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Design of Experiment in Metabolomics

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Design of Experiments/ Experimental Design

- A controlled experiment to either test a hypothesis or generate hypotheses
- In the design of experiments, the experimenter is usually interested in the effect of some process or intervention on some subjects

History of Experimental Design

- In 1747, James Lind (a Scottish Physician) developed the theory that citrus fruits cured scurvy (Symptoms include bleeding sores, tooth loss, anemia, and a reduced rate of healing for injuries), while serving as surgeon on HMS Salisbury Ship of the Royal Navy. This was the first ever clinical trial conducted.
- It can be fatal if left untreated.
- It is known that Scurvy is disease resulting from a deficiency of Vitamin C.

Lind's Experiment

- Lind selected 12 men from the ship suffering from scurvy. He divided them into six pairs, giving each pair different supplements to their basic diet for two weeks. The treatments were all remedies that had been proposed:
 - A quart of cider every day
 - Twenty five drops of *elixir vitriol* (Sulfuric acid) three times a day upon an empty stomach
 - One half-pint of seawater every day
 - A mixture of garlic, mustard, and horseradish in a lump the size of a nutmeg
 - Two spoonful of vinegar three times a day
 - Two oranges and one lemon every day

Result: The men given citrus fruits recovered dramatically within a week.

Source: Wikipedia

Lady Tasting Tea Experiment

Design of experiments was born as a result of an unlikely, but true anecdote: A lady claimed before R.A. Fisher that she was able to ascertain whether milk was poured before or after tea in her cup of tea. Fisher devised a study to verify her claim and, in turn, this gave birth to Experimental Design.



Milk poured first (4 cups)

Tea poured first (4 cups)

There are 70 different outcomes: $\frac{8!}{4!4!} = 70$

Her answers:

		True order		Total
		Tea First	Milk First	
Lady's	Tea First	a=3	b=1	a+b=4
Guesses	Milk First	c=1	d=3	c+d=4
Total		a+c=4	b+d=4	N=8

Experimental Design: Define the Problem

- What is the topic?
- What is the good question for an experiment?
- Is your question testable with the materials in your hand?
- Need to know hypothesis to guide your experiment?
- <u>Design your experiment</u> that will test your hypothesis.

Main Aims of the Experimental Design

- Maximize the Systematic/ experimental variance of the variable(s) of the research hypothesis (i.e. maximize the difference in the dependent variable (outcome) caused by maximizing the differences in the independent variable (treatment).
- Control the variance of extraneous (unwanted) variables that may affect the outcome other than treatment that could be causing differences in the outcome.
- Minimize the random variance/error due to unreliable measurement instruments that have high error of measurement.

Control for Extraneous Variable

- Eliminate the variable (for example if sex effect exit, then include only males or females, i.e. stratify).
- Randomization
- Build it into design
- Match subjects

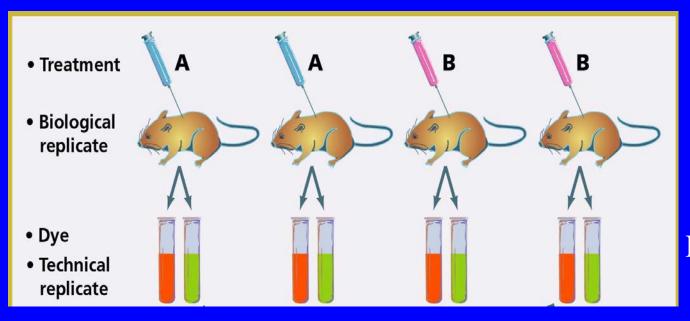
General Statistical Principles of Experimental Design

- Replication
- Randomization
- Blocking (Stratification)
- Use of factorial experiments instead of the one-factor-at-a-time methods

Replication

- Replication repetition of a basic experiment without changing any factor settings, allows the experimenter to estimate the experimental error in the system used to determine whether observed differences in the data are "real" or "just noise", allows the experimenter to obtain more statistical power (ability to identify small effects)
- Replications should not be confused with repeated measurements which refer to taking several measurements of a single occurrence of a phenomenon (single experiment).

Replications should not be confused with repeated measurements.



Replicates

Repeated measure

Replicates

- Number of replicates matter in power of the analysis
- Experiment: one mouse per group (treatment group vs. untreated group)- you can only measure the difference in metabolites, but no variance
- 5 or 10 mouse per group- you can measure both the difference in metabolites and the variance (very important for statistical testing)

More terms saying the same things

- What to replicate?
 - Biological replicates (replicates at the experimental unit level, e.g. mouse, plant, pot of plants...)
 - Experimental unit is the unit that the experiment treatment or condition is directly applied to, e.g. a plant if hormone is sprayed to individual plants; a pot of seedlings if different fertilizers are applied to different pots.
 - Technical replicates
 - Any replicates below the experimental unit, e.g. different leaves from the same plant sprayed with one hormone level; different seedlings from the same pot; Different aliquots of the same RNA extraction; multiple arrays hybridized to the same RNA; multiple spots on the same array.

Randomization

- Randomization a statistical tool used to minimize potential uncontrollable factors "lurking variables" (which might vary over the length of the experiment) in the experiment by randomly assigning treatment to the experimental units.
- Results in "averaging out" the effects of the extraneous factors that may be present in order to minimize the risk of these factors affecting the experimental results.
- Randomization is essential for making causal inferences.

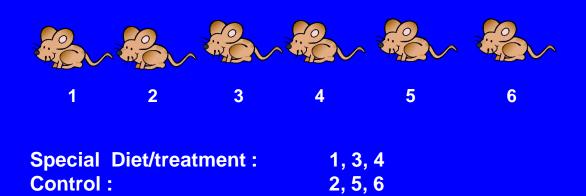
Randomization

- Experimental units (people, mouse, plant etc.) should be assigned to treatment groups at random.
- Can be done by using
 - Computer
 - Coins

Example

• Number the objects to be randomized and then randomly draw the numbers.

Example: Assign treatment/Special Diet and no treatment (control) to 6 mice (3 each)



Blocking/ Stratification

• Blocking – technique used to increase the precision of an experiment by breaking the experiment into homogeneous segments (blocks) in order to control any potential block to block variability (e.g. measurement of metabolites in different days or shift, by different technicians, by different machines). Any effects on the experimental results as a result of the blocking factor will be identified and minimized.

Blocking

- Some of these identified uninteresting but varying factors can be controlled through blocking.
 - COMPLETELY RANDOMIZED DESIGN

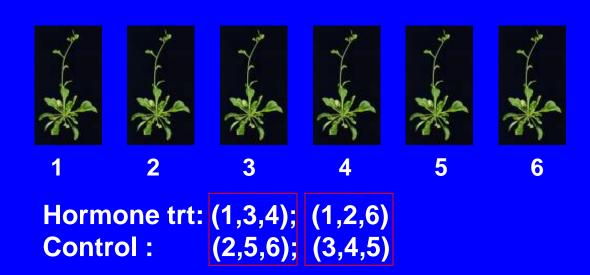
COMPLETE BLOCK DESIGN

INCOMPLETELY BLOCK DESIGNS

Completely Randomized Design

There is no blocking

- → Example
 - Compare two hormone treatments (trt and control) using 6 Arabidopsis plants (or mice or human).

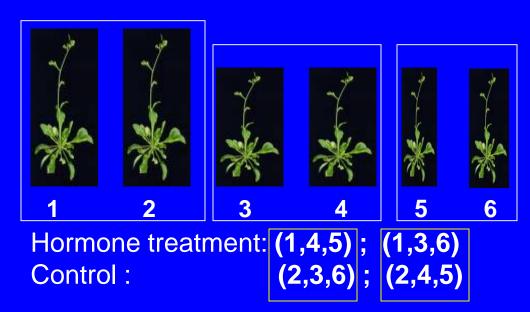


Complete Block Design

→ There is blocking and the block size is equal to the number of treatments.

Example:

Compare two hormone treatments (trt and control) using 6
 Arabidopsis plants. For some reason plant 1 and 2 are taller, plant 5 and 6 are thinner.

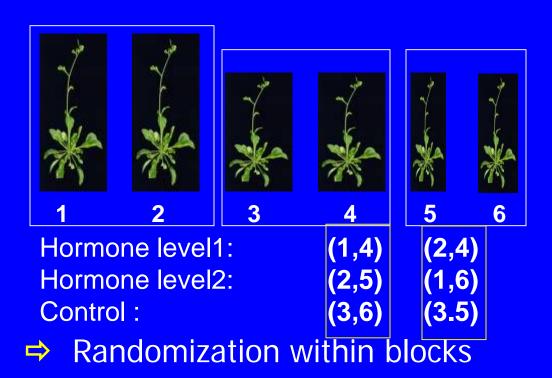


Randomization within blocks

Incomplete Block Design

→ There is blocking and the block size is smaller than the number of treatments. You can assign all treatments in each block.

Example: Compare three hormone treatments (hormone level 1, hormone level 2, and control) using 6 Arabidopsis plants. For some reason plant 1 and 2 are taller, plant 5 and 6 are thinner.

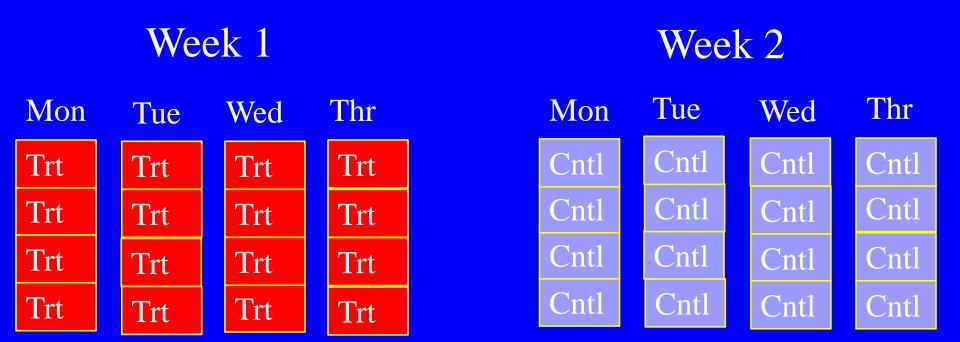


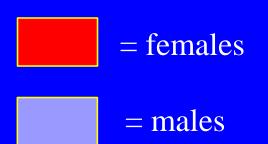
Example 2

Experiment:

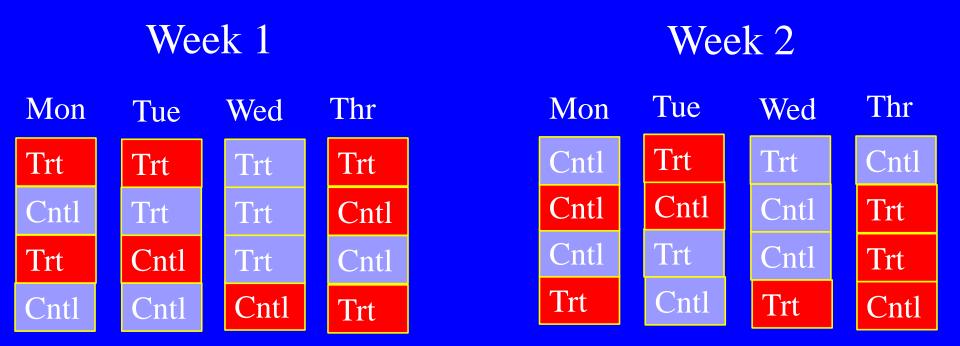
- 32 mice (16 males and 16 females)
- Half to be treated and other half left untreated
- A technician can work only 4 mice per day and only on Monday through Thursday

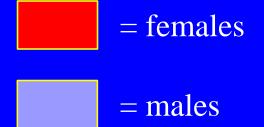
Bad design (Cardinal Sin)





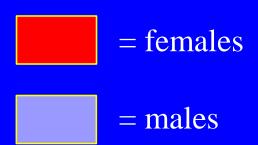
Randomization





Blocking

Week 2 Week 1 Tue Thr Mon Thr Mon Wed Wed Tue Cntl Trt Trt Cntl Trt Trt Trt Cntl Trt Cntl Cntl Trt Cntl Cntl Cntl Trt Cntl Trt Cntl Cntl Trt Cntl Cntl Trt Cntl Trt Trt Cntl Trt Trt



Confounding

- Confounding A concept that basically means that multiple effects are tied together into one parent effect and cannot be separated. For example,
 - Two people flipping two different coins would result in the effect of the person and the effect of the coin to be confounded
 - As experiments get large, higher order interactions are confounded with lower order interactions or main effect.

Sample Size and Power

Purpose

- Planning a study: number of individuals to recruit or number of mice to test a research hypothesis
- Understand sample size implications of alternative study designs
- Sample was already collected and wants study using new technology
 - GWAS was done, but wants to do metabolomics GWAS

Sample Size and Power Calculation

- Often the number of samples to be used for the experiments dictated by the reality of resources available, not science.
 - How much money is available for the experiment
 - What is the cost per sample
 - Thus, sample size = \$ available / cost per sample

Hypothesis Testing

- Power calculations are based on the principles of hypothesis testing
- A hypothesis is a statement about population parameter
- The two complementary hypotheses in a hypothesis testing problem are called the null hypothesis (H₀) and alternate hypothesis (H₁)

Two types of errors in hypothesis testing

 H_0 : $\theta=0$ versus H_1 : $\theta\neq 0$

		Decision		
		Accept H ₀	Reject H ₀	
Truth	H_0	Correct Decision	Type I error (α)	
	H_1	Type II error (β)	Correct decision	

Reject H₀ when we should not

Don't reject H₀ when we should

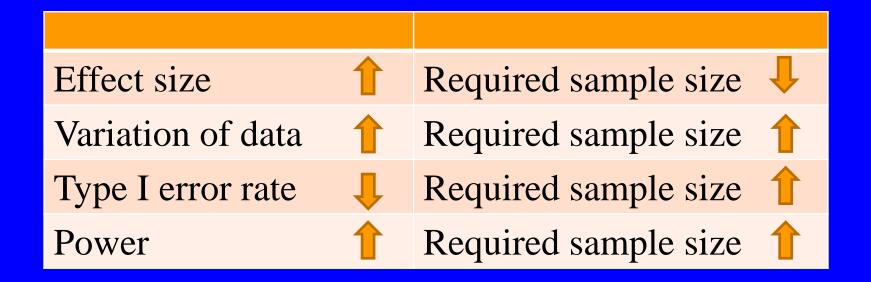
- Type I Error: Probability of finding a statistically significant effect when the truth is that there is no effect
- Type II Error: Probability of not finding a statistically significant effect when there is none.
- Power = 1- β , Significance level = α
- Goal is to minimize both types of errors

Power depends on ...

- Design
- The method of analyzing the data
- The effect size
- Standard deviation of the effect of interest
- Measurement variability
- The chosen significance level (α)
- The sample size

We usually use significance level of 5% and 80% power to estimate the sample size

Factors Affecting the sample size



- Type I error rate (α) is kept fixed and becomes smaller as number of tests increase
- Effect size and variation of the data (σ^2) is either obtained through pilot study or vary to calculate different sample sizes.

To calculate Sample Size

- Need to know level of significance (α)
- Statistical power (1- β)
- Effect size (expected difference)
- Standard deviation
- What statistical test we are going to use

Sample Size Formula for difference in means

 A sample size formula to test difference of means between two groups (two-tailed test)

-
$$n_1 = ((r+1)\sigma^2 (Z_{1-\beta} + Z_{\alpha/2})^2)/(r \Delta^2)$$

where,

- n_1 = size of the smaller group
- r = ratio of larger group to smaller group
- $Z_{1-\beta}$ = standard normal deviate corresponds to 1- β
- $Z_{\alpha/2}$ = standard normal deviate corresponds to two-tailed significance level
- Δ = difference in means of the outcome
- σ^2 =Variance of the difference of the means

Simple Example

• How many people would you need to sample in each group (assuming both groups of equal size) to achieve power of 80% if SD = σ =10, difference in mean is 5 with fixed α =0.05. So $Z_{\alpha/2} = Z_{0.025} = 1.96$, $Z_{1-\beta} = 0.84$, $1-\beta$ =0.80, so β =0.20 and r=1, then

•
$$n_1 = ((r+1)\sigma^2 (Z_\beta + Z_{\alpha/2})^2)/(r \Delta^2)$$

= 2 (100) (.84+1.96)²/(5²)
= 62.72 ~63

63 per group implies 126 altogether.

Conclusions

- Brainstorm with your colleagues and senior faculty to decide on the experiment
- Experiment should be designed with consultation with the statistician and metabolomics assays provider
- Good design and good analytic methods can lead to reduced sample size and also lead to valid meaningful results