

Biost 517

Applied Biostatistics I

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Lecture 12: Two Sample Inference About Means

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Lecture Outline

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- Testing vs Confidence Intervals
- Review of Common Approach
- Exceptions to Common Approach
- Comparing Means from Independent Samples
 - Two sample t test

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Testing vs Confidence Intervals

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Reporting Frequentist Inference

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- Three measures (four numbers)
 - Consider whether the observed data might reasonably be expected to be obtained under particular hypotheses
 - Point estimate
 - Confidence interval: all hypotheses for which the data might reasonably be observed
 - P value: probability such extreme data would have been obtained under the null hypothesis
 - Binary decision: Reject or do not reject the null according to whether the P value is low

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Parallels Between Tests, CIs

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- If the null hypothesis not in CI, reject null
 - (Using same level of confidence)
- Relative advantages
 - Test only requires sampling distn under null
 - CI requires sampling distn under alternatives
 - CI provides interpretation when null is not rejected

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Scientific Information

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- “Rejection” uses a single level of significance
 - Different settings might demand different criteria
- P value communicates statistical evidence, not scientific importance
- Only confidence interval allows you to interpret failure to reject the null:
 - Distinguish between
 - Inadequate precision (sample size)
 - Strong evidence for null

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Hypothetical Example

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- Clinical trials of new treatments for high blood pressure
 - Consider four possible scenarios
 - Measure of treatment effect is the difference in average SBP at the end of six months treatment
 - Scenarios differ in
 - Sample size
 - Variability of blood pressure
 - Treatment effect
 - (The scenarios are not replications of the same experiment or even the same scientific setting)

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Reporting P values

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Study	P value
A	0.1974
B	0.1974
C	0.0099
D	0.0099

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Point Estimates

Study	SBP Diff	P value
A	27.16	0.1974
B	0.27	0.1974
C	27.16	0.0099
D	0.27	0.0099

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Confidence Intervals

Study	SBP Diff	95% CI	P value
A	27.16	-14.14, 68.46	0.1974
B	0.27	-0.14, 0.68	0.1974
C	27.16	6.51, 47.81	0.0099
D	0.27	0.06, 0.47	0.0099

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Interpreting Nonsignificance

- Studies A and B are both “nonsignificant”
 - Only study B ruled out clinically important differences
 - The results of study A might reasonably have been obtained if the treatment truly lowered SBP by as much as 68 mm Hg

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Interpreting Significance

- Studies C and D are both statistically significant results
 - Only study C demonstrated clinically important differences
 - The results of study D are only frequently obtained if the treatment truly lowered SBP by 0.47 mm Hg or less

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Bottom Line

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- If ink is not in short supply, there is no reason not to give point estimates, CI, and P value
- If ink is in short supply, the confidence interval provides most information
 - (but sometimes a confidence interval cannot be easily obtained, because the sampling distribution is unknown under the null)

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But: Impact of “Three over n”

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- The sample size is also important
 - The pure statistical fantasy
 - The P value and CI account for the sample size
 - The scientific reality
 - We need to be able to judge what proportion of the population might have been missed in our sample
 - There might be “outliers” in the population
 - If they are not in our sample, we will not have correctly estimated the variability of our estimates
 - The “Three over n” rule provides some guidance

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Full Report of Analysis

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Study	n	SBP Diff	95% CI	P value
A	20	27.16	-14.14, 68.46	0.1974
B	20	0.27	-0.14, 0.68	0.1974
C	80	27.16	6.51, 47.81	0.0099
D	80	0.27	0.06, 0.47	0.0099

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Interpreting a “Negative Study”

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- This then highlights issues related to the interpretation of a study in which no statistically significant difference between groups was found
 - We have to consider the “differential diagnosis” of possible situations in which we might observe nonsignificance

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General approach

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- Refined scientific question
 - We compare the distribution of some response variable differs across groups
 - E.g., looking for an association between smoking and blood pressure by comparing distribution of SBP between smokers and nonsmokers
 - We base our decisions on a scientifically appropriate summary measure θ
 - E.g., difference of means, ratio of medians, ...

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Interpreting a “Negative Study”

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- Possible explanations for no statistically significant difference in θ
 - There is no true difference in the distribution of response across groups
 - There is a difference in the distribution of response across groups, but the value of θ is the same for both groups
 - (i.e., the distributions differ in some other way)
 - There is a difference in the value of θ between the groups, but our study was not precise enough
 - A “type II error” from low “statistical power”

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Interpreting a “Positive Study”

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- Analogous interpretations when we do find a statistically significant difference in θ
 - There is a true difference in the value of θ
 - There is no true difference in θ , but we were unlucky and observed spuriously high or low results
 - Random chance leading to a “type I error”
 - » The p value tells us how unlucky we would have had to have been
 - (Used a statistic that allows other differences in the distn to be misinterpreted as a difference in θ)
 - » E.g., different variances causing significant t test)

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Review of Most Common Approach

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Population Parameters

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- Scientific questions are typically answered by making inference about some population parameter θ
 - Quantification of population parameter
 - Mean, geometric mean, median (other quantiles), proportion/odds above threshold, hazard
 - Comparing distributions across groups
 - Difference or ratio of univariate parameters
 - Bivariate parameters
 - Mean ratio, median difference, $\Pr(Y > X)$

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Approximate Sampling DISTR

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- Most often we choose estimators that are asymptotically normally distributed

$$\text{For large } n: \quad \hat{\theta} \sim N\left(\text{mean } \theta, \text{var } \frac{V}{n}\right)$$

V is related to average "statistical information"
from each observation

Often : V depends on the value of θ

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Typical Method for 100(1- α)% CI

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- Set of all true means that reasonably result in the observed sample mean
 - "reasonably" = central 100(1- α)% of sampling distrn
- When estimate is approximately normal
100(1- α)% confidence interval is
 $(\text{estimate}) \pm (\text{crit val}) \times (\text{std error})$
where the critical value is the upper $1 - \alpha / 2$
quantile of the standard normal distribution
(or t distribution when the estimate is a sample mean)²³

Typical Method for 100(1- α)% CI

.....

- Set of all true means that reasonably result in the observed sample mean
 - "reasonably" = central 100(1- α)% of sampling distrn

100(1- α)% confidence interval is (θ_L, θ_U)

$$\theta_L = \hat{\theta} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \text{se}(\hat{\theta})$$

$$\theta_U = \hat{\theta} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \text{se}(\hat{\theta})$$

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t Distribution Quantiles

- Selected upper quantiles of the t distribution: $t_{df,1-\alpha}$ (Note $t_{\infty,1-\alpha} = z_{1-\alpha}$)

df	.005	.01	.025	.05
1	63.657	31.821	12.706	6.314
3	5.841	4.541	3.182	2.353
9	3.250	2.821	2.262	1.833
20	2.845	2.528	2.086	1.725
50	2.678	2.403	2.009	1.676
∞	2.576	2.326	1.960	1.645

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Computing P values using Z

Standardized statistic $Z = \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{s\hat{e}(\hat{\theta})} \sim N(0,1)$

Stata commands

Lower one-sided P value $\text{norm}\left(\frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{s\hat{e}(\hat{\theta})}\right)$

Upper one-sided P value $1 - \text{norm}\left(\frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{s\hat{e}(\hat{\theta})}\right)$

Two-sided P value $2 \times \text{norm}\left(-\text{abs}\left(\frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{s\hat{e}(\hat{\theta})}\right)\right)$

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Comparing Estimates

- Comparisons across strata or studies
 - This is easy, if estimates are independent and approximately normally distributed

For independent $\hat{\theta}_1 \sim N(\theta_1, se_1^2)$, $\hat{\theta}_2 \sim N(\theta_2, se_2^2)$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 + \hat{\theta}_2 \sim N(\theta_1 + \theta_2, se_1^2 + se_2^2)$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 - \hat{\theta}_2 \sim N(\theta_1 - \theta_2, se_1^2 + se_2^2)$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 / \hat{\theta}_2 \sim N\left(\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2}, \frac{1}{\theta_2^2} \left(se_1^2 + \frac{\theta_1^2}{\theta_2^2} se_2^2 \right)\right)$$

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Correlated Estimates

- If estimates are correlated and approximately normally distributed

For correlated $\hat{\theta}_1 \sim N(\theta_1, se_1^2)$, $\hat{\theta}_2 \sim N(\theta_2, se_2^2)$

$$\omega = \text{corr}(\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2)$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 + \hat{\theta}_2 \sim N(\theta_1 + \theta_2, se_1^2 + se_2^2 + 2\omega se_1 se_2)$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 - \hat{\theta}_2 \sim N(\theta_1 - \theta_2, se_1^2 + se_2^2 - 2\omega se_1 se_2)$$

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Exceptions to Typical Approach

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There Are Exceptions

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- Not all estimators are normally distributed
 - In small samples we tend to use the t distribution when estimate is sample mean
 - If sample sizes too small, still may not be valid
 - The sample minimum and maximum are exponentially distributed in large samples
 - If data are analyzed repeatedly using a stopping rule, estimates are not normal
 - Stopping rules are used for ethical reasons in many clinical trials

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Stopping Rules in Clinical Trials

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- Early stopping of a clinical trial is often considered for ethics or efficiency.
 - Early stopping might be based on
 - Individual ethics
 - the observed statistic suggests efficacy
 - the observed statistic suggests harm
 - Group ethics
 - the observed statistic suggests equivalence
 - Exact choice will vary according to scientific / clinical setting

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Example

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- A study of premature birth is planned with 100 subjects
 - Outcome: Measure difference between treatment groups in estimated gestational age in weeks at birth
 - Monitoring plan
 - Data are analyzed after every group of 25 subjects are accrued
 - Stopping rule based on observed estimate of treatment effect

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“O’Brien-Fleming” Stopping Rule

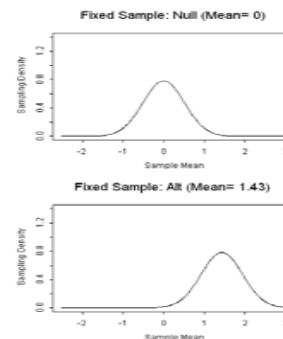
- At each analysis, stop early if estimated treatment effect is in indicated range

<u>N</u>	<u>Harm</u>	<u>Equiv</u>	<u>Efficacy</u>
25	< -4.09	----	> 4.09
50	< -2.05	(-0.006, 0.006)	> 2.05
75	< -1.36	(-0.684, 0.684)	> 1.36

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Fixed Sample Sampling Distn

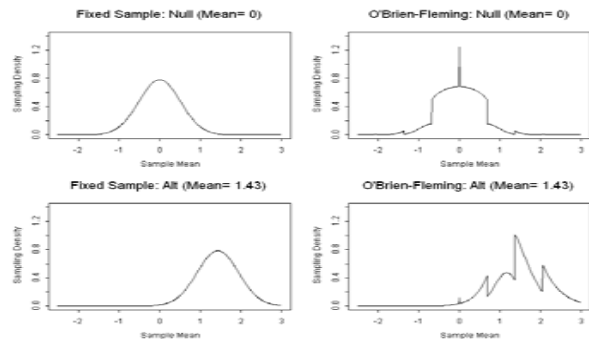
- If no interim analyses



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Sequential Sampling Density

- Sampling density under stopping rule



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Special Cases

- When estimators are not normally distributed, finding confidence intervals often involves a trial and error search

– Luckily computers can do this for us

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Comparisons of Means From Two Independent Samples

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Difference of Means

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- Sampling distribution for sample means computed from independent samples

For independent $\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu_X, \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n_X}\right)$ $\bar{Y} \sim N\left(\mu_Y, \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n_Y}\right)$

↓

$$\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \sim N\left(\mu_X - \mu_Y, \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n_Y}\right)$$

$$se(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) = \sqrt{se^2(\bar{X}) + se^2(\bar{Y})}$$

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CI Using Small Sample Correction

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- We again generally use a t distribution for added conservatism in small samples

Approximate $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI for $\mu_X - \mu_Y$ is

$$(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) \pm t_{k, 1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{s_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_Y^2}{n_Y}}$$

where degrees of freedom k is a weighted function of the two sample sizes (many methods exist)

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Test Statistic for Equal Means

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- Hypothesis test for equality of means from two populations based on t distribution

A test of $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$ can be based on

$$T = \frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\frac{s_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_Y^2}{n_Y}}} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} t_k$$

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Test for Difference in Means

- Hypothesis test for difference of means for two populations based on t distribution

A test of $H_0 : \mu_X - \mu_Y = \Delta_0$ can be based on

$$T = \frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) - \Delta_0}{\sqrt{\frac{s_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_Y^2}{n_Y}}} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} t_k$$

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T test for Unequal Variances

- The above CI and hypothesis test are referred to as “t test for unequal variances”
 - The distributional theory is only approximate in small samples (even if data are normal)
 - Many ways of handling the degrees of freedom exist
 - E.g., “Satterthwaite” or “Welch”
 - (I can't think of anything that is less important than trying to decide the best way to choose degrees of freedom in this problem)

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Stata: Two Sample t Test

- “`ttest var, by(groupvar) unequal`”
 - Tests that the mean of *var* is the same in the two groups identified by *groupvar*
 - Allows that variances might be unequal
 - Uses Satterthwaite method unless “welch” is specified
 - Provides 95% confidence intervals for each group and for the difference
 - Provides two-sided P value and both upper and lower one-sided P values

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Ex: Change in Spd 0.075 v 0.4

```
. ttest diffspd if (dose > 0 & dose < 0.1) | dose > 0.3, by(dose) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	StdErr	StdDev	[95% CI]	
.075	26	-0.41	.269	1.37	-0.97	0.14
.400	20	-1.76	.486	2.17	-2.77	-0.74
comb	46	-1.00	.275	1.87	-1.55	-0.44
diff		1.34	.555		0.21	2.48

diff = mean(.075) - mean(.400) t = 2.4204

Ho: diff = 0 Satterthwaite's deg free = 30.2891

Ha: diff < 0 Ha: diff != 0 Ha: diff > 0

Pr(T<t)= 0.9891 Pr(|T|>|t|)= 0.0217 Pr(T>t)= 0.0109

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Ex: Analysis by Dose Group

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- Spermidine change over treatment period by dose group
 - Dose 0.075
 - Average decrease of 0.41
 - 95% CI: 0.97 decrease to 0.14 increase
 - Dose 0.4
 - Average decrease of 1.76
 - 95% CI: 0.74 decrease to 2.77 increase
 - (Note overlapping CI)

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Ex: Comparison of Dose Groups

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- Difference between dose groups in Spermidine change over treatment period
 - Point estimate: 1.34
 - Decrease in 0.4 group was 1.34 more than decrease in 0.075 group
 - 95% CI: (0.21, 2.48)
 - Above observation is not atypical if true difference in average decrease between 0.21 and 2.48
 - Two –sided P value: 0.0217
 - Statistically significant diff between dose groups

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Assuming Equal Variances

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- Sometimes researchers assume that the variances for both populations are equal
 - In Stata, just drop the “unequal” option
 - I am generally against such assumptions, because the assumption is more detailed than what we are trying to find out
 - We don't know whether the means are different across groups, so are we willing to assume we know that the variances are equal?

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Assuming Equal Variances

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- When we do make this assumption, we use a pooled estimate of the variance

100(1 - α)% CI for $\mu_X - \mu_Y$ is

$$(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) \pm t_{k, 1-\alpha/2} s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_X} + \frac{1}{n_Y}}$$

where s_p^2 is a pooled estimate of variance

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(n_X - 1)s_X^2 + (n_Y - 1)s_Y^2}{n_X + n_Y - 2}$$

and degrees of freedom $k = n_X + n_Y - 2$

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Assuming Equal Variances

- The CI and hypothesis test based on the “t test for equal variances” is exact if the data are normally distributed and the population variances are truly equal
 - However, they are not valid inference about the mean if the variances are not equal
 - Thus a rejection of the null hypothesis can correspond to rejection of equality of distributions with 95% confidence, but not rejection of equality of means with 95% confidence

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Equal vs Unequal Variances

- Comparisons of CI for equal and unequal variances
 - If $n=m$ or the sample variances are equal, there is no difference in the SE estimates
 - There may be differences in the critical value used
 - If variances are truly equal, you lose precision if you assume they are not
 - If variances are not equal, you lose accuracy in statements about your level of confidence if you assume they are

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If Incorrectly Assume Equal Var

- For inference about the mean
 - Smaller sample size in the group with larger variance leads to anti-conservative inference
 - CI too narrow, P values too small; you reject the hypothesis of equal means too often (type I error larger than you think)
 - Larger sample size in the group with larger variance leads to conservative inference
 - CI too wide; P values too small; type I error smaller than you think

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