Statistics in biomedical research, 3rd session: Multiple hypothesis testing; correlation testing; complex experimental designs.

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This slideshow is accessible at:

http://www.igh.cnrs.fr/equip/Seitz/en_Stats3.pdf

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Comparison of categorical distributions

Comparison of numerical distributions

Multiple hypothesis testing

Correlation tests

Elaborated experimental design

Conclusion

Comparing counts per category between several experimental conditions.



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Comparing counts per category between several experimental conditions.

	Cond. 1	Cond. 2
G1	19	5
S	4	8
G2	25	36
М	3	1

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A t-test on each category ?

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A t-test on each category ? Would require replicates of the counting (which already contains multiple observations).

Comparing counts per category between several experimental conditions.

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A t-test on each category ? Would require replicates of the counting (which already contains multiple observations). What if a category appears significantly different but not the others ?

 \longrightarrow t-test not adapted here.

To compare count tables: χ^2 test or (more precise): Fisher's exact test.

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To compare count tables: χ^2 test or (more precise): Fisher's exact test.

Here: χ^2 test *p*-value=0.005921; Fisher's exact test *p*-value=0.003375.

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 χ^2 test: imprecise for small numbers (less than ${\approx}10$ observations in at least one category).

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Danger ! These tests use raw counting data (no normalization !).

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p-value=1

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3	2	30
6	6	60
5	6	50

p-value=1

302060605060

p-value=0.2413

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3	2
6	6
5	6

30	20
60	60
50	60

p-value=0.2413

50
60
50

p-value=1

300	200
600	600
500	600

$$p$$
-value=4.588×10⁻⁷

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3	2]	30	20			300	200	
6	6		60	60			600	600	
5	6		50	60			500	600	
<i>p</i> -val	ue=	1	<i>p</i> -value=	=0.24	13	<i>p</i> -va	lue=4	.588×1	10 ⁻⁷

Normalization (*e.g.*, percentage) would lose the information on raw observation number.

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Comparing numerical distributions globally (not just their means).

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Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: null hypothesis: the two datasets were sampled from the same distribution (unknown, any shape).

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Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: null hypothesis: the two datasets were sampled from the same distribution (unknown, any shape). Historical version of the test: for continuous variables only.

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R commands used to generate these graphs: [link].

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Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: null hypothesis: the two datasets were sampled from the same distribution (unknown, any shape).



R commands used to generate these graphs: [link]. *p*-values: t-test: 0.9005; Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: 0.02171.

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Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: null hypothesis: the two datasets were sampled from the same distribution (unknown, any shape).

 \longrightarrow More sensitive, but harder to interpret (requires a detailed mechanistic understanding of the process).

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Significance threshold of 0.05: expect \approx 5% false positives.

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Significance threshold of 0.05: expect ${\approx}5\%$ false positives.

If you perform many tests (Is there a significant difference between conditions "x" and "y" at day 1 ? At day 2 ? At day 3 ?...)

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 \longrightarrow performing 20,000 tests, you would get $\approx\!\!1,\!000$ false positives (transcriptomics experiments would always be wrong !).

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 \longrightarrow performing 20,000 tests, you would get $\approx\!\!1,\!000$ false positives (transcriptomics experiments would always be wrong !).

Difference between true and false positives: true positives are reproducible (but: large experiments are hard to reproduce in practice). Statistics session 3

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Empirical method: making significance threshold more and more stringent if the number of tests increases.



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Empirical method: making significance threshold more and more stringent if the number of tests increases.

Bonferroni correction: if *n* is the number of tested hypotheses, and α is the usual threshold, then rather use α/n as a threshold.

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Empirical method: making significance threshold more and more stringent if the number of tests increases.

Bonferroni correction: if *n* is the number of tested hypotheses, and α is the usual threshold, then rather use α/n as a threshold. Easier to use: multiply every *p*-value by *n* (and whenever the product is larger than 1, set it to 1) rather than dividing the threshold.

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Benjamini-Hochberg correction: do not multiply all n p-values by n, but: by an incrementally increasing factor (from 1 to n) in the decreasing list of p-values.

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Benjamini-Hochberg correction: do not multiply all *n p*-values by *n*, but: by an incrementally increasing factor (from 1 to *n*) in the decreasing list of *p*-values. Less stringent, less false negatives. Completely *ad hoc* principle, but very popular in high-throughput molecular biology.

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Benjamini-Hochberg correction: do not multiply all *n p*-values by *n*, but: by an incrementally increasing factor (from 1 to *n*) in the decreasing list of *p*-values. Less stringent, less false negatives. Completely *ad hoc* principle, but very popular in high-throughput molecular biology.

A particular case: multiple t-tests against a common control condition: Dunnett's test.

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Principle: do two variables tend to co-vary, or do they vary independently ?

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R commands used to generate that graph: [link].



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R commands used to generate that graph: [link].

Pearson's coefficient: r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432).



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R commands used to generate that graph: [link]. Null hypothesis: correlation coefficient is 0. **Pearson's coefficient:** r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432).



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R commands used to generate that graph: [link]. Null hypothesis: correlation coefficient is 0. **Pearson's coefficient:** r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432). = +1 for a perfect and increasing linear correlation, and -1 if it is decreasing; intermediary values for imperfect correlation.



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R commands used to generate that graph: [link]. Null hypothesis: correlation coefficient is 0. **Pearson's coefficient:** r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432). **Kendall's coefficient:** $\tau = 0.0203$ (*p*-value=0.4968).



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R commands used to generate that graph: [link]. Null hypothesis: correlation coefficient is 0. **Pearson's coefficient:** r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432). **Kendall's coefficient:** $\tau = 0.0203$ (*p*-value=0.4968). = +1 if every point pair varies concordantly, and -1 if they all vary discordantly; intermediary values otherwise.

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R commands used to generate that graph: [link]. Null hypothesis: correlation coefficient is 0. Pearson's coefficient: r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432). Kendall's coefficient: $\tau = 0.0203$ (*p*-value=0.4968). Spearman's coefficient: $\rho = 0.0315$ (*p*-value=0.4827).



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R commands used to generate that graph: [link]. Null hypothesis: correlation coefficient is 0. **Pearson's coefficient:** r = 0.0352 (*p*-value=0.432). **Kendall's coefficient:** $\tau = 0.0203$ (*p*-value=0.4968). **Spearman's coefficient:** $\rho = 0.0315$ (*p*-value=0.4827). Pearson's coefficient on values' ranks (looks for a monotonous relationship, not necessarily linear).



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Pearson's coefficient: r = 0.0846 (*p*-value=0.05882) Kendall's coefficient: $\tau = 0.0126$ (*p*-value=0.6732) Spearman's coefficient: $\rho = 0.0435$ (*p*-value=0.3313)



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Pearson's coefficient: r = 0.0846 (*p*-value=0.05882) Kendall's coefficient: $\tau = 0.0126$ (*p*-value=0.6732) Spearman's coefficient: $\rho = 0.0435$ (*p*-value=0.3313)

 \longrightarrow Need to have a mathematical model for the response y to x ("is there a correlation between y and x^2 ?").

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A classical trap: correlation does not imply causality.



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A classical trap: correlation does not imply causality.

A is a cause for B, or B is a cause for A ? Are A and B two consequences of the same cause C ? \ldots

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Comparing more than 2 groups.



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Comparing more than 2 groups (*e.g.*, "Between bakers, teachers, policeman, nurses, is there a difference in the time spent watching TV ? ").

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R commands used to generate that graph: [link].



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Comparing more than 2 groups.



Analysis of variance (ANOVA): conditions: residual normality $(\implies$ normality of observations within each group), variance homogeneity, and independence between observations.

R commands used to generate that graph: [link].



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Comparing more than 2 groups.



Analysis of variance (ANOVA): conditions: residual normality (\implies normality of observations within each group), variance homogeneity, and independence between observations. ANOVA *p*-value=7.39×10⁻⁶ \longrightarrow an effet of job (without further detail !). R commands used to generate that graph: [link].



"Post-hoc" tests (here: pairwise t-tests) to identify mutually significantly different groups.



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"Post-hoc" tests (here: pairwise t-tests) to identify mutually significantly different groups.

t-test *p*-values with Benjamini-Hochberg correction:

	baker	nurse	policeman
nurse	0.47648	-	-
policeman	0.03867	0.12304	-
teacher	0.00290	0.00036	5.2×10^{-6}



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t-test *p*-values with Benjamini-Hochberg correction:

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Danger ! Start with ANOVA before engaging into pairwise t-tests (high risk of false positives otherwise: multiple hypothesis testing).

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Several variables simultaneously (*e.g.*, effect of age and *Drosophila* strain on a physiological response).

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R commands used to generate that graph: [link].

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Several variables simultaneously (*e.g.*, effect of age and *Drosophila* strain on a physiological response).



Multidimensional ANOVA (here: two variables \longrightarrow two-way ANOVA).

R commands used to generate that graph: [link].

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Multidimensional ANOVA (here: two variables \longrightarrow two-way ANOVA).

Same requirements than one-way ANOVA: normality, homoscedasticity, independence.

R commands used to generate that graph: [link].

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Two-way ANOVA without interaction: *p*-values: strain: 1.47×10^{-4} ; age: $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$.



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Two-way ANOVA without interaction: *p*-values: strain: 1.47×10^{-4} ; age: $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$.



If each variable has an effect, their interaction could have one too.

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Two-way ANOVA without interaction: *p*-values: strain: 1.47×10^{-4} ; age: $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$.



If each variable has an effect, their interaction could have one too.

Two-way ANOVA with interaction: *p*-values: strain: 3.17×10^{-7} ; age: $<2 \times 10^{-16}$; their interaction: 6.25×10^{-6} .

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Two-way ANOVA without interaction: *p*-values: strain: 1.47×10^{-4} ; age: $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$.



If each variable has an effect, their interaction could have one too.

Two-way ANOVA with interaction: *p*-values: strain: 3.17×10^{-7} ; age: $< 2 \times 10^{-16}$; their interaction: 6.25×10^{-6} . Interpretation: age has an effect, strain has an effect, and aging affects these various strains differently.

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If conditions of applicability of ANOVA are not met:



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If conditions of applicability of ANOVA are not met:

 A mathematical transformation (ex.: log) could make them being met. Statistics session 3

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If conditions of applicability of ANOVA are not met:

- A mathematical transformation (ex.: log) could make them being met.
- Non-parametric alternatives (robust to non-normality and heteroscedasticity) for one-way ANOVA: Kruskal-Wallis test (non-repeated mesurements), Friedman test (repeated measurements on each subject).



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If conditions of applicability of ANOVA are not met:

- A mathematical transformation (ex.: log) could make them being met.
- Non-parametric alternatives (robust to non-normality and heteroscedasticity) for one-way ANOVA: Kruskal-Wallis test (non-repeated mesurements), Friedman test (repeated measurements on each subject).

If variables are not categorical ("job", "*Drosophila* strain") but numerical with more than 2 levels: mathematical models (*e.g.*, linear models) to extract the effect of each variable.

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Basic concepts, generalizable to many statistical tests (*p*-value, confidence interval, ...).



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- Basic concepts, generalizable to many statistical tests (*p*-value, confidence interval, ...).
- ► Vocabulary (standard deviation ≠ standard error; normality; homoscedasticity; ...).

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- Basic concepts, generalizable to many statistical tests (*p*-value, confidence interval, ...).
- ► Vocabulary (standard deviation ≠ standard error; normality; homoscedasticity; ...).
- —> being able to find information by yourself for more complicated cases.

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Supplements

Summarized versions of this course, in French:

- Written: first part (published in July 2010 in Regard sur la biochimie), second part (published in October 2010 in Regard sur la biochimie).
- ► Video: "Les statistiques en biologie moléculaire ".



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Comparison of categorical distributions

Comparison of numerical distributions

Multiple hypothesis testing

Correlation tests

Elaborated experimental design

Conclusion