

## L15-1: Sections 8.2, 8.3, and 8.4

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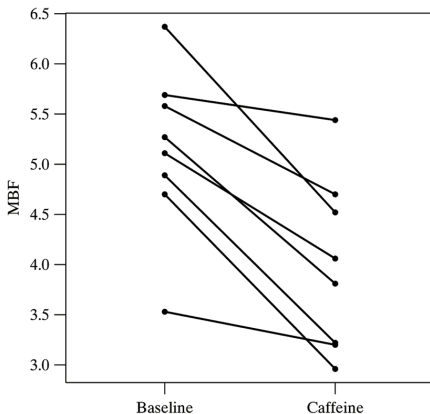
Elementary Statistics for the Biological and Life Sciences

## Example 8.1.1 Coffee and blood flow

- Myocardial blood flow (MBF) (ml/min/g) was measured during bicycle exercise **before** and **after** giving each participants the equivalent of two cups of coffee (200 mg of caffeine).
- Some people have high blood flow both before and after caffeine. Others have low blood flow before and after.
- By focusing on *the differences* from the same individual before and after, we **adjust** for individuals tendency to be high or low regardless.
- How does this analysis differ from those in Chapters 6 and 7? Observations are collected *on the same person*.

## Example 8.1.1 blood flow data

Each participant has a connected line (control and treatment).  
What does caffeine do to bloodflow?



**Figure 8.1.1** Dotplots of MBF readings before and after caffeine consumption, with line segments connecting readings on each subject

## Paired designs

- Paired data arise when two of the same measurements are taken from the same subject, but under different experimental conditions.
- Subjects often receive both a treatment  $Y_1$  and a control  $Y_2$ .
- Pairing observations reduces the subject-to-subject variability in the response.
- The analysis focuses on *the difference* in response from treatment to control. Let  $\mu_D$  be the mean difference for the entire population.
- We want a confidence interval for  $\mu_D$  and will want to test  $H_0 : \mu_D = 0$  vs. one of (a)  $H_A : \mu_D \neq 0$ , (b)  $H_A : \mu_D < 0$ , or (c)  $H_A : \mu_D > 0$ .

## Example 8.1.1 blood flow data

**Table 8.2.1** Myocardial blood flow (ml/min/g) for eight subjects

Subject	MBF		
	Baseline $y_1$	Caffeine $y_2$	Difference $d = y_1 - y_2$
1	6.37	4.52	1.85
2	5.69	5.44	0.25
3	5.58	4.70	0.88
4	5.27	3.81	1.46
5	5.11	4.06	1.05
6	4.89	3.22	1.67
7	4.70	2.96	1.74
8	3.53	3.20	0.33
Mean	5.14	3.99	1.15
SD	0.83	0.86	0.63

## Paired analysis in R

- Null is  $H_0 : \mu_D = 0$ .
- `t.test(sample1,sample2,paired=TRUE)` gives P-value for  $H_A : \mu_D \neq 0$ .
- `t.test(sample1,sample2,paired=TRUE,alternative="less")` gives P-value for  $H_A : \mu_D < 0$ .
- `t.test(sample1,sample2,paired=TRUE,alternative="greater")` gives P-value for  $H_A : \mu_D > 0$ .

## R code for bloodflow data

```
> baseline=c(6.37,5.69,5.58,5.27,5.11,4.89,4.70,3.53)
> caffeine=c(4.52,5.44,4.70,3.81,4.06,3.22,2.96,3.20)
> t.test(baseline,caffeine,paired=TRUE)
```

Paired t-test

```
data: baseline and caffeine
t = 5.1878, df = 7, p-value = 0.00127
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 0.6278643 1.6796357
sample estimates:
mean of the differences
      1.15375
```

We estimate  $\mu_D$  as 1.15 ml/min/g. We are 95% confident that the true mean bloodflow is between 0.63 and 1.68 ml/min/g greater in the control group. We reject  $H_0 : \mu_D = 0$  at the 5% level because  $P\text{-value} = 0.0013 < 0.05$ . Caffeine significantly reduces bloodflow.

## Conditions for validity of paired t-test (p. 315)

- Let  $n$  be the number of paired observations.
- The paired sample t-test and confidence interval are valid if (a) The sample size is large enough,  $n > 30$ , say, or (b) the *differences* are approximately normal.
- Normality can be checked with a normal probability (qq) plot.
- If the two samples are `sample1` and `sample2`, type `qqnorm(sample1-sample2)` in R.



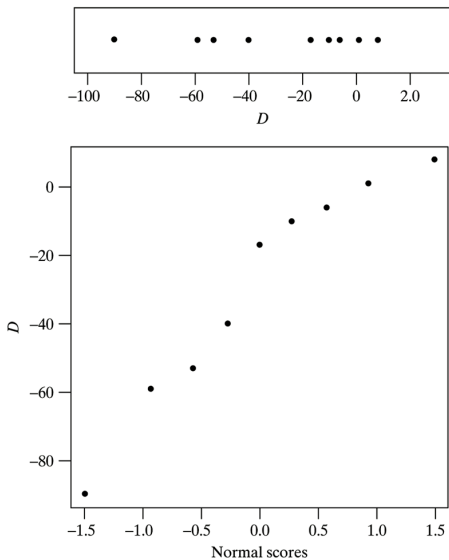
## Example 8.2.4 Hunger rating

- During a weight loss study each of  $n = 9$  subjects was given either the active drug m-chlorophenylpiperazine (mCPP) for two weeks and then a placebo for another two weeks, or else was given the placebo for the first two weeks and then mCPP for the second two weeks.
- As part of the study the subjects were asked to rate how hungry they were at the end of each two-week period.

# Hunger rating data

<b>Table 8.2.2</b> Hunger Rating for Nine Women			
Subject	Hunger rating		
	Drug (mCPP) $y_1$	Placebo $y_2$	Difference $d = y_1 - y_2$
1	79	78	1
2	48	54	-6
3	52	142	-90
4	15	25	-10
5	61	101	-40
6	107	99	8
7	77	94	-17
8	54	107	-53
9	5	64	-59
Mean	55	85	-30
SD	32	34	33

# Hunger rating dotplot & normal probability plot



## R code for hunger rating

```
> drug=c(79,48,52,15,61,107,77,54,5)
> placebo=c(78,54,142,25,101,99,94,107,64)
> qqnorm(drug-placebo)
> t.test(drug,placebo,paired=TRUE)
```

Paired t-test

```
data: drug and placebo
t = -2.7014, df = 8, p-value = 0.02701
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 -54.784709 -4.326402
sample estimates:
mean of the differences
      -29.55556
```

We estimate  $\mu_D$  as  $-30$ . We are 95% confident that the drug reduces hunger between 4 and 55 points. We reject  $H_0 : \mu_D = 0$  at the 5% level because  $P\text{-value} = 0.027 < 0.05$ . The drug significantly reduces hunger.

## 8.3 The paired designs

Paired analyses reduce variability and make it easier to reject  $H_0 : \mu_D = 0$ . Need to have the paired observations come from very similar experimental units.

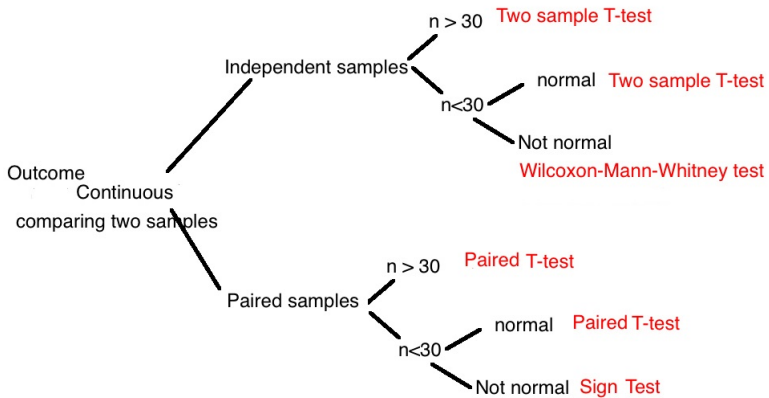
Examples:

- Ex. 8.3.1 Two plants grown in the same container.
- Ex. 8.3.2 Case-control data from people matched on gender, age.
- Ex. 8.3.3 Compare the memory capacity before or after memorizing something for the same person.

## Example 8.3.4 Triglycerides and exercise

Triglycerides play a role in coronary artery disease. Researchers measured blood triglycerides in seven men before and after a 10-week exercise program.

Subject	Before	After
1	0.87	0.57
2	1.13	1.03
3	3.14	1.47
4	2.14	1.43
5	2.98	1.20
6	1.18	1.09
7	1.60	1.51



## 8.4 The sign test

- The paired t-test assumes that differences follow a normal distribution.
- If the data aren't normal and the sample size is small, e.g.  $n < 30$ , then you can use the *sign test*.
- The sign test focuses on the median difference  $\eta_D$  rather than the mean  $\mu_D$ .
- This test looks at the number of differences  $D = Y_1 - Y_2$  that are positive  $N_+$  and the number that are negative  $N_-$ . These numbers should be similar if  $H_0 : \eta_D = 0$  is true.
- A P-value is based on the binomial distribution. Under  $H_0 : \eta_D = 0$ ,  $N_+ \sim \text{bin}(n, 0.5)$ .



## Sign test in R

- In R, `binom.test( $N_+$ ,  $n$ )` tests  $H_0 : \eta_D = 0$  vs.  $H_A : \eta_D \neq 0$ .
- Need to count the number of +’s and put that as first number, second number is sample size.
- For  $H_A : \eta_D < 0$  use `binom.test( $N_+$ ,  $n$ , alternative=“less”)`.
- For  $H_A : \eta_D > 0$  use `binom.test( $N_+$ ,  $n$ , alternative=“greater”)`.
- Ignore all output except the P-value.

## Example 8.3.4 Triglycerides and exercise

Subject	Before	After	Sign
1	0.87	0.57	+
2	1.13	1.03	+
3	3.14	1.47	+
4	2.14	1.43	+
5	2.98	1.20	+
6	1.18	1.09	+
7	1.60	1.51	+

$N_+ = 7$  and  $N_- = 0$ ; P-value should be small.

```
> binom.test(7,7)
number of successes = 7, number of trials = 7, p-value = 0.01563
```

## Two more examples

### Hunger rating

```
> binom.test(2,9)
number of successes = 2, number of trials = 9, p-value = 0.1797
```

P-value from t-test is 0.02701; not close at all. The t-test has greater power to reject  $H_0$  when data are really normal.

### Caffeine and blood flow

```
> binom.test(8,8)
number of successes = 8, number of trials = 8, p-value = 0.007812
```

P-value from t-test is 0.00127; fairly similar but t-test has smaller P-value (more power if differences really are normal).