - Know how to apply the test
 - Do not blindly and dumby rely on cutoffs!

Normality Test



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

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

One sample Test

- We do not use it very often.
- Very similar to estimation questions. It can be solved calculating a confidence interval
- Idea: We want to verify from a sample a previous hypothesis about the mean in a population
- Example: Can it be accepted that the initial TAD is 90 or greater in hypertensive patients?
- If data is assumed to follow a normal distribution: t-test
- If data is **not** assumed to follow a normal distribution: wilcoxon-tets

Example of one-sample test

Assuming data does not follow a normal distribution . . .

```
with(hta, wilcox.test(tad1, mu=90)) # One sample wilcoxon.test
##
   Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction
##
## data: tad1
## V = 429, p-value = 0.2173
## alternative hypothesis: true location is not equal to 90
The t-test is robust to small departures of normality ...
with(hta,t.test(tad1,mu=90)) # One sample T.test
##
   One Sample t-test
##
## data: tad1
## t = -1.2137, df = 59, p-value = 0.2297
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 90
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 85 80626 91 02707
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
## 88.41667
```

Exercise 1

- Check the normality of tas1 variable, call it "TAS" in hta dataset
- 2 Can it be accepted that the initial TAS is 120 in Hipertensive patients?
- ullet Find the 95% confidence interval for the mean of tas1 variable
- Extra: Can it be accepted that the initial TAS is higher than 120 in Hipertensive women?

Comparison between two groups ("two-sample problems")

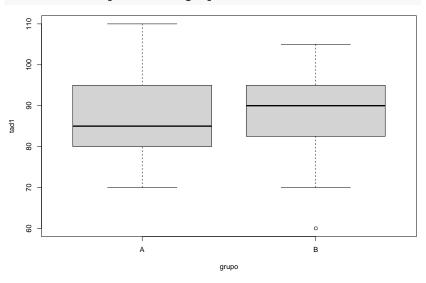
- Most of the times, tests are associated with comparison between two or more groups.
 - Are the two groups A and B comparable?, that is, given a certain variable, does it take on average, the same value, at baseline time?
 - Is blood pressure comparable between first and 12th measures?

Notice that:

- the first question implies comparison between distinct groups of individuals
- while the first one assumes comparison between the same individuals at two time points.

Start looking at the data

with(hta, boxplot(tad1~grupo))



Compare two groups assuming normality:

two sample t-test for independent groups

- The two-sample t-test is used to compare two groups assuming normality.
- The test changes depending on if the variances of the two groups can be considered equal or not.
 - This preliminary comparison is omitted here.

```
with(hta,t.test(tad1-factor(sexo),var.equal=FALSE ))
##
## Welch Two Sample t-test
##
## data: tad1 by factor(sexo)
## t = 0.33362, df = 38.144, p-value = 0.7405
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means between group MUJER and group VARON is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## -4.852834 6.768228
## sample estimates:
## mean in group MUJER mean in group VARON
## 88.78378 87.82609
```

Compare two groups without assuming normality

U Mann-Whitney or Sum Rank non parametric test

```
hta%>%
 group_by(grupo) %>%
  summarise (median = median(tad1))
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
     grupo median
   <chr> <dbl>
## 1 A
## 2 R
               90
with(hta,wilcox.test(tad1~factor(grupo)
    .alternative='two.sided'.exact=TRUE, correct=FALSE))
##
   Wilcoxon rank sum test
##
##
## data: tad1 by factor(grupo)
## W = 432, p-value = 0.7926
## alternative hypothesis: true location shift is not equal to 0

    Null Hypothesis cannot be rejected
```

Exercise 2

- Is Diastolic pressure ("TDA") comparable at baseline time between Men and women?
- What is the Hypothesis that we want to test? Describe the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis.
- What test would be appropriate to answer the question?
- Compute and decide
- Apply a non-parametric test and compare the results

Comparisons with dependent (paired) data

- If we consider two groups of dependent data we are in a prticular situation.
 - Apparently two groups
 - Only one group of individuals
- Computer programs usually provide tests for "paired data", but they are essentially one-sample tests fro the difference between the values of the same individuals.
- Again, depending on, if normality is assumed or not, we rely on paired-t-test or wilcoxon test for paired data.

Exercise 3

- Can we consider that systolic and diastolic pressure have changed between baseline and month 12?
- Choose the appropriate test and apply it to yioeld a decision.
- Think carefully about the hypothesis being tested.
 - What is a reasonable option for the alternative hypothesis?

Categorical Variables

- Categorical variables represent facts that can be better described with labels than with numbers.
 - Example: Sex, better choose from {Male , Female} than from: $\{1,2\}.$
- Sometimes ordering of labels makes sense, although it is not reasonable to assign numbers to categories:
 - Example: Tumor stage: $\{1,2,3,4\}$, but $1+2 \neq 3!!!$
 - Sex is an example of a categorical variable in nominal scale
 - Stage is an example of a categorical variable in ordinal scale

Representing categorical variables in R

Categorical variables are well represented with factors

```
sex <- factor(c("Female", "Male"))
blood_group <- factor(c("A", "B", "AB", "O"))</pre>
```

• Be careful with the names of factors, by default, *levels* assigned in alphabetical order.

```
levels(blood_group)
```

```
## [1] "A" "AB" "B" "O"
```

To verify class of a variable

```
class(sex)
```

```
## [1] "factor"
```

Creating factors

- Factors can be created . . .
 - automatically, when reading a file or
 - Not all functions for reading data from file will create a factor!!!
 - Usually levels will be defined from alphabetic order
 - using the factor or the as.factor commands.
 - more flexible

Create factors automatically

- This is achieved by
 - Using the read.table or read.delim functions for reading
 - Setting the "character variables as.factors" to TRUE
- Example
 - Load the diabetes dataset using the Import Dataset feature of Rstudio
 - From text (base) (use the file osteoporosis.csv)
 - From text (readr) (use the file osteoporosis.csv)
 - What is the class of the variable menop

Create factors automatically

```
osteo1 <- read.csv("datasets/osteoporosis.csv",sep = "\t",</pre>
                    stringsAsFactors=TRUE)
class(osteo1$menop)
summary(osteo1$menop)
str(osteo1)
library(readr)
osteo2 <- read delim("datasets/osteoporosis.csv", "\t",
                      escape_double = FALSE)
class(osteo2$menop)
osteo2$menop <- as.factor(osteo2$menop)</pre>
class(osteo2$menop)
summary(osteo2$menop)
str(osteo2)
```

Exercise 4

- Select diabetes.xls datasets
- Read the dataset into R and check that the categorical variables you are interested (mort, tabac, ecg) in are converted into factors.
- Confirm the conversion by summarizing the variables

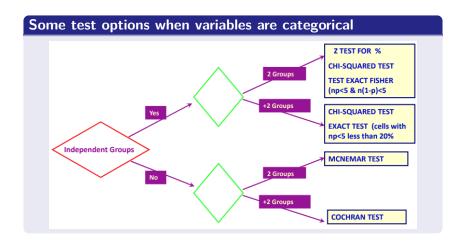
The analysis of categorical variables

- The analysis of categorical data proceeds as usual:
- Start exploring the data with the tables and graphics
- Proceed to estimation and/or testing if appropriate
- Estimation
 - Proportions: Point estimates, confidence intervals
- Testing
 - One variable (tests with proportions)
 - With two variables (chi-square and related)

Types of test with categorical variables

- One variable (tests with proportions)
 - Does the proportion (% affected) match a given value?
 - Is the proportion (% affected) the same in two populations?
- With two variables (chi-square and related)
 - Is there an association between two categorical variables?
 - Is there a relationship between the values of a categorical variable before and after treatment?

Select the test according to each situation (3)



Example

Consider the following study relating smoking and cancer.

Load data	a: "ç	ladesca	ncer.	csv"						
				Smoking X=1		Non smoking X=0			TOTAL	
CANCER Y=1			190			87			277	
NO CANCER Y=0				60	163			223		
TOTAL			250			250			500	
0000 0000 0000 0000	0	00000000 0000000 0000000 0000000 000000		00000000 0000000 0000000 0000000 000000	00000000		00000000 00000000 00000000 00000000 0000	000000 000000 000000 000000 000000 00000	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	

Our goal here would be to determine if there is an association between smoking and cancer.

Crosstabulating a dataset

- Data may come from a table (aggregated) or disagregated in a data file.
- In this case we need to build the table applying "cross-tabulation"

#attach(dadescancer)

mytable <-table(dadescancer\$cancer, dadescancer\$fumar)
mytable</pre>

```
## Fuma No fuma
## Cancer 190 87
## No cancer 60 163
```

Crosstabulation (2): Marginal tables

Marginal values are important to understand the structure of the data:

```
mytable<- addmargins(mytable)
mytable</pre>
```

##

##		Fuma	No	fuma	Sum
##	Cancer	190		87	277
##	No cancer	60		163	223
##	Sum	250		250	500

Crosstabulation (3): In percentages

Showing tables as percentages is useful for comparisons

```
prop.table(mytable) # cell percentages
##
##
                Fuma No fuma
                                Siim
##
    Cancer 0.0950 0.0435 0.1385
    No cancer 0.0300 0.0815 0.1115
##
##
    Sum 0.1250 0.1250 0.2500
prop.table(mytable, 1) # row percentages
##
##
                   Fuma No fuma
                                        Sum
##
    Cancer 0.3429603 0.1570397 0.5000000
##
    No cancer 0.1345291 0.3654709 0.5000000
              0.2500000 0.2500000 0.5000000
##
    Sum
# prop.table(mytable, 2) # column percentages
```

Exercise 5

- With the diabetes dataset repeat the crosstabulation done above using
 - Two categorical variables
 - Variable "mort" and a newly created variable "bmi30" created by properly categorizing variable bmi.

One variable: Proportion tests

- According to medical literature, in the period 1950-1980, the proportion of obese individuals (defined as: BMI \geq 30) was 15% in the population of men over 55 years old.
- A random sample obtained from the same population between 2000 and 2003 showed that, over a total of 723 men older than 55, 142 were obese.
- With a significance level of 5%, can we say that the population of men older than 55 in 2000-2003 had the same proportion of obese cases than that population had in 50'-80'?

Proportion tests with R

Alternative "NOT EQUAL". This is set by default.

```
prop.test(x=142, n=723, p=0.15)
##
##
    1-sample proportions test with continuity correction
##
## data: 142 out of 723, null probability 0.15
## X-squared = 11.849, df = 1, p-value = 0.0005768
## alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.15
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.1684325 0.2276606
## sample estimates:
##
           р
## 0.1964039
```

Alternative "GREATER"

```
prop.test(x=142, n=723, p=0.15, alternative="g")
##
##
    1-sample proportions test with continuity correction
##
## data: 142 out of 723, null probability 0.15
## X-squared = 11.849, df = 1, p-value = 0.0002884
## alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.15
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.1725953 1.0000000
## sample estimates:
##
           р
## 0.1964039
```

Alternative "LESS THAN"

```
prop.test(x=142, n=723, p=0.15, alternative="l")
##
    1-sample proportions test with continuity correction
##
##
## data: 142 out of 723, null probability 0.15
## X-squared = 11.849, df = 1, p-value = 0.9997
## alternative hypothesis: true p is less than 0.15
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.0000000 0.2225404
## sample estimates:
##
           р
## 0.1964039
```

Notice that choosing the wrong alternative may yield unreasonable conclusions

Estimation comes with proportion test

- prop.test does three distinct calculations
 - A test for the hypothesis $H_0: p = p_0$ is performed
 - A confidence interval for *p* is built based on the sample
 - A point estimate for *p* is also provided.

```
> prop.test(x=142, n=723, p=0.15)

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: 142 out of 723, null probability 0.15
X-squared = 11.849, df = 1, p-value = 0.0005768

alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.15
95 percent confidence interval:
0.1684325 0.2276606

confidence interval
sample estimates:
p
0-1964039

Point estimate
```

Exercise 3

- In the diabetes dataset.
 - Test the hypothesis that the proportion of patients with bmi30 is higher than 40%
 - In the global population of the study
 - Only in patients with 'mort' equal "Muerto"

Contingency tables

- A contingency table (a.k.a cross tabulation or cross tab) is a matrix-like table that displays the (multivariate) frequency distribution of the variables.
- It is bidimensional, and classifies all observations according to two categorical variables (A and B, rows and columns).

Clasif	\mathbf{B}_{I}	B_2	 \mathbf{B}_{s}	Total
A_I	n_{II}	n_{12}	 n_{Is}	$n_{I\bullet}$
\mathbf{A}_2	n_{21}	n ₂₂	 n_{2s}	$n_{2\bullet}$
A_r	n_{ri}	n_{r2}	 n _{rs}	$n_{r\bullet}$
Total	$n_{\bullet I}$	n _{•2}	n _{*s}	N

Chi-squared test

 A familiy of tests receiving its name because they all rely on the Chi-Squared distribution to compute the test probabilities.

Chi squared independence test

 When the sample comes from a single population with 2 categorical variables, the aim is to determine if there is relationship between them.

Chi squared homogeneity test

 When each row is a sample from distinct populations (groups, subgroups...), the aim is to determine if both groups have significative differences in that variable

Chi-squared tests

- When we have:
 - quantitative data,
 - two or more categories,
 - independent observations,
 - adequate sample size (>10)
- and our questions are like. . .
 - Do the number of individuals or objects that fall in each pair of categories differ significantly from the number you would expect if there was no association?
 - Is this difference between the expected and observed due to chance ("sampling variation"), or is it a real difference?

Chi squared.test: Observed vs expected

Observades	Braf -	Braf+
Grau 1	97	5
Grau 2	81	7
Grau 3	32	18

Esperades	Braf -	Braf+
Grau 1	89.25	12.75
Grau 2	77.00	11.00
Grau 3	43.75	6.25

Chi squared tests: Observed vs expected with R

require(gmodels)
mytable <- table(dadescancer\$cancer, dadescancer\$fumar)
CrossTable(mytable,expected = T,prop.chisq = F,prop.c = F,prop.c = F,prop.chisq = F,prop.chisq = F,prop.c = F,prop.chisq = F,prop.chisq

```
Cell Contents
```

Total Observations in Table: 500

	 Fuma	No fuma	Row Total
Cancer	190 138.500 0.380	87 138.500 0.174	277
No cancer	60 111.500 0.120	163 111.500 0.326	223
Column Total	250	250	500

Chi squared tests with R

```
chisq.test (mytable)

##

## Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity corre
##

## data: mytable

## X-squared = 84.214, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16</pre>
```

Fisher test. an assumptions-free alternative

Chi-squared test require that sample sizes are "big" and expected frequencies are, at least greater than 5.

Fisher test can be an alternative if these assumptions are not met, especially for two times two tables.

```
fisher.test(mytable)
##
##
    Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data
##
## data: mytable
## p-value < 2.2e-16
## alternative hypothesis: true odds ratio is not equal to
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 3.945907 8.936465
## sample estimates:
```

odds ratio

Exercise 6

- Use the diabetes dataset to study if it can be detected an association between the variables mort and tabac in the diabetes dataset.
- Do not start with a test but with an appropriate summarization and visualization!

Mcnemar test

Mcnemar test is used to compare the frequencies of paired samples of dichotomous data

- Ho: There is no significant change in individuals after the treatment
- H1: There is a significant change in individuals after the treatment

Mcnemar test. Example

SELF * SURGICAL Crosstabulation

Count

_		SUR		
		Rupture	No Rupture	Total
SELF	Rupture	69	28	97
	No Rupture	5	63	68
Total		74	91	165

.Table \leftarrow matrix(c(69,28,5,63), 2, 2, byrow=TRUE)

```
mcnemar.test(.Table)

##

## McNemar's Chi-squared test with continuity correction
##
```

McNemar's chi-squared = 14.667, df = 1, p-value = 0.000

data: .Table