# Transformations and outliers

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#### Problems with *t*-tests

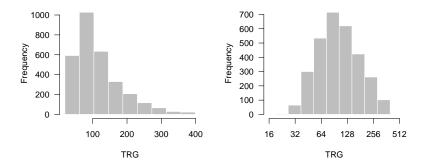
- In the last lecture, we covered the standard way of analyzing whether or not a continuous outcome is different between two groups: the *t*-test
- However, the focus of the *t*-test is entirely upon the mean
- As you may recall from our lecture on descriptive statistics towards the beginning of the course, the mean is very sensitive to outliers, and strongly affected by skewed data
- In cases where the mean is an unreliable measure of central tendency, the *t*-test will be an unreliable test of differences in central tendencies

## Transforming the data

- When it comes to skewed distributions, the most common response is to transform the data
- Generally, the most common type of skewness is right-skewness
- Consequently, the most common type of transformation is the log transform
- We have already seen one example of a log transform, when we found a confidence interval for the log odds ratio instead of the odds ratio

#### Example: Triglyceride levels

As an example of the log transform, consider the levels of triglycerides in the blood of individuals, as measured in the NHANES study:



#### Low-carb diet study

- Putting this observation into practice, let's consider a 2003 study published in the *New England Journal of Medicine* of whether low-carbohydrate diets are effective at reducing serum triglyceride levels
- The investigators studied overweight individuals for six months, randomly assigning one group to a low-fat diet and another group to a low-carb diet
- One of the outcomes of interest was the reduction in triglyceride levels over the course of the study

# Analysis of untransformed data

- The group on the low-fat diet reduced their triglyceride levels by an average of 7 mg/dl, compared with 38 for the low-carb group
- The pooled standard deviation was 66 mg/dl, and the sample sizes were 43 and 36, respectively

• Thus, 
$$SE = 66\sqrt{1/43 + 1/36} = 15$$

- The difference between the means is therefore 31/15 = 2.08 standard errors away from the expected value under the null
- This produces the moderately significant p-value (p = .04)

# Analysis of transformed data

- On the other hand, let's analyze the log-transformed data
- Looking at log-triglyceride levels, the group on the low-fat diet saw an average reduction of 1.8, compared with 3.5 for the low-carb group
- The pooled standard deviation of the log-triglyceride levels was 2.2
- Thus,  $SE = 2.2 \sqrt{1/43 + 1/36} = 0.5$
- The difference between the means is therefore 1.7/0.5 = 3.4 standard errors away from the expected value under the null
- This produces a much more powerful analysis: p = .001

# Confidence intervals

- It's also worth discussing the implications of transformations on confidence intervals
- The (Student's) confidence interval for the difference in log-triglyceride levels is  $3.5 1.8 \pm 1.99(0.5) = (0.71, 2.69)$ ; this is fairly straightforward
- But what does this mean in terms of the original units: triglyceride levels?
- Recall that differences on the log scale are ratios on the original scale; thus, when we invert the transformation (by exponentiating, also known as taking the "antilog"), we will obtain a confidence interval for the ratio between the two means

# Confidence intervals (cont'd)

- Thus, in the low-carb diet study, we see a difference of 1.7 on the log scale; this corresponds to a ratio of  $e^{1.7} = 5.5$  on the original scale in other words, subjects on the low-carb diet reduced their triglycerides 5.5 times more than subjects on the low-fat diet
- Similarly, to calculate a confidence interval, we exponentiate the two endpoints (note the similarity to constructing Cls for the odds ratio):

 $(e^{0.71}, e^{2.69}) = (2, 15)$ 

• NOTE: The mean of the log-transformed values is not the same as the log of the mean. The (exponentiated) mean of the log-transformed values is known as the *geometric mean*. What we have actually constructed a confidence interval for is the ratio of the geometric means.

# The big picture

- If the data looks relatively normal after the transformation, we can simply perform a *t*-test on the transformed observations
- The *t*-test assumes a normal distribution, so this transformation will generally result in a more powerful, less error-prone test
- This may sound fishy, but transformations are a sound statistical practice – we're not really manipulating data, just measuring it in a different way
- However, playing with dozens of different transformations of your data in an effort to engineer a low *p*-value is not a statistically valid or scientifically meaningful practice

# Tailgating study

- Let us now turn our attention to a study done at the University of Iowa investigating the tailgating behavior of young adults
- In a driving simulator, subjects were instructed to follow a lead vehicle, which was programmed to vary its speed in an unpredictable fashion
- As the lead vehicle does so, more cautious drivers respond by following at a further distance; riskier drivers respond by tailgating

# Goal of the study

- The outcome of interest is the average distance between the driver's car and the lead vehicle over the course of the drive, which we will call the "following distance"
- The study's sample contained 55 drivers who were users of illegal drugs, and 64 drivers who were not
- The average following distance in the drug user group was 38.2 meters, and 43.4 in the non-drug user group, a difference of 5.2 meters
- Is this difference statistically significant?

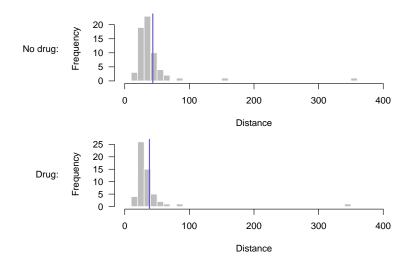
#### Analysis using a *t*-test

- No, says the t-test
- The pooled standard deviation is 44, producing a standard error of 8.1
- The difference in means is therefore less than one standard error away from what we would expect under the null
- There is virtually no evidence against the null (p = .53)

#### Always look at your data

- Nothing interesting here; let's move on, right?
- Not so fast!
- Remember, we should always look at our data (this is especially true with continuous data)
- In practice, we should look at it first before we do any sort of testing – but today, I'm trying to make a point

# What the data look like



# Outliers

- As we easily see from the graph, huge outliers are present in our data
- And as mentioned earlier, the mean is sensitive to these outliers, and as a result, our *t*-test is unreliable
- The simplest solution (and unfortunately, probably the most common) is to throw away these observations
- So, let's delete the three individuals with extremely large following distances from our data set and re-perform our *t*-test (NOTE: I am not in any way recommending this as a way to analyze data; we are doing this simply for the sake of exploration and illustration)

Removing outliers in the tailgating study

- By removing the outliers, the pooled standard deviation drops from 44 to 12
- As a result, our observed difference is now 1.7 standard errors away from its null hypothesis expected value
- The *p*-value goes from 0.53 to 0.09

# Valid reasons for disregarding outliers

- There are certainly valid reasons for throwing away outliers
- For example, a measurement resulting from a computer glitch or human error
- Or, in the tailgating study, if we had reason to believe that the three individuals with the extreme following distances weren't taking the study seriously, including them may be doing more harm than good

# Arguments against disregarding outliers

- However, throwing away observations is a questionable practice
- Perhaps computer glitches, human errors, or subjects not taking the study seriously were problems for other observations, too, but they just didn't stand out as much
- Throwing away outliers often produces a distorted view of the world in which nothing unusual ever happens, and overstates the accuracy of a study's findings

#### Introduction to Biostatistics (171:161)

# Throwing away outliers: a slippery slope

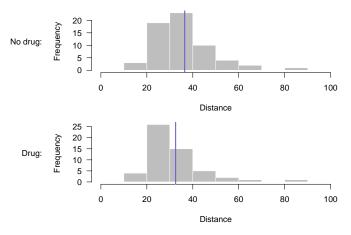
- Furthermore, throwing away outliers threatens scientific integrity and objectivity
- For example, the investigators put a lot of work into that driving study, and they got (after throwing out three outliers) a *t*-test *p*-value of 0.09
- Unfortunately, they might have a hard time publishing this study in certain journals because the p-value is above .05
- They could go back, collect more data and refine their study design, but that would be a lot of work
- An easier solution would be to keep throwing away outliers

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# Throwing away outliers: a slippery slope (cont'd)

Now that we've thrown away the three largest outliers, the next two largest measurements kind of look like outliers:



# Throwing away outliers: a slippery slope (cont'd)

- What if we throw these measurements away too?
- Our pooled standard deviation drops now to 10.7
- As a result, our observed difference is now 2.03 standard errors away from 0, resulting in a *p*-value of .045

#### Data snooping

- This manner of picking and choosing which data we are going to allow into our study, and which data we are going to conveniently discard, is highly dubious, and any *p*-value that is calculated in this manner is questionable (even, perhaps, meaningless)
- This activity is sometimes referred to as "data snooping" or "data dredging"
- Unfortunately, this goes on all the time, and the person reading the finished article has very little idea of what has happened behind the scenes resulting in that "significant" *p*-value

### The ozone layer

- Furthermore, outliers are often the most interesting observations – instead of being thrown away, they deserve the opposite: further investigation
- As a dramatic example, consider the case of the hole in the ozone layer created by the use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and first noticed in the middle 1980s
- As the story garnered worldwide attention, investigators from around the world started looking into NASA's satellite data on ozone concentration
- These investigators discovered that there was appreciable evidence of an ozone hole by the late 1970s
- However, NASA had been ignoring these sudden, large decreases in Antarctic ozone layers as outliers – at what turns out to have been considerable environmental cost

# The big picture

- Sometimes, there are good reasons for throwing away misleading, outlying observations
- However, waiting until the final stages of analysis and then throwing away observations to make your results look better is both dishonest and grossly distorts one's research
- It is usually better to keep all subjects in the data set, but analyze the data using a method that is robust to the presence of outliers
- Also, don't forget that outliers can be the most important and interesting observations of all

# Summary

- A common way of analyzing data that is not normally distributed is to transform it so that it is
- In particular, it is common to analyze right-skewed data using the log transformation
- Differences on the log scale correspond to ratios on the original scale
- Outliers have a dramatic effect on *t*-tests but that doesn't necessarily mean you should remove them