

- We use statistics to confirm effects, estimate parameters, and predict outcomes
- It usually rains when Im in Cape Town, but mostly on Sunday
- *\*Confirmation:* In Cape Town, it rains more on Sundays than other days
- *\*Estimation:* In Cape Town, the *\*odds\** of rain on Sunday are 1.62.2 times higher than on other days
- *\*Prediction:* I am confident that it will rain at least one Sunday the next time I go

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- How we interpret data like this necessarily depends on assumptions:
- Is it likely our observations occurred by chance?
- Is it likely they *\*didn't\**?
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*\*Tessa Wessels, \*Faces on a Train\***\*/span>*
- We measure the average heights of children raised with and without vitamin A supplements
- *\*Estimate:* how much taller (or shorter) are the treated children on average?
- *\*Confirmation:* are we sure that the supplements are helping (or hurting)?
- *\*Range of estimates:* how much do we think the supplement is helping?

## **Estimation** =====

- We use *\*P values\** to say how sure we are that we have seen some effect
- We use *\*confidence intervals\** to say what we think is going on (with a certain level of confidence)
- P values are *\*over-rated\**
- *\*Never\** use a high P value as evidence for anything, e.g.:
- that an effect is small
- that two quantities are similar
- We want to know if vitamin A supplements improve the health of village children
- Is height is a good measure of general health?
- How will we know height differences are due to our treatment?
- We want the two groups to start from the same point independent randomization of each individual
- We may measure *\*changes\** in height
- Or *\*control for\** other factors
- Is vitamin A good for these children?
- How sure are we?
- How good do we think it is?
- How sure are we about that?
- What does it mean if I find a significant P value for some effect in this experiment?
- The difference is unlikely to be due to chance
- So what! I already know vitamin A has strong effects on metabolism - If Im certain that the true answer isnt exactly zero, why do I want the P value anyway?

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- What do these results mean?
- Which are significant?

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- A high P value means we cant see the sign of the effect clearly
- A low P value means we can

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- More broadly, a P value measures whether we are seeing *something* clearly
- Its usually the sign ( $\pm$ ) of some quantity, but doesnt need to be
- Type I (*False positive:*) concluding there is an effect when there isnt one
- This doesnt happen in biology. There is always an effect. - Type II (*False negative:*) concluding there is no effect when there really is
- This *should* never happen, because we should never conclude there is no effect
- Type I (*False positive:*) in the hypothetical case that the effect is exactly zero, what is the probability of falsely finding an effect
- Should be less than or equal to my significance value - Type II (*False negative:*) what is the probability of failing to find an effect that is there?
- Useful, but can only be asked for a specific hypothetical effect *size* - These are useful to analyze *power* and *validity* of a statistical design
- You should do these analyses *before* you collect data, not after

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- *Sign error:* if I think an effect is positive, when its really negative (or vice versa)
  - *Magnitude error:* if I think an effect is small, when its really large (or vice versa)
  - Confidence intervals clarify all of this
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- If I have a low P value I can see something clearly
  - But its usually better to focus on what I see than the P value
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- If I have a high P value, there is something I *dont* see clearly
  - It *may be* because this effect is small
  - High P values should *not* be used to advance your conclusion
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- Small differences
  - Less data
  - More noise
  - An inappropriate model

- Less model resolution
- A lower P value means that your evidence for difference is better
- A higher P value means that your evidence for similarity is better or worse!

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- Why is weather not causing deaths at this time scale?

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- **\*\*Never\*\*** say: A is significant and B isn't, so  $A > B$
- **\*\*Instead:\*\*** Construct a statistic for the hypothesis  $A > B$
- May be difficult

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- All men are mortal
- Jacob Zuma is mortal
- Therefore, Jacob Zuma is a man

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- All men are mortal
- Fanny the elephant is mortal
- Therefore, Fanny is a man

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- A lot of statistical practice works this way:

- bad logic in service of conclusions that are (usually) correct - This sort of statistical practice leads in the aggregate to bad science

- The logic can be fixed:
- Estimate a difference, or an interaction
- We can't build statistical confidence that something is small by failing to see it clearly
- We must instead see clearly that it is small
- This means we need a standard for what we mean by small

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- People who work in respiratory clinics sometimes have to wear bulky, uncomfortable, expensive masks

- They would like to switch to simpler masks, if those will do the job
- How can this be tested statistically? We don't want the masks to be different.
- Use a confidence interval
- Decide how big a level is acceptable, and construct a P value for the hypothesis that this level is excluded!

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- Is the new mask good enough?
- Whats our standard for that?

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- We can even attach a P value by basing it on the right" statistic.
- The right statistic is the thing whose sign we want to know:
- The difference between the observed effect and the standard we chose

Paradigms for inference =====

Frequentist paradigm

- Make a null model
- Test whether the effect you see could be due to chance
- What is the probability of seeing exactly a 1.52 cm difference in average heights? - Test whether the effect you see  $\leq$  or a larger effect  $>$  could be due to chance
- This probability is the P value

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## Bayesian paradigm

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- Make a complete model world
  - Use conditional probability to calculate the probability you want
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- More assumptions  $\implies$  more power
  - With great power comes great responsibility
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- We want to go from a \*statistical model\* of how our data are generated, to a probability model of parameter values
  - Requires \*prior\* distributions describing the assumed likelihood of parameters before these observations are made
  - Use Bayes theorem to calculate posterior distribution likelihood after taking data into account

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- A frequentist can do a clear analysis right away
  - A Bayesian needs a ton of assumptions will try to make uninformative assumptions
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- Frequentist: how unlikely is the observation, from a random perspective?
- Bayesian: what's my model world? What is my prior belief about weather-weekday interactions.

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## Conclusion =====

- Statistics are not a magic machine that gives you the right answer
- If you are to be a serious scientist in a noisy world, you should have your own philosophy of statistics
  - Be pragmatic: your goal is to do science, not get caught by theoretical considerations
  - Be honest: it's harder than it sounds.
  - You can always keep analyzing until you find a significant result
  - If you do this you will make a lot of mistakes - You may also keep analyzing until you find a result that you already know is true.
  - This is confirmation bias; you're probably right, but your project is not advancing science
- Good practice
  - Keep a data-analysis journal
  - Start \*before\* you look at the data