Graduate Metabolomics Course GSBC 724

Design of Experiment in Metabolomics

Hemant K. Tiwari, Ph.D.
Professor
Department of Biostatistics
School of Public Health

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.



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?
- Design your experiment 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

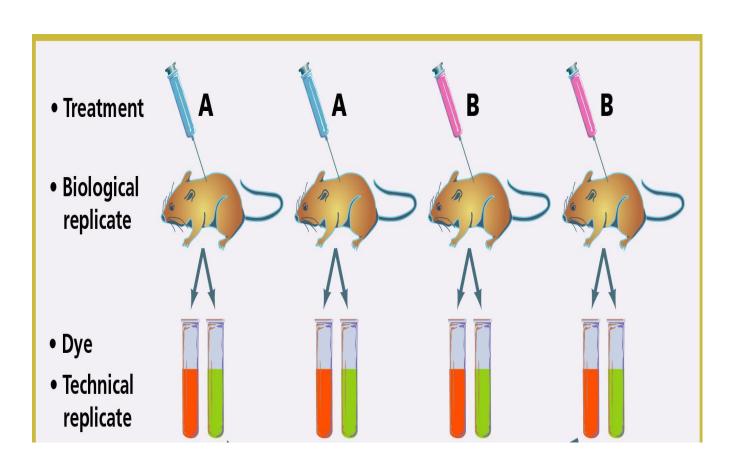
General Statistical Principles of Experimental Design

- 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)



Special Diet/treatment: 1, 3, 4

Control: 2, 5, 6

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

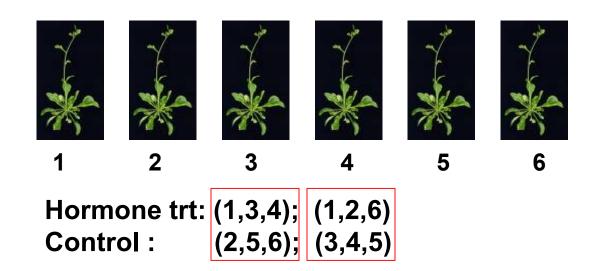
COMPLETE BLOCK DESIGN

INCOMPLETELY BLOCK DESIGNS

Completely Randomized Design

There is no blocking

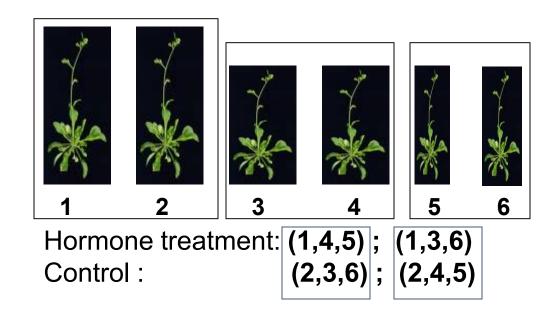
- → Example
 - Compare two hormone treatments (trt and control) using 6
 Arabidopsis plants (or mice or human).



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.

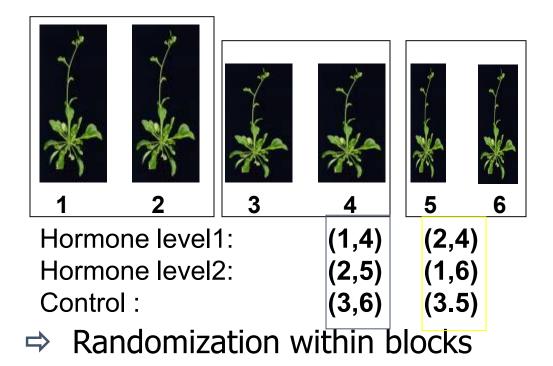


⇒ Randomization within blocks

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.

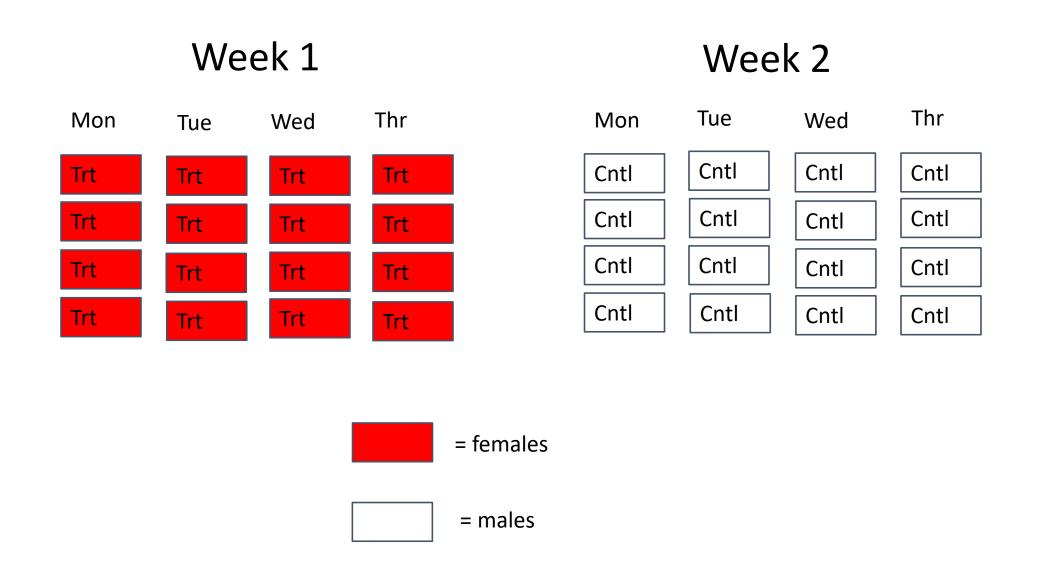
Example: Compare three hormone treatments (hormone level 1, hormone level 2, and control) using 6 Arabidopsis plants. For some reason plant 1 and 2 are taller, plant 5 and 6 are thinner.



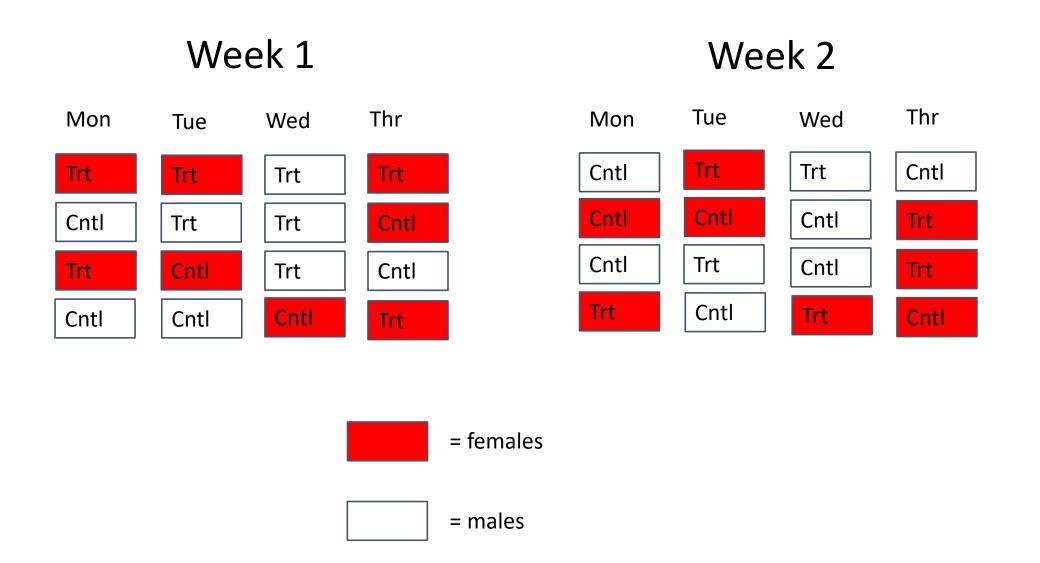
Example 2

- 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

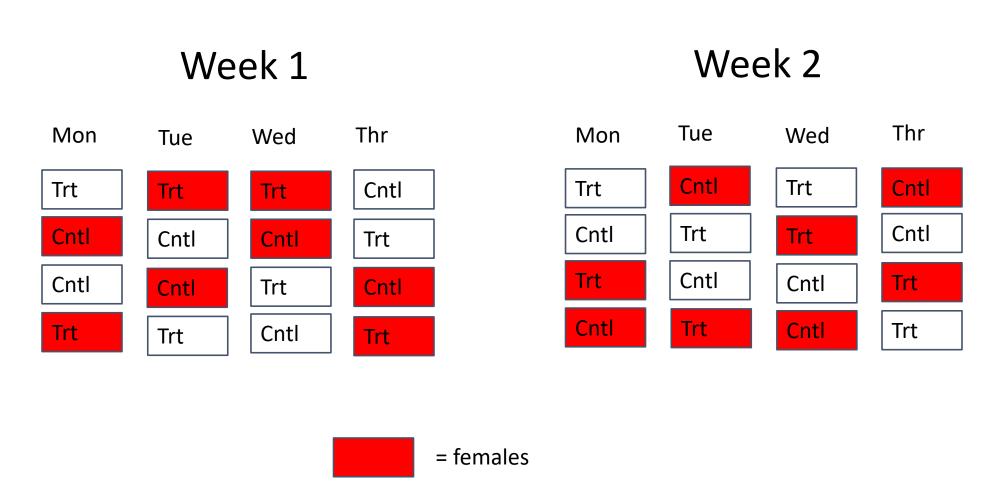
Bad design (Cardinal Sin)



Randomization



Blocking



= males

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
 - Genome-Wide Association Study (GWAS) was done, but wants to do metabolomics on the same data set

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 (H_0) and alternate hypothesis (H_1)
- A statistically significant result does not imply that a research hypothesis is correct (as this implies 100% certainty). Because a p-value is based on probabilities, there is always a chance of making an incorrect conclusion regarding accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0).

Two types of errors in hypothesis testing

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

		Decision		
		Accept H ₀ (Null)	Reject H ₀ (Alternate)	
Truth	H ₀	Correct Decision	Type I error (α)	Reject a true null hypothesis
	H ₁	Type II error (β)	Correct decision	
		Accept a false null hypothesis		

- Type I Error: Probability of finding a statistically significant effect when the truth is that there is no effect. A type I error is also known as false positive
- **Type II Error:** A type II error is also known as a false negative and researcher concludes there is not a significant effect, when actually there really is.

Significance Level and Power

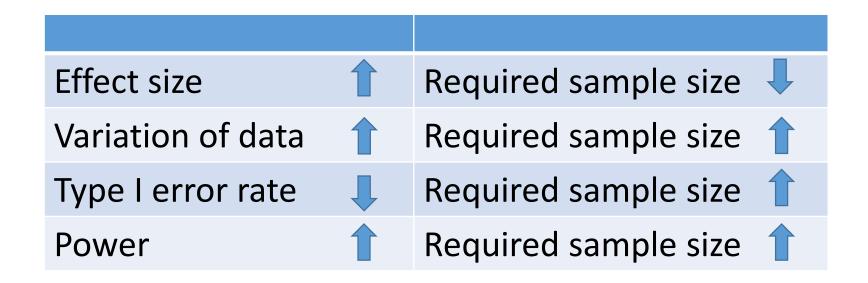
- The probability of making a type I error is represented by your alpha level (α), which is the p-value below which you reject the null hypothesis. Alpha level is also called significance level. If alpha=0.05, a p-value of 0.05 indicates that you are willing to accept a 5% chance that you are wrong when you reject the null hypothesis.
- The probability of making a type II error is called Beta (β), and this is related to the power of the statistical test (**Power** = 1- β).
- You can decrease your risk of committing a type II error by ensuring your test has enough power.
- 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- β =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.

Real Example

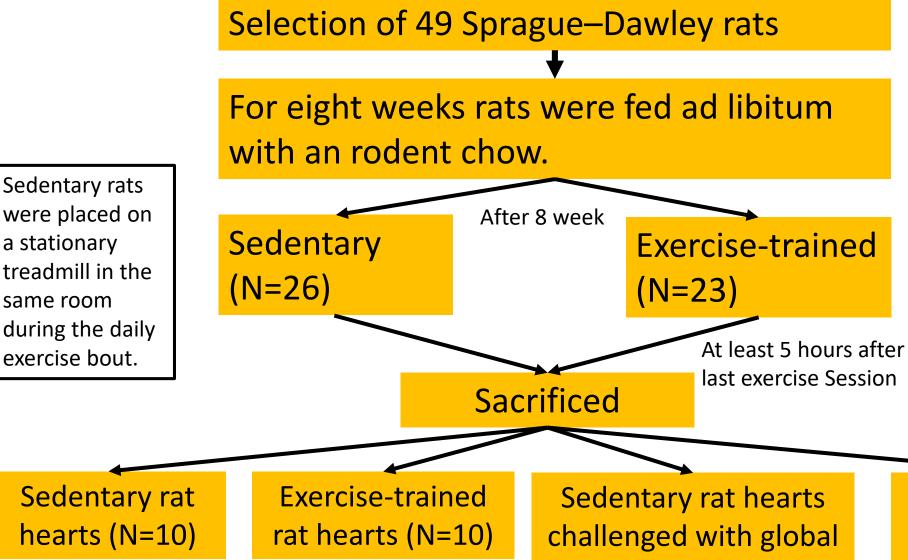
• Parry et al. Untargeted metabolomics analysis of ischemiareperfusion-injured hearts ex vivo from sedentary and exercisetrained rats. *Metabolomics*. 2018 Jan;14(1). pii: 8. doi: 10.1007/s11306-017-1303-y. Epub 2017 Dec 4.



Ischemia/Reperfusion (I/R) injury is defined as the cellular damage that results from a period of ischemia that is followed by the reestablishment of the blood supply to the infarcted tissue.

Parry et al. (2018)

- Scientific Premise—The effects of exercise on the heart and its resistance to disease are well-documented. Recent studies have identified that exercise-induced resistance to arrhythmia is due to the preservation of mitochondrial membrane potential.
- **Objectives**—To identify novel metabolic changes that occur parallel to these mitochondrial alterations, they performed non-targeted metabolomics analysis on hearts from sedentary and exercise-trained rats challenged with isolated heart ischemia—reperfusion injury (I/R).



Exercise was carried out on a motor-driven treadmill, set at a 10.5% incline, 5 days/wk for 6 weeks in an adjoining room maintained at 20 °C. Running duration and speed were gradually increased over 22 days to 60 min at 30 m/min, corresponding to 75–80% VO2max (Dudley et al. 1982), and then maintained at this level for the remaining 2–3 weeks.

Sedentary rat hearts (N=10)

ischemia-reperfusion (I/R) injury (N=10)

Exercise-trained rat hearts challenged with global I/R (N=10)

Non-targeted GC-MS metabolomics analysis

Non-targeted GC-MS metabolomics analysis

- Sample Preparation: Left ventricular tissue was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, weighed (25–50 mg wet wt), then placed in buffer (50% acetonitrile, 50% water, 0.3% formic acid) at a standard concentration of 25 mg/475 μl buffer and fully homogenized on ice for 20–25 s. Tissues were then placed on dry ice and stored at –80 °C.
- Samples were analyzed by GC/MS.
- Four groups with ten biological replicate samples were analyzed (40 total). If more than three individuals did not have a metabolite detected in a group (of 10 total), they were excluded from further analysis for that metabolite. In groups missing values, the lowest value of that group was used to impute those values.

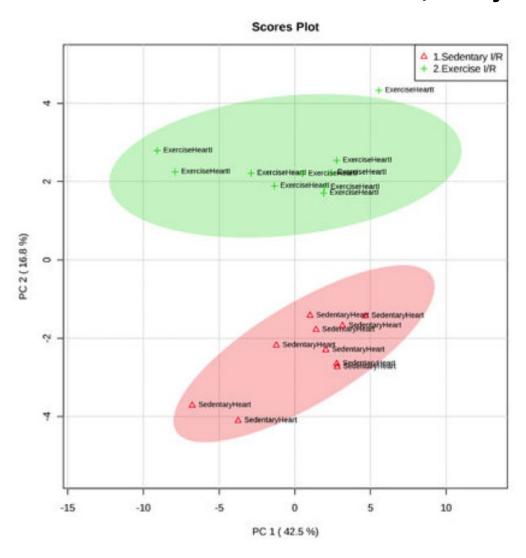
Statistical Analysis

- Metaboanalyst (v3.0), an R package (v2.14.0), was used to detect metabolite peak areas (as representative of concentration).
- These data were scaled using Pareto scaling feature.
- A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's the Least Significance
 Difference (LSD) post-hoc test across the groups (hearts from sedentary animals,
 sedentary hearts challenged with I/R, hearts from exercise-trained animals, and
 exercise-trained hearts challenged with I/R) were performed.
- ANOVA-significant metabolites (FDR < 0.05) were matched to metabolomics pathways using the Pathway Analysis and Enrichment Analysis features in Metaboanalyst 3.0.
- Only metabolites identified and detected in all groups were included in the one-way ANOVA.
- Differences between sedentary and exercise-trained groups were compared using an independent t test (2-tailed).
- Comparisons of increases after exercise training between muscle types were analyzed using a 2-tailed t test followed by a one-way ANOVA.

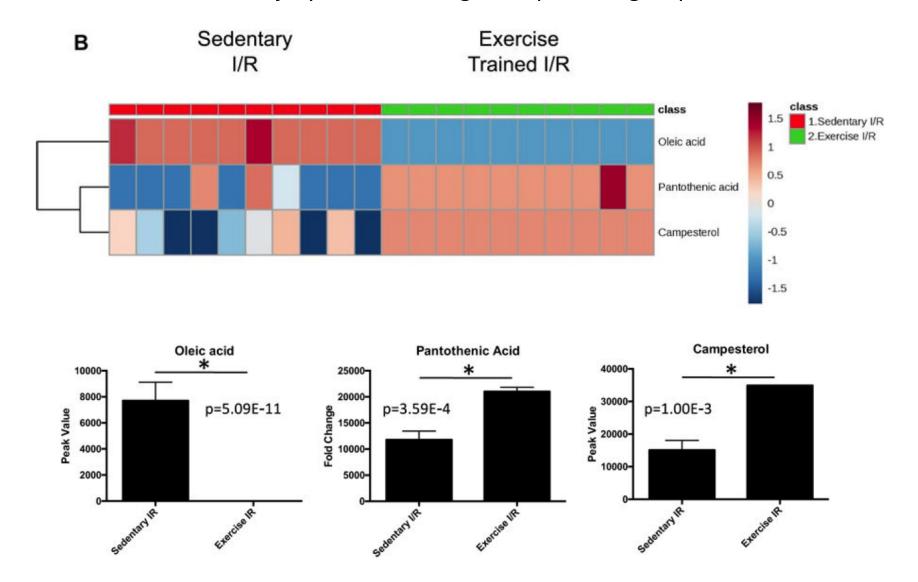
Results

- Non-targeted GC-MS metabolomics analysis of 4 groups revealed 15 statistically significant metabolites between groups by ANOVA using Metaboanalyst (p < 0.001).
- Enrichment analysis of these metabolites for pathway-associated metabolic sets indicated a > 10-fold enrichment for ammonia recycling and protein biosynthesis.
- Subsequent comparison of the sedentary hearts post-I/R and exercise-trained hearts post-I/R further identified significant differences in three metabolites (**oleic acid**, pantothenic acid, and campesterol) related to pantothenate and CoA biosynthesis ($p \le 1.24E-05$, FDR $\le 5.07E-4$).

Significantly altered metabolites comparing sedentary and exercise-trained hearts after ischemia reperfusion injury by t test analysis. PCA analysis of sedentary and exercise-trained hearts after I/R injury.



Significantly altered metabolites comparing sedentary and exercise-trained hearts after ischemia reperfusion injury by t test analysis. Heatmap of t test significant metabolites from sedentary and exercise-trained hearts after IR injury. N = 10 biological replicates/group.



Parry et al.' conclusion

- Their study found on novel mechanisms in which exercise-induced cardioprotection occurs in I/R that complement both the mitochondrial stabilization and antioxidant mechanisms recently described.
- These findings also link protein synthesis and protein degradation (protein quality control mechanisms) with exercise-linked cardioprotection and mitochondrial susceptibility for the first time in cardiac I/R.

Issues with the Parry et al.

- No evidence of randomization or blocking
 - couldn't operate on 40 animals in day, so is there could be a day effect, timeof-day effect
- Why to use lowest value of the group where the missingness had occurred? If all missing values were in same group?
- t-test is meaningless when one group has zero frequency for Oleic acid.

Overall 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