

# Introduction to statistical thinking

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# Why statistics?

## DATA: BY THE NUMBERS



[www.phdcomics.com](http://www.phdcomics.com)

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# Why statistics?

**Statistics** is at the core of modern research

**What is statistics?**

# Why statistics?

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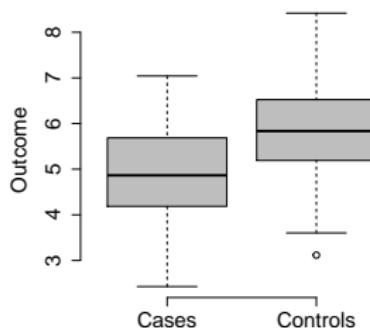
## What is statistics?



→ everything from experimental design to figure preparation!

# What can we do with statistics?

## Comparisons between two groups



For example,

- ▶ Case/control studies
- ▶ Differential expression studies

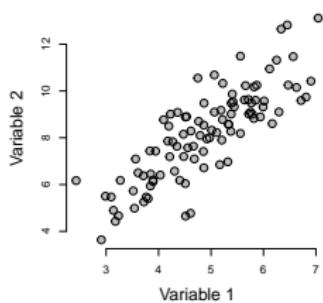
Is this difference *statistically significant*?

# What can we do with statistics?

## Finding associations between variables

For example,

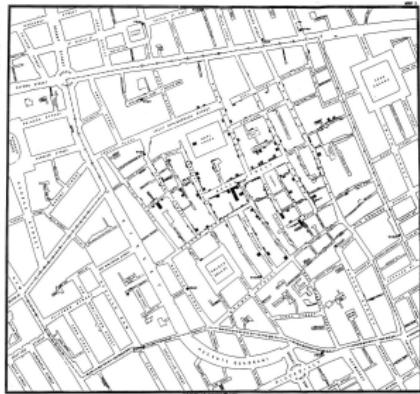
- ▶ Dose level vs survival time
- ▶ Association studies (e.g. GWAS)
- ▶ Co-expression networks



Is there an association between  $X$  and  $Y$ ?

Which associations are *statistically significant*?

# What can we do with statistics?



Public domain image

During the Soho cholera outbreak in 1854, John Snow used statistics to find an **association** between the quality of the water source and cholera cases

John Snow is considered one of the fathers of modern epidemiology

# Outline for the course

- ▶ **Introduction to statistics**
  - ▶ Types of data
  - ▶ Descriptive statistics
  - ▶ Practical: descriptive statistics in Rmarkdown
  - ▶ Statistical inference
- ▶ **Hypothesis testing (in R)**
- ▶ **Regression analysis (in R)**
- ▶ **Multiple testing (in R)**

## Introduction to statistics

## Types of data

Prior to any analysis, it is important to know what type of data is available

# Types of data

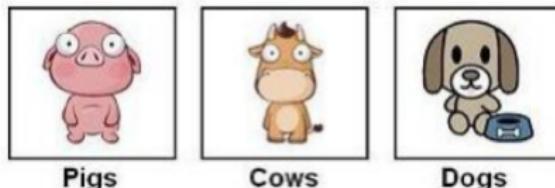
Prior to any analysis, it is important to know what type of data is available

Data can be classified into different **types of variables**:

- ▶ Categorical (nominal)
- ▶ Categorical (ordinal)
- ▶ Discrete
- ▶ Continuous

## Types of data: categorical (nominal)

To describe categories



Source: <http://www.restore.ac.uk>

- ▶ No logical order
- ▶ Mutually exclusive fixed categories

Examples: gender, yes/no, cancer type, eye colour, ethnicity, etc.

## Types of data: categorical (ordinal)

To describe categories



- ▶ There is a logical order
- ▶ Mutually exclusive fixed categories
- ▶ There is no quantification of the distance between categories

Examples: stress level (1 = low, ..., 7 = high), pain level (low/medium/high), education level (primary, secondary, ...), etc.

## Types of data: discrete

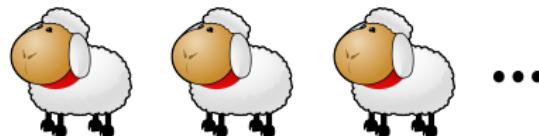


Image modified from Free Stock Photos

- ▶ Fixed (countable) possible set of values
- ▶ Distance between categories can be quantified
- ▶ ... basically, anything counted

Examples: number of tumours, hospital admissions, etc.

Sometimes treated as continuous if range is large!

## Types of data: continuous



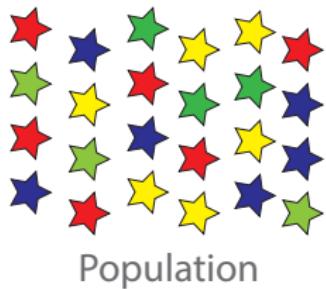
Requirements:

- ▶ Infinite number of possible values
- ▶ Given any two values, one fits between
- ▶ May have finite or infinite range

Examples: height, weight, blood pressure, temperature etc.

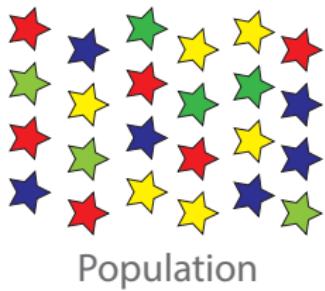
# Population versus sample

**Census** records information from every subject within a population



# Population versus sample

**Census** records information from every subject within a population



Population

**Scientific studies** typically rely on a subset of a population



Population

**Assumption:** the sample is a good representative of the population!

# Descriptive statistics versus statistical inference

## Descriptive statistics

summarizes the information  
available in the data

6 x  +  
6 x  +  
6 x  +  
6 x  +

# Descriptive statistics versus statistical inference

## Descriptive statistics

summarizes the information available in the data

## Statistical inference

extrapolates sample information to population level

6 x  +  
6 x  +  
6 x  +  
6 x  +

$$P(\text{Red Star}) = 1/4$$

$$P(\text{Green Star}) = 1/4$$

$$P(\text{Blue Star}) = 1/4$$

$$P(\text{Yellow Star}) = 1/4$$

**Assumption:** the sample is a good representative of the population!

## Descriptive analyses

## Descriptive analyses

There are two basic forms of data summary

- ▶ Numerical: frequency tables, summary measures, etc
- ▶ Graphical: histograms, scatter-plots, boxplots, etc

**A good summary depends on the data type!**

# Descriptive analyses: categorical variables

## Numerical summary

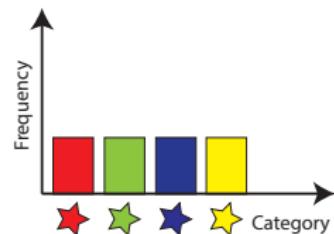
Category	Frequency	Cumulative frequency	Relative frequency	Cum. rel. frequency
★	6	6	0.25	0.25
★	6	12	0.25	0.50
★	6	18	0.25	0.75
★	6	24	0.25	1.00

# Descriptive analyses: categorical variables

## Numerical summary

Category	Frequency	Cumulative frequency	Relative frequency	Cum. rel. frequency
★	6	6	0.25	0.25
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## Graphical summary



## Descriptive analysis: discrete/continuous variables

**Frequency tables** are not useful  
unless we *categorize* the data

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Example:

Birth weight	Rel. freq
Very low (<1.5 kg.)	0.05
Low (1.5-2.5 kg.)	0.10
Normal ( $\geq 2.5$ kg.)	0.85

## Descriptive analysis: discrete/continuous variables

**Frequency tables** are not useful unless we *categorize* the data

Instead, we typically prefer *summary measures*

Example:

Birth weight	Rel. freq
Very low (<1.5 kg.)	0.05
Low (1.5-2.5 kg.)	0.10
Normal ( $\geq 2.5$ kg.)	0.85

- ▶ Mean
- ▶ Median
- ▶ Mode
- ▶ Variance
- ▶ Quantiles

Which one?

## Descriptive analysis: discrete/continuous variables

Firstly, we can use measures to describe the **location** of the data

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### Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$$

### Median ( $x_{50\%}$ )

50% of observations lie below  $x_{50\%}$

# Descriptive analysis: discrete/continuous variables

Firstly, we can use measures to describe the **location** of the data

When the data is normal ...

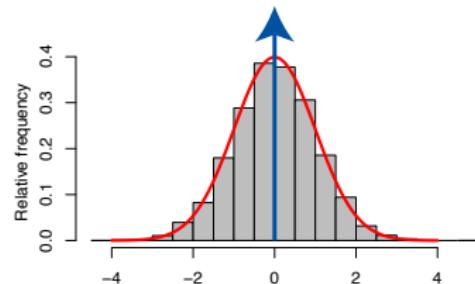
**Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )**

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$$

**Median ( $x_{50\%}$ )**

50% of observations lie below  $x_{50\%}$

Mean = Median



... but that is not always true

## Descriptive analysis: example

Suppose we record the number of Facebook friends for 7 colleagues:

311, 345, 270, 310, 243, 5300, 11

**Mean** ( $\bar{x}$ )

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_7}{7} = 970$$

**Median** ( $x_{50\%}$ )

$$11, 243, 270, \textcolor{red}{310}, 311, 345, 5300 \Rightarrow x_{50\%} = 310$$

Which one provides a better description for the location of the data?

## Descriptive analysis: example

Now suppose the data is slightly different:

311, 345, 270, 310, 243, **530**, 11

**Mean** ( $\bar{x}$ )

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_7}{7} = 289$$

**Median** ( $x_{50\%}$ )

$$11, 243, 270, \textcolor{red}{310}, 311, 345, 530 \Rightarrow x_{50\%} = 310$$

What happened?

## Descriptive analysis: discrete/continuous variables

It is also important to summarize the **spread** of the data

**Standard deviation** ( $\text{sd}(x)$ )

$$\text{sd}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{(x_1 - \bar{x})^2 + \cdots + (x_n - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$$

**Interquartile range** ( $\text{IQR}(x)$ )

$$\text{IQR}(x) = x_{75\%} - x_{25\%}$$

## Descriptive analysis: example

In the first example, we have

**Standard deviation** ( $\text{sd}(x)$ )

$$\text{sd}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{(x_1 - \bar{x})^2 + \cdots + (x_7 - \bar{x})^2}{7}} = 1912.57$$

**Interquartile range** ( $\text{IQR}(x)$ )

$$11, \textcolor{red}{243}, 270, \textcolor{red}{310}, 311, \textcolor{red}{345}, 5300 \Rightarrow \text{IQR}(x) = 345 - 243$$

## Descriptive analysis: example

In the second example, we have

**Standard deviation** ( $\text{sd}(x)$ )

$$\text{sd}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{(x_1 - \bar{x})^2 + \dots + (x_7 - \bar{x})^2}{7}} = 153.79$$

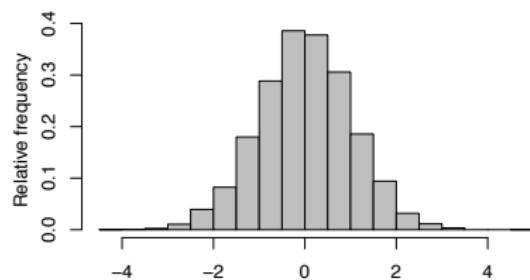
**Interquartile range** ( $\text{IQR}(x)$ )

$$11, \textcolor{red}{243}, 270, \textcolor{red}{310}, 311, \textcolor{red}{345}, 530 \Rightarrow \text{IQR}(x) = 345 - 243$$

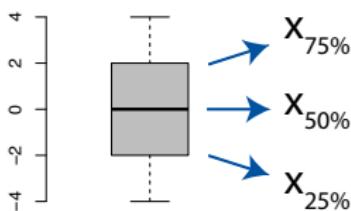
# Descriptive analysis: discrete/continuous variables

We can also summarize the distribution of the data **graphically**

**Histogram**



**Boxplot**



# Before we continue: the normal distribution

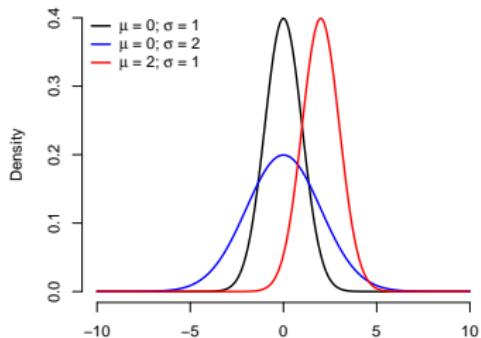
The normal (or Gaussian) distribution is very popular!

Indexed by two parameters:

- ▶  $\mu \rightarrow$  location (mean)
- ▶  $\sigma$  (or  $\sigma^2$ )  $\rightarrow$  spread (standard deviation)

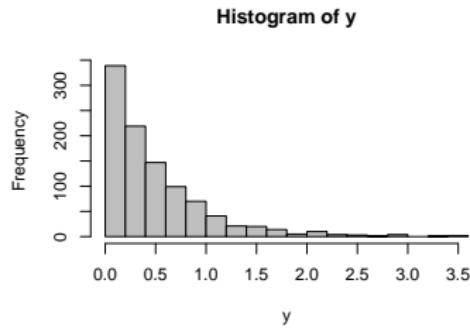
Rule of thumb:

- ▶  $\sim 95\%$  of the data lies between  $(\mu - 2\sigma, \mu + 2\sigma)$
- ▶  $\sim 99\%$  of the data lies between  $(\mu - 3\sigma, \mu + 3\sigma)$

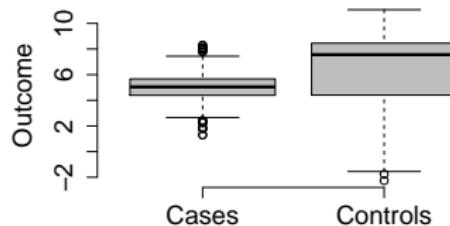
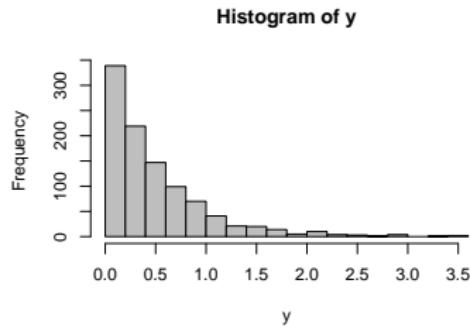


The distribution is symmetric around  $\mu$ !

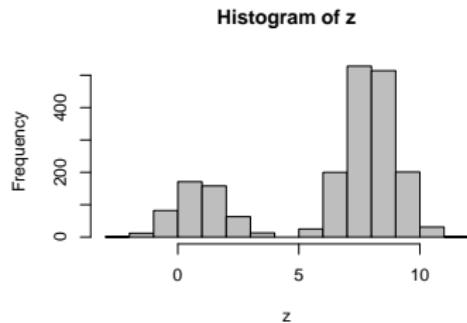
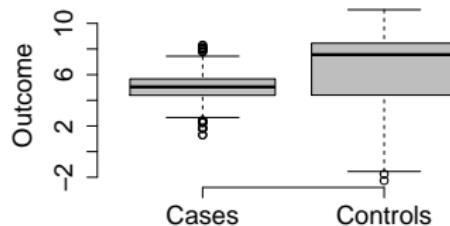
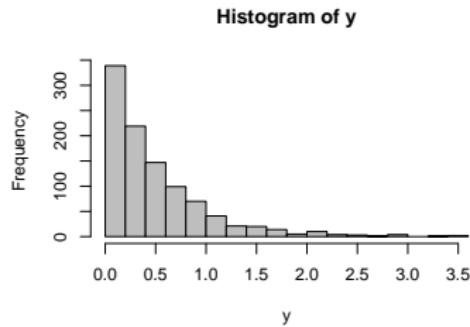
# Descriptive analysis: is the data normally distributed?



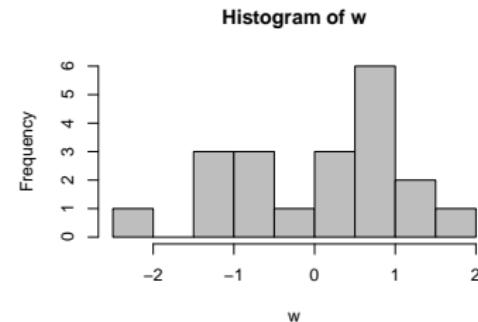
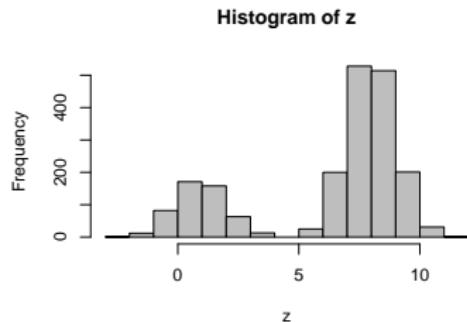
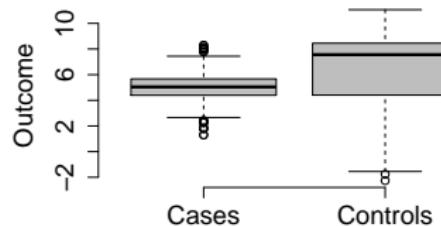
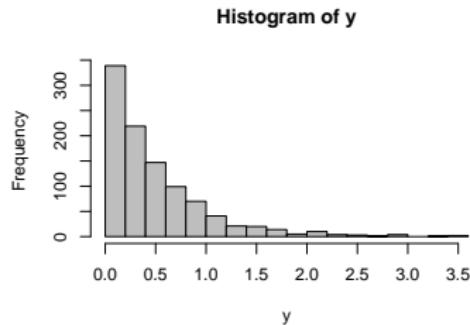
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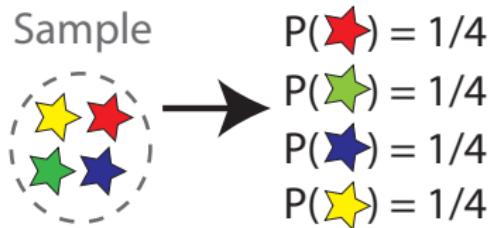


## Statistical inference

# Statistical inference: estimation

## Statistical inference

extrapolates sample information  
to population level

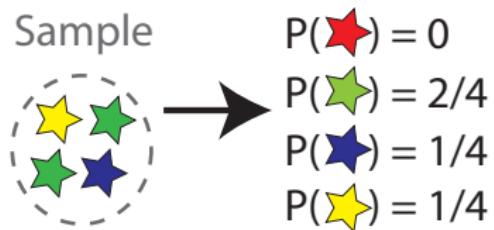


In this example, we want to **estimate** the proportion of red, green, blue and yellow stars in the population based on the observed data

# Statistical inference: estimation

## Statistical inference

extrapolates sample information  
to population level

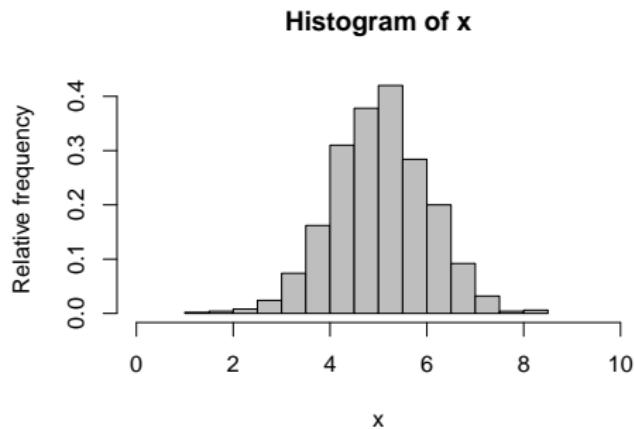


If we observe a different sample,  
we obtain different results

Note: in this sample we didn't  
observe red stars!

## Statistical inference: estimation

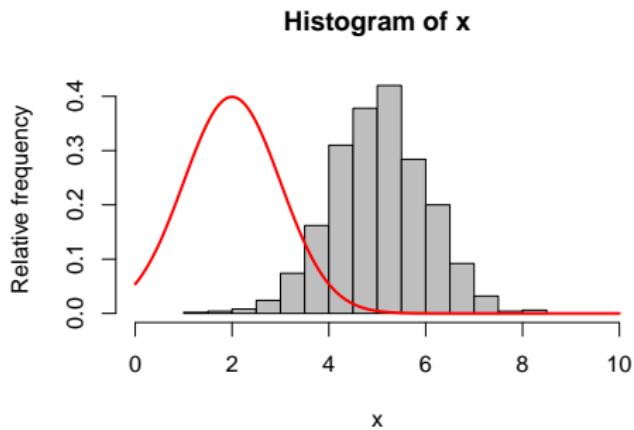
To model the data (e.g. expression of a gene across samples) as being normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation 1.



The aim here is to estimate the value of  $\mu$ !

## Statistical inference: estimation

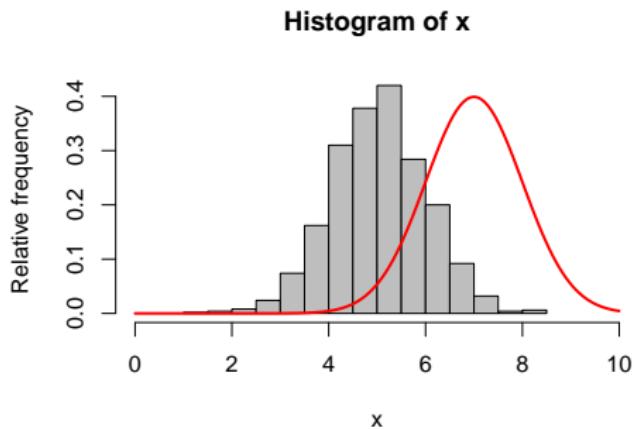
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$$\mu = 2?$$

## Statistical inference: estimation

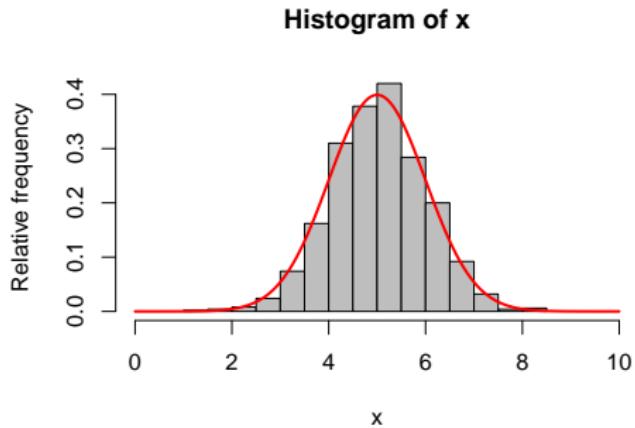
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$$\mu = ?$$

## Statistical inference: estimation

To model the data (e.g. expression of a gene across samples) as being normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation 1.



$$\mu = 5?$$

## Statistical inference: estimation

We can estimate  $\mu$  using the observed data through

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

- ▶ How does  $\bar{x}$  compare to  $\mu$  for different sample sizes  $n$ ?
- ▶ If the data is normally distributed, with standard deviation  $\sigma$ : how does  $\bar{x}$  compare to  $\mu$  for different values of  $\sigma$ ?

<http://bioinformatics.cruk.cam.ac.uk/apps/winter-school/estimation/>

# Statistical inference: estimation

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<http://bioinformatics.cruk.cam.ac.uk/apps/winter-school/estimation/>

- ▶ The larger the sample size,  $\bar{x}$  gets closer to  $\mu$
- ▶ The smaller  $\sigma$ , the faster  $\bar{x}$  gets closer to  $\mu$

## Statistical inference: estimation

We can estimate  $\mu$  using the observed data through

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

Estimates of  $\mu$  that are based on a **finite sample** are not exact:

**we need to provide a measure of uncertainty**

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In this case, this can be quantified through the **standard error**:

$$\text{S.E.} = \sigma / \sqrt{n}$$

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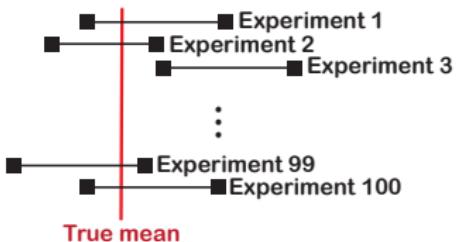
This is consistent with our previous observations

**Important: standard error  $\neq$  standard deviation**

# Statistical inference: confidence intervals

A confidence interval (CI) is a  
*random* interval

In repeated experiments ...  
95% of the time CI covers the *true*  
mean



# Statistical inference: confidence intervals

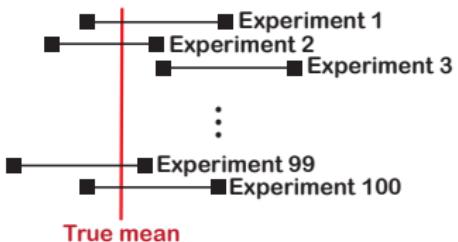
A confidence interval (CI) is a *random* interval

In repeated experiments ...

95% of the time CI covers the *true* mean

For the mean, the 95% CI is given by

$$(\bar{x} - 1.96 \text{ S.E.}, \bar{x} + 1.96 \text{ S.E.})$$

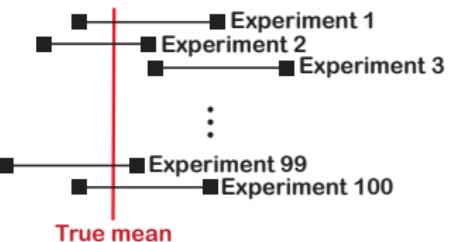


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## Statistical inference: Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

This formula for the CI assumes the data is **normally distributed**.

What can we do if this is not true?

# Statistical inference: Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

This formula for the CI assumes the data is **normally distributed**.

What can we do if this is not true?

If the data is not normally distributed, the **CLT** guarantees this result is still valid, provided the sample size is large:

CLT guarantees that  $\bar{x}$  is normally distributed

<http://bioinformatics.cruk.cam.ac.uk/apps/winter-school/clt/>

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

Often, the aim of the analysis is not only **estimation**.

For example,

- ▶ *Is the treatment effective?*
- ▶ *Is a gene differentially expressed?*
- ▶ *Is there an association between genotype and phenotype?*



These questions can be translated as **hypothesis testing** problems

Comic taken from Significance Magazine, December 2008.

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing



Am I pregnant?

**Disclaimer:** this image was  
downloaded from the internet and  
does not reflect the life of the  
instructors!

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

## Basic setup



Am I pregnant?

Disclaimer: this image was downloaded from the internet and does not reflect the life of the instructors!

Formulate the 'null' and alternative hypothesis

Calculate a “test statistic” from the data

Desicion rule

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

## Basic setup (example)



Am I pregnant?

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Formulate the ‘null’ and alternative hypothesis

e.g.  $H_0$ : Not pregnant vs  $H_1$ : Pregnant

Calculate a “test statistic” from the data

e.g. summary measure based on hormonal levels

Decision rule

e.g. is the data more extreme than what is expected by chance (for a non-pregnant woman)?

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

No test is exact:

	Null hypothesis does not hold	Null hypothesis holds
Reject null hypothesis	Correct True positive	Wrong False positive
Do not reject null hypothesis	Wrong False negative	Correct True negative

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Error rates depend on e.g. sample size ... what else?

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Error rates depend on e.g. sample size ... what else?

Beware of multiple testing correction issues!

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

Suppose that 100 women take the test

- ▶ 70 of them were truly pregnant
- ▶ the test was positive for 75 women
- ▶ the result was wrong for 10 non-pregnant women



Am I pregnant?

Complete the table:

	Null hypothesis does not hold	Null hypothesis holds
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Am I pregnant?

Complete the table:

	Null hypothesis does not hold	Null hypothesis holds
Reject null hypothesis		10/30
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Am I pregnant?

Complete the table:

	Null hypothesis does not hold	Null hypothesis holds
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Do not reject null hypothesis	5/70	20/30

## Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

Typically, two types of error are of main interest:

- ▶ Type I error

$$\alpha = p(\text{Reject } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is true})$$

- ▶ Type II error

$$\beta = p(\text{Do not reject } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is false})$$

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Do not reject null hypothesis	5/70	20/30

Most hypothesis tests are designed to control type I error!

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

In terms of this table

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  - ▶  $1 - \text{type II error } (1 - \beta)$ , i.e.  $65/70 = 0.93$

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

## Recall: basic setup

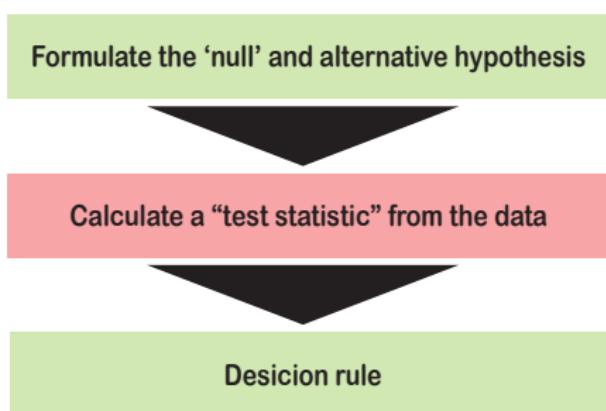
Formulate the ‘null’ and alternative hypothesis

Calculate a “test statistic” from the data

Decision rule

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

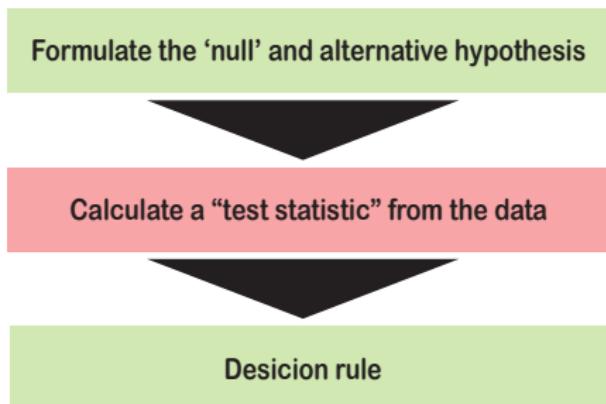
## Recall: basic setup



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# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

## Recall: basic setup



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We will explore some example test statistics later today

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

## Recall: basic setup

Formulate the ‘null’ and alternative hypothesis

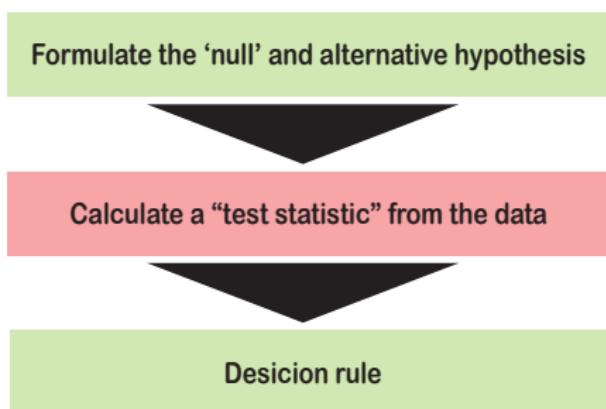
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We can also use a  
**p-value**

# Statistical inference: hypothesis testing

## Recall: basic setup



We can also use a  
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**What is a p-value?**

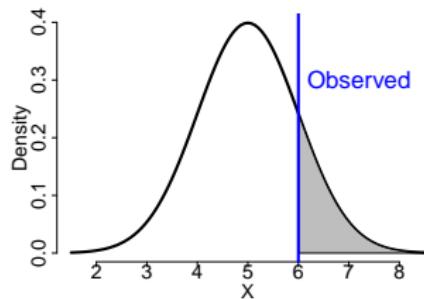
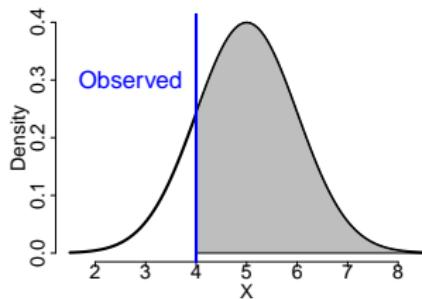
## Statistical inference: what is a p-value?

A **p-value** is the probability of observing the current data (or more extreme) given than  $H_0$  is true.

# Statistical inference: what is a p-value?

A **p-value** is the probability of observing the current data (or more extreme) given than  $H_0$  is true. For example

$$H_0 : \mu = 5 \text{ vs } H_1 : \mu > 5$$

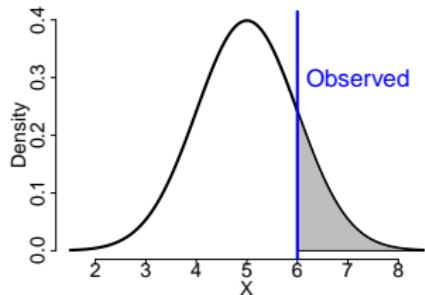
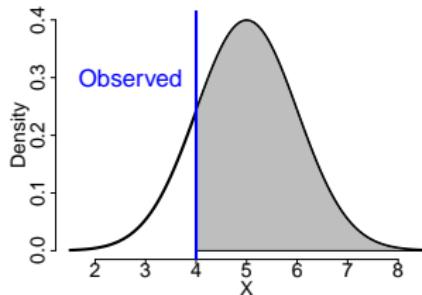


The p-value is equal to the gray area

# Statistical inference: what is a p-value?

The smaller p-value, the stronger the evidence against  $H_0$

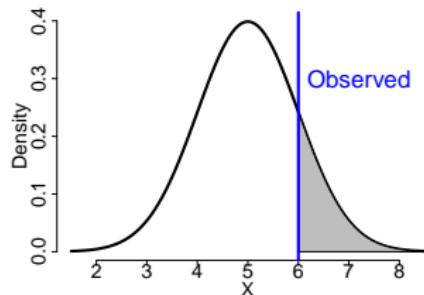
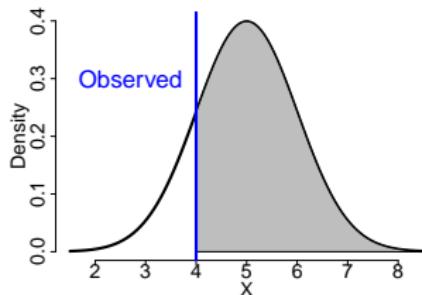
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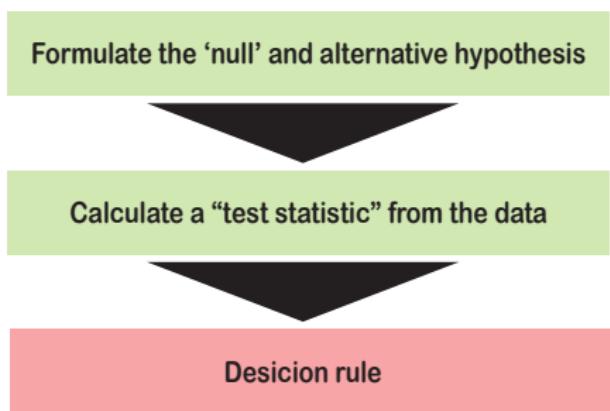
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- ▶ How do p-values behave when the null hypothesis  $H_0$  is true?
- ▶ How do p-values behave when the null hypothesis  $H_0$  is false?
- ▶ How do p-values behave for different sample sizes?

# Statistical inference: decision rule of an hypothesis test

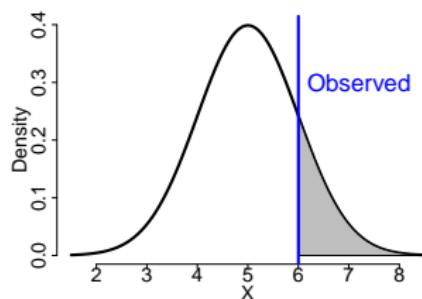
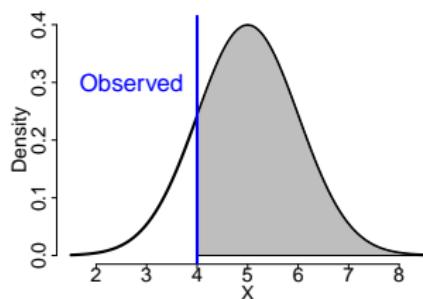
## Recall: basic setup



# Statistical inference: decision rule of an hypothesis test

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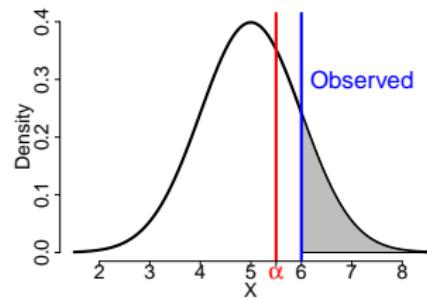
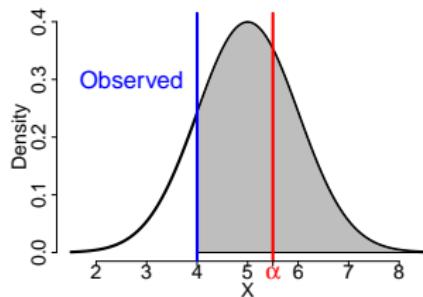


Where to place the cut-off?

# Statistical inference: decision rule of an hypothesis test

The cut-off is typically set to control **type I error**

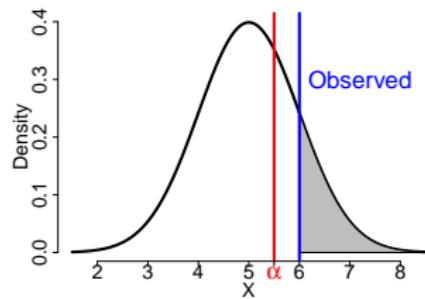
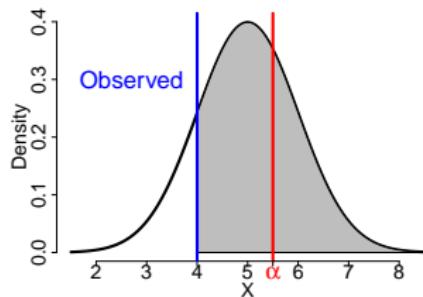
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Cut-off must be set before running the test!

## Statistical inference: what test to use?

Standard statistical softwares (e.g. R) have a wide range of hypothesis tests built-in ⇒ easy to get numbers back!

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Before running a test it is important to recognise:

- ▶ What type of data is available?
- ▶ What is the relevant hypothesis?
- ▶ What assumptions underlie the test?

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We will explore some examples in detail this afternoon ...

## Acknowledgements

Part of the materials discussed today have been adapted from materials provided by

- ▶ Mark Dunning (CRUK-CI)
- ▶ Paul Kirk (MRC-BSU)