

Introduction to R for Biologists

Day 4 – Data analysis

Day 4 Outline

1. Hypothesis testing
 1. Test statistics
 2. p-values
 3. False discovery rate
2. Exploratory analysis
 - A. Dimensionality reduction
 - B. Clustering

Many, many types of statistical tests

Your choice will depend on your experiment:

<http://www.biostathandbook.com/testchoice.html>

But generally these are the work horses:

Hypothesis Test	Test Statistic
Z-Test	Z-Score
T-Test	T-Score
ANOVA	F-statistic
Chi-Square Test	Chi-square statistic

But they all follow the same pattern

1. Calculate a sample statistic (δ) from your real data
 - Mean, difference in means, median, proportion, difference in proportions, chi-squared value, etc
2. Use simulation to create a null distribution
3. Compare δ to the null distribution – how does it fit?
4. Calculate probability (p-value) that δ could exist in a null world
5. Decide if δ is statistically significant

Conceptualizing the p-value

Technical definition:

- Probability of observing the results by chance given that the null hypothesis is correct

It's not their fault, said Steven Goodman, co-director of METRICS. Even after spending his “entire career” thinking about p-values, he said he could tell me the definition, “but I cannot tell you what it means, and almost nobody can.” Scientists regularly get it wrong, and so do most textbooks, he said.

Conceptualizing the p-value





The Presumption of Innocence:

All molecules are innocent until proven guilty beyond a reasonable doubt.

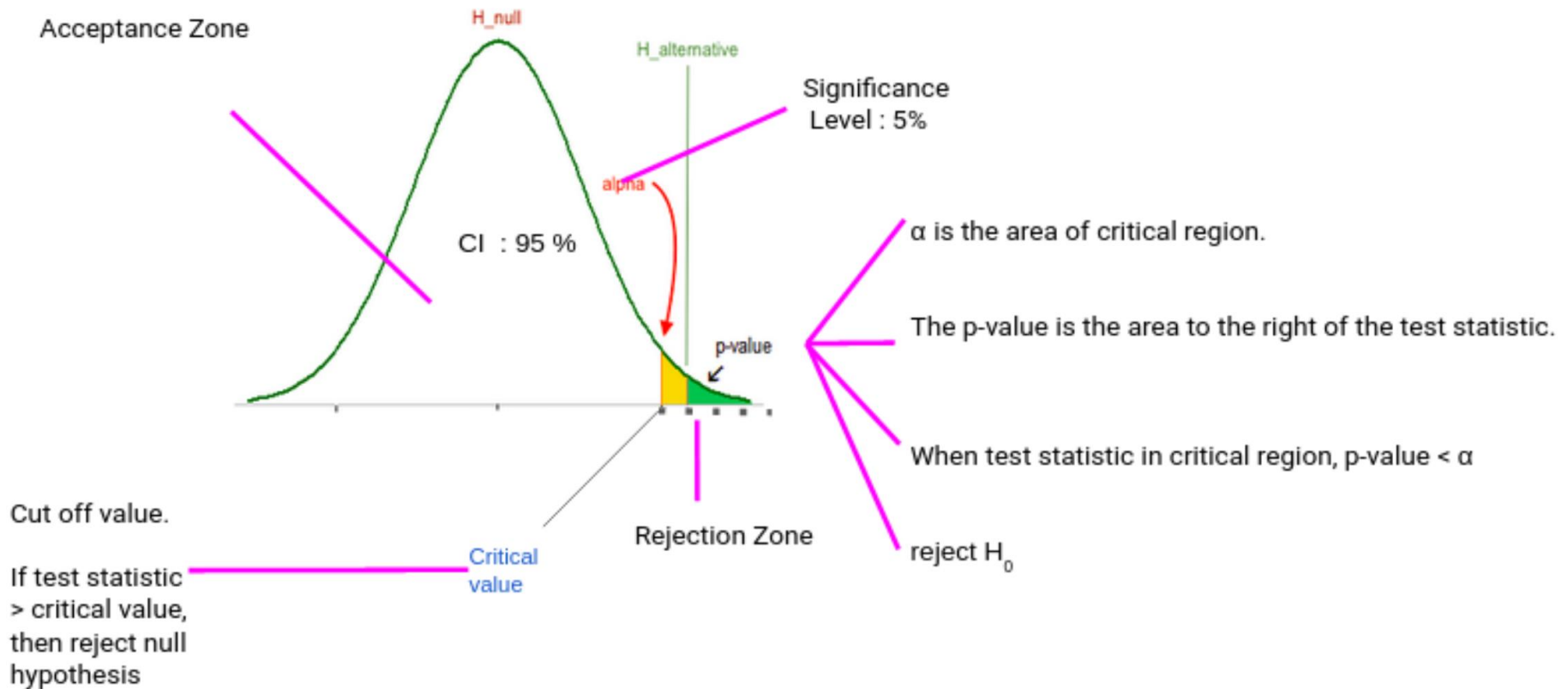


Significance level
or p-value cutoff

Conceptualizing the p-value

		Protein The Person is		
		Innocent	Guilty	
Biologist The Judge Says	Innocent	 No Error	 Type 2 error	“False negative” ↙
	Guilty	 Type 1 error	 No Error	

Conceptualizing the p-value

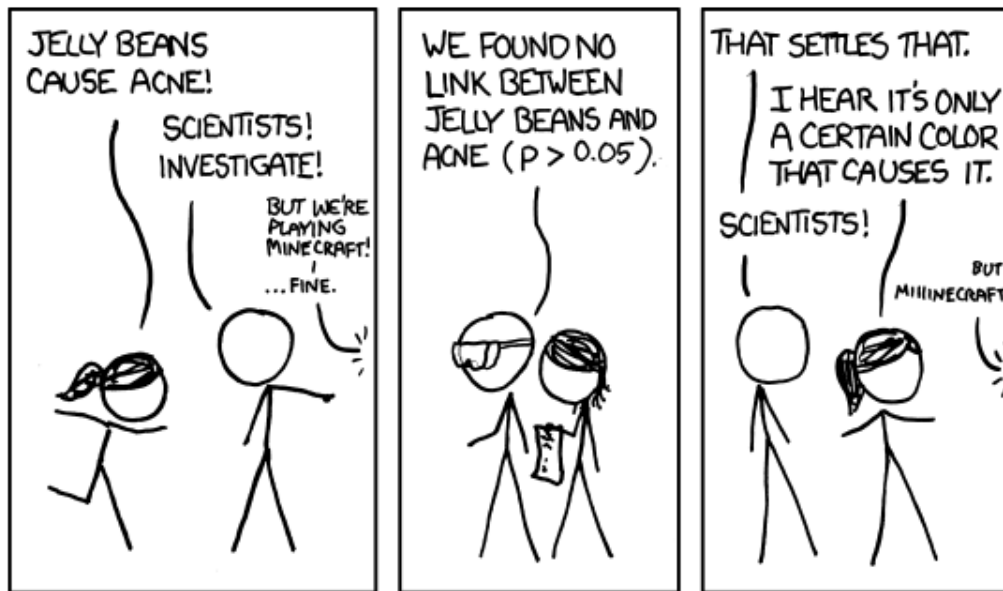


How good is your evidence?

- i.e., how much statistical power does your experiment have?
- Two factors:
 - Effect size
 - Sample size

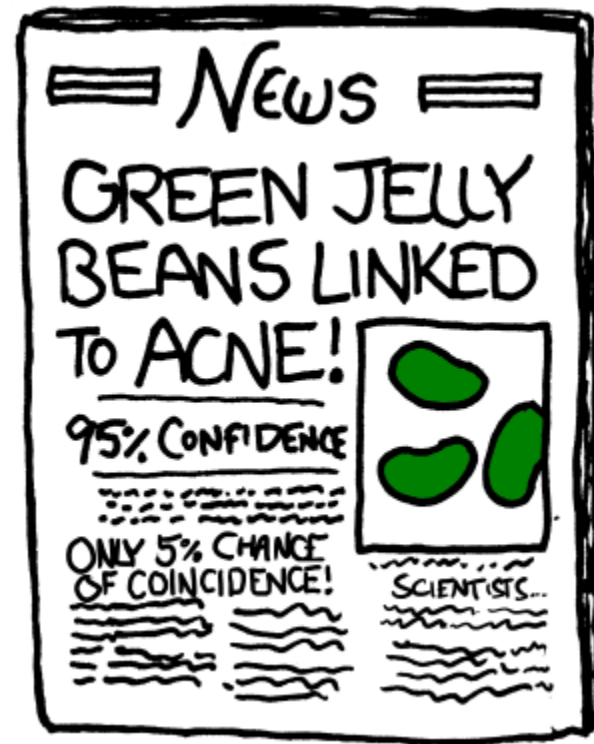
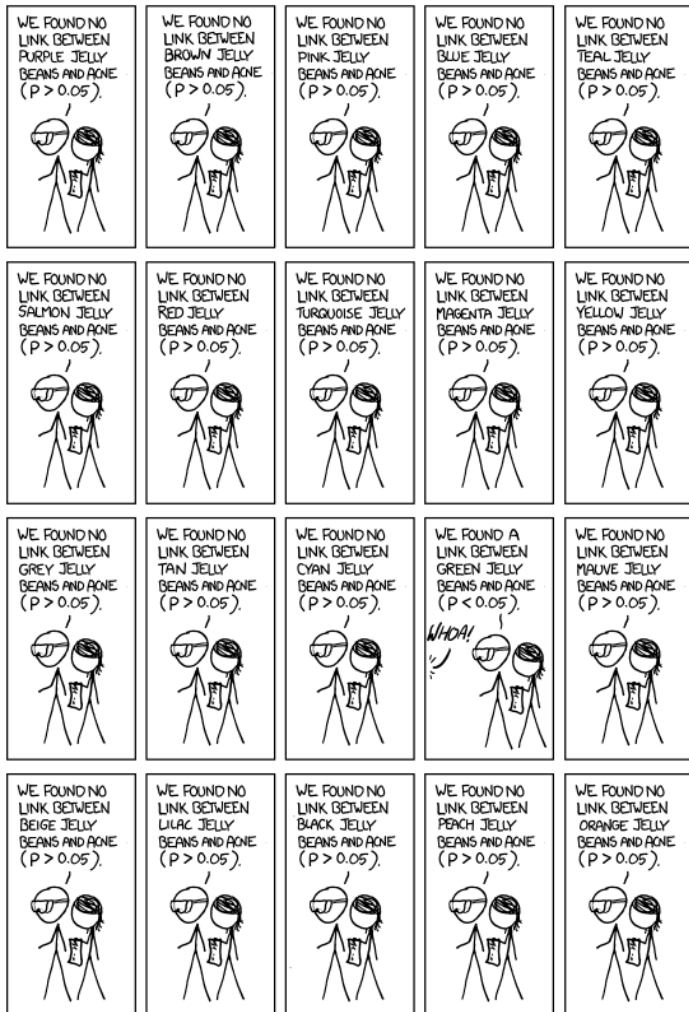
Multiple comparisons problem

As the # of comparisons go up \rightarrow probability of a false positive goes up



Multiple comparisons problem

So if you perform the same test a bunch of times, eventually you're going to get a false positive



Multiple comparisons problem

- Consider an RNA-seq differential expression experiment in HEK293 cell lines, +/- drug treatment

Multiple comparisons problem

- You measure 12,000 transcripts in both the control and treated samples



- You perform 12,000 statistical tests for mRNA in control vs treated ($p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$)



- Probability of **at least** 1 false positive increases to essentially 100%

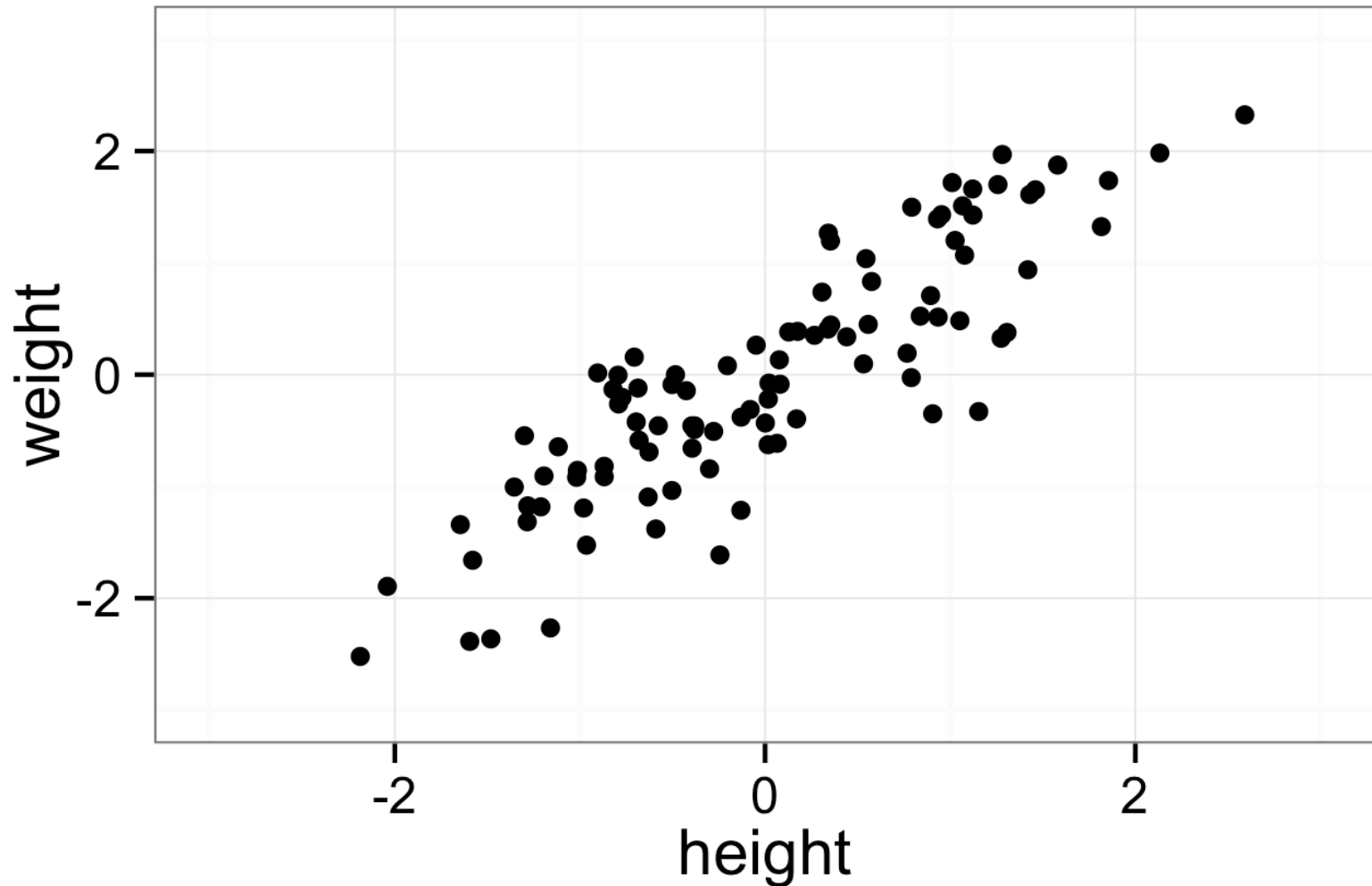
Multiple comparisons problem

- Active area of research
- No universally accepted approach
- Corrective algorithms span the extremely conservative (e.g., Bonferroni correction) to the less conservative (e.g., Benjamini-Hochberg procedure)

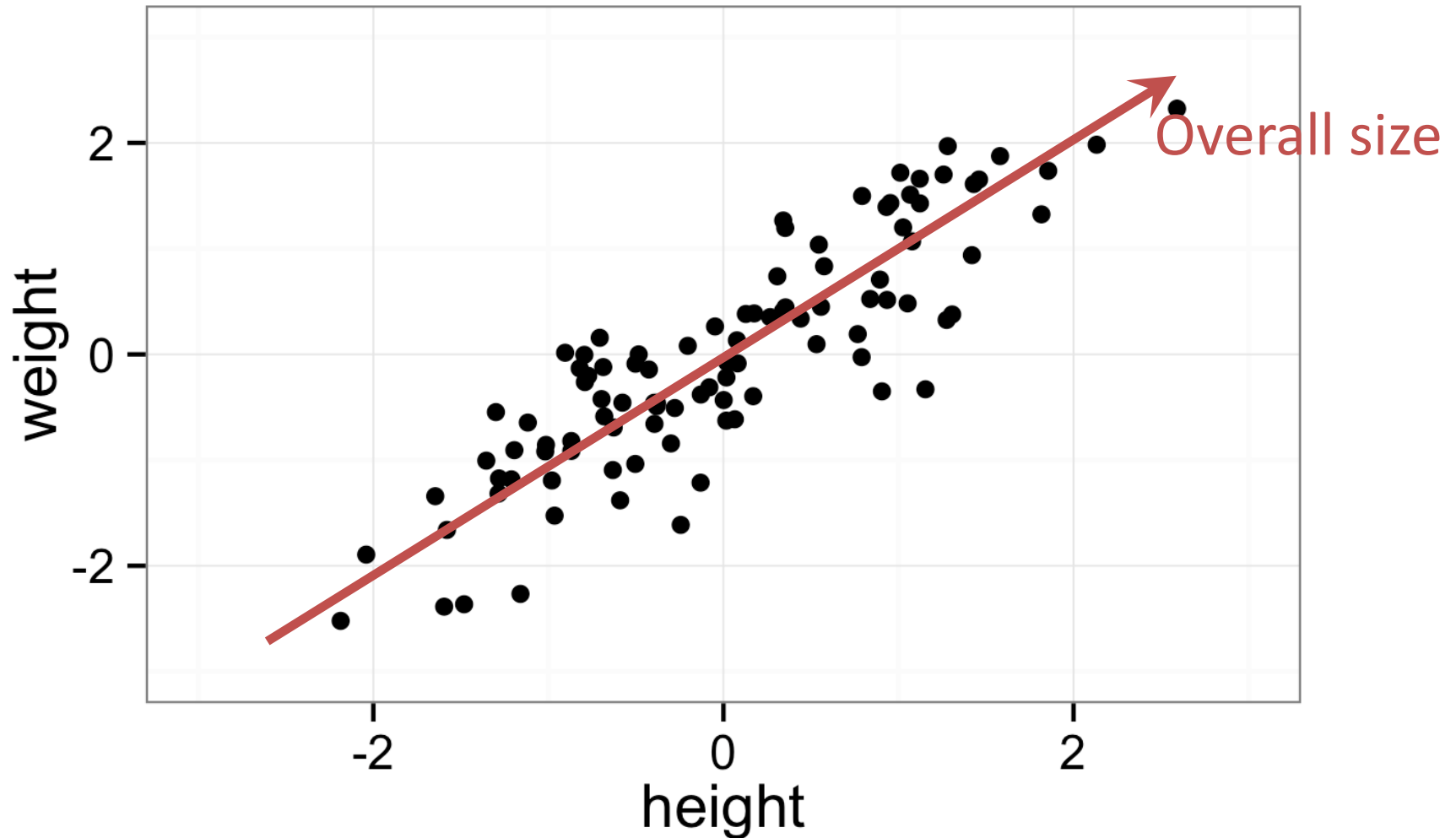
Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

- Dimension reduction
- Useful for exploratory data analysis of high-dimensional data sets.

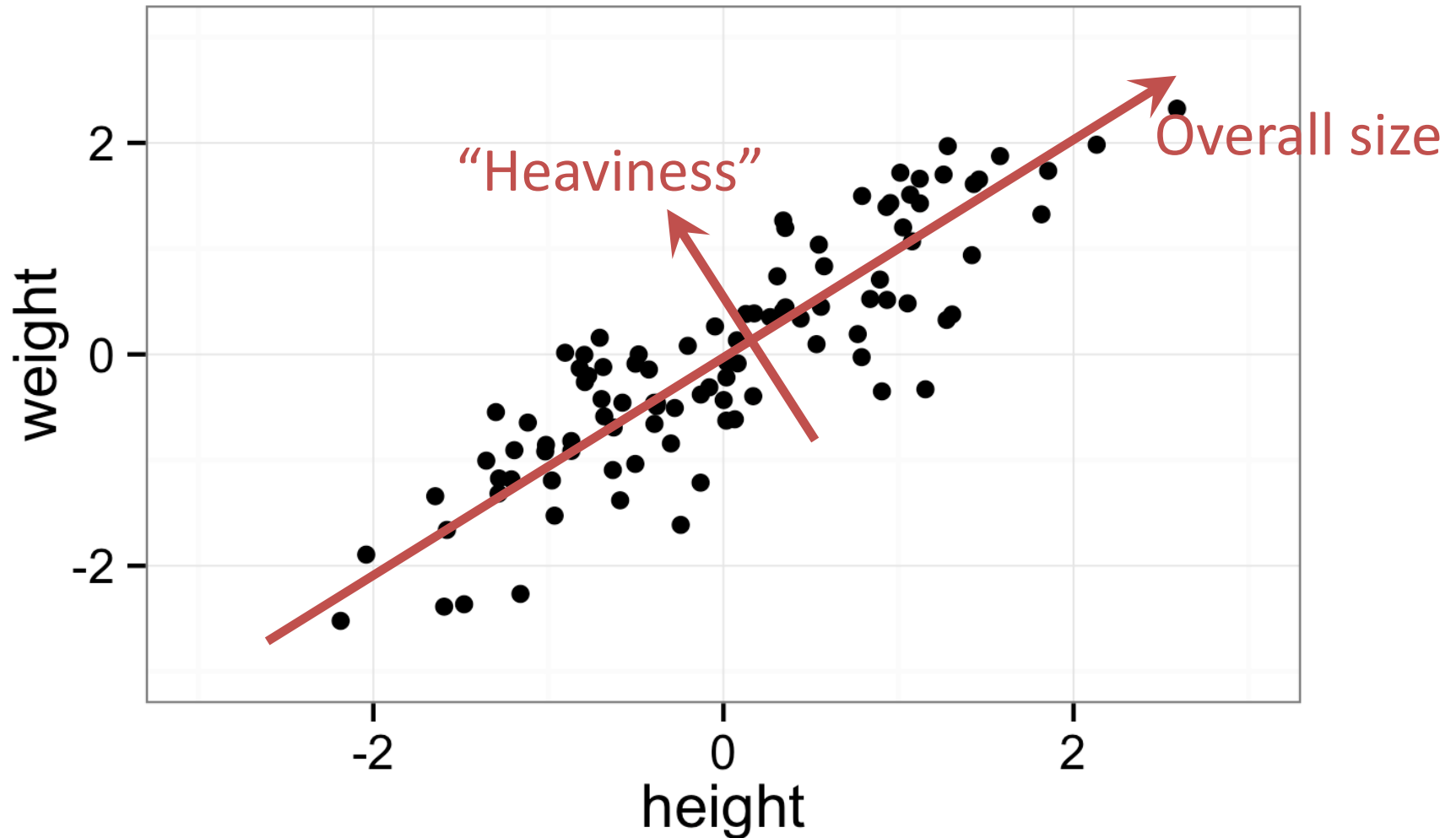
Example: Consider a data set of heights and weights of people



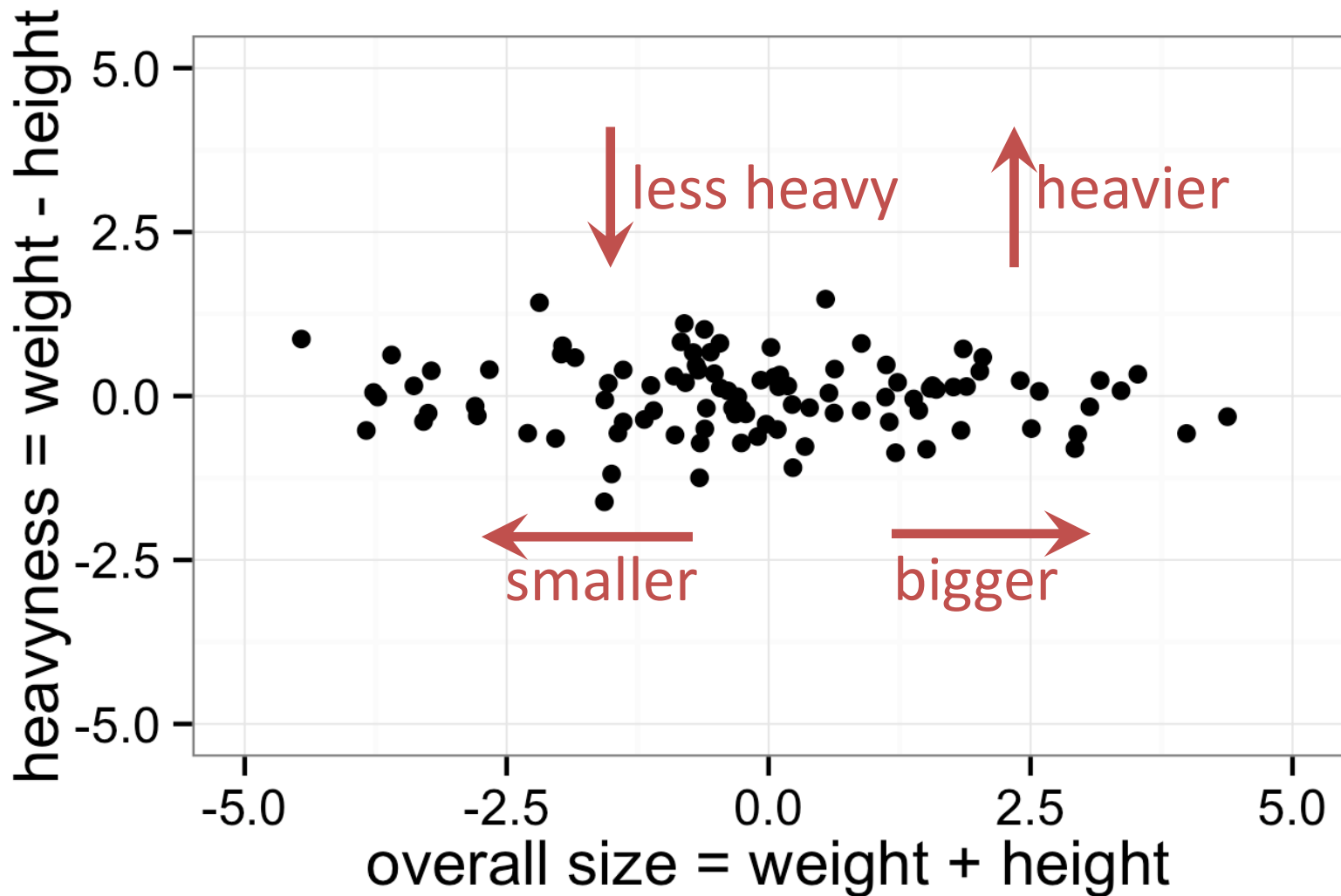
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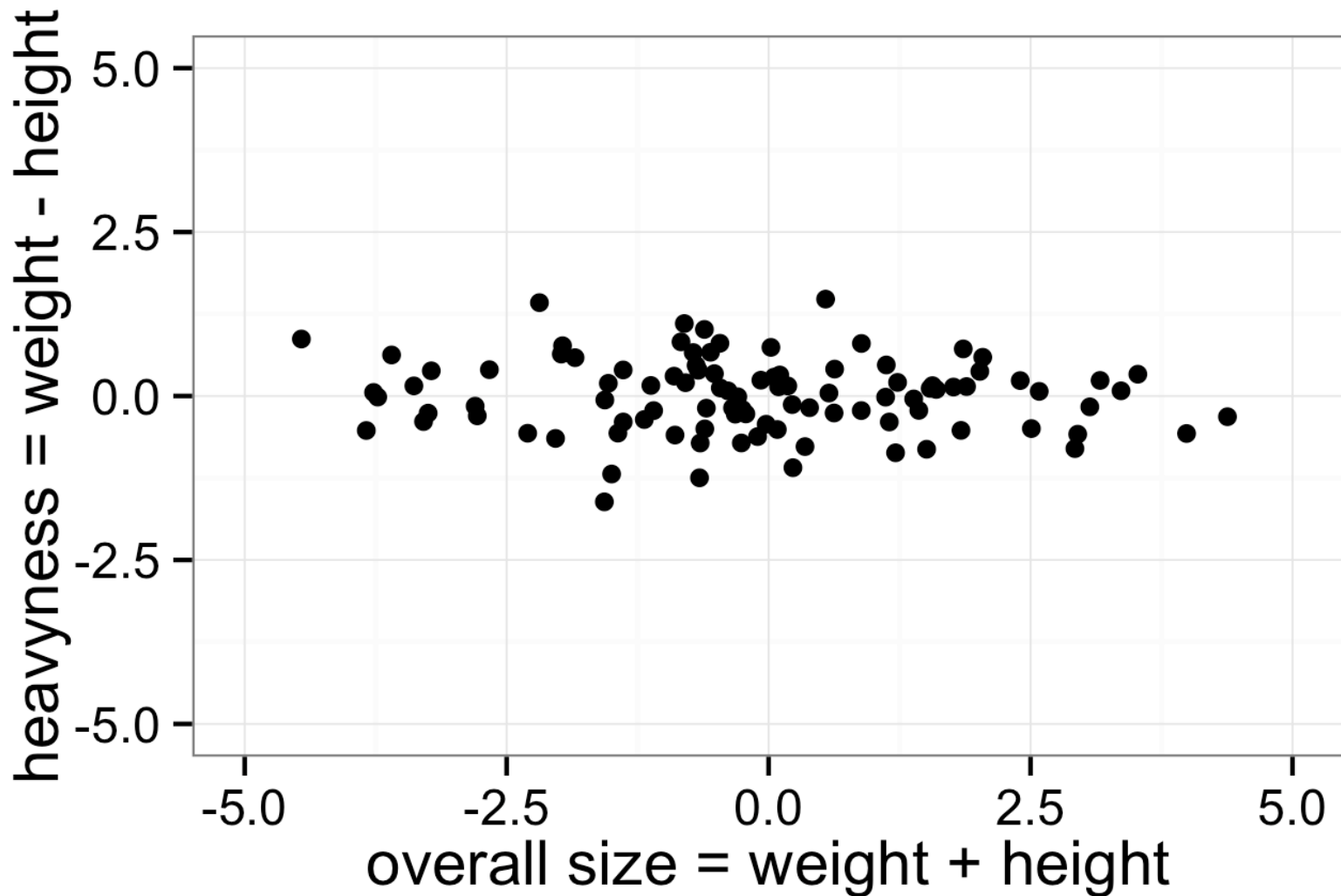
Example: Consider a data set of heights and weights of people



PCA on this data set reframes data in terms of overall size and heavyness



In our earlier example, overall size and heaviness are uncorrelated



Doing a PCA in R

```
iris %>%  
  select(-Species) %>%      # remove Species column  
  scale() %>%               # scale to zero mean  
                             # and unit variance  
  prcomp() ->               # do PCA  
  pca                       # store result  
                             # in variable "pca"
```

Doing a PCA in R

```
> pca
```

```
Standard deviations:
```

```
[1] 1.7083611 0.9560494 0.3830886 0.1439265
```

```
Rotation:
```

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Sepal.Length	0.5210659	-0.37741762	0.7195664	0.2612863
Sepal.Width	-0.2693474	-0.92329566	-0.2443818	-0.1235096
Petal.Length	0.5804131	-0.02449161	-0.1421264	-0.8014492
Petal.Width	0.5648565	-0.06694199	-0.6342727	0.5235971

Doing a PCA in R

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```

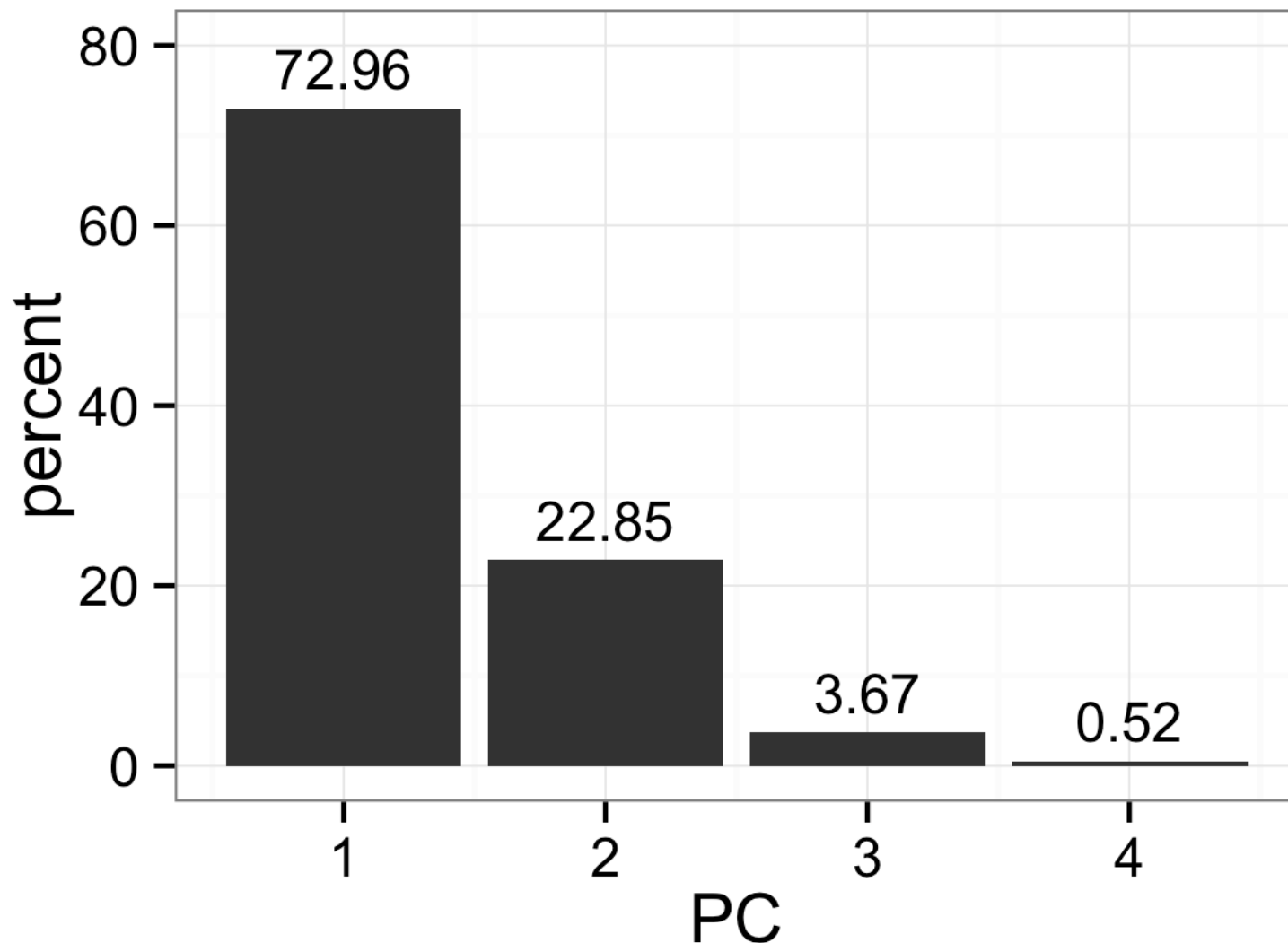
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Squares of the std. devs represent the % variance explained by each PC



Doing a PCA in R

```
> pca
```

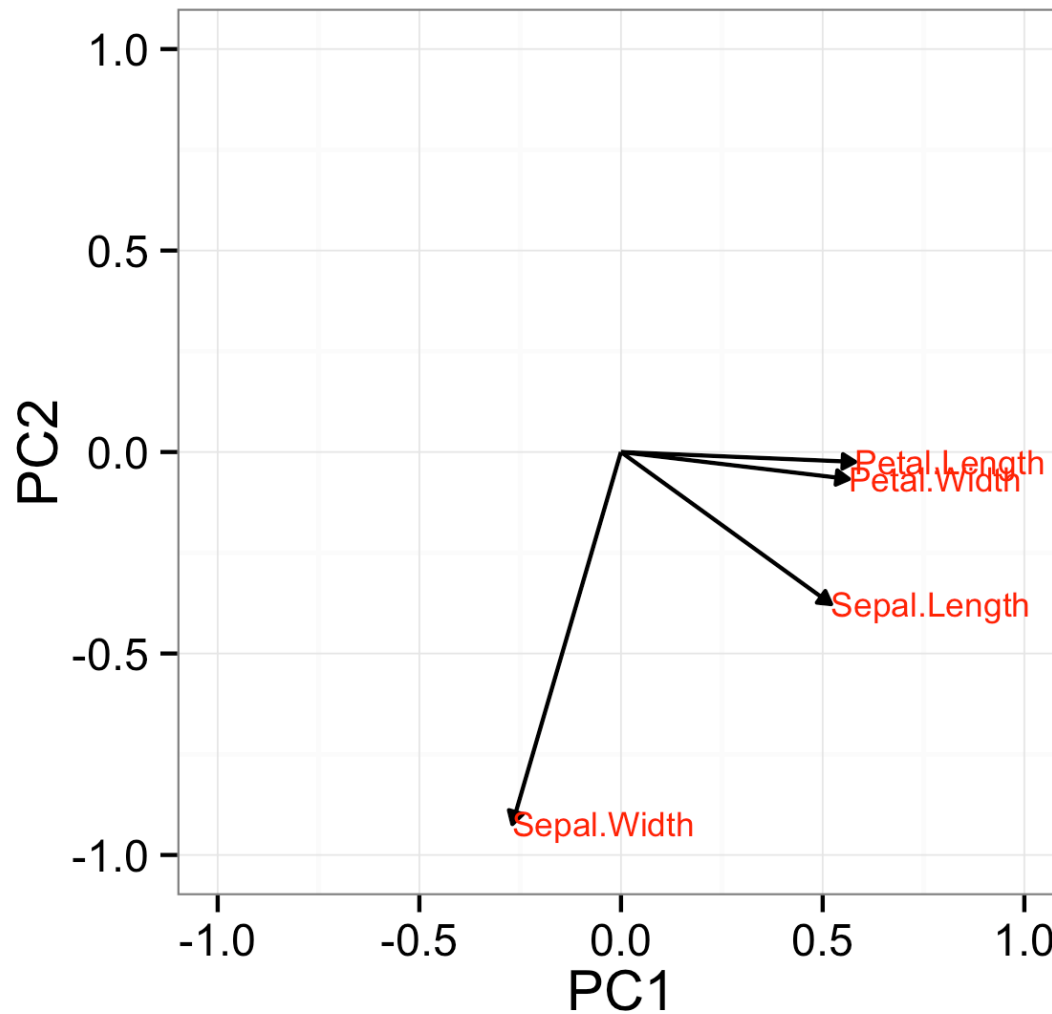
```
Standard deviations:
```

```
[1] 1.7083611 0.9560494 0.3830886 0.1439265
```

```
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```

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The rotation matrix tells us which variables contribute to which PCs



We can also recover each original observation expressed in PC coordinates

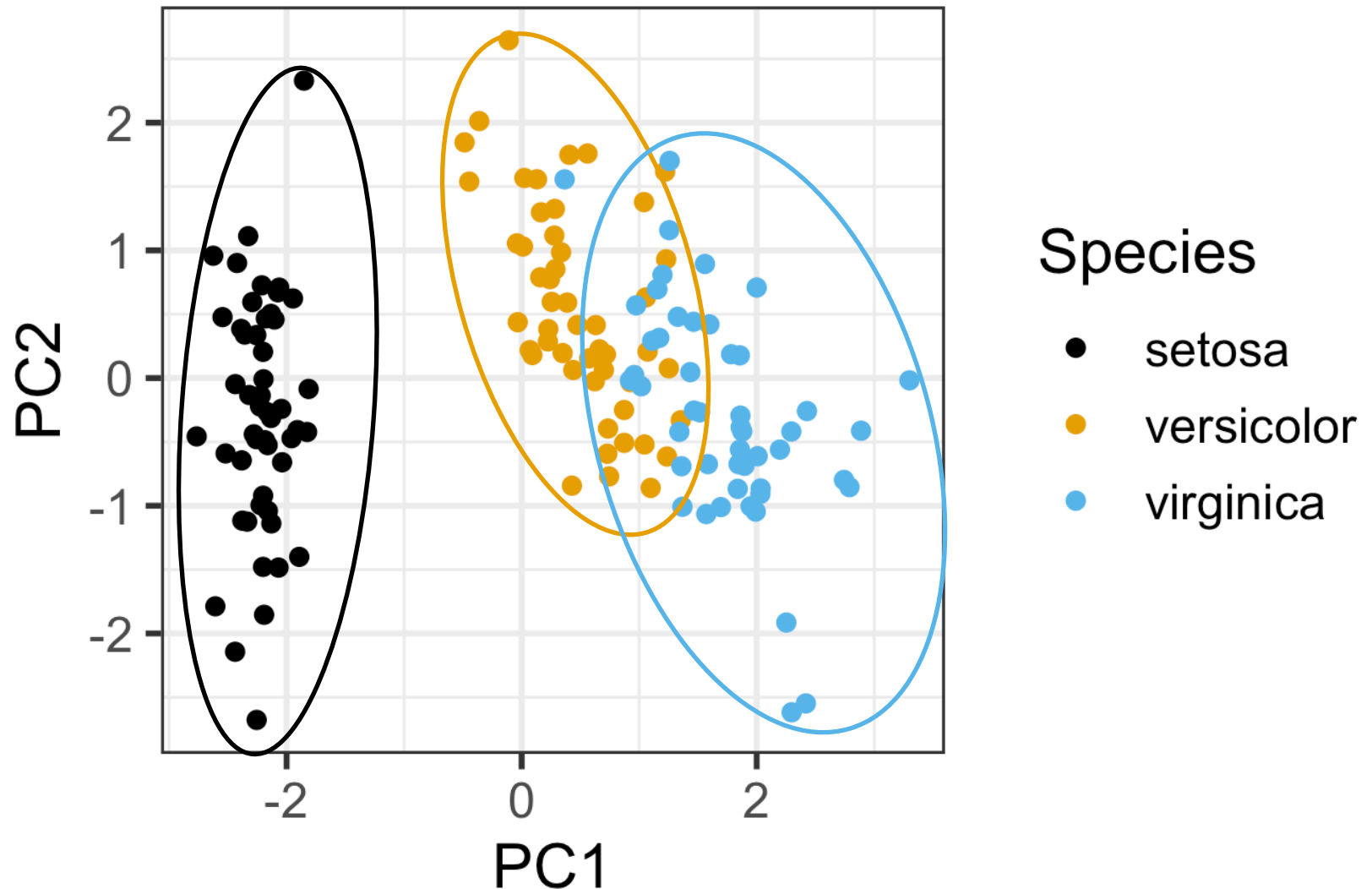
```
> pca$x
```

We can also recover each original observation expressed in PC coordinates

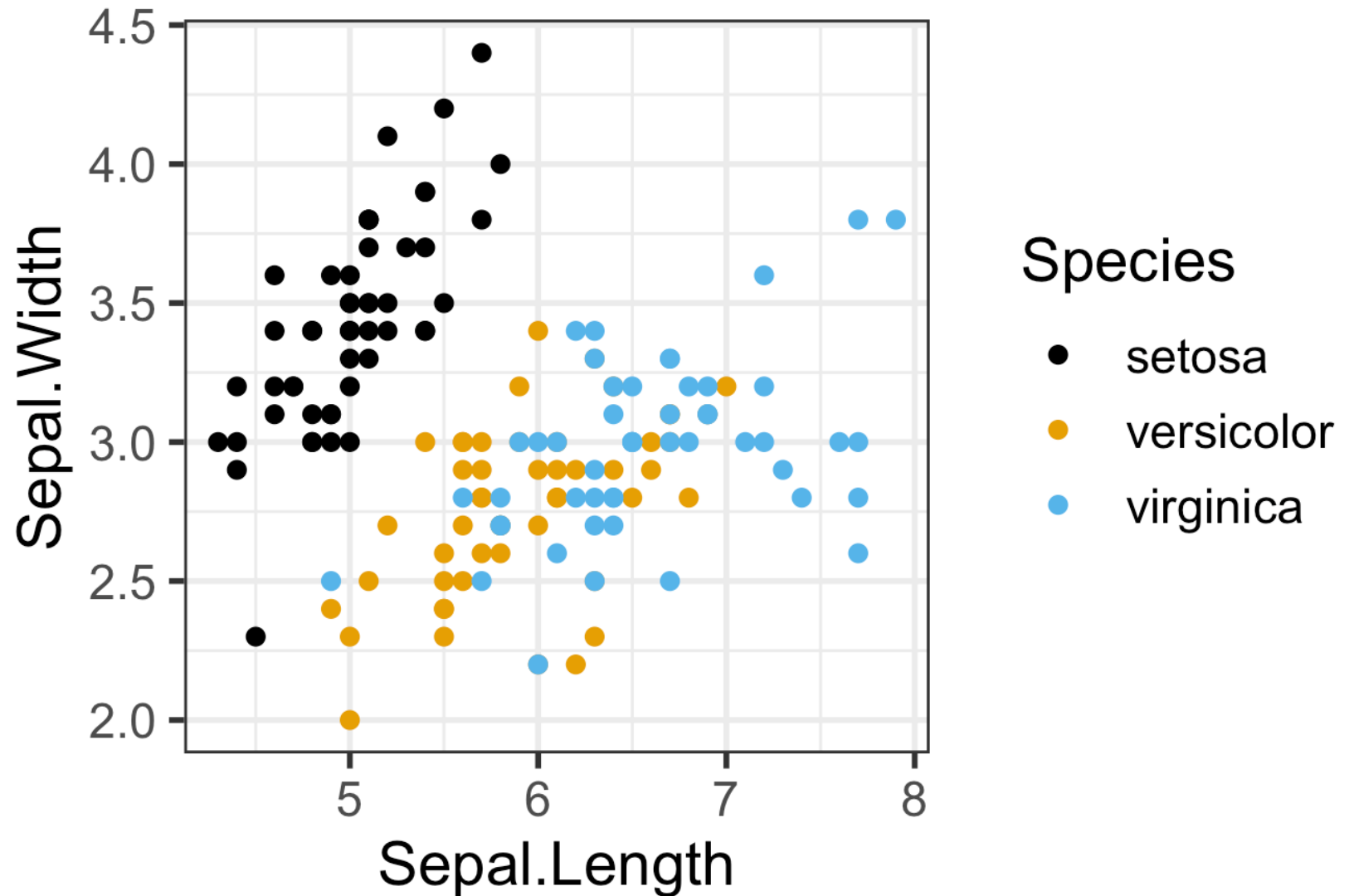
```
> pca$x
```

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
[1,]	-2.25714118	-0.478423832	0.127279624	0.024087508
[2,]	-2.07401302	0.671882687	0.233825517	0.102662845
[3,]	-2.35633511	0.340766425	-0.044053900	0.028282305
[4,]	-2.29170679	0.595399863	-0.090985297	-0.065735340
[5,]	-2.38186270	-0.644675659	-0.015685647	-0.035802870
[6,]	-2.06870061	-1.484205297	-0.026878250	0.006586116
[7,]	-2.43586845	-0.047485118	-0.334350297	-0.036652767
[8,]	-2.22539189	-0.222403002	0.088399352	-0.024529919
[9,]	-2.32684533	1.111603700	-0.144592465	-0.026769540
[10,]	-2.17703491	0.467447569	0.252918268	-0.039766068
[11,]	-2.15907699	-1.040205867	0.267784001	0.016675503
[12,]	-2.31836413	-0.132633999	-0.093446191	-0.133037725
[13,]	-2.21104370	0.726243183	0.230140246	0.002416941

Plot of iris plants in PC coordinates reveals differences among species



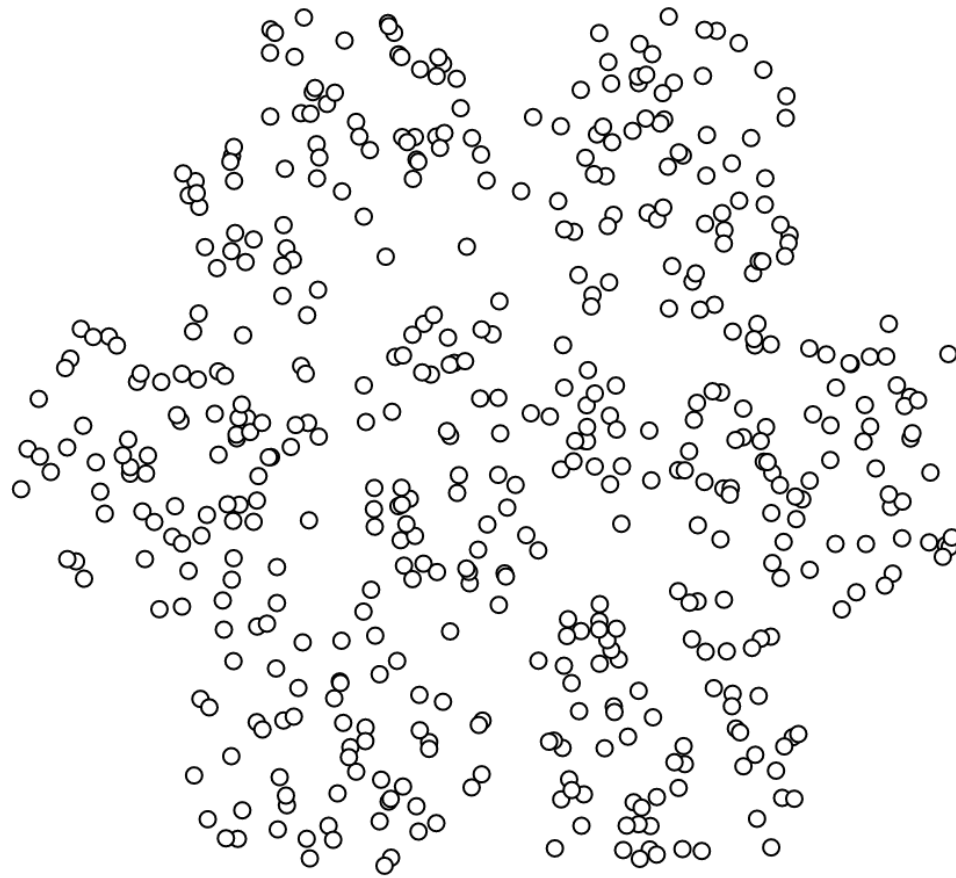
These differences are much harder to see in the original variables



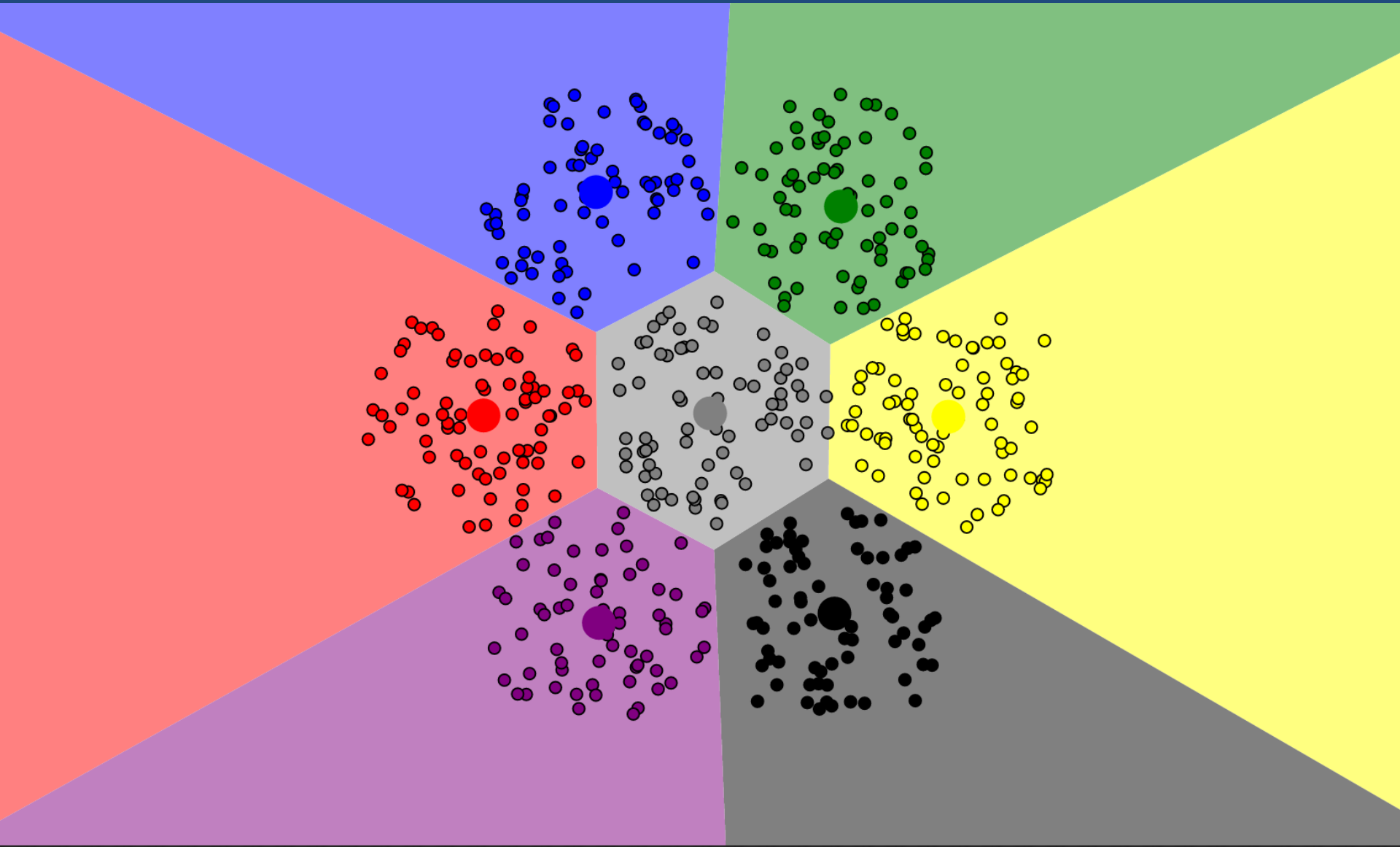
k-means clustering

Method to automatically separate data sets into distinct groups.

Clustering example



Clustering example

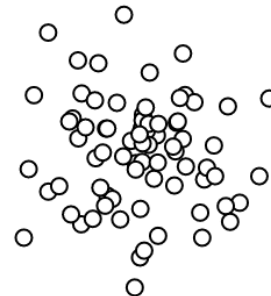
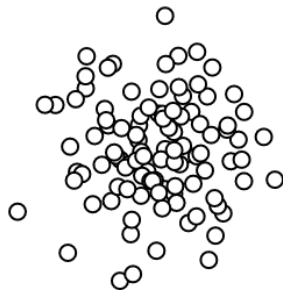
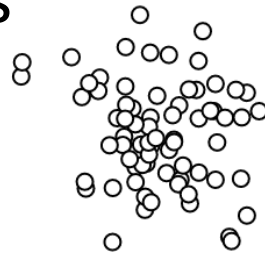


k -means clustering algorithm

1. Start with k randomly chosen means
2. Color data points by the shortest distance to any mean
3. Move means to centroid position of each group of points
4. Repeat from step 2 until convergence

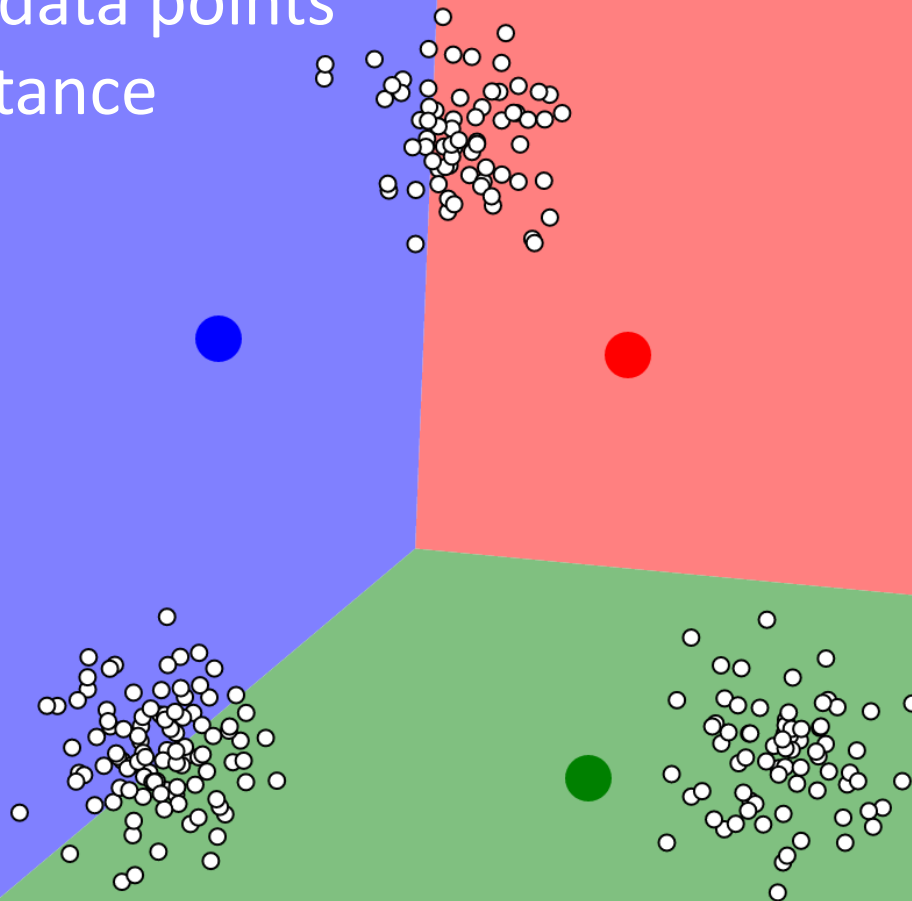
Algorithm example ($k = 3$)

Step 1: Choose 3 means
at random



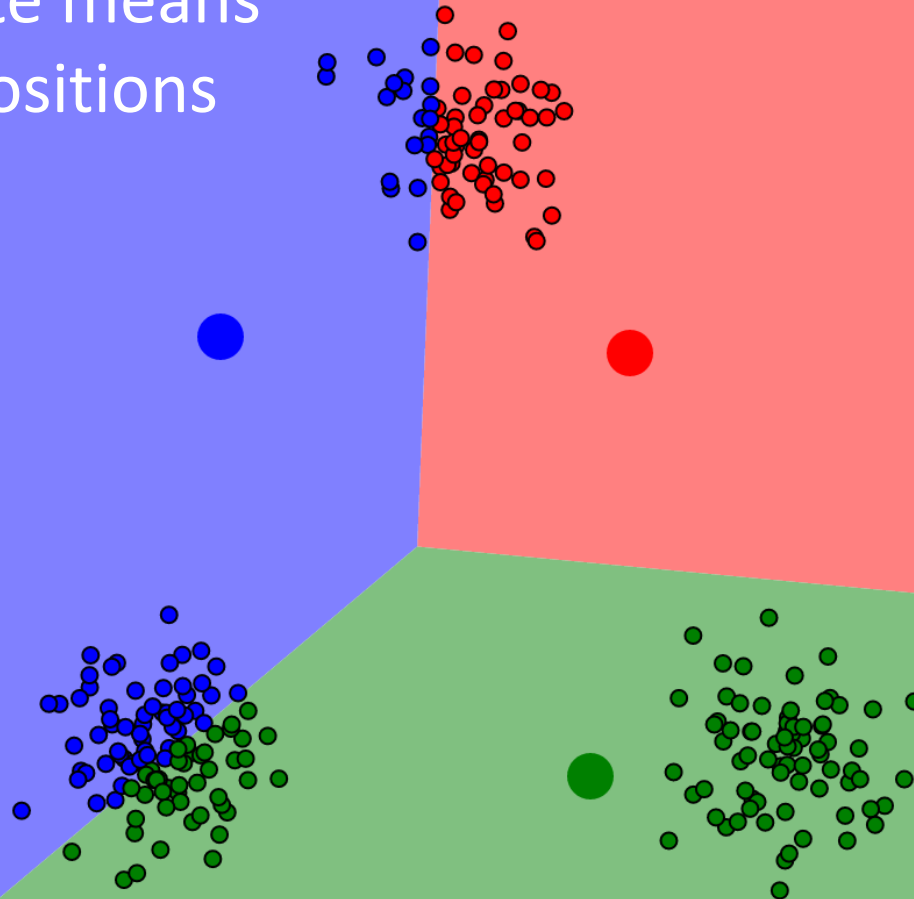
Algorithm example ($k = 3$)

Step 2: Color data points
by closest distance
to any mean



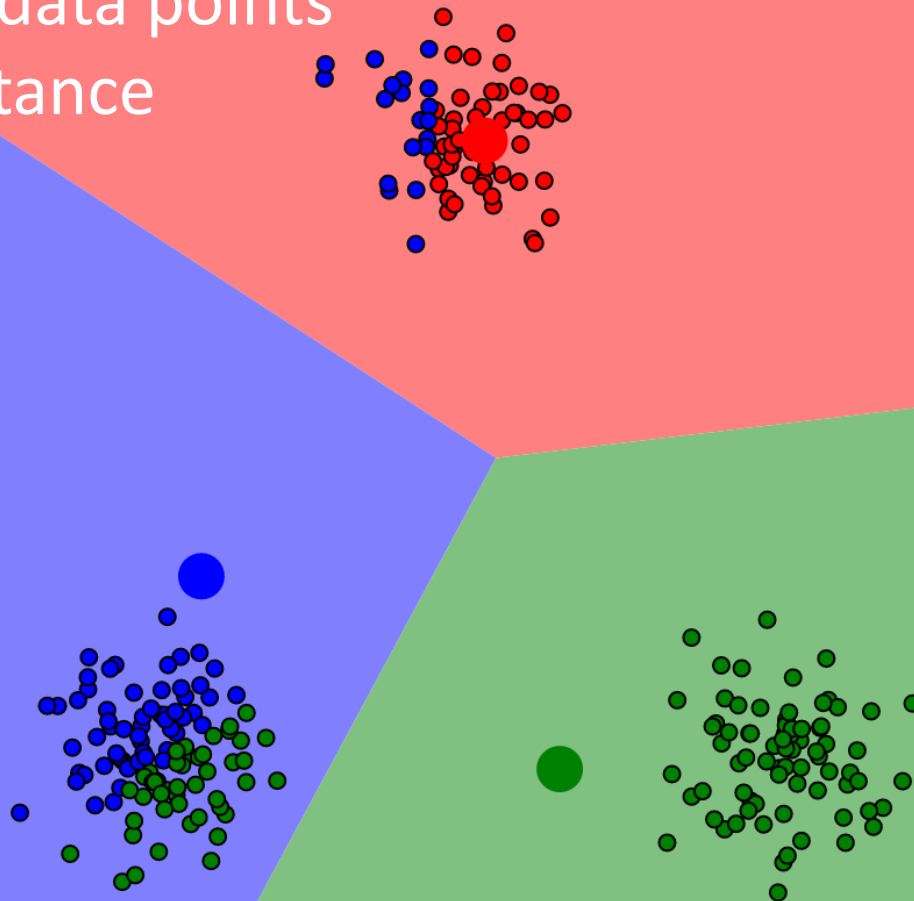
Algorithm example ($k = 3$)

Step 3: Update means to centroid positions



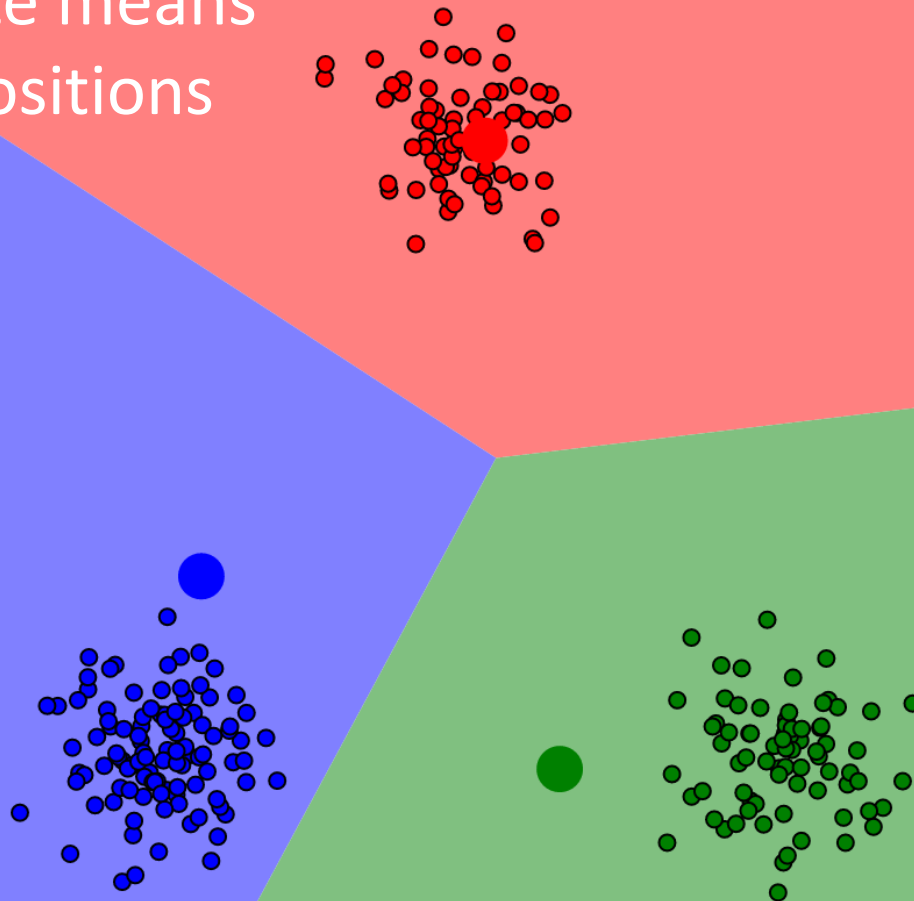
Algorithm example ($k = 3$)

Step 2: Color data points
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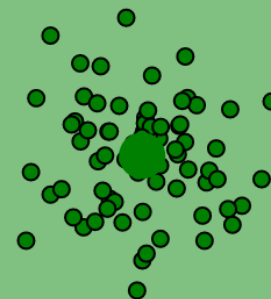
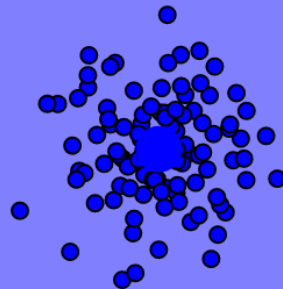
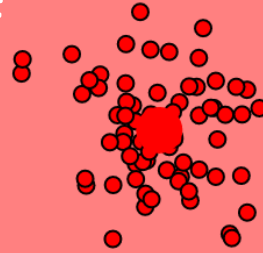
Algorithm example ($k = 3$)

Step 3: Update means
to centroid positions



Algorithm example ($k = 3$)

Stop: no further change occurs



k-means in R

(example: iris data set)

```
iris %>%  
  select(-Species) %>%      # remove Species column  
  kmeans(centers=3) ->      # do k-means clustering  
                               # with 3 centers  
km                           # store result as "km"
```

k-means in R (example: iris data set)

> km

K-means clustering with 3 clusters of sizes 38, 62, 50

Cluster means:

	Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width
1	6.850000	3.073684	5.742105	2.071053
2	5.901613	2.748387	4.393548	1.433871
3	5.006000	3.428000	1.462000	0.246000

Clustering vector:

[1]	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		
[38]	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		
[75]	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
[112]	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
[149]	1	2																															

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

```
[1] 23.87947 39.82097 15.15100
(between SS / total SS = 88.4 %)
```

k-means in R (example: iris data set)

> km

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Cluster means:
the location of the
final centroids

Clustering vector:

[1]	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		
[38]	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		
[75]	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
[112]	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
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Clustering vector:

```
[1] 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3  
[38] 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 2 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2  
[75] 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1  
[112] 1 1 2 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 1 2 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 2 1  
[149] 1 2
```

Clustering vector: provides the cluster to which each

Clustering vector: provides the cluster to which each observation belongs

Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

```
[1] 23.87947 39.82097 15.15100
```

(between SS / total SS = 88.4 %)

k-means in R (example: iris data set)

> km

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Clustering vector:

[1]	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3		
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[75]	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
[112]	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
[149]	1	2																															

Within cluster sum of squares: measures quality of

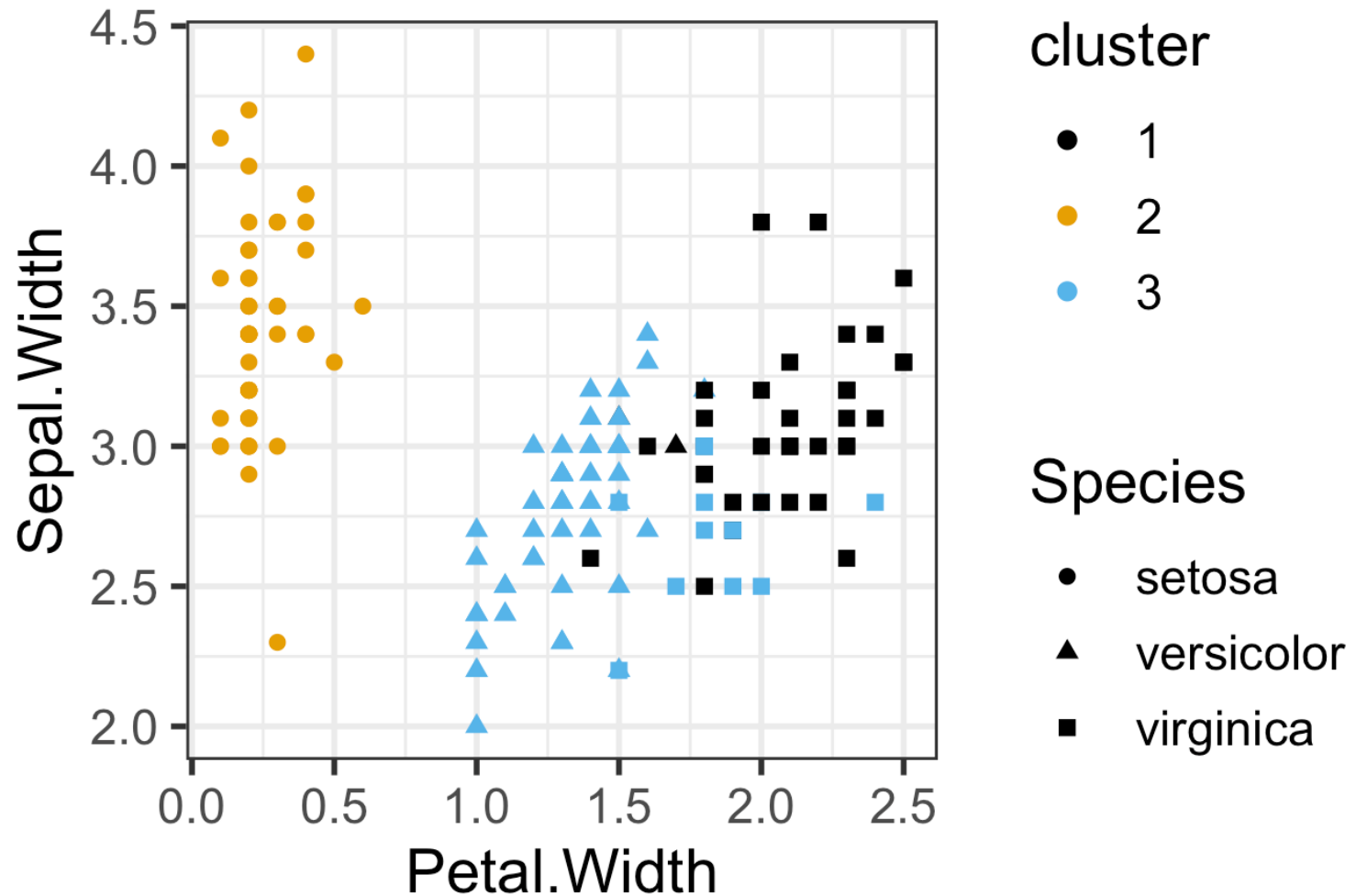
Within cluster sum of squares by cluster:

```
[1] 23.87947 39.82097 15.15100
```

(between SS / total SS = 88.4 %)

the clustering (lower is better)

The clusters mostly but not exactly recapitulate the species assignments



How do we determine the right number of means k ?

- Many different methods, see e.g.:
<http://stackoverflow.com/a/15376462/4975218>
- Simplest: plot within-sum-of-squares against k

A bend in within-sum-of-squares indicates the ideal number of clusters

