Multiple Comparisons & Statistical Power (MD4 & 5)

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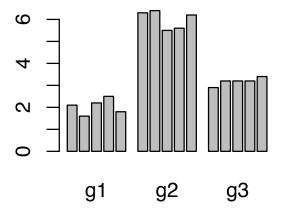
Winter, 2017

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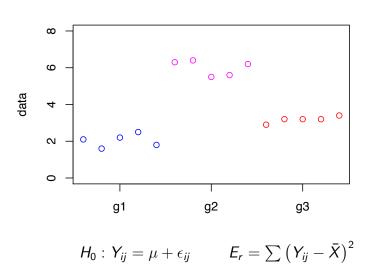
GLM & ANOVA: an example

G2	G3
6.3	2.9
6.4	3.2
5.5	3.2
5.6	3.2
6.2	3.4
means	
6.0	3.2
	6.3 6.4 5.5 5.6 6.2 means

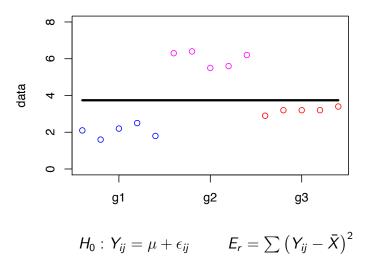
GLM & ANOVA: an example



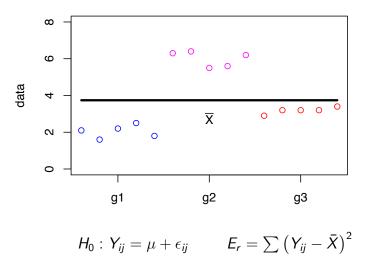
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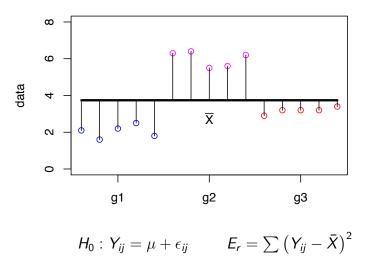
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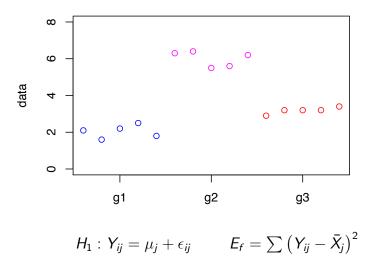


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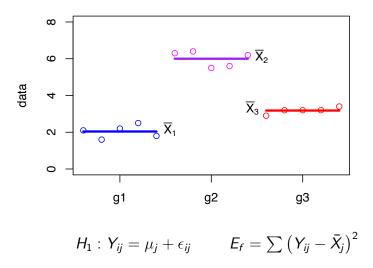
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the model comparison approach: full model



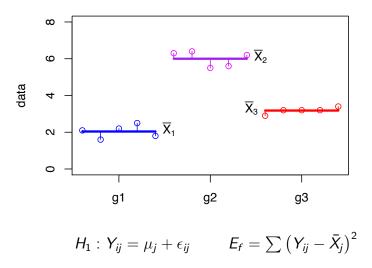
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the model comparison approach: full model



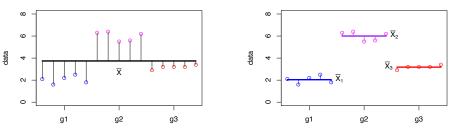
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the model comparison approach: full model



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which model has smaller error?



estimate 1 parameter

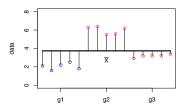
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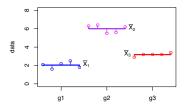
estimate 3 parameters

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μ₁, μ₂, μ₃

which model has smaller error?





Is the reduction in error you get with the full model worth the extra parameters you need to estimate in H₁?

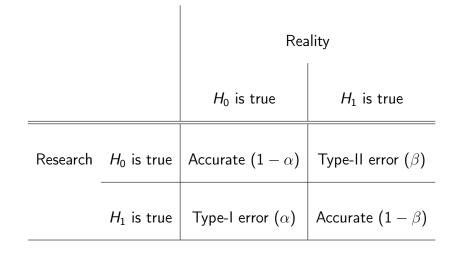
Statistical Power

- power is the ability of a statistical test to detect real differences when they exist
- β is the probability of failing to reject the null hypothesis when it is in fact false (Type-II error)
- β is the probability of failing to reject the restricted model when the full model is a better description of the data, even with the requirement to estimate more parameters

power =
$$1 - \beta$$

 power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is in fact false

Type-I vs Type-II error \setminus hypothesis testing outcomes



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Statistical Power

- how sensitive is a given experimental design?
- how likely is our experiment to correctly identify a difference betweeen groups when there actually is one?
- what sample size is required to give an experiment adequate power?
- how many subjects do we need to include in each group sample?

Effect Size

- we need some way of assessing the expected size of the effect we are proposing to detect
- one measure is the standardized measure of effect size, f

$$f = \sigma_m / \sigma_\epsilon$$

$$\sigma_m = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(\mu_j - \mu)^2}{a}} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum \alpha_j^2}{a}}$$

$$\mu = \left(\sum_j \mu_j\right) / a$$

 σ_{ϵ} = within-group standard deviation

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Effect Size

- If you have pilot data you can compute values for f
- ▶ If not, Cohen (1977) suggests the following definitions:
 - "small" effect: f = 0.10
 - "medium" effect: *f* = 0.25
 - "large" effect: f = 0.40
- ▶ so for medium effect, standard deviation of population means across groups is 1/4 of the within-group sd

Power Charts

 Cohen (1977) provides tables that let you read off the power for a particular combination of numerator df, desired Type-I error rate, effect size *f*, and subjects per group

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- four factors are varying tables require 66 pages!
 seriously
- It's 2015, Let's use R instead
 - > power.t.test()
 - > power.anova.test()

An example

- e.g. you are planning a reaction-time study involving three groups (a = 3)
- pilot research & data from literature suggest population means might be 400, 450 and 500 ms with a sample within-group standard deviation of 100 ms
- suppose you want a power of 0.80 how many subjects do you need in each sample group?

An example

```
power.anova.test(groups=3, n=NULL,
    between.var=var(c(400,450,500)),
    within.var=100**2, sig.level=0.05,
    power=0.80)
```

Balanced one-way analysis of variance power calcul

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```
groups = 3

n = 20.30205

between.var = 2500

within.var = 10000

sig.level = 0.05

power = 0.8
```

NOTE: n is number in each group

... but since we know how to program in R

- simulate! Simulate sampling from two populations
 - whose means differ by the expected amount
 - whose variances are a particular value
 - postulate a particular sample size N
- sample and do your statistical test many times (e.g. 1000) and see what proportion of times you successfully reject the null (your power)
- If power is not high enough, try a larger sample size N and repeat. Keep increasing N in simulation until you get the power you want
- computationally intensive, but allows you to test any experimental situation that you can simulate
- e.g. see http://goo.gl/COmI0

Cautionary note: calculating "observed power" after rejecting the null

- ▶ you run an experiment, do stats, and end up failing to reject H_0
- two possibilities:
 - 1. there is in fact no difference between population means, and your experiment correctly identifies this
 - 2. there is a difference, but your experiment is not statistically powerful enough to detect it (for e.g. because within-group variability is high)
- can we use power calculations to see if we "had enough power" to detect the difference?
- no not appropriate use of power analysis (although frequently taught)

Hoenig & Heisey (2001)

- doing a power analysis after an experiment that failed to reject the null, to see if "there was enough power" to detect the difference, is inappropriate
- the result of a post-hoc power analysis is completely redundant with the probability (p-value) obtained in the original analysis
- one can be obtained directly from the other
- you don't learn anything new by doing a post-hoc power analysis

► See Hoenig & Heisey (2001) for the full story

Challenges of power analyses

- you must have estimates of expected difference between means
- you must have estimates of within-group variability
- computing power for more complex experimental designs can be complicated — see Maxwell & Delaney text for examples

Testing differences between individual means

- Iast time we learned about one-way single-factor ANOVA
- F test of null hypothesis
 - $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = ... = \mu_n$
- called the "omnibus test"
- omnibus test doesn't tell us which means are different from each other
- it *does* give us permission to start looking for differences between individual means

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Two kinds of multiple comparisons

planned comparisons

- in advance of looking at your results you know which groups you want to compare
- you are restricted to performing only certain comparisons
- the comparisons must be orthogonal to each other

post-hoc comparisons

- the results dictate which means you test (you are chasing the biggest differences)
- you can test as many as you like (usually)
- few (if any) restrictions on the nature of the tests you can perform
- Type-I error is controlled for by making each test more conservative

recall the null hypothesis & restricted model:

$$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_a$$

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \epsilon_{ij}$$

suppose we wanted to test a new hypothesis that only groups 1 and 2 are equal and the rest are different

$$\begin{array}{rcl} H_0 & : & \mu_1 = \mu_2 \\ Y_{i1} & = & \mu^* + \epsilon_{i1} \\ Y_{i2} & = & \mu^* + \epsilon_{i2} \\ Y_{ij} & = & \mu_j + \epsilon_{ij}, & {\rm for} & j = 3, 4, \dots, a \end{array}$$

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- just as before we can compare full and restricted models by computing sums of squared errors for each (see Maxwell & Delaney for details)
- just as before we end up with an F ratio:

$$F = \frac{(E_R - E_F)/(df_R - df_F)}{E_F/df_F}$$

$$E_R - E_F = \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \left(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2\right)^2$$

$$df_F = N - a$$

$$df_R = N - (a - 1) = N - a + 1$$

$$df_R - df_F = 1$$

after some more tedious algebra:

$$F = \frac{n_1 n_2 \left(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2\right)^2}{(n_1 + n_2) M S_W}$$

or for equal group sizes n:

$$F = \frac{n\left(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2\right)^2}{2MS_W}$$

- *MS_W* is mean-square "within" term (error term) from ANOVA output
- ▶ df numerator = 1
- df denominator is given in ANOVA output for MS_W term

- so what we have now is an F test for a full versus restricted model
- full model is as before (different mean for each group)
- restricted model has same mean for groups 1 and 2, and different means for the rest
- restricted model is less restricted than the original restricted model with a single parameter (the grand mean)
- but still more restricted than full model

$$F = \frac{n\left(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2\right)^2}{2MS_W}$$

- research questions often focus on pairwise comparisons
- sometimes you may have a hypothesis that concerns a difference involving more than 2 means
- e.g. 4 groups: is group 4 different than the average of the other three?

$$H_0:\frac{1}{3}(\mu_1+\mu_2+\mu_3)=\mu_4$$

we can rewrite this as:

$$H_0: rac{1}{3}\mu_1 + rac{1}{3}\mu_2 + rac{1}{3}\mu_3 - \mu_4 = 0$$

$$H_0: \frac{1}{3}\mu_1 + \frac{1}{3}\mu_2 + \frac{1}{3}\mu_3 - \mu_4 = 0$$

this is just a linear combination of the 4 means so in general we can write:

 $H_0: c_1\mu_1 + c_2\mu_2 + c_3\mu_3 + c_4\mu_4 = 0$

- c₁ through c₄ are coefficients chosen by the experimenter to test a hypothesis of interest
- simple pairwise comparison of mean 1 vs mean 2 would be:

$$c_1 = -1$$

 $c_2 = +1$
 $c_3 = 0$
 $c_4 = 0$

an expression of the form:

$$H_0: c_1\mu_1 + c_2\mu_2 + c_3\mu_3 + c_4\mu_4$$

is known as a "contrast" or a "complex comparison"

- Inear combination of means in which the coefficients add up to zero
- ▶ in the general case of *a* groups, we can write:

$$\psi = \sum_{j=1}^{\mathsf{a}} \mathsf{c}_{j} \mu_{j}$$

 our expression for the F test can be simplified (see M&D) to:

$$F = \frac{\psi^2}{MS_W \sum_{j=1}^{a} \left(c_j^2/n_j\right)}$$

where

- df denominator = 1
- df numerator = N a

$$H_0:\psi=\sum_{j=1}^a c_j\mu_j=0$$

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- some texts present contrasts not as F tests but as t-test
- when df numerator = 1, t-test is just a special case of the F-test

$$\begin{array}{rcl} t^2 &=& F\\ t &=& \sqrt{F} \end{array}$$

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Testing more than one contrast

- how many contrasts can we test?
- two issues:
 - 1. orthogonality
 - 2. inflation of Type-I error
- is it permissible to perform multiple tests using an α level of 0.05?
 - better question: does it make sense to perform multiple tests and still assume that Type-I error rate remains at 0.05?
- does it matter if the contrasts were planned before the data were examined, or arrived at after looking at the data?

How many contrasts?

- if a = 3 there are 3 possible pairwise contrasts (choose(3,2))
 - ▶ 1-2, 2-3 and 1-3
 - in addition there are an infinite of possible complex comparisons
- \blacktriangleright with an infinite \backslash contrasts, some information will be redundant
- new question: how many contrasts can be tested without introducing redundancy?

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Non-redundant contrasts

are these three contrasts redundant?

$$\psi_1 = \mu_1 - \mu_2 \psi_2 = \mu_1 - \mu_3 \psi_3 = \frac{1}{2} (\mu_1 + \mu_2) - \mu_3$$

▶ yes, because:

$$\psi_3 = \psi_2 - \frac{1}{2}\psi_1$$

▶ value of ψ_3 is compelely determined if we already know ψ_1 and ψ_2

Non-redundant contrasts

- ▶ in general with a groups, there are a 1 contrasts without introducing redundancy
- mathematical concept for lack of redundancy is orthogonality
- two contrasts are orthogonal if:

$$\psi_1 = \sum c_{1j}\mu_j$$

$$\psi_2 = \sum c_{2j}\mu_j$$

$$\sum c_{1j}c_{2j} = 0$$

or for unequal group sizes:

$$\sum c_{1j}c_{2j}/n_j=0$$

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Orthogonal contrasts

- e.g. what about 2 contrasts c_1 and c_2 :
- $c_{11} = +1$, $c_{12} = -1$, $c_{13} = 0$
- $c_{21} = +1$, $c_{22} = 0$, $c_{23} = -1$
- orthogonality test: $\sum c_{1j}c_{2j} = 0$
 - (1)(1) + (-1)(0) + (0)(-1) = 1 + 0 + 0 = 1

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these 2 contrasts are not orthogonal

Orthogonality

- who cares?
- primary implication: orthogonal contrasts provide non-overlapping information about how the groups differ
- ▶ formally: when two contrasts are orthogonal, then the two sample estimates \u03c6₁ and \u03c6₂ are statistically independent of one another
- each provides unique, non-overlapping information about group differences

they are asking separate, different, distinct questions about the data

- suppose you have conducted an ANOVA on 4 groups
- suppose you want to test the following 3 contrasts:

$$\psi_1 = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

$$\psi_2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mu_1 + \mu_2) - \mu_3$$

$$\psi_3 = \frac{1}{3}(\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3) - \mu_4$$

- are these orthogonal?
 - ψ₁: (+1.0)(-1.0)(+0.0)(+0.0)
 - ψ_2 : (+0.5)(+0.5)(-1.0)(+0.0)
 - ψ_3 : (+0.3)(+0.3)(+0.3)(-1.0)

- if you test each of the three contrasts at α = 0.05, what is the true Type-I error rate?
- greater than 0.05
- we are testing three contrasts each at the 0.05 level
- ► at first glance you might think true error rate should be (3)(0.05) = 0.15

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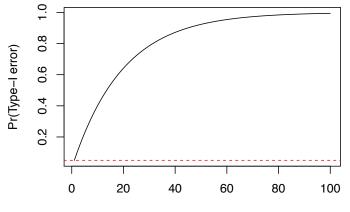
close, but not quite right

- contrasts are independent events
- probabilities don't simply sum (see M&D text)
- Pr(at least one Type-I error) = 1 Pr(no Type-I errors)

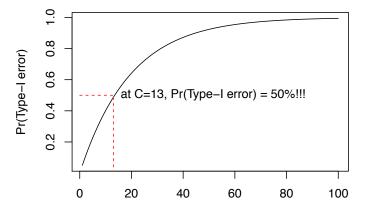
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$$\blacktriangleright = 1 - (1 - \alpha)^{C}$$

- C is number of contrasts tested
- e.g. if $\alpha = 0.05$, C = 3, then p = 0.143
- if C = 10, p = 0.40 (big!)



comparisons at alpha=.05



comparisons at alpha=.05

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- is this a problem? Pr(Type-I error) > 0.05 ???
- M&D text discusses some different concepts:
- error rate per contrast α_{PC}
 - probability that a particular contrast will be falsely declared significant
- experiment-wise error rate α_{EW}
 - probability that one or more contrasts will be falsely declared significant in an experiment
- family-wise error rate α_{FW}
 - has to do with multiple factor experiments (more later in the course)

- In our example, $\alpha_{PC} = 0.05$
- experiment-wise error rate $\alpha_{EW} = 0.143$
- so which error rate should be controlled at the 0.05 level?
- this is an issue "about which reasonable people differ"
 - i.e. intelligent and informed people have different approaches
- M&D suggest controlling α_{EW} at the 0.05 level
- see chapter for an interesting discussion of the pros and cons of different approaches

Methods of controlling α_{EW} at 0.05

- planned vs post-hoc comparisons
- 3 methods
 - Bonferroni, Tukey, Scheffe
- M&D have a flowchart (decision tree) to help you decide which procedure to use

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Planned vs Post-hoc contrasts

1. Planned Contrast

- a contrast that an experimenter decided to test prior to any examination of the data
- (i.e. the data do not influence your choice of which contrast(s) to test)
- 2. Post-Hoc Contrast
 - a contrast that an experimenter decided to test only after having looked at the data

- i.e. a contrast "suggested by the data"
- e.g. following large differences you observe in your dataset

Planned vs Post-hoc contrasts

- why is this distinction important?
- If the contrast(s) to be tested are suggested by the data, e.g. the largest differences are tested
- the sampling distribution of "differences between any 2 means" has a very different distribution than the "largest difference between means"
- Type-I error rate ends up being inflated if you only test the largest differences in your dataset

- M&D have a nice discussion of this in the chapter
- ▶ we will show it in R using monte-carlo simulations

Multiple Planned Comparisons

- The Bonferroni adjustment is remarkable simple
- compute the F statistic and p-value for each contrast, as usual
- then instead of comparing each p-value to α (e.g. 0.05), instead compare it to α/C, where C is the total number of contrasts you will be testing
- $\blacktriangleright \alpha$ gets lowered in proportion to the number of contrasts
- each contrast is therefore more conservative
- OK for small values of C but overly conservative for large values of C

Multiple Planned Comparisons

- Holm-Bonferroni method : https: //en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HolmBonferroni_method
- less conservative than straight Bonferroni
- graded adjustment with larger corrections for less significant p-values

- check online for examples
- can use the p.adjust() function in R

Multiple Planned Comparisons

- Keppel (and others) suggest a different approach
- you're allowed to test up to a − 1 orthogonal planned contrasts without any adjustment of α
- he argues that Bonferroni correction unfairly penalizes planned orthogonal contrasts
- ► if contrasts are planned, orthogonal and number a 1 or fewer, then because the set of contrasts is not data-driven, and do not overlap, then there should be no need to adjust a level
- ► overall *α* level should be no different than that for the omnibus F test

Post Hoc Pairwise Comparisons

- Tukey's procedure allows you to perform tests of all possible pairwise comparisons in an experiment and still maintain \(\alpha_{EW} = 0.05\)
- the TukeyHSD() function in R will do this for you
- Tukey procedure makes each pairwise test more conservative
- designed to take into account the idea that data-driven tests will involve higher Type-I error rates
- there are various modifications of Tukey's procedure when sample variances are unequal or when samples sizes are unequal (see M&D)

Post Hoc Pairwise Comparions

- Scheffe method maintains α_{EW} at 0.05 when at least some of the contrasts to be tested are complex, and suggested by the data (post-hoc)
- see M&D text for a detailed description of the method
- Scheffe method is quite conservative
- ▶ see tables 5.4 & 5.5 for comparison between methods

Other Procedures

- Dunnett's procedure
 - useful when one of the groups is considered a control and is involved in all contrasts

- Fisher's LSD (least significant difference)
- Newman-Keuls
- see M&D text for details about these other methods

What should I do?

- decide which approach you think is most reasonable, given your data and your experimental design
- be ready to defend your approach to reviewers
- be ready to use a different approach if necessary
- what's the "culture" in your lab / field / journal?

R Code

- ANOVA using the aov() function in R
- computing Fcomp manually
- using TukeyHSD()
- monte-carlo simulations of multiple comparison Type-I error rates

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planned vs pos-hoc comparisons