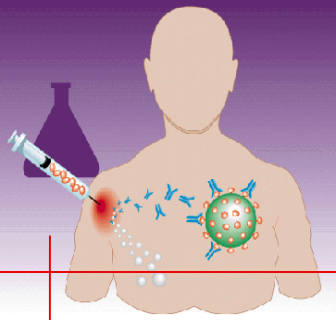


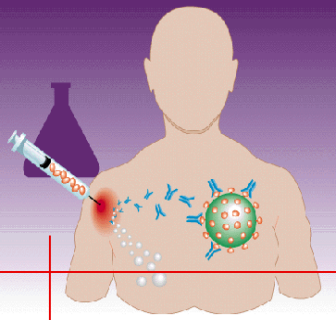
Research Week 2016

Basic Hypothesis Testing

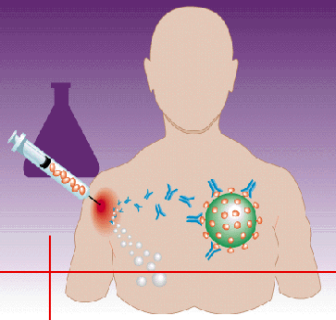
Assoc. Prof. Dr Azmi Mohd Tamil
Dept of Community Health
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia



- ▶ Concept introduced by Jerzy Neyman & Egon Pearson in 1928.
- ▶ What does it mean to have a non-significant result in a significance test?
- ▶ Can we conclude that a hypothesis is true if we have failed to refute it?

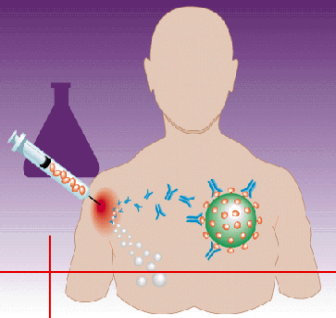


- ▶ In many situations, hypothesis tests are used against a null hypothesis that is the straw man.
- ▶ For instance, when two drugs are being compared in a clinical trial, the null hypothesis to be tested is that the two drugs produce the same effect.
- ▶ However, if that were true, then the study would never have been run.
- ▶ The null hypothesis that the two treatments are the same is the straw man, meant to be knocked down by the results of the study.



e.g. Drug to prevent recurrence of cancer

- ▶ Drug vs Placebo
- ▶ We expect if the drug is really effective, after 5 years the rate of recurrence of cancer is lower among treatment group (e.g. 0%) vs placebo group (e.g. 50%).



Study with 8 samples

	Relapse	Cured	
Treatment	0 (0%)	4	4
Placebo	2 (50%)	2	4
	2	6	8

Null hypothesis:

There is no difference of relapse rate between the two treatment regimes.

Result: $p > 0.05$

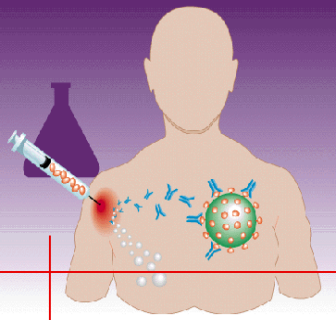
Conclusion: Null hypothesis not rejected.

Chi-Squares

P-values

Uncorrected : 2.67 0.1024704
 Mantel-Haenszel: 2.33 0.1266305
 Yates corrected: 0.67 0.4142162
 Fisher exact: 1-tailed P-value: 0.2142857
 2-tailed P-value: 0.4285714

An expected cell value is less than 5.
 Fisher exact results recommended.



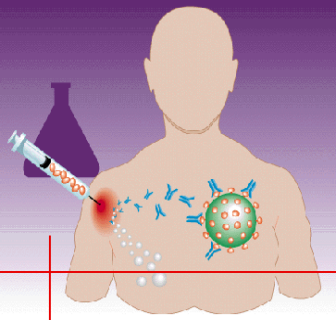
Study with 16 samples

	Relapse	Cured	
Treatment	0 (0%)	8	8
Placebo	4 (50%)	4	8
	4	12	16

	<u>Chi-Squares</u>	<u>P-values</u>	
Uncorrected :	5.33	0.0209213	←
Mantel-Haenszel:	5.00	0.0253473	←
Yates corrected:	3.00	0.0832645	
Fisher exact: 1-tailed P-value:		0.0384615	←
2-tailed P-value:		0.0769231	

An expected cell value is less than 5.
Fisher exact results recommended.

- ▶ **Null hypothesis:**
There is no difference of relapse rate between the two treatment regimes.
- ▶ **Result:** $p > 0.05$
- ▶ **Conclusion:** Null hypothesis not rejected.
- ▶ But p value improving



Study with 32 samples

	Relapse	Cured	
Treatment	0 (0%)	16	16
Placebo	8 (50%)	8	16
	8	24	32

	<u>Chi-Squares</u>	<u>P-values</u>	
Uncorrected :	10.67	0.0010908	←
Mantel-Haenszel:	10.33	0.0013065	←
Yates corrected:	8.17	0.0042667	←
Fisher exact: 1-tailed P-value:	0.0012236		←
2-tailed P-value:	0.0024472		←

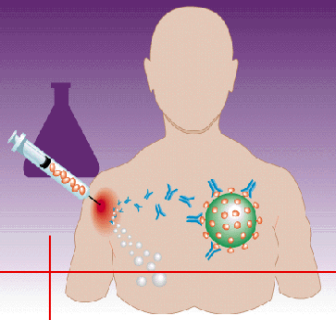
An expected cell value is less than 5.
Fisher exact results recommended.

► **Null hypothesis:**
There is no difference of relapse rate between the two treatment regimes.

► **Result:** $p < 0.05$

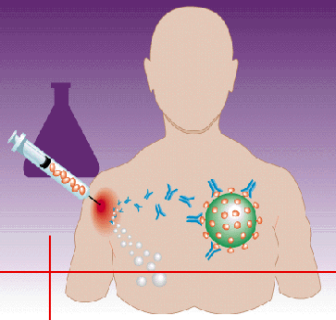
► **Conclusion:** Null hypothesis rejected.

► Treatment has a significant effect on the outcome. The straw man is finally knocked down.



Drug A versus Drug B

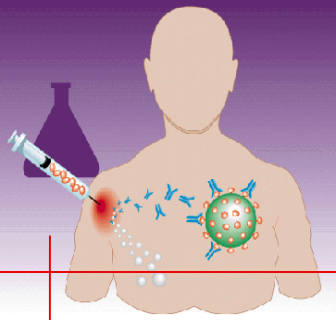
Hypothesis Testing



Inferential Statistic

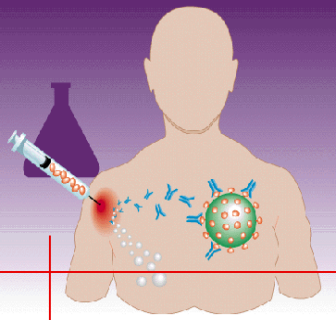
- ▶ When we conduct a study, we want to make an inference from the data collected. For example;

“drug A is better than drug B in treating disease D”



Is Drug A Better Than Drug B?

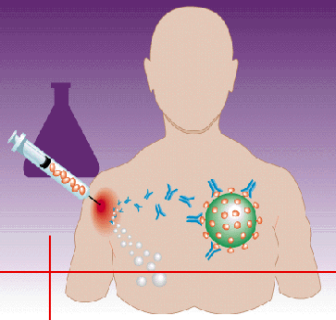
- ▶ Drug A has a higher rate of cure than drug B. (Cured/Not Cured)
- ▶ If for controlling BP, the mean of BP drop for drug A is larger than drug B. (continuous data – mm Hg)



Null Hypothesis or H_0

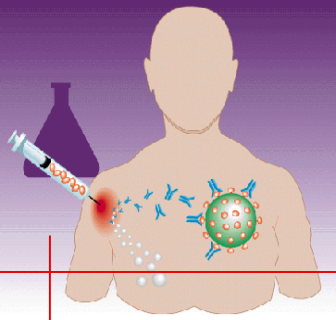
► Null Hypothesis;

“no difference of effectiveness between drug A and drug B in treating disease D”



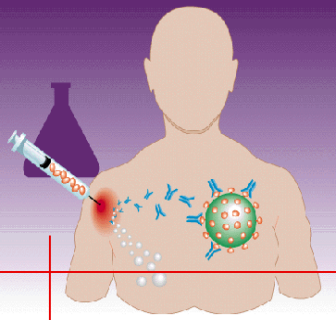
Null Hypothesis

- ▶ H_0 is assumed **TRUE** unless data indicate otherwise:
 - The experiment is trying to reject the null hypothesis (the straw man)
 - Can reject, but cannot prove, a hypothesis
 - e.g. “*all swans are white*”
 - » One black swan suffices to reject
 - » H_0 “*Not all swans are white*”
 - » No number of white swans can prove the hypothesis – since the next swan could still be black.



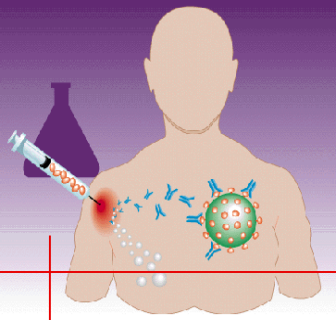
Can reindeer fly?

- ▶ You believe reindeer can fly
- ▶ **Null hypothesis:** “**reindeer cannot fly**”
- ▶ **Experimental design:** to throw reindeer off the roof
- ▶ **Implementation:** they all go splat on the ground
- ▶ **Evaluation:** null hypothesis not rejected
 - This does not prove reindeer cannot fly: what you have shown is that
 - “*from this roof, on this day, under these weather conditions, these particular reindeer either could not, or chose not to, fly*”
- ▶ It is possible, in principle, to reject the null hypothesis
 - By exhibiting a flying reindeer!



Significance

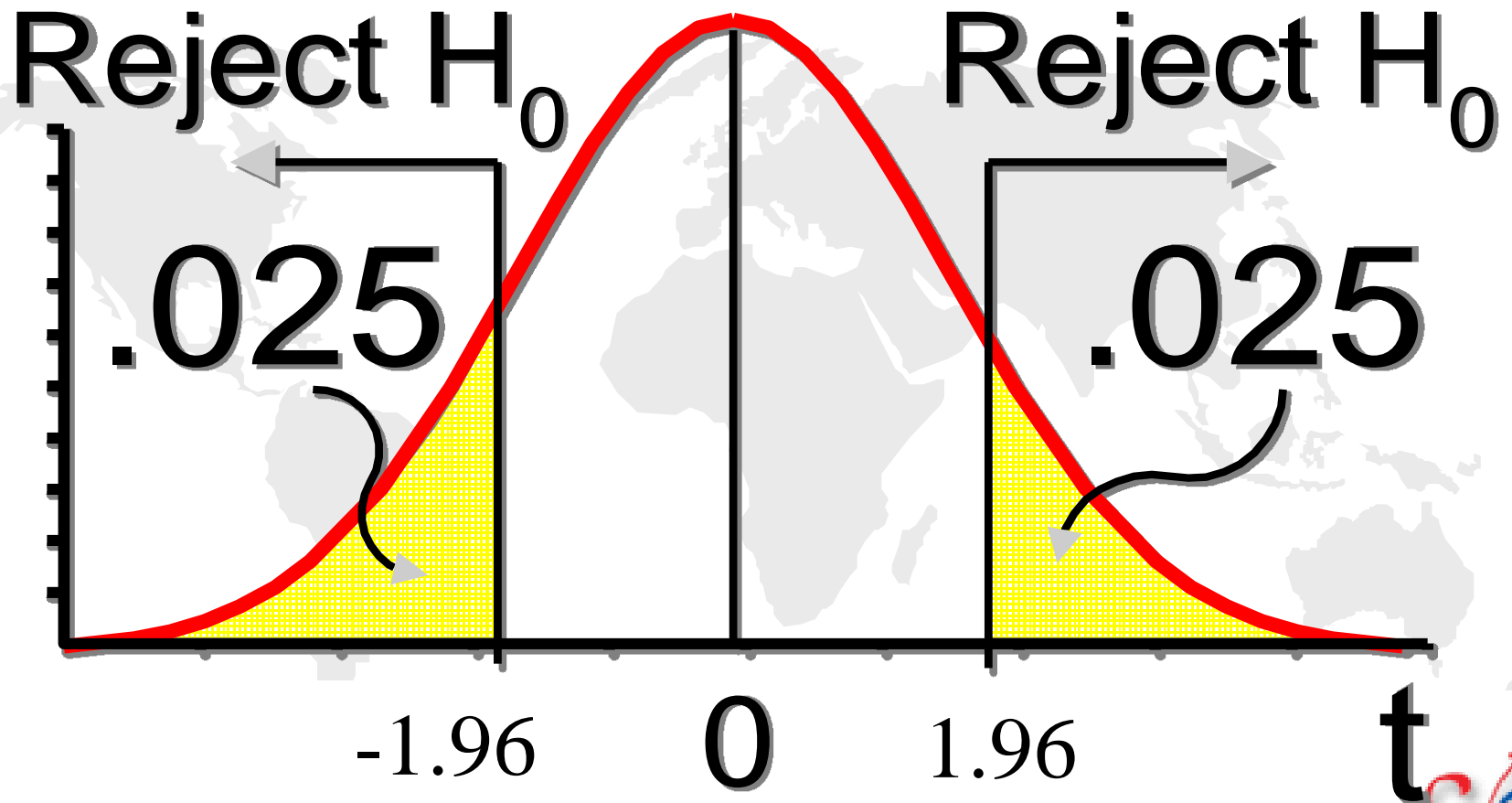
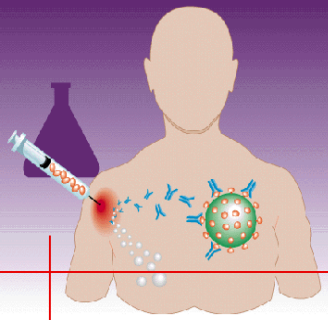
- ▶ Inferential statistics determine whether a significant difference of effectiveness exist between drug A and drug B.
- ▶ If there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$), then the null hypothesis **would be rejected**.
- ▶ Otherwise, if no significant difference ($p > 0.05$), then the null hypothesis **would not be rejected**.
- ▶ The usual level of significance utilised to reject or not reject the null hypothesis are either 0.05 or 0.01. In the above example, it was set at 0.05.

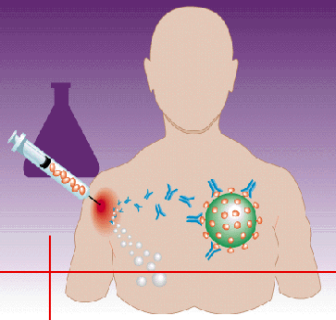


Confidence interval

- ▶ Confidence interval = $1 - \text{level of significance}$.
- ▶ If the level of significance is 0.05, then the confidence interval is 95%.
- ▶ $CI = 1 - 0.05 = 0.95 = 95\%$
- ▶ If $CI = 99\%$, then level of significance is 0.01.

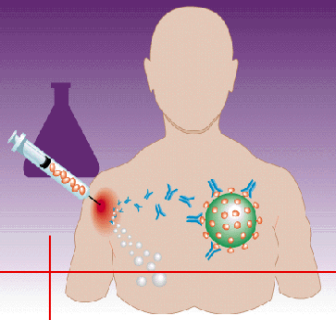
What is level of significance? Chance?





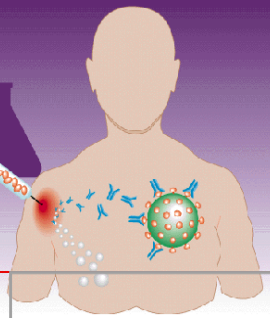
Fisher's Use of p-Values

- ▶ R.A. Fisher referred to the probability to declare significance as “p-value”.
- ▶ “It is a common practice to judge a result significant, if it is of such magnitude that it would be produced by chance not more frequently than once in 20 trials.”
- ▶ $1/20=0.05$. If p-value less than 0.05, then the probability of the effect detected were due to chance is less than 5%.
- ▶ We would be 95% confident that the effect detected is due to real effect, not due to chance.
- ▶ If $p < 0.001$? Then the probability that the effect detected were due to chance is less than 1 per 1,000 trials!



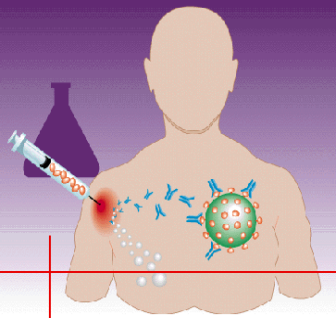
- ▶ Although we have determined the level of significance and confidence interval, there is still a chance of error.
- ▶ There are 2 types;
 - Type I Error
 - Type II Error

Error

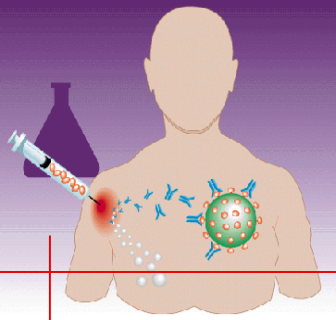


REALITY		
DECISION	Treatments are <i>not different</i>	Treatments are <i>different</i>
Conclude treatments are <i>not different</i>	Correct Decision (Cell a)	Type II error β error (Cell b)
Conclude treatments are <i>different</i>	Type I error α error (Cell c)	Correct Decision (Cell d)

Error

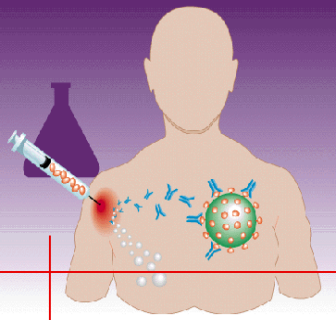


Test of Significance	Correct Null Hypothesis (H_0 not rejected)	Incorrect Null Hypothesis (H_0 rejected)
Null Hypothesis Not Rejected	Correct Conclusion	Type II Error
Null Hypothesis Rejected	Type I Error	Correct Conclusion



Type I Error

- Type I Error – rejecting the null hypothesis although the null hypothesis is correct e.g.
- when we compare the mean/proportion of the 2 groups, the difference is small but the difference is found to be significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.
- It may occur due to inappropriate choice of alpha (level of significance).

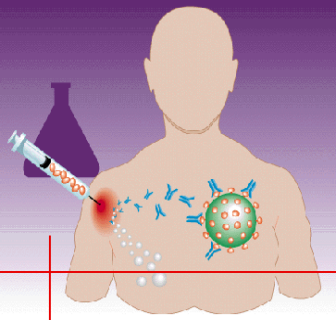


Example of a Type I Error

Multiple comparisons

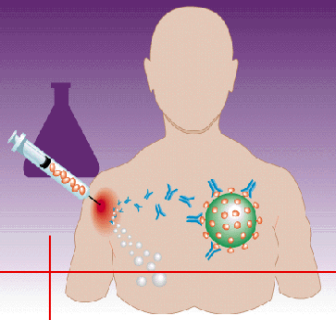
- ▶ When we are comparing between 2 treatments A & B with a 5% significance level, the chance of a true negative in this test is 0.95. But when we perform A vs B and A vs C (in a three treatment study), then the probability that neither test will give a significant result when there is no real difference is $0.95 \times 0.95 = 0.90$; which means the type 1 error has increased to 10%.

Number of comparisons	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Probability of false positive	5%	10%	14%	19%	23%	27%	30%	34%	37%	40%



Type II Error

- Type II Error – not rejecting the null hypothesis although the null hypothesis is wrong
- e.g. when we compare the mean/proportion of the 2 groups, the difference is big but the difference is not significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is not rejected.
- It may occur when the sample size is too small.



Example of Type II Error

Data of a clinical trial on 30 patients on comparison of pain control between two modes of treatment.

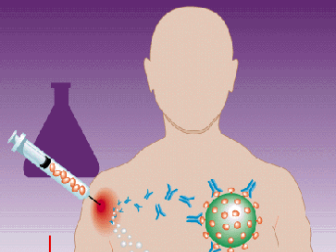
Type of treatment * Pain (2 hrs post-op) Crosstabulation

			Pain (2 hrs post-op)		Total
			No pain	In pain	
Type of treatment	Pethidine	Count	8	7	15
		% within Type of treatment	53.3%	46.7%	100.0%
	Cocktail	Count	4	11	15
		% within Type of treatment	26.7%	73.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	12	18	30
		% within Type of treatment	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%

Chi-square =2.222, p=0.136

$p = 0.136$. p bigger than 0.05. No significant difference and the null hypothesis was not rejected.

There was a large difference between the rates but were not significant. Type II Error?



Not significant since power of the study is less than 80%.

Power and Sample Size Program: Main Window

File Log Help

Survival t-test Regression 1 Regression 2 **Dichotomous** Log

Studies that are analysed by chi-square or Fisher's exact test

Output

What do you want to know? Power

Power for uncorrected chi-squared test .3208

Design

Matched or Independent? Independent

Case control? Prospective

How is the alternative hypothesis expressed? Two proportions

Uncorrected chi-square or Fisher's exact test? Uncorrected chi-square test

Input

α .05 p_0 .53

n 15 p_1 .26

m 1

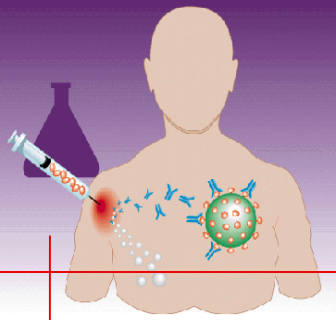
Calculate

Graphs

Logging is enabled.

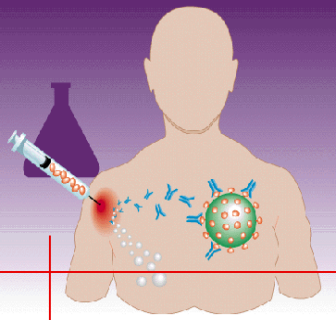
Exit

Power is only
32%!

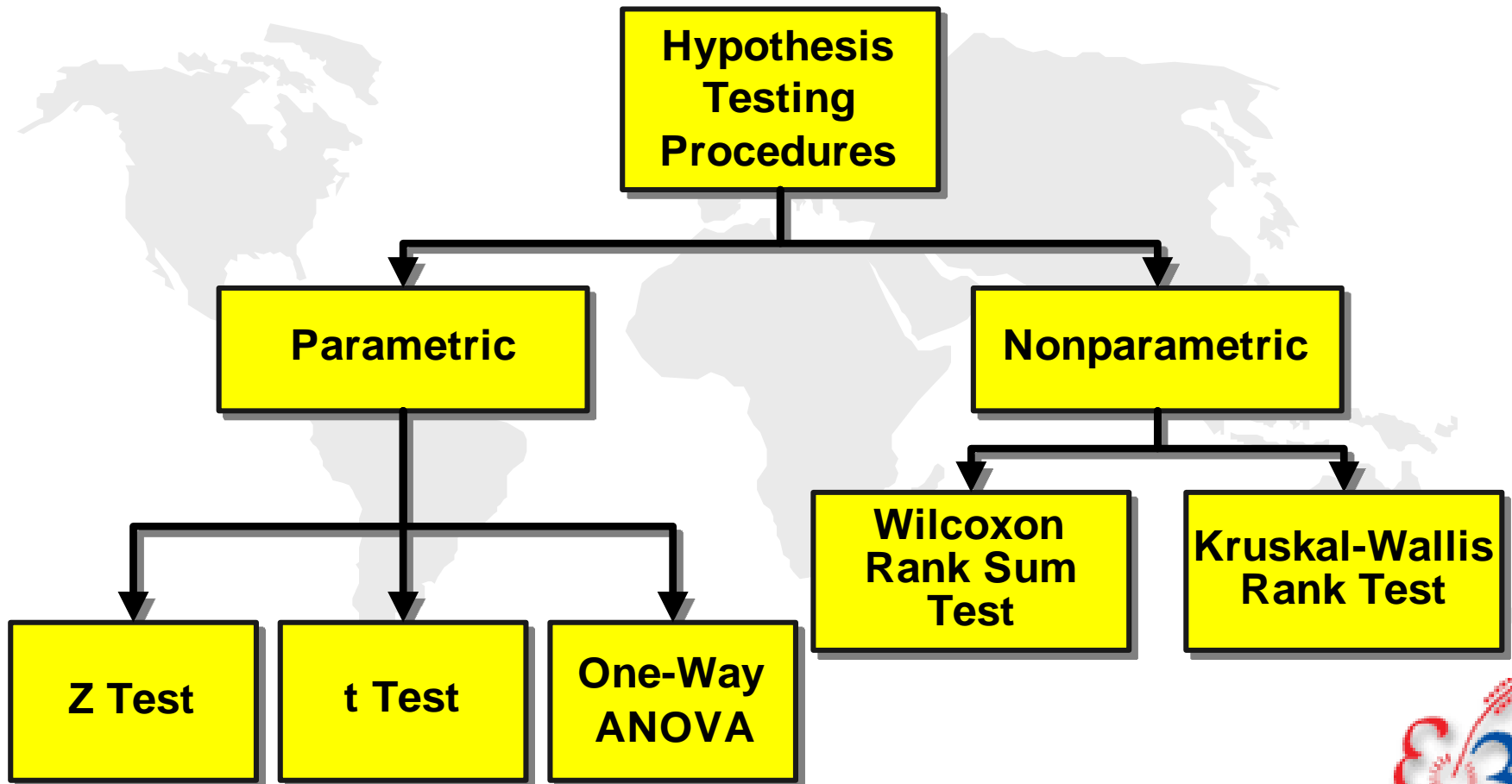


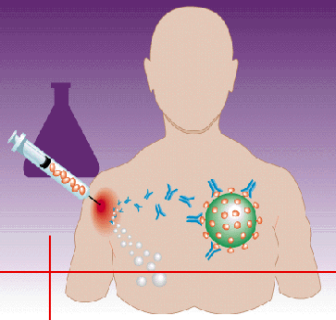
Check for the errors

- ▶ You can check for type II errors of your own data analysis by checking for the power of the respective analysis
- ▶ This can easily be done by utilising software such as Power & Sample Size (PS2) from the website of the Vanderbilt University



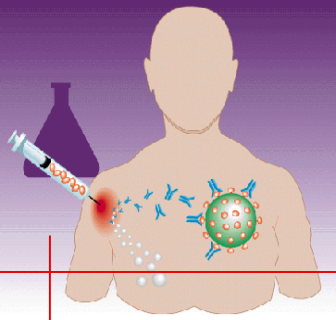
Hypothesis Testing Procedures





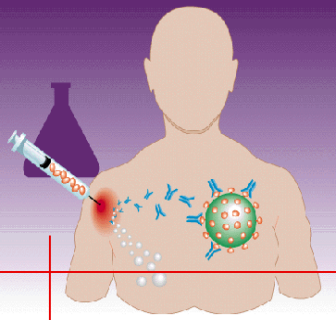
Parametric Analysis – Quantitative

Qualitative Dichotomus	Quantitative	Normally distributed data	Student's t Test
Qualitative Polinomial	Quantitative	Normally distributed data	ANOVA
Quantitative	Quantitative	Repeated measurement of the same individual & item (e.g. Hb level before & after treatment). Normally distributed data	Paired t Test
Quantitative - continous	Quantitative - continous	Normally distributed data	Pearson Correlation & Linear Regresssion



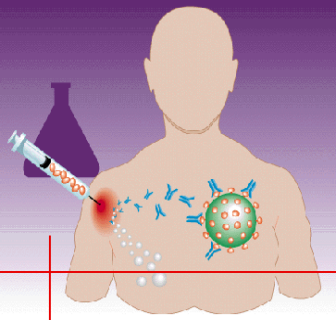
non-parametric tests

Variable 1	Variable 2	Criteria	Type of Test
Qualitative Dichotomus	Qualitative Dichotomus	Sample size < 20 or (< 40 but with at least one expected value < 5)	Fisher Test
Qualitative Dichotomus	Quantitative	Data not normally distributed	Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test or U Mann-Whitney Test
Qualitative Polinomial	Quantitative	Data not normally distributed	Kruskal-Wallis One Way ANOVA Test
Quantitative	Quantitative	Repeated measurement of the same individual & item	Wilcoxon Rank Sign Test
Quantitative - continous	Quantitative - continous	Data not normally distributed	Spearman/Kendall Rank Correlation



Statistical Tests - Qualitative

Variable 1	Variable 2	Criteria	Type of Test
Qualitative	Qualitative	Sample size ≥ 20 dan no expected value < 5	Chi Square Test (X^2)
Qualitative Dichotomus	Qualitative Dichotomus	Sample size > 30	Proportionate Test
Qualitative Dichotomus	Qualitative Dichotomus	Sample size > 40 but with at least one expected value < 5	X^2 Test with Yates Correction
Qualitative Dichotomus	Qualitative Dichotomus	Sample size < 20 or (< 40 but with at least one expected value < 5)	Fisher Test



Take Home Message

Use the tables to decide on what type of analysis to use.

Qualitative Dichotomus	Quantitative	Normally distributed data	Student's t Test
Qualitative Polinomial	Quantitative	Normally distributed data	ANOVA
Quantitative	Quantitative	Repeated measurement of the same individual & item (e.g. Hb level before & after treatment). Normally distributed data	Paired t Test
Quantitative - continous	Quantitative - continous	Normally distributed data	Pearson Correlation & Linear Regresssion