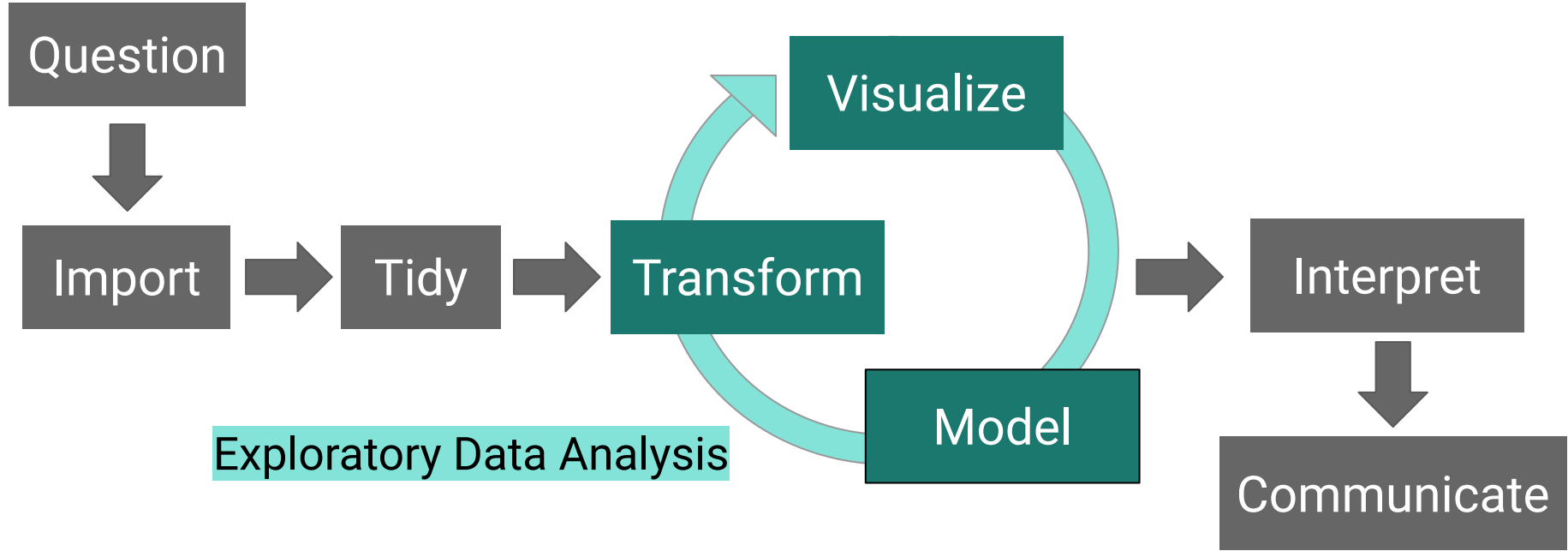


Statistical Inference

Lecture 10

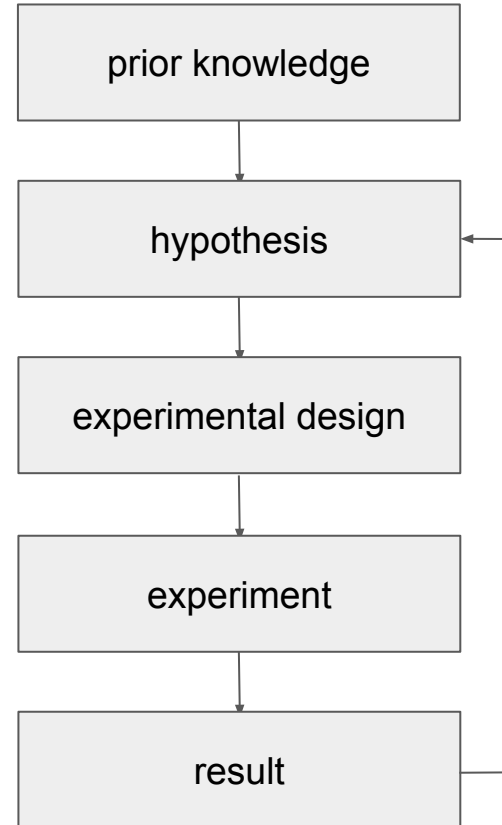
Motivation



Scientific method

- Hypothesis-driven

Based on observations and published results
Testable (to prove/disprove hypothesis)
New information or knowledge



Statistical analysis

- Inference (hypothesis testing)
- Prediction

What is the purpose of statistical analysis?

The scientific method assumes that the “truth” exists and it can be tested/proven/investigated.

- To make sense of data (summary statistics, trends, patterns, spread)
- To test hypotheses, compare groups
- To determine associations, correlations
- To predict or estimate outcomes (evaluate errors, uncertainties, forecasts)

Descriptive statistics

Measures of central tendency

Mean – sum of all observations divided by the number of observations;
fulcrum to balance histogram

Median – rank ordering all observations and choosing the middle term for which 50% of the values lay above/below (50th percentile)

less resistant to outliers since it finds the middle distribution that includes extreme values

Mode – most commonly occurring value in a sampled distribution

Descriptive statistics

Measure of dispersion

description of how far the data are spread out about the center (cluster or scatter)

Range – difference between the largest and smallest value; not robust and sensitive to outliers

Variance – spread in the distribution can be measured by assessing how far each individual values differ from the mean

Standard deviation (SD) - square root of variance; average separation of data from the mean

mean \pm SD

median interquartile range (IQR)

Standard error (SE)

- standard error of the mean (SEM) is common in basic science but it is NOT a measure of dispersion
- SEM is a measure of how accurately the population mean has been estimated
- **Standard error (SE)** – represents variability of estimate in a collection of measurements derived from multiple runs or different groups

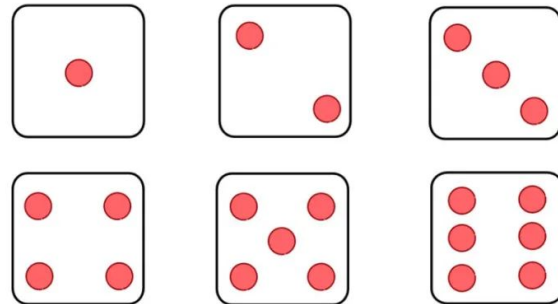
$$SE = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Summarizing outcomes

Data	Statistics
<u>Descriptive</u>	
continuous	sample size (n)
	mean \pm SD
	median and IQR
categorical	sample size (n)
	relative frequency (%)
<u>Group comparisons</u>	
continuous	mean \pm SE for each group
categorical	proportion (%) and SE for each group

Probability

- The **probability** of an outcome is the proportion of times the outcome would occur if we observed the random process an infinite number of times.
- Tossing a coin:
 - Outcome: head, tail
 - $P(\text{head}) = \frac{1}{2} = 50\%$
 - $P(\text{tail}) = \frac{1}{2} = 50\%$
- Rolling a die:
 - Outcome: 1,2,3,4,5,6
 - $P(\text{rolling a 5}) = \frac{1}{6} = 0.167 = 16.7\%$
 - $P(\text{rolling an odd number}) = P(1,3,\text{or } 5) = \frac{3}{6} = 50\%$



Independence

- Two events are **independent** if the outcome of one provides no useful information about the outcome of the other.
- Flipping a coin and rolling a die are two independent process

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A) * P(B)$$

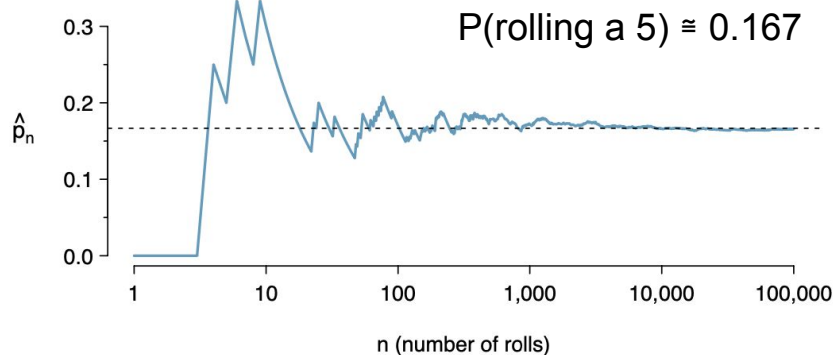
$$P(\text{male and left-handed}) = P(\text{male}) * P(\text{left-handed})$$

$$P(\text{male and left-handed}) = 0.5 * 0.09 = 0.045$$

$$P(\text{male and left-handed}) = 4.5\%$$

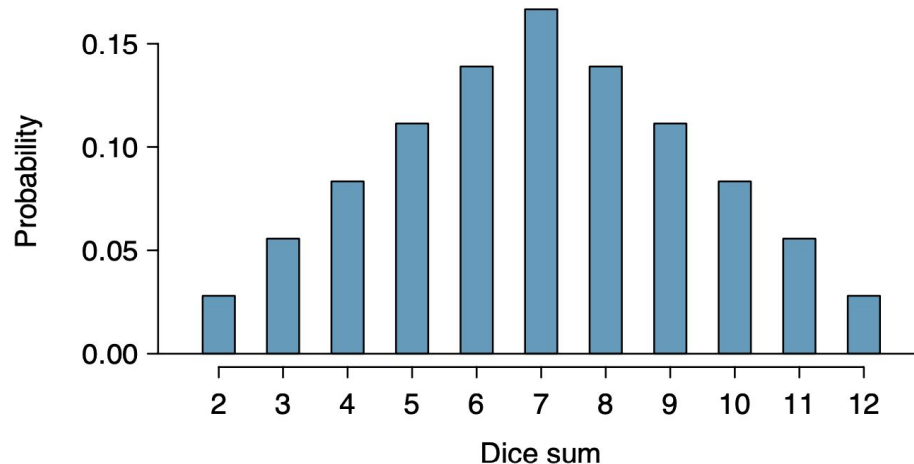
Law of large numbers

- As more observations are collected, the proportion of occurrences with a particular outcome converges to the probability of the outcome.
- Casinos always make money in the long run.



Probability distributions

- A probability distribution is a list of all outcomes and their associated probabilities.

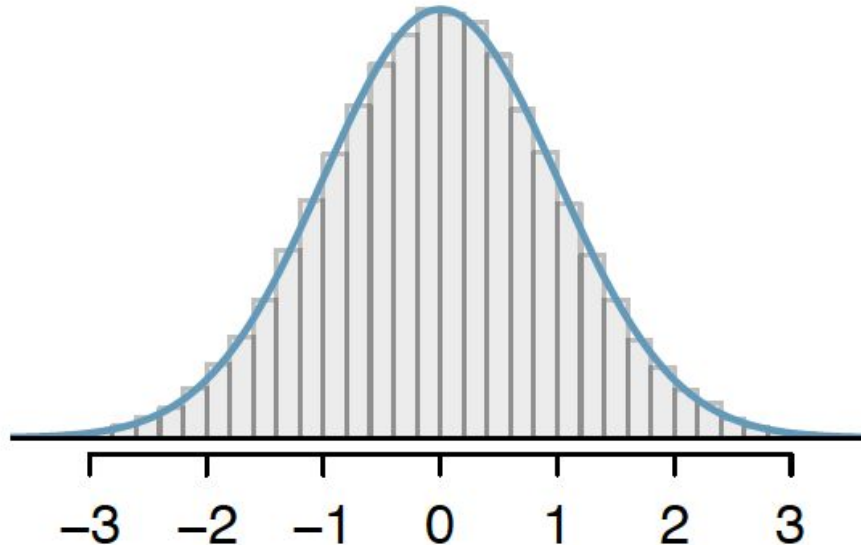


Dice sum	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Probability	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{1}{36}$

Probability distributions

Normal distribution

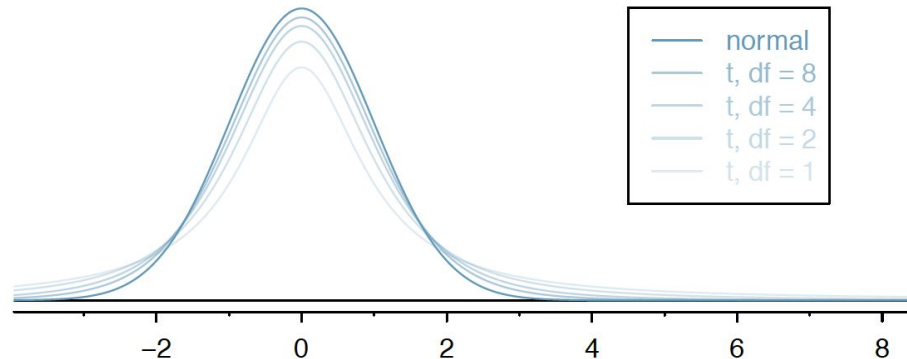
- Symmetric, unimodal, bell-shaped curve
- 2 parameters: **mean** and **SD** describe the shape of a normal curve



Distributions of variables

Student's t distribution

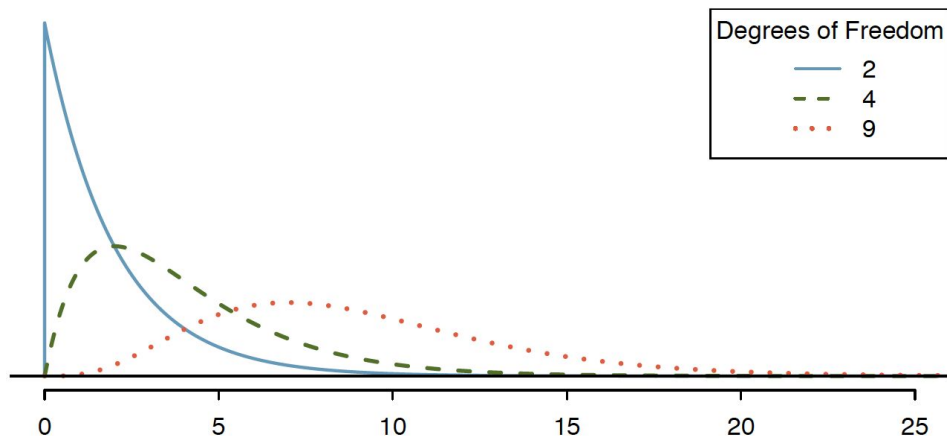
- Use to estimate the mean of a normally distributed continuous variable when n is small
- Use to test difference between two sample means or confidence intervals for small sample sizes
- Centered at zero with 1 parameter: **degrees of freedom**



Distributions of variables

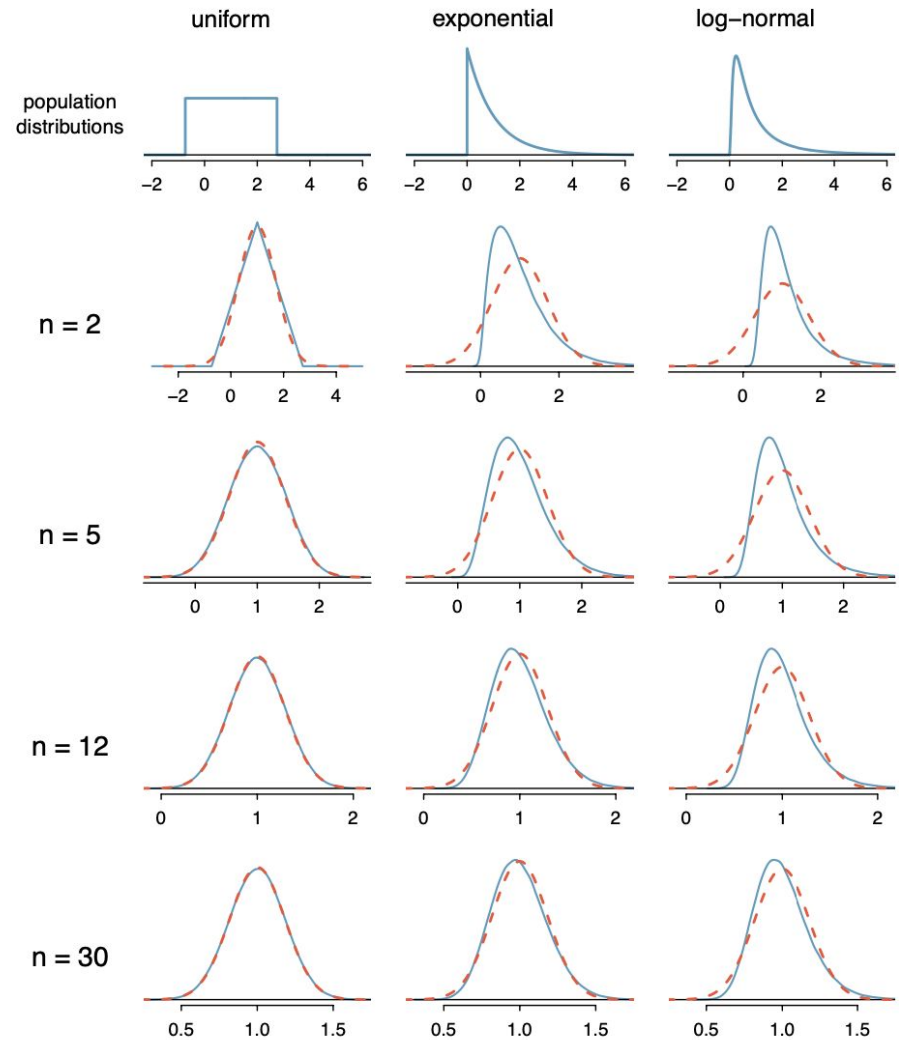
Chi-square distribution

- Use to characterize categorical variables that are always positive and usually right skewed
- 1 parameter: **degrees of freedom** dictate the shape of chi-square curve



Central Limit Theorem

- A large, properly drawn sample will resemble the population from which it was drawn.

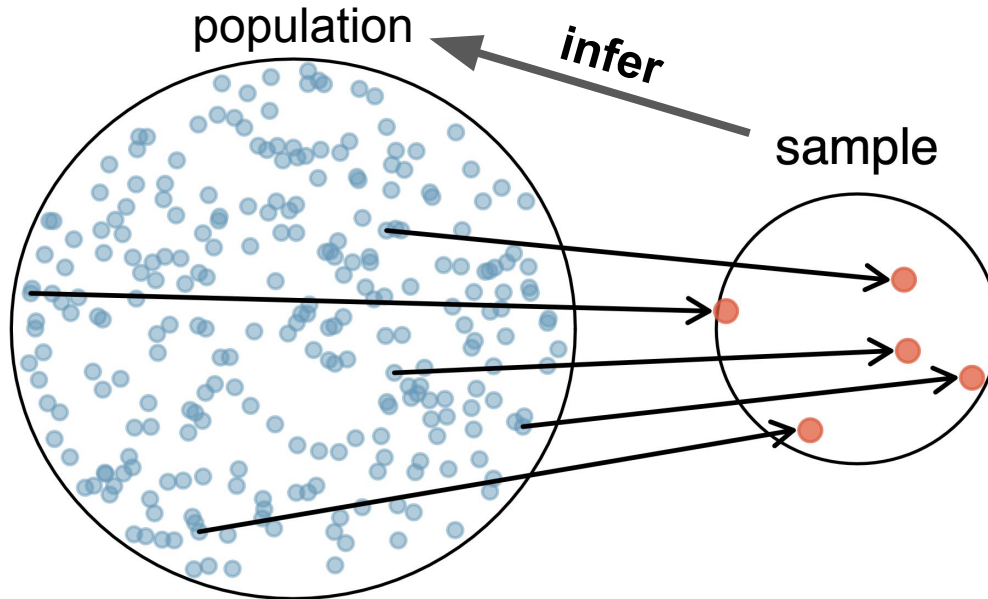


Central Limit Theorem

- Given a detailed information about some population, then it is possible to infer about any properly drawn sample from the population.
- Given a detailed information about a properly drawn sample (mean and SD), then it is possible to infer about the population from which that sample was drawn.
- Given a data describing a particular sample and data on a particular population, then it is possible to infer whether or not that sample is consistent with a sample that is likely to be drawn from that population.
- Given the underlying characteristics of two samples, then it is possible to infer whether or not both samples were likely drawn from the same population.

Statistical inference

- testing of hypothesis is performed to draw **inference** from the data



Statistical inference

- Independent vs repeated measurements
 - independent - one observation, sampling, or treatment per unit
 - dependent - repeated measurements taken on the same set of experiment unit under differing conditions
- Parametric vs non-parametric tests
 - parametric statistical methods that rely on estimation of parameters (mean, variance)
 - assume that the distribution is normally distributed (do a test for normality e.g. Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test, Shapiro-Wilk's test)
 - normality refers to the distribution of the population and not the sample
 - perform non-parametric tests if distribution is not normally distributed

How to select test statistics?

Outcome Variable	Group Structure	Assumptions for Parametric test	Parametric Test	Nonparametric Test	Regression Models
Continuous	2 Independent	Independence of observations, normality, large samples, homogeneity of variances	Student t-test	Mann-Whitney U or Wilcoxon rank sum test	Univariate or Multivariate Linear Regression
	2 Dependent	Independence of pairs, normality, large samples, and homogeneity of variances	Paired Student t-test	Wilcoxon signed rank test	
	>2 Independent	Independence of observations, normality, large samples, homogeneity of variances	ANOVA	Kruskal-Wallis test	
	>2 Dependent	Repeated measures in independent observations, normality, large samples, homogeneity of variances	Repeated-measures ANOVA	Friedman test	
Categorical	≥2 Independent	Independence of observations, expected count >5 in each cell	Chi-square test	Fisher’s exact test	Binomial or Multinomial Logistic Regression
	≥2 Dependent	Independence of pairs	McNemar test		
Time-to-event	≥2 Groups	Non-informative censoring, sufficient follow-up time and number of events	Parametric Proportional Hazards	Kaplan-Meier, Log-rank test	Cox Proportional-Hazards Regression

Steps in a hypothesis testing

1. Statement of the question to be answered
2. Formulation of the null and alternative hypotheses
3. Decision for a suitable statistical test
4. Specification of the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$)
5. Performance of the statistical test analysis (p-value)
6. Statistical decision
 - If $p > 0.05$, then accept the null hypothesis
 - If $p < 0.05$, reject the null and accept the alternative hypothesis
7. Interpretation of test result

Babies dataset

- The Child Health and Development Studies (USA) investigated pregnancy in women in San Francisco, 1960-19967. Studied the relationship between mothers who smoked and weight of their babies.
- 1,236 observations x 8 variables

variable	description
case	id number
<u>bwt</u>	birthweight, ounces
gestation	length of gestation, days
parity	binary indicator for a first pregnancy (0=first pregnancy)
age	mother's age, years
height	mother's height, inches
weight	mother's weight, pounds
smoke	binary indicator whether the mother smoked, 1=smoker

Babies dataset

```
# Summary statistics  
> summary(babies)
```

case	bwt	gestation	parity
Min. : 1.0	Min. : 55.0	Min. :148.0	Min. :0.0000
1st Qu.: 309.8	1st Qu.:108.8	1st Qu.:272.0	1st Qu.:0.0000
Median : 618.5	Median :120.0	Median :280.0	Median :0.0000
Mean : 618.5	Mean :119.6	Mean :279.3	Mean :0.2549
3rd Qu.: 927.2	3rd Qu.:131.0	3rd Qu.:288.0	3rd Qu.:1.0000
Max. :1236.0	Max. :176.0	Max. :353.0	Max. :1.0000

age	height	weight	smoke
Min. :15.00	Min. :53.00	Min. : 87.0	Min. :0.0000
1st Qu.:23.00	1st Qu.:62.00	1st Qu.:114.8	1st Qu.:0.0000
Median :26.00	Median :64.00	Median :125.0	Median :0.0000
Mean :27.26	Mean :64.05	Mean :128.6	Mean :0.3948
3rd Qu.:31.00	3rd Qu.:66.00	3rd Qu.:139.0	3rd Qu.:1.0000
Max. :45.00	Max. :72.00	Max. :250.0	Max. :1.0000
NA's :2	NA's :22	NA's :36	NA's :10

Babies dataset

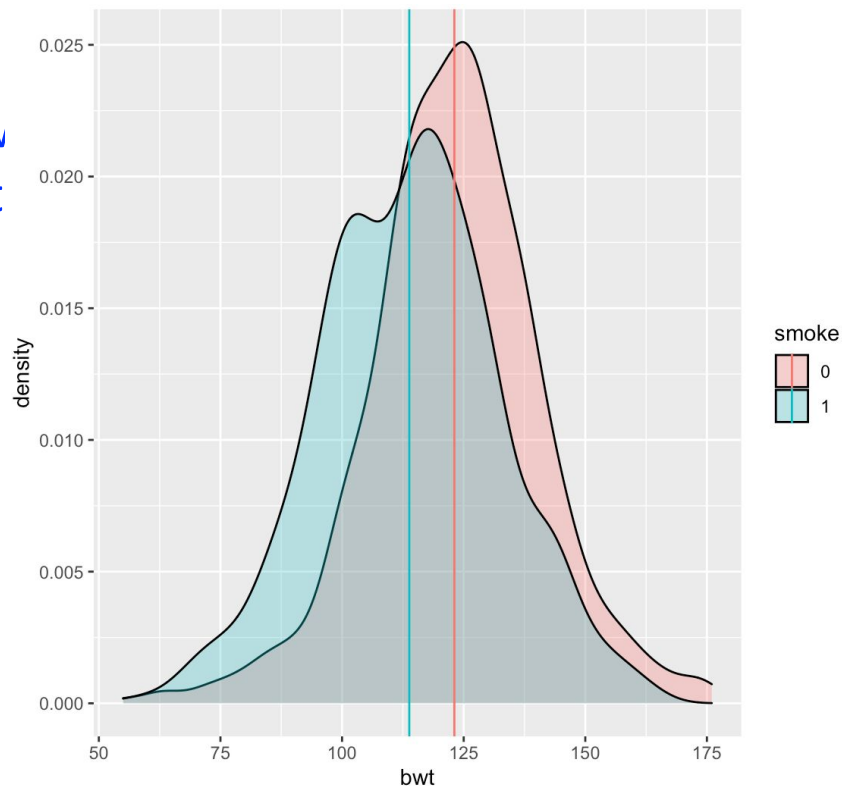
```
# Compute mean and SD between 2 groups (smoke)
> babies %>%
  group_by(smoke) %>%
  summarize(n=n(), mean=mean(bwt), SD=sd(bwt))
```

	smoke	n	mean	SD
1	0	715	123.	17.4
2	1	459	114.	18.3

1. Statement of the Problem

“Is there a relationship between mothers who smoked during pregnancy and birthweight of their newborns?”

	smoke	n	mean	SD
1	0	715	123.	17.4
2	1	459	114.	18.3



2. Formulation of null and alternative hypotheses

- null : There is no difference in mean birthweight for newborns from mothers who did and did not smoke during pregnancy

$$\mu_s - \mu_n = 0$$

- alternative: There is a difference in mean newborn birthweights from mothers who did and did not smoke during pregnancy

$$\mu_s - \mu_n \neq 0$$

$$\mu_s - \mu_n = 114 - 123 = -9$$

	smoke	n	mean	SD
1	0	715	123.	17.4
2	1	459	114.	18.3

3. Decision for the test statistic

- Outcome variable: Continuous
- Group structure: 2 Groups (independent)
- Assumptions:
 - independence of observations
 - normality
 - large samples
 - homogeneity of variances

T-test

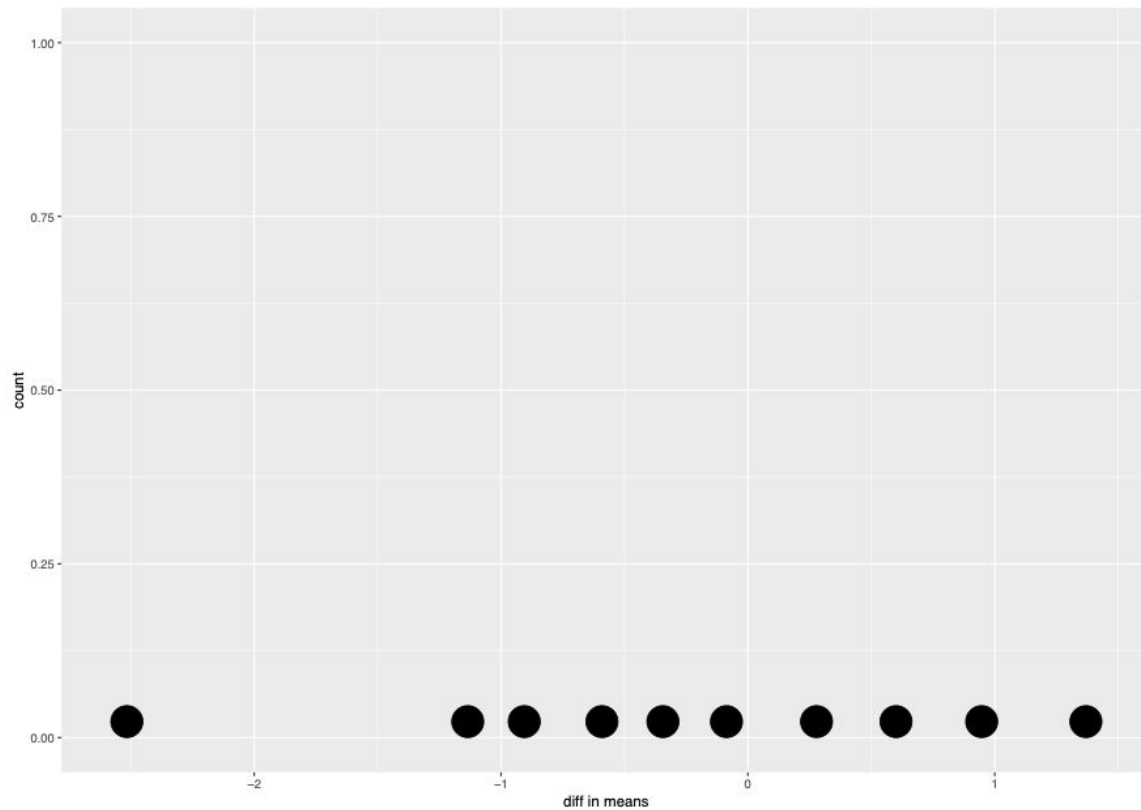
- **t-statistic** is the test statistic for inference on the difference of two sample means where σ_1 and σ_2 are unknown.

$$t_{df} = \frac{\textit{point estimate} - \textit{null value}}{SE}$$

where

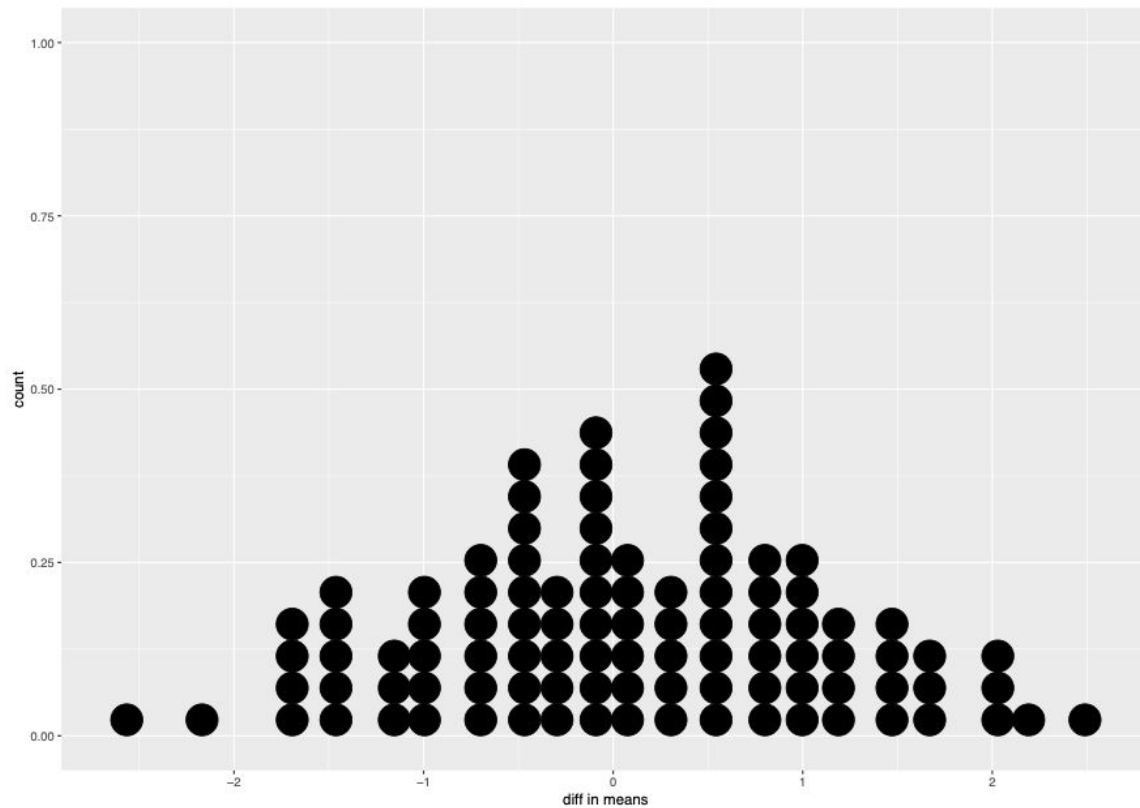
$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}} \quad \text{and} \quad df = \min(n_1 - 1, n_2 - 1)$$

Null distribution



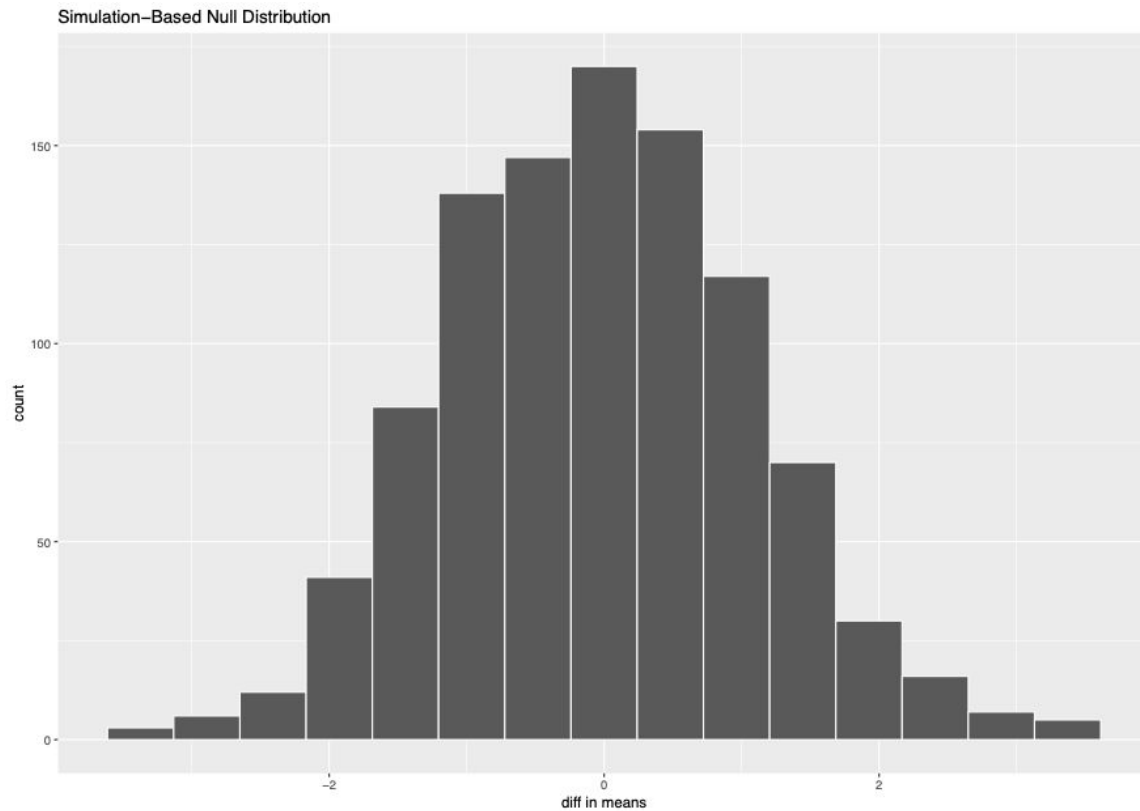
$n_{\text{sampling}} = 10$

Null distribution



$n_{\text{sampling}} = 100$

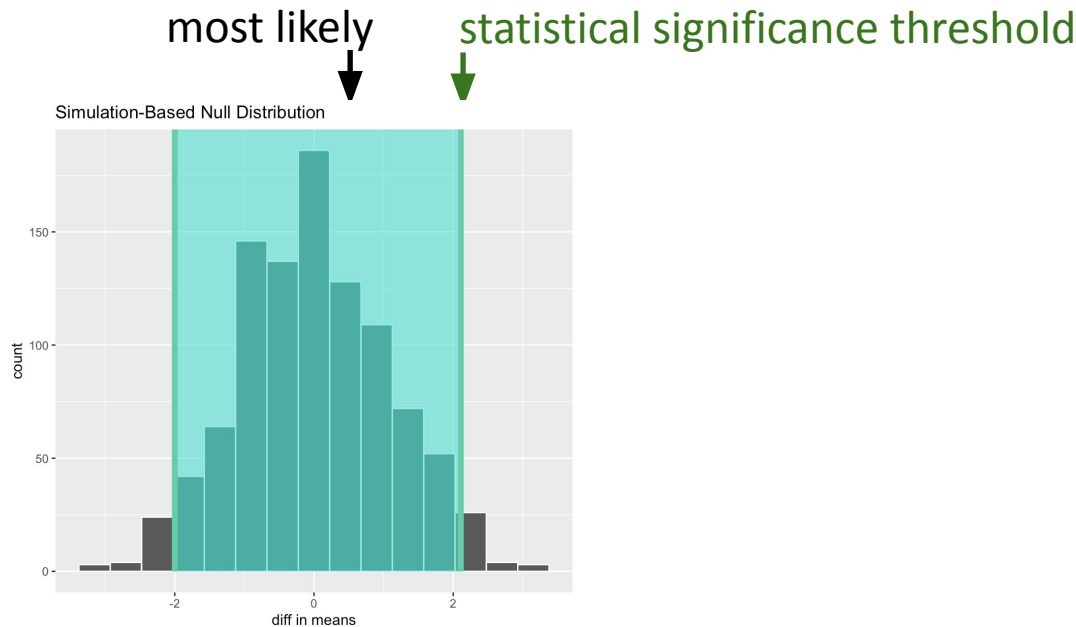
Null distribution



$n_{\text{sampling}} = 1000$

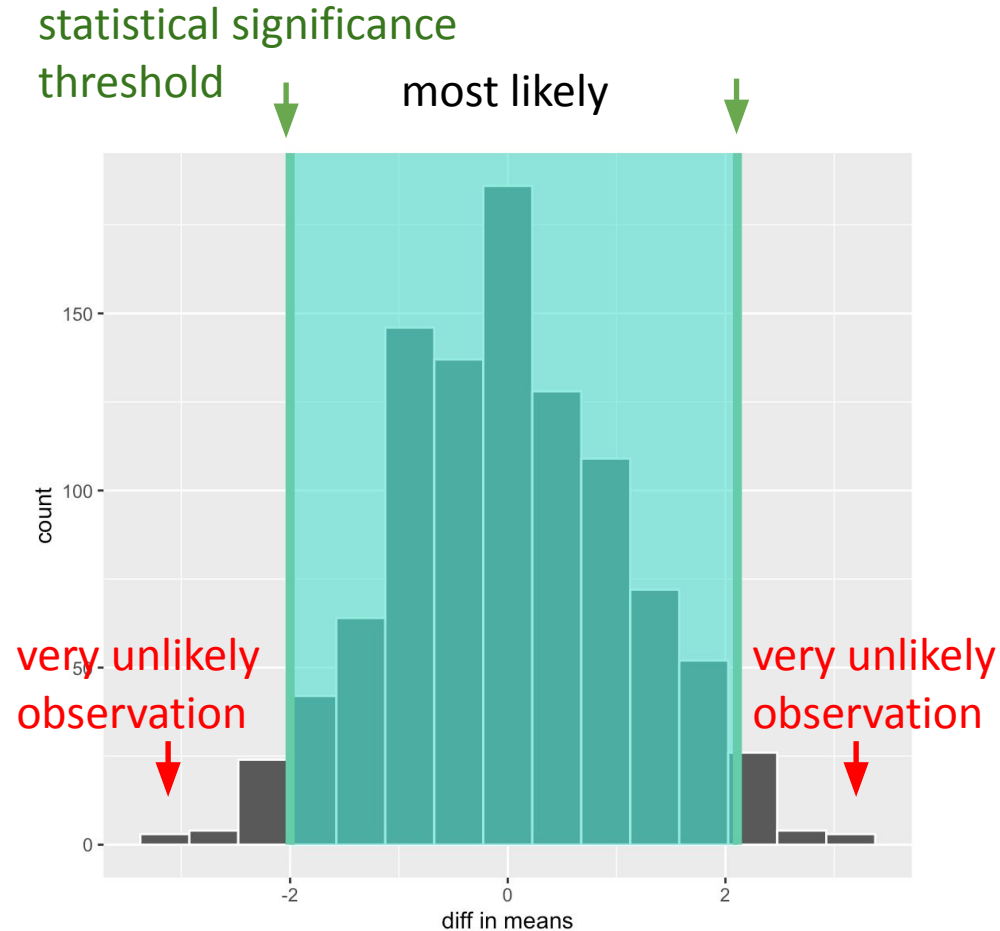
4. Level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$)

- probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true
- a significance level of 0.05 indicates a 5% risk of concluding that a difference exists when there is no actual difference



p-value

- what is the probability that a specific assertion is right or wrong?
- probability of observing data as more extreme than actually obtained given that the null hypothesis is true



5. Statistical test analysis

```
# Calculate t-test  
> t.test(bwt ~ smoke, data = babies)
```

Two Sample t-test

data: bwt by smoke

$t = 8.7188$, $df = 1172$, $p\text{-value} < 2.2e-16$

alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

7.180973 11.351312

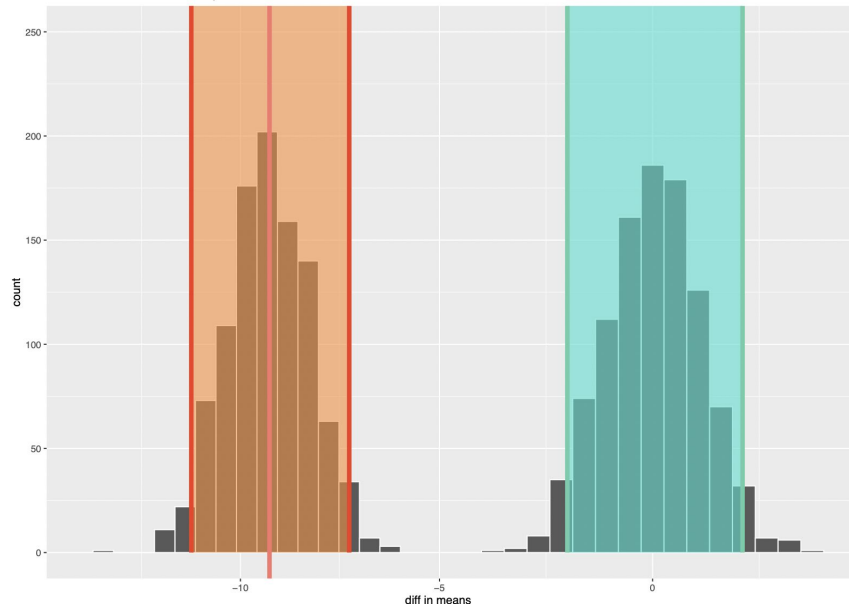
sample estimates:

mean in group 0 mean in group 1

123.0853 113.8192

6. Statistical decision

- p-value < $2.2e-16$
- since p-value < 0.05, reject null and accept alternative
- There is a significant difference in average weight of newborns from mothers who smoke during pregnancy than mothers who did not smoke.



7. Interpretation of test result

- Birthweight of newborns from mothers who smoked during pregnancy was about 9 oz. (95% CI: 7.2-11.4, p-value < 0.05) lighter on average than mothers who did not smoke.

Two Sample t-test

data: bwt by smoke

t = 8.7188, df = 1172, p-value < 2.2e-16

alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0

95 percent confidence interval:

7.180973 11.351312

sample estimates:

mean in group 0 mean in group 1

123.0853

113.8192

Take-away message

- Hypothesis testing is useful when determining how sure are you that the sample estimate (e.g. mean, difference of means or proportions) you obtained is near to the true population value.