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# OCES 3301 : basic Data Analysis in ocean sciences

## Session 5: statistical tests

# Outline

(Just overview here; for actual content see Jupyter notebooks)

- ▶ brief introduction to probability
  - pdfs, Gaussian, law of large numbers, CLT
  - **Confidence Intervals**
- ▶ hypothesis testing (mostly focus on *analysis*)
  - **null hypothesis**
  - confidence threshold
  - computing the test statistic (Z-test example),  $p$ -values
  - banana skins
  - Type I and II errors, statistical power (cf. experimental design)

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- ▶ I think there are better tools to use (Bayesian formulations, confidence intervals), but not touching those here
  - the statistical tests here are more **classical**
  - arguably more technical (not really though...)



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- ▶ I think there are better tools to use (Bayesian formulations, confidence intervals), but not touching those here
  - the statistical tests here are more **classical**
  - arguably more technical (not really though...)
- ▶ not going to talk about **experimental design**, though it is probably more important than the **statistical analysis**

# Lasciate ogni speranza, voi ch'intrate



Figure: Cursed image.

## Motivation: sea cucumber



Figure: Moldy sea cucumber.

Suppose sea cucumber has some distribution of weight that we can measure:

- Q. does change in diet affect her weight?
- Q. does exercise regime affect her weight?
- might expect to, but how do we distinguish **noise** (e.g. natural random fluctuations) with “real” effect?

# Motivation: sea cucumber



Figure: Moldy sea cucumber.

e.g. say from samples,

$$\{\mu_1 = 3.00, \quad \sigma_1 = 0.5\}$$

$$\{\mu_2 = 3.20, \quad \sigma_2 = 0.5\}$$

- ▶ mean is different, so has effect?  
→ but could just be a fluke?
- ▶ hypothesis testing as a tool to say whether differences are **statistically significant**

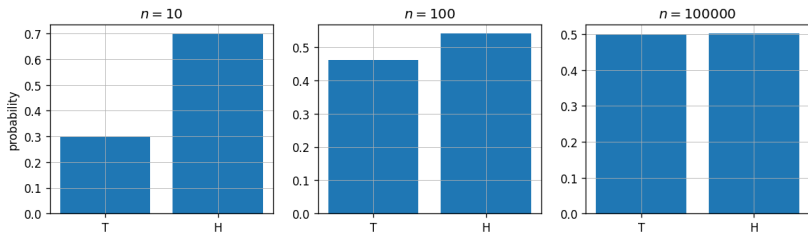
## Some probability

- ▶ assign some real value between 0 and 1 to some **event**  
→ 0 is never, 1 is certainly
- ▶ e.g. throwing a fair coin, two events, expect  $p = 1/2$
- Q. that's in principle, what if you actually try it?

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**Q.** that's in principle, what if you actually try it?



**Figure:** Result of hypothetical coin tosses displayed in **bar graph**.

# Some probability

- ▶ going back to the sea cucumber, we might have a sample of weights and display it in a **histogram**

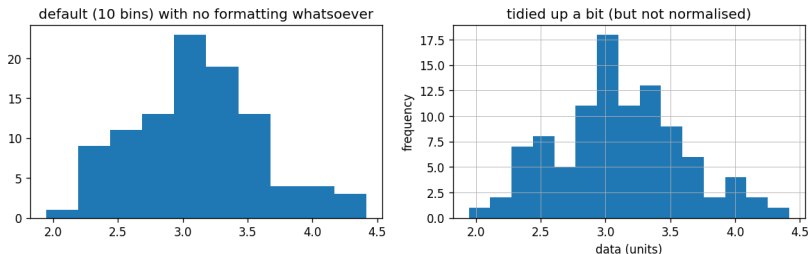


Figure: Result of hypothetical sea cucumber weight.

- ▶ obtained from **binning** procedure  
→ probability is related here to **integral** of the graph

## Some probability

- histogram related to the **probability distribution function (pdf)** of the underlying sample

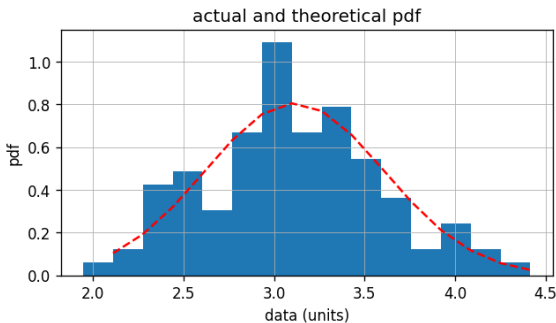


Figure: Result of hypothetical sea cucumber weight with **Gaussian pdf**.

Q. where did I get the red line from though?



# Some probability

Gaussian or normal distribution has pdf

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right]$$

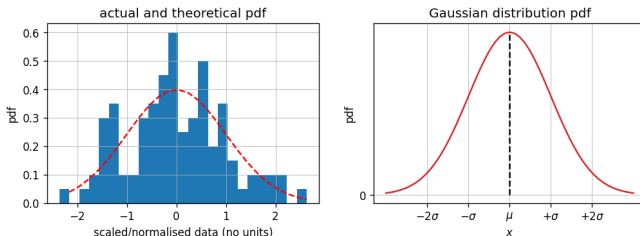


Figure: The Gaussian pdf (with units deliberately omitted). Obtain probability from an integral.

► approximate **population**  $(\mu, \sigma)$  from **sample**  $(\bar{x}, s)$

Q. what would the pdf of the **uniform distribution** look like?

## Some probability

Point here is that if you have the pdf you have basically everything

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*(Very loosely) If your sample is large enough, under fairly general conditions (!) you can approximate most data distributions as a Gaussian distribution, even if the underlying distribution is not necessarily Gaussian.*

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- ▶ for large enough samples, you can fit it to a Gaussian pdf...

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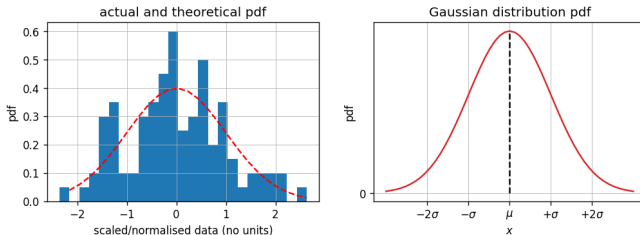
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*(Very loosely) If your sample is large enough, under fairly general conditions (!) you can approximate most data distributions as a Gaussian distribution, even if the underlying distribution is not necessarily Gaussian.*

- ▶ for large enough samples, you can fit it to a Gaussian pdf...
- ▶ ...and if you have the pdf you have basically everything!

# Some probability



**Figure:** The Gaussian pdf (with units deliberately omitted). Obtain probability from an integral.

- **68-95-99.7 rule**, 68, 95 and 99.7% of the data lies within 1, 2 and 3 s.t.d. of the mean  
→ whenever CLT applies (which is quite often!)

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e.g.

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## Confidence Interval

- the interval that contains  $P$  amount of probability  
→ e.g. **95% confidence interval** for Gaussian data would be around  $(-2\sigma, 2\sigma)$  ( $-1.96\sigma, 1.96\sigma$ ) is more accurate but whatever...

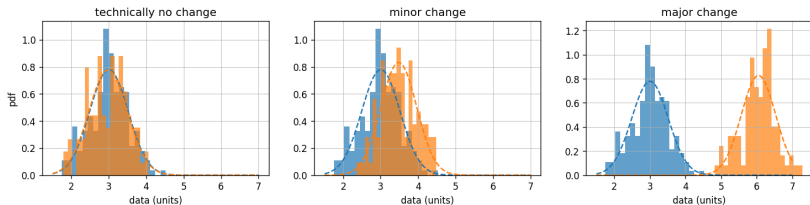
# Some probability

**Z-score** or standardised scores: with samples  $x_i$ , define

$$z_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

- ▶ essentially re-scaled Gaussian
  - cf. what was done for the PCA two sessions ago
  - allows somewhat of a like-for-like comparison

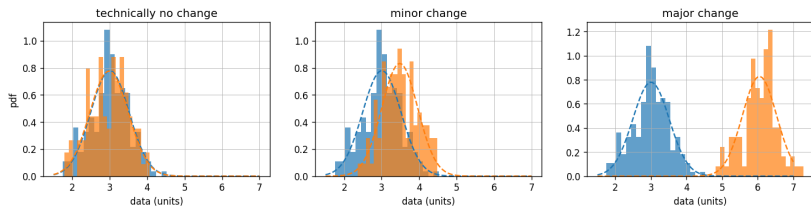
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**Figure:** Control and varied sample distributions and associated Gaussian pdf.

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- Q. variability in data always exist, so how to distinguish change from noise?
- ? non-overlapping confidence intervals?
  - quite strict (and **under-powered**; see later)

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A more standard and routine (doesn't mean it's a good thing necessarily):  
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cf. proof by contradiction: want to proof  $X$ , so

- ▶ assume *not*  $X$
- ▶ start from not  $X$ , logically derive consequences, avoiding illegal logical manoeuvres
- ▶ come to a contradiction
- ▶ if no illegal manoeuvres, then initial assumption must be false, and there  $X$  is true



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  2. or  $H_0$  is incompatible with data
- ▶ if latter, reject  $H_0$ , and there is **statistical evidence** in support for *not*  $H_0$  (which is the thing you wanted anyway)

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**compute** : compute Z-statistics (see notebook)

**conclude** : if Z-statistic large or corresponding **p-value** small, then reject  $H_0$

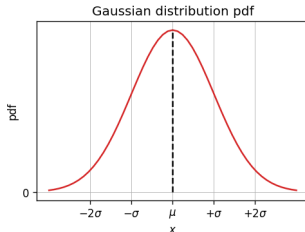
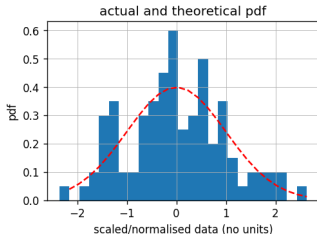
(see actual code syntax in notebook)

# Z-test (demonstration of sorts here)

- Z-test calculates Z-statistic with sample mean  $\bar{x}$

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

- with  $H_0$  the mean is the **same**
- if Z big enough (so the associated  $p$ -value is small) then evidence to reject  $H_0$
- Gaussian, large samples, known  $\sigma$  (could approximate with  $s$ )



# Easy right?

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Figure: Banana says no.

- ▶ banana skins in no particular order (there are so many of them)...

## Banana skin 1: $H_0$

**What if you fail to reject the null hypothesis?**

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  - it really just means you can't say anything
- ▶ cf. proof by contradiction: not being able to find a contradiction could mean
  - there really is nothing there
  - you aren't looking hard enough

## Banana skin 2: $p$ -values and $H_0$

**For  $\alpha = 0.05$  and I reject  $H_0$ , so test tells me  $H_0$  is only 5% likely to be true**

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**For  $\alpha = 0.05$  and I reject  $H_0$ , so test tells me  $H_0$  is only 5% likely to be true**

- ▶ (frequentist point of view)  $H_0$  is either true or false, it can't be 5% true
- ▶ probability of  $p = 0.05$  is
  - × hypothesis given data  $p(H_0|x_i)$
  - ✓ data given hypothesis  $p(x_i|H_0)$
- ▶ rule of thumb (frequentist view): don't assign probabilities to hypotheses

## Banana skin 3: $p$ -values

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- ▶ again no, since  $p$ -value is tagged with the null hypothesis, i.e., I would have observed this signal *given* the null hypothesis

## Banana skin 4: $p$ -values

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→ comes from (Ronald) Fisher's paper in the 30s or so,  
when dealing with small samples ( $\approx 20$ ?)

→ can easily be abused to generate false-positives with  
multiple testing or large sampling (see notebook)

► just a convention (and prone to abuse)

→ e.g. particle physics uses  $5\sigma$  ( $\alpha = 0.0000003$ , or 1 in 3.5  
million, partly because of multiple sampling going on)



## Banana skin 5: $p$ -values

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→ statistical significance is not practical significance,  
 $p$ -values can't tell you the latter

→  $H_0$  statements are very broad:  $H_0$  is no change, not  $H_0$  is there *is* change, but it doesn't tell you how much change

► need interpretation: 1 kg difference in a sea cucumber is not the same as 1 kg difference in a whale

# Type I and II errors

## Type I errors (false-positives)

- ▶ rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true  
→ related to choice of significance  $\alpha$

## Type II errors (false-negatives)

- ▶ fail to reject  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is false

	$H_0$ true	$H_0$ false
reject $H_0$	Type I	✓
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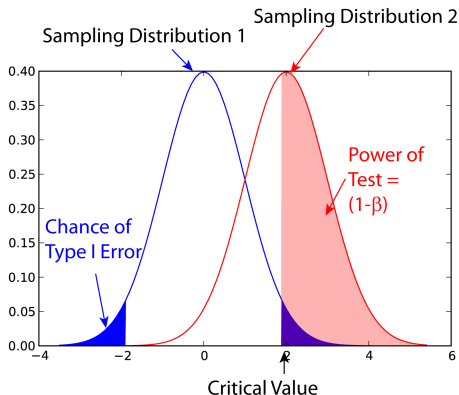
or, with  $H_0$  = someone is innocent,

	innocent	murderer
found guilty	wrongful conviction	✓
found not guilty	✓	fail to prosecute

# Type I and II errors

**Type II errors**  $\beta$  related to **statistical power**  $1 - \beta$

- ▶ really to do with experimental design  
→ choice of sample size to detect effect (see notebook)



**Figure:** Graphical demonstration of Type I and II errors. From Wikipedia.

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**This statistical test didn't work so I will use another one, or**

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- ▶  $\alpha = 0.05$  so 5% of the time you will reject the null hypothesis when you shouldn't have (Type I error, false-positives)

→ multiple testing you could be sampling that 5%

→ issue of stop when you get a hit (DON'T!!!)

(see notebook for an example of this)

- ▶ leads to **false discoveries** (see notebook for an example to do with academic publishing)

# Bad practices 2: report only reject or not reject

## Reporting reject/fail to reject only

- ▶ report the full  $p$ -value
  - above/below boundary is not saying whether hypothesis is true/false (banana skin 2)
  - the threshold is a convention (banana skin 4)

## Bad practices 3: being hung up on the analysis

**The analysis part is so hard I need to pay most of my attention to it**

- ▶ if your experimental design is faulty than one would hope (!) that no amount of wizardry will fix that...  
→ have a think about the validity of design and tools also

# Jupyter notebook

Probably more but this is surely getting tedious... go to 05 Jupyter notebook to get some code practise

- ▶ RNGesus and probability
- ▶ written overview of hypothesis testing  
→ one example using Z-tests

**Statistics is just a tool, no more and no less**

- ▶ YOU are the user and the onus is on YOU to know enough about to tool to not abuse it