

1

2

3

4 This is the submitted version of a paper accepted at *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity*. Please cite
5 as “A primer on common analytic concerns in psychoneuroimmunology: Alternatives and paths
6 forward. *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity*, 102, 338-340.
7 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2022.03.007>”

8

9

10 A Primer on Common Analytic Concerns in Psychoneuroimmunology: Alternatives and Paths
11 Forward

12

13

14

Daniel P. Moriarity^{1,2}

15

16

17

18

19

¹Department of Psychology, Temple University

20

²Department of Psychiatry, McLean Hospital/Harvard Medical School

21

22

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Daniel P. Moriarity,

23

Department of Psychology, Temple University, Weiss Hall, 1701 N. 13th St., Philadelphia, PA

24

19122, United States of America. E-mail: Daniel.moriarity@temple.edu.

25

26

Funding: Daniel P. Moriarity was supported by National Research Service Award

27

F31MH122116 and an APF Visionary Grant.

28

29 Psychoneuroimmunology has been an increasingly popular area of research in recent
30 years, as evidenced by the number of submissions to *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity* (the premier
31 journal in the field) increasing from 873 in 2016 to 2,491 in 2020. As this field has grown so has
32 interest in methodological work aiming to maximize the replicability and clinical impact of this
33 research. For instance, recent work has begun to characterize the physiometrics (measurement
34 properties of biological variables; Moriarity and Alloy, 2021; Segerstrom and Smith, 2012) of
35 inflammatory variables. For example, some studies have investigated the temporal stability of
36 inflammatory proteins (Out et al., 2012; Shields et al., 2019) and the temporal specificity of
37 effects between immune and psychological variables (Moriarity et al., 2019). Others have tested
38 how many biological samples are necessary to achieve specific analytic goals (e.g., reliability,
39 Segerstrom and Boggero, 2020; Shields et al., 2019). Further, some recent work in this journal
40 has investigated whether removing observations with CRP>10 mg/L (often cited as an indicator
41 of acute illness) is an appropriate default strategy (Mac Giollabhui et al., 2020; Moriarity et al.,
42 2021b). Other researchers have leveraged designs and analytic techniques that isolate
43 theoretically-relevant variance (e.g., within-person variance; Kuhlman et al., 2018; Moriarity et
44 al., 2020) or investigate inflammation in the context of established psychosocial models of
45 psychiatric risk (e.g., rumination; Moriarity et al., 2018; Szabo et al., 2022). However, the
46 replicability and clinical impact of this work is contingent upon statistical rigor and proper
47 execution of analyses.

48 This current manuscript seeks to add to these bodies of work by briefly, and accessibly,
49 discussing analytic concerns commonly observed in psychoneuroimmunology research and
50 introduce alternatives. It is worth note that the issues described below are not specific to
51 psychoneuroimmunology; however, I hope that this viewpoint might serve as a resource for

52 methodological reform in the subfield. To maximize the ease of integrating the below
53 recommendations into new work, supplemental materials includes template code for all
54 suggestions and links to additional resources (e.g., further reading, Shiny apps).

55 **Linear Regressions Assume Normality of Residuals *Not* Values**

56 Many psychoneuroimmunology studies investigate hypothesized linear relationships
57 between immunological and psychosocial/behavioral variables. For example, whether higher
58 levels of CRP are associated with higher levels of depression or whether individuals who
59 persevere more during a stressor have greater inflammatory reactions. Consequently, linear
60 regressions (and other types of linear models) are commonly used in psychoneuroimmunology.
61 A common misconception in linear regression is that the assumption of normality refers to the
62 distribution of the data (Ernst and Albers, 2017), which is often seen in psychoneuroimmunology
63 research (see Horn et al. (2018) for an example meta-analysis that reports how often studies of
64 the relation between CRP and depression report normality of CRP data and how it influenced the
65 statistics used). While this is true for some types of analyses (e.g., bivariate correlations
66 (Kowalski, 1972)), the assumption of normality for linear regressions (and many other types of
67 models) refers to the distribution of the residuals (i.e., error terms; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).
68 In other words, the majority of cases should have small residuals/error, with fewer and fewer
69 cases as error increases. This is because error is used to calculate estimates; thus, violation of this
70 assumption could result in biased estimates and/or p-values (Ernst and Albers, 2017). R code to
71 investigate normality of residuals in linear regression has been provided in Supplemental
72 Materials using data from the 2017-2020 NHANES cohort (Centers for Disease Control and
73 Prevention, 2009). Should residuals be skewed, the most commonly suggested remedial measure

74 to try transforming the dependent variable; however, sometimes it is possible to use a statistical
75 approach robust to non-normality (described below).

76 Some readers might be concerned that, because log-transformation is commonly treated
77 as a default method in many psychoneuroimmunology studies, increasing the frequency of raw
78 biomarkers as variables would introduce difficulties for future meta-analyses. This should not be
79 an issue because accounting for potential differences in effect sizes when proteins are raw vs.
80 log-transformed could be accounted for by testing transformation-status as a moderator. Further,
81 the quality of meta-analyses are limited by the methodology of their component studies; thus,
82 advancing methodological rigor is one of the most direct ways to improve the quality of meta-
83 analyses.

84 **Sometimes it is Best to Change Models, Not Data**

85 It is common for data to be manipulated via transformation and winsorization/removal of
86 outliers, given the oft skewed nature of immunological data (and many psychological variables
87 of interest) and frequency of extreme values. Although these decisions might help standard
88 models run smoothly, certain types of data manipulation result in data that no longer fully
89 represents the original sample. For example, consider a sample of adolescents without
90 autoimmune conditions recruited to investigate the relationship between IL-6 and depression. If a
91 subset of observations with elevated IL-6 are removed or winsorized to satisfy statistical
92 assumptions, this decision effectively adds a third inclusion criterion (i.e., adolescent, no
93 autoimmune conditions, and IL-6 below a specific level). Additionally, it is important to consider
94 whether inflammatory outliers might represent individuals particularly relevant to the theories
95 under study (e.g., hypotheses that atypically elevated inflammation is a risk factor for
96 psychopathology; Mac Giollabhui et al., 2020; Moriarity et al., 2021b). Further, individuals with

97 atypically high inflammation may naturally be more common in populations of interest (e.g.,
98 those with chronic illness or acute stress). It is also common for datasets to have observations
99 below the lower limit of detection, which are often deleted or imputed to a specific value
100 (discussed in greater detail in Horn et al., 2018).

101 In addition to the conceptual implications of data manipulation, there can be quantitative
102 and interpretive consequences as well. For example, deleting observations might result in biased
103 estimates and can directly reduce power by decreasing sample size. Further, the ability to make
104 substantive interpretations can also decrease after manipulating data. Consider a linear regression
105 testing the relationship between CRP (measured in mg/L) and depression symptoms resulting in
106 a coefficient of .5. This would be interpreted as every 1 mg/L increase in CRP predicts a .5
107 increase in the depression score, which is more easily interpretable at a practical level than an
108 estimate in $\log(\text{mg/L})$ and/or \log depression score. Additionally, analyses of log-variables results
109 in multiplicative effects instead of additive effects (in other words, proportional vs. summative
110 effects; Liu and Maxwell, 2020). This is not inherently incorrect (and might be suitable to much
111 psychoneuroimmunology research) but should be considered when deciding whether to
112 transform data.

113 To clarify, this is not a condemnation of transformation, winsorization, or outlier
114 removal. Rather it is an invitation to consider whether there are benefits to keeping data true to
115 their observed form (e.g., interpretability, retaining extreme values that represent populations of
116 interest) and explore alternatives (Courvoisier and Renaud, 2010). For example, if the
117 assumption of normality is violated there might be nonparametric alternatives (e.g., using the
118 Kruskal-Wallis test instead of a one way ANOVA). To avoid outliers on one's dependent
119 variable from overly influencing the results of a regression, robust regression could be used.

120 Similarly, there are a number of robust estimators available for latent variable modeling (e.g.,
121 MLR). Code for these alternatives is included in Supplemental Materials.

122 **Biological Composites Need to be Physiometrically Evaluated Before Use**

123 Biological aggregates are becoming increasingly popular in psychoneuroimmunology to
124 counteract issues with multiple comparison and selective reporting associated with analyzing
125 multiple analytes. Additionally, if hypotheses are not specific to the effects of specific proteins
126 (e.g., inflammation generally), a latent or composite variable might better match the level at
127 which the underlying theory is described. When composites are used it is common to include all
128 proteins in a dataset; however, it is imperative to consider the biological plausibility of the
129 individual variables acting as part of a unidimensional system/process. On a broader note, it is
130 important to underscore that all analytic decisions be made informed by the available biological
131 knowledge about immunology as a system (e.g., which proteins regulate one another, the
132 timeline of acute reactivity).

133 In addition to careful consideration of the biological plausibility of this decision, it is
134 imperative that these aggregates are physiometrically evaluated (e.g., reliability, dimensionality;
135 Moriarity and Alloy, 2021; Segerstrom and Smith, 2012) to test their suitability for research.
136 This is particularly important for multifaceted biological processes such as inflammation (Felger
137 and Miller, 2020; Lynall et al., 2020), as discrete inflammatory processes could have different
138 predictors and sequelae of interest. A common example of this possibility is discussion of how
139 pro- vs. anti-inflammatory processes might be differentially associated with psychological
140 outcomes (e.g., depression; Hayley, 2011). Further, the not uncommon practice of creating
141 inflammatory aggregates by standardizing and summing all individual proteins in a dataset can
142 result in composites that are inadvisable for use (Moriarity et al., 2021a) relative to individual

143 proteins or composites created using standard aggregate creation procedures (e.g., factor
144 analysis). To clarify, this is not a condemnation of inflammatory composites/latent factors;
145 rather, it is an argument that standard data aggregation procedure should be followed to
146 determine if the resulting variables are viable. Consequently, if composites are determined to be
147 biologically-plausible, it is strongly recommended they are empirically investigated before use
148 and measurement properties germane to composite measures (e.g., internal consistency) are
149 reported.

150 **We Got the Power (Analyses)**

151 Psychoneuroimmunology is far from the only field suffering from a dearth of power
152 analyses reported in manuscripts, but it is an important area with room for improvement. Monte
153 Carlo simulations provide a relatively straightforward way to determine power to detect an effect
154 of interest with the sample size available. This technique is also incredibly flexible, able to
155 evaluate the power for any type of analysis. Briefly, this procedure (code provided) involves
156 simulating a dataset with the effect size under question specified and the sample size available to
157 the researchers repeatedly (at least 1,000 times). The proportion of times the effect is significant
158 across the simulated samples indicates the study's power. To illustrate, consider a hypothetical
159 study testing whether IL-6 response to the influenza vaccine is associated with depression
160 controlling for gender and age in a sample of 65 adults. By first simulating multiple datasets with
161 the hypothesized correlations between each variable, it is possible to run the desired analysis in
162 each dataset to determine power (i.e., how many times the hypothesized effect was significant).
163 Alternatively, for readers less comfortable operating in R, there are also Shiny apps available that
164 facilitate the use of Monte Carlo simulations for specific analyses (e.g., pwrSEM (Wang and

165 Rhemtulla, 2020) and ANOVA_power, for which links are provided at the end of the
166 supplemental code) without the need for writing code.

167 **Conclusion**

168 This primer seeks to highlight potential areas of improvement in the analytic execution of
169 psychoneuroimmunology research. By improving the standard statistical rigor of the field it is
170 possible to conduct more replicable, informative, and clinically-relevant studies to advance the
171 field at a more efficient, consistent, and meaningful pace.

172

173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193

References

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2009. National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) stored biologic specimens: Guidelines for proposals to use samples and proposed cost schedule.

Courvoisier, D.S., Renaud, O., 2010. Robust analysis of the central tendency, simple and multiple regression and ANOVA: a step by step tutorial. *Int. J. Psychol. Res.* 3, 78–87. <https://doi.org/10.21500/20112084.849>

Ernst, A.F., Albers, C.J., 2017. Regression assumptions in clinical psychology research practice—a systematic review of common misconceptions. *PeerJ* e3323. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3323>

Felger, J.C., Miller, A.H., 2020. Identifying Immunophenotypes of Inflammation in Depression: Dismantling the Monolith. *Biol. Psychiatry* 88, 136–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2020.04.024>

Hayley, S., 2011. Toward an anti-inflammatory strategy for depression. *Front. Behav. Neurosci.* 5, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnbeh.2011.00019>

Horn, S.R., Long, M.M., Nelson, B.W., Allen, N.B., Fisher, P.A., Byrne, M.L., 2018. Replication and reproducibility issues in the relationship between C-reactive protein and depression: A systematic review and focused meta-analysis. *Brain Behav. Immun.* 73, 85–114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2018.06.016>

Kowalski, C.J., 1972. On the Effects of Non-Normality on the Distribution of the Sample Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. *Appl. Stat.* 21, 1–12.

194 <https://doi.org/10.2307/2346598>

195 Kuhlman, K.R., Robles, T.F., Dooley, L.N., Boyle, C.C., Haydon, M.D., Bower, J.E., 2018.

196 Within-subject associations between inflammation and features of depression : Using the flu

197 vaccine as a mild inflammatory stimulus. *Brain Behav. Immun.* 69, 540–547.

198 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2018.02.001>

199 Liu, Q., Maxwell, S.E., 2020. Multiplicative treatment effects in randomized pretest-posttest

200 experimental designs. *Psychol. Methods* 25, 71–87. <https://doi.org/10.1037/met0000222>

201 Lynall, M.E., Turner, L., Bhatti, J., Cavanagh, J., de Boer, P., Mondelli, V., Jones, D., Drevets,

202 W.C., Cowen, P., Harrison, N.A., Pariante, C.M., Pointon, L., Clatworthy, M.R., Bullmore,

203 E., 2020. Peripheral Blood Cell–Stratified Subgroups of Inflamed Depression. *Biol.*

204 *Psychiatry* 88, 185–196. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2019.11.017>

205 Mac Giollabhui, N., Ellman, L.M., Coe, C.L., Byrne, M.L., Abramson, L.Y., Alloy, L.B., 2020.

206 To exclude or not to exclude: Considerations and recommendations for C-reactive protein

207 values higher than 10 mg/L. *Brain. Behav. Immun.*

208 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2020.01.023>

209 Moriarity, D.P., Alloy, L.B., 2021. Back to basics: The importance of measurement properties in

210 biological psychiatry. *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.* 123, 72–82.

211 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2021.01.008>

212 Moriarity, D.P., Ellman, L.M., Coe, C.L., Olino, T.M., Alloy, L.B., 2021a. A psychometric

213 investigation of inflammatory composites: Comparison of “a priori” aggregates,

214 empirically-identified factors, and individual proteins. *Brain, Behav. Immun. - Heal.* 18,

215 100391. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbih.2021.100391>

216 Moriarity, D.P., Horn, S.R., Kautz, M.M., Haslbeck, J.M., Alloy, L.B., 2021b. How handling
217 extreme C-reactive protein (CRP) values and regularization influences CRP and depression
218 criteria associations in network analyses. *Brain. Behav. Immun.* 91, 393–403.
219 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2020.10.020>

220 Moriarity, D.P., Kautz, M.M., Mac Giollabhui, N., Klugman, J., Coe, C.L., Ellman, L.M.,
221 Abramson, L.Y., Alloy, L.B., 2020. Bidirectional associations between inflammatory
222 biomarkers and depressive symptoms in adolescents: Potential causal relationships. *Clin.*
223 *Psychol. Sci.* 8, 690–703. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004>

224 Moriarity, D.P., Mac Giollabhui, N., Ellman, L.M., Klugman, J., Coe, C.L., Abramson, L.Y.,
225 Alloy, L.B., 2019. Inflammatory proteins predict change in depressive symptoms in male
226 and female adolescents. *Clin. Psychol. Sci.* 7, 754–767.
227 <https://doi.org/10.1177/2167702619826586>

228 Moriarity, D.P., McArthur, B.A., Ellman, L.M., Coe, C.L., Abramson, L.Y., Alloy, L.B., 2018.
229 Immunocognitive model of depression secondary to anxiety in adolescents. *J. Youth*
230 *Adolesc.* 47, 2625–2636. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-018-0905-7>

231 Out, D., Hall, R.J., Granger, D.A., Page, G.G., Woods, S.J., 2012. Assessing salivary C-reactive
232 protein: Longitudinal associations with systemic inflammation and cardiovascular disease
233 risk in women exposed to intimate partner violence. *Brain. Behav. Immun.* 26, 543–551.
234 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2012.01.019>

235 Segerstrom, S.C., Boggero, I.A., 2020. Expected Estimation Errors in Studies of the Cortisol
236 Awakening Response: A Simulation. *Psychosom. Med.* 82, 751–756.
237 <https://doi.org/10.1097/PSY.0000000000000850>

238 Segerstrom, S.C., Smith, G.T., 2012. Methods, variance, and error in psychoneuroimmunology
239 research: The good, the bad, and the ugly, in: Segerstrom, S.C. (Ed.), Oxford Handbook of
240 Psychoneuroimmunology. Oxford U Press, New York, NY, pp. 421–432.

241 Shields, G.S., Slavich, G.M., Perlman, G., Klein, D.N., Kotov, R., 2019. The short-term
242 reliability and long-term stability of salivary immune markers. *Brain. Behav. Immun.* 81,
243 650–654. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2019.06.007>

244 Szabo, Y.Z., Burns, C.M., Lantrip, C., 2022. Understanding associations between rumination and
245 inflammation: A scoping review. *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.* 135, 104523.
246 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2022.104523>

247 Tabachnick, B.G., Fidell, L.S., 2013. Using multivariate statistics, Sixth. ed. Pearson, Boston,
248 MA.

249 Wang, A.Y., Rhemtulla, M., 2020. Power analysis for parameter estimation in structural equation
250 modeling: a discussion and tutorial. *Adv. Methods Pract. Psychol. Sci.* 211.
251 https://doi.org/10.3130/ajjt.5.211_5

252