

ABI Summer 2021

Introduction to Statistics

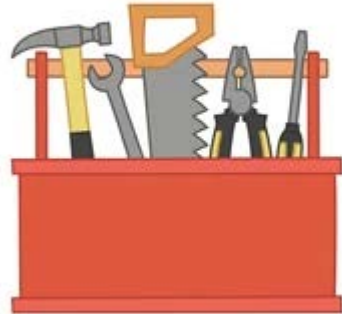
Guest Session 2

Javier Cabrera*, Volha Tryputsen** & Davit Sargsyan**

July 7, 2021

Know Your Tools

- What are the research questions you are trying to answer?
- What data do you need to answer them?
- Can you design an experiment that will provide you with the data? Think about the experimental design long and hard!
- What are the right tools, i.e., appropriate statistical techniques that can help you answer the questions?
- Do you understand the statistical methods well enough to be confident with your inference? Things to consider:
 - Distributions
 - Missing data
 - Outliers



Research Questions

Ultimately, we are developing a drug that can cure or manage a disease

Is my drug better than the standard treatment or placebo?

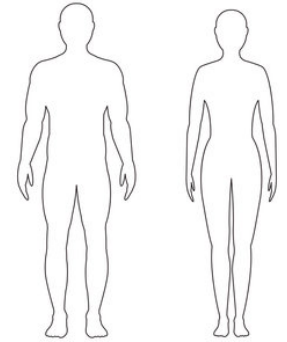
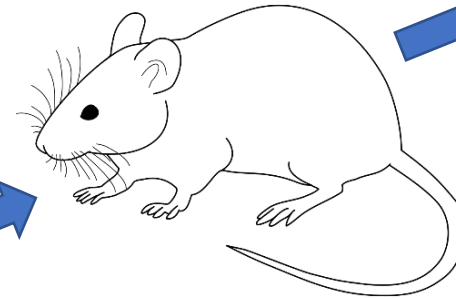
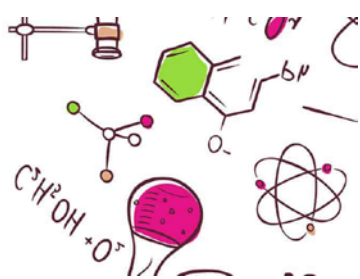
Depending on a therapeutic area, these can be:

- Can the drug reduce or eliminate cancer (oncology)
- Can the drug reduce inflammation (immunology)
- Can the drug help reduce weight, correct blood pressure, help damaged heart, regulate insulin (cardio-vascular and metabolism)
- Can the drug eliminate harmful bacteria and viruses and prevent new infections (infectious diseases and vaccines)



Animal Models in Drug Development

- Before a drug is tested in humans, it needs to be tested in cells and animals
- Cells, tissues or computer simulations are not complex enough (yet) to fully understand biological processes and interactions



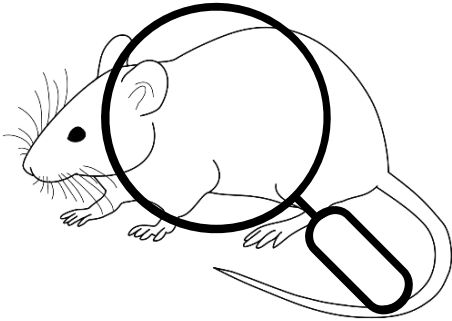
- Animal models are used to test compound toxicity, model PK/PD, understand drug-drug interactions, and many more

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Study Endpoints

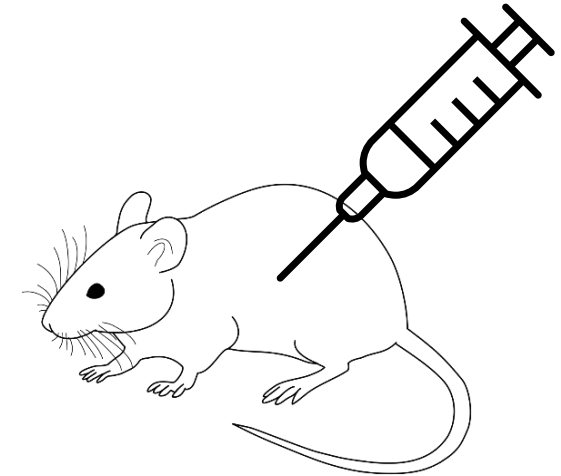


Endpoints that can be observed directly:

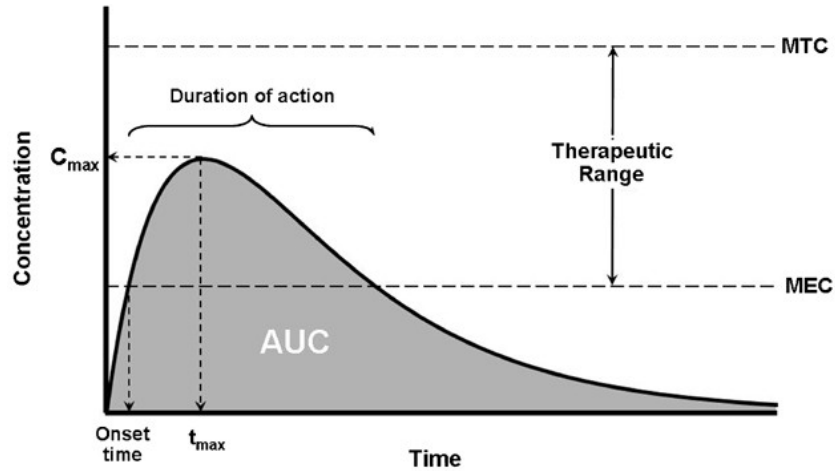
- Survival rate and time
- Tumor volume
- Body weight change
- Skin inflammation
- Bacterial count

Biomarkers from blood or tissue

- Protein concentration (Western blot, proteomics)
- Gene expression (microarrays, qPCR, RNA- and DNA-seq, DNA methylation and acetylation)
- Cell counting (flow cytometry)

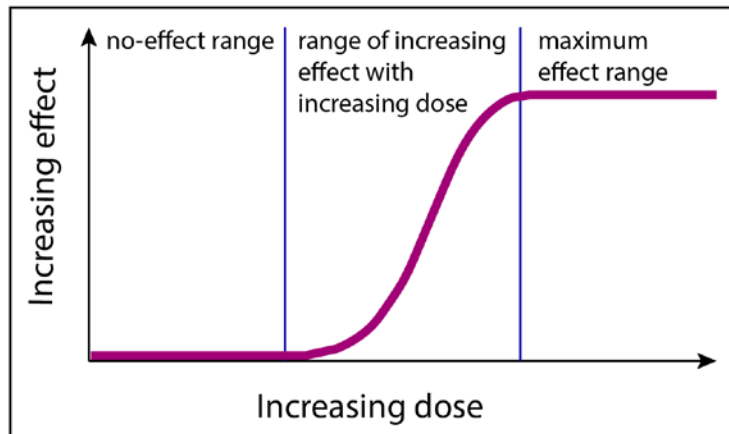


Pharmacokinetic/Pharmacodynamics (PK/PD)



Pharmacokinetic: what a body does to a drug

- Drug concentration in blood or urine over time
- Estimate large number of parameters: total drug exposure (AUC), distribution volume, drug elimination half-life, maximum concentration, renal clearance, etc.



Pharmacodynamics: what a drug does to a body

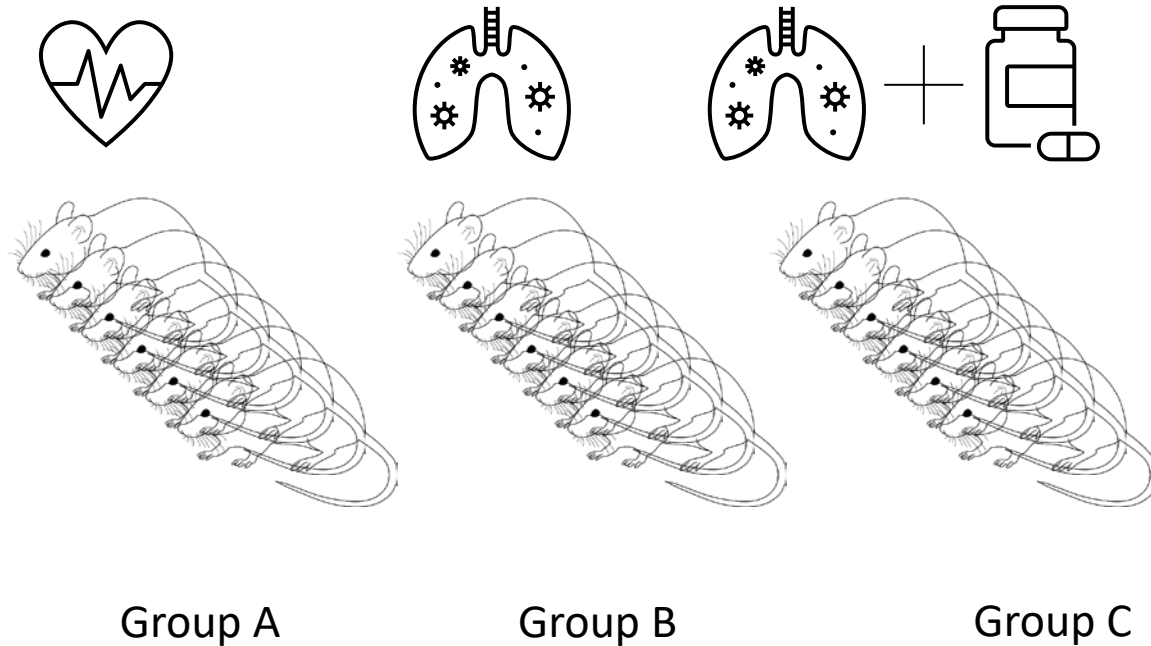
- Estimate dose-response or exposure-response relationship
- Calculate parameters: top and bottom asymptotes, slope, EC50/IC50, etc.

Know Your Tools



- What are the research questions you are trying to answer?
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Basics of Animal Study Design



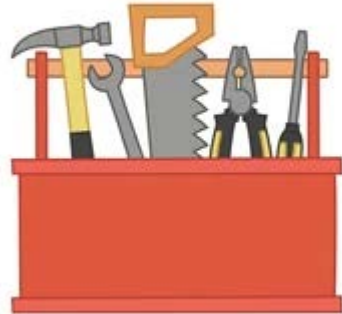
Is my drug working?

- What is the range of values for my endpoints in healthy animals? Use naïve animals as controls (**Group A**)
- Are they sufficiently different in sick animals? Use sick untreated animals as negative controls (**Group B**).
- Can the drug prevent or reverse the effect of the disease? Use the drug in sick animals (treatment group, **Group C**)

Study Design Considerations

- What questions do we need to answer with the study? The research hypotheses must be negatable!
- What are the primary, i.e., the most important endpoints of the study?
- What is the criteria for success? Minimum difference in primary endpoints that is **biologically meaningful**.
- How much variability we expect? Use published data and previous experiments.
- How many control and treatment groups do we need?
- How many animals do we need that, given all of the above, we have a good chance to show **statistically significant** results?
- What variables and experimental conditions can we control for?

Know Your Tools

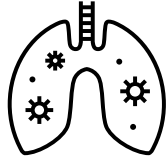
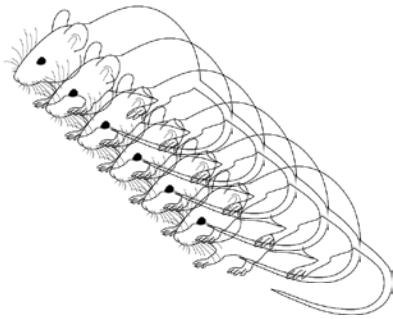


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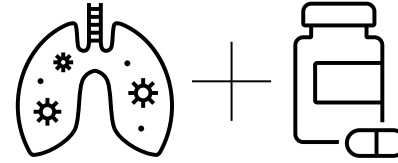
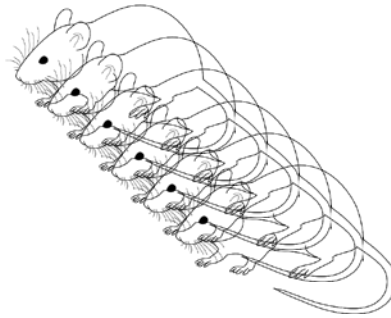
Comparing groups



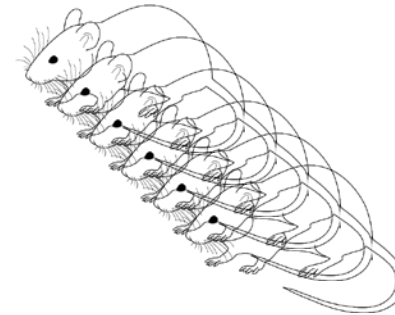
Group A: healthy



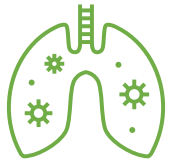
Group B: sick



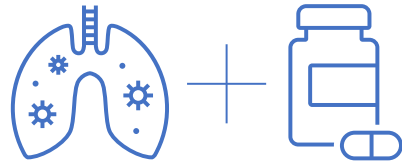
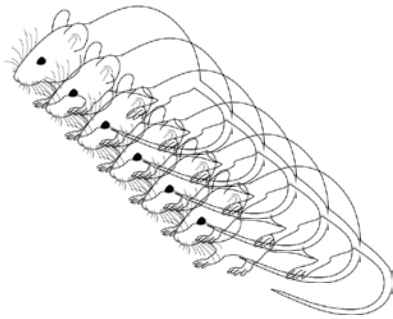
Group C: treated sick



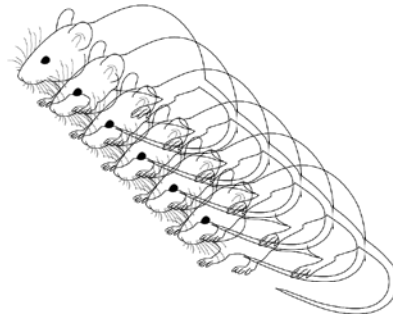
1. Comparing 2 groups



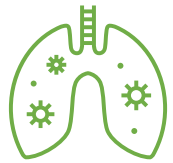
Group B: sick



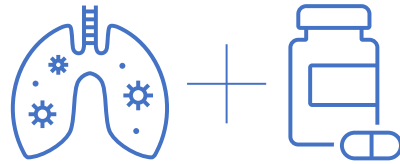
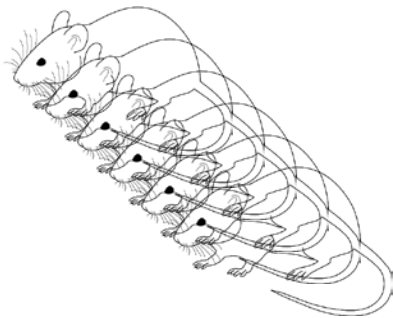
Group C: treated sick



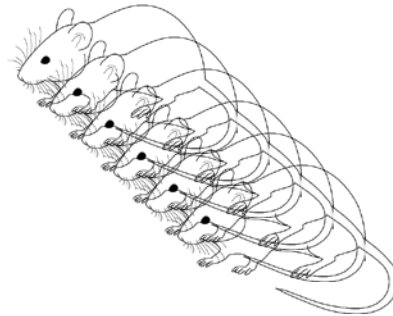
Mouse weight



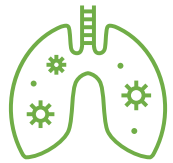
Group B: sick



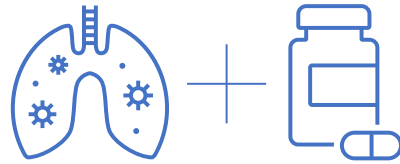
Group C: treated sick



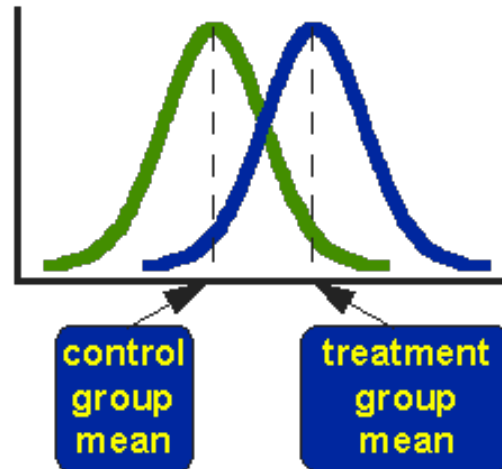
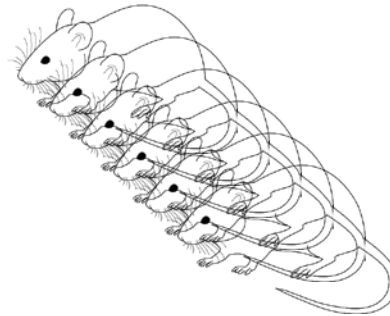
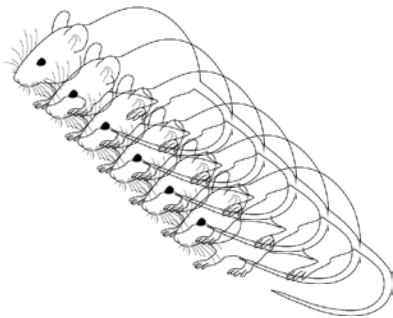
Weight distributions



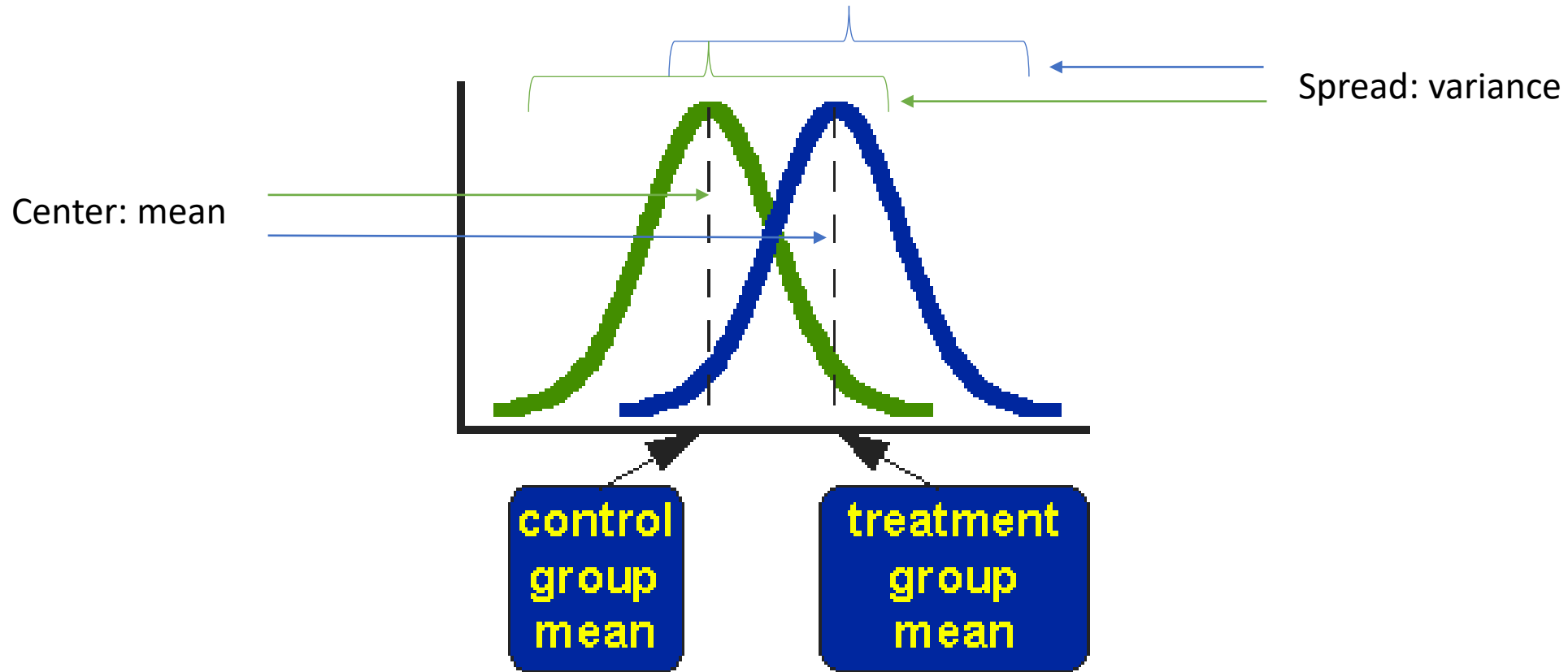
Group B: sick



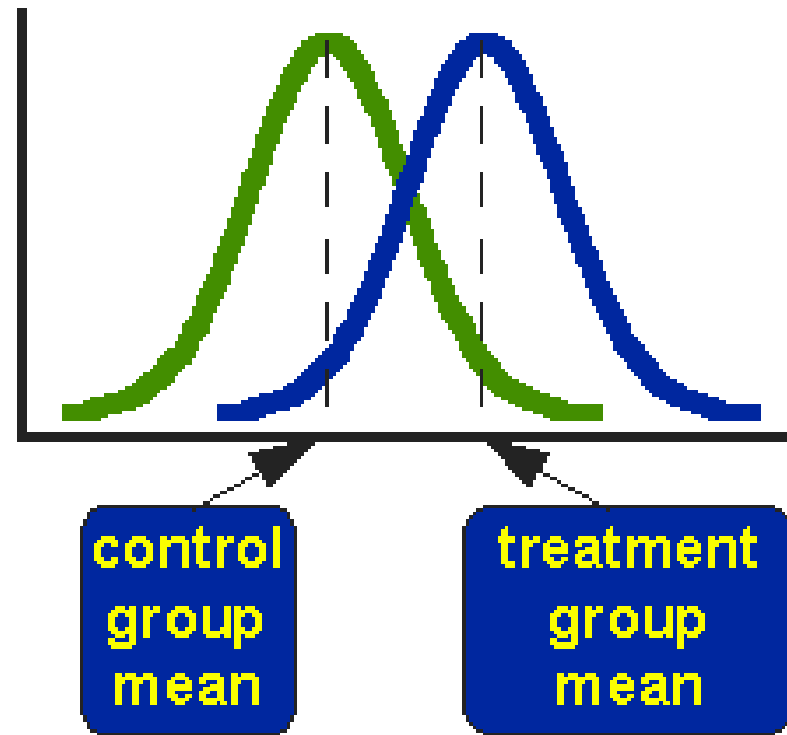
Group C: treated sick



Weight distribution's center and spread

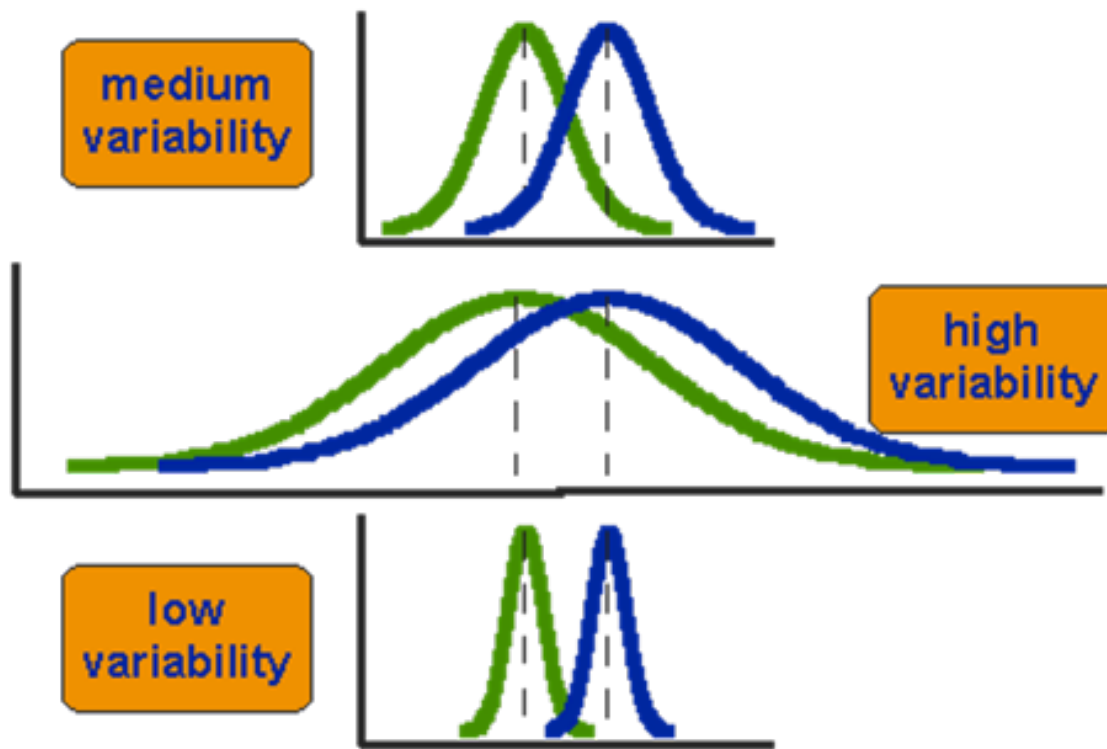


Comparing 2 means



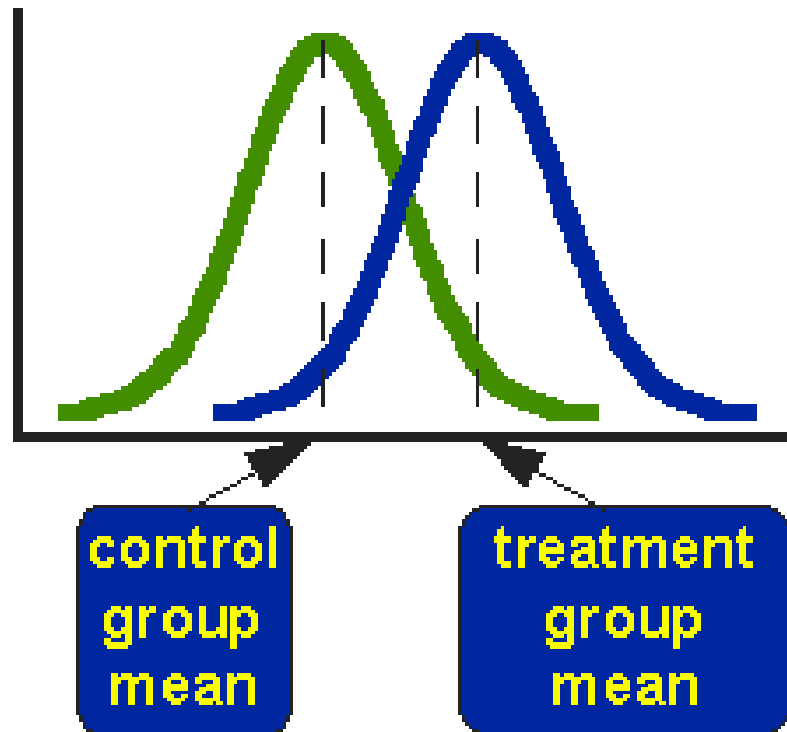
Question: Are mean weights in control are treated groups statistically different?

Difference between means - 3 scenarios



1. The difference between the means is the same in all three.
2. The two groups appear most different or distinct in the bottom or low-variability case.
3. When we are looking at the differences between weights for 2 groups, we must judge the difference between their means relative to variability!

Comparing 2 Groups' Means: t-Test

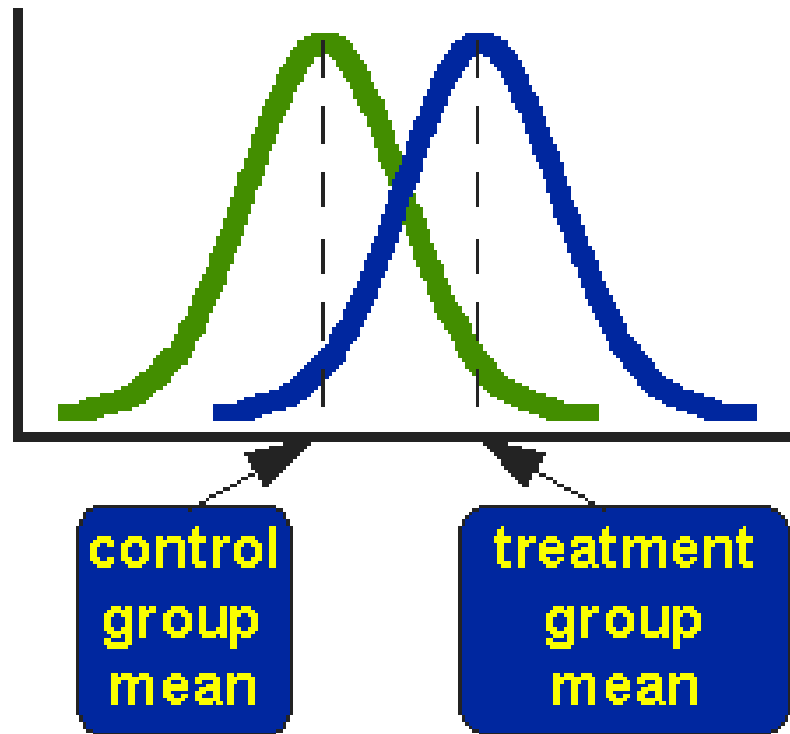


$$\frac{\text{signal}}{\text{noise}} = \frac{\text{difference between two means}}{\text{groups variance}} =$$

$$\frac{\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_C}{SE(\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_C)} = \frac{\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_C}{\sqrt{\frac{\text{var}_T}{n_T} + \frac{\text{var}_C}{n_C}}} = t\text{-value}$$

$$SE(\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_C) = \sqrt{\frac{\text{var}_T}{n_T} + \frac{\text{var}_C}{n_C}}$$

Comparing 2 Groups' Means: t-Test



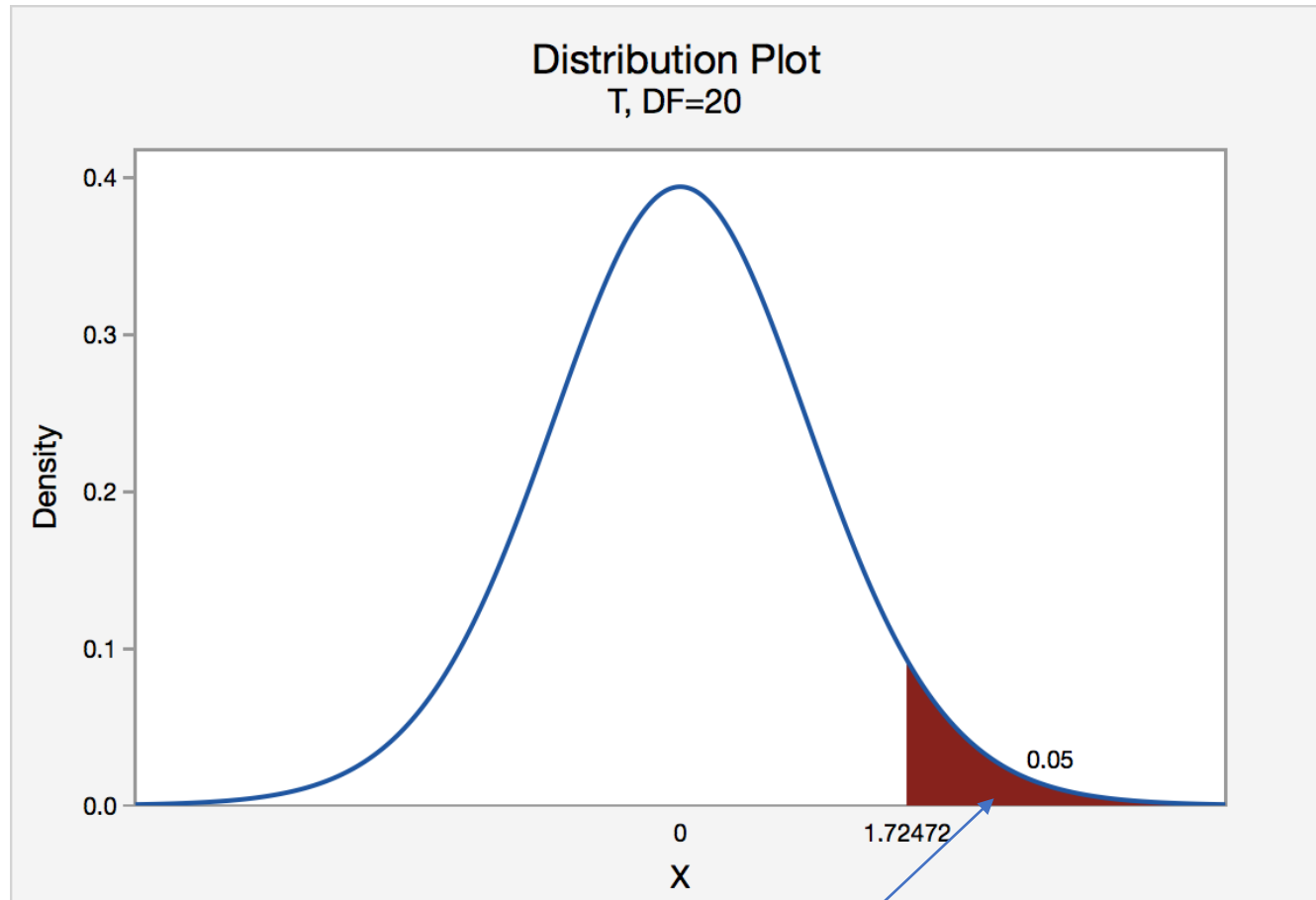
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number of animals in
treated and control groups

Variance in treated
and control groups

Comparing 2 Groups' Means: t-Test

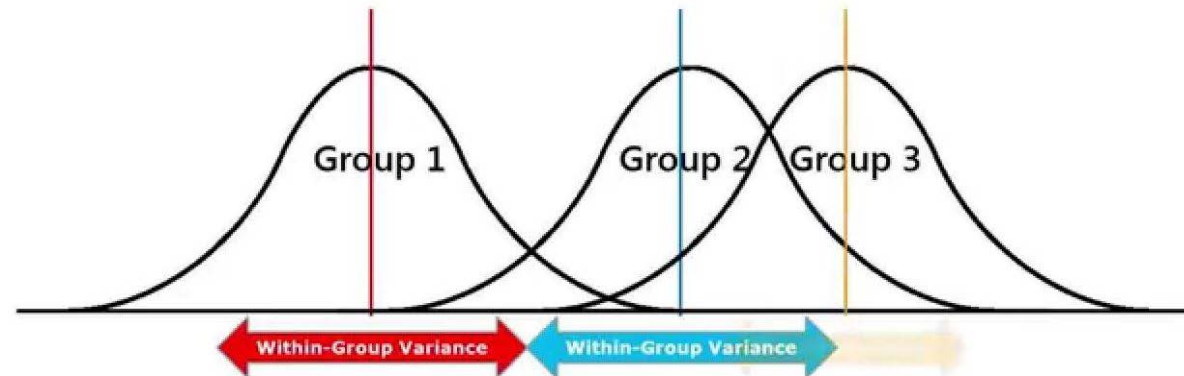
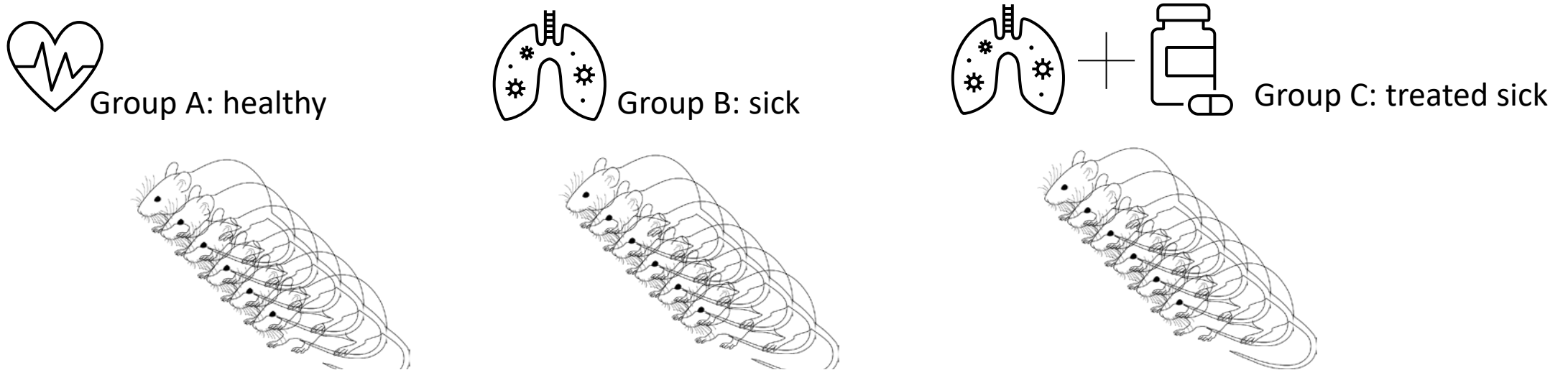


t-value

- Compute the **t-value**.
- To test the significance, you need to set a significant level alpha (usually **alpha = 0.05**). This means that 5% of time you would find a statistically significant difference between the means even if there was none (i.e., by “chance”).
- You also need to determine the degrees of freedom (**df**) for the test = the sum of the mice in both groups minus 2.
- Given the alpha level, the df, and the t-value, you can determine whether the t-value is large enough to be significant.

If it is, you can conclude that the difference between the means for the two groups is different.

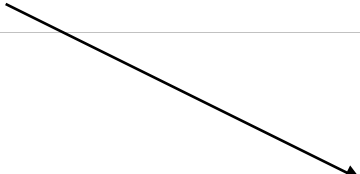
Comparing More Than 2 Groups' Means with ANOVA



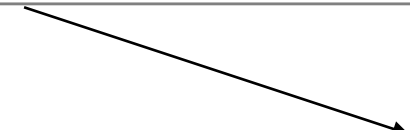
- Null: All group means are equal.
- Alternative: Not all group means are equal.

Comparing More Than 2 Groups' Means with ANOVA

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between	SS_b	$k-1$	MS_b	MS_b/MS_w	p value
Within	SS_w	$N-k$	MS_w		
Total	$SS_b + SS_w$	$N-1$			



Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between	91.476	2	45.733	4.467	.021
Within	276.400	27	10.237		
Total	367.867	29			



df_{between} → $F(2,27) = 4.456, p = .01$ ← F ratio
 F statistic → $F(2,27) = 4.456, p = .01$ ← p -value
 df_{within} → $F(2,27) = 4.456, p = .01$

Comparing More Than 2 Groups' Means with ANOVA and post hoc

The ANOVA test tells you whether you have an overall difference between your groups, but it does not tell you which specific groups differed – post hoc tests do.

Because post hoc tests are run to confirm where the differences occurred between groups, they should only be run when you have shown an overall statistically significant difference in group means.

Post-hoc tests:

- **Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD)** post hoc test - for all pair-wise comparison -
- **Dunnett's test** – for all treatment to control comparisons

Group Assignment

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
Gisane (R)	Arabo (R)	Susie (R)	Tamara (R)	Mher (R)
Arvin	Nerses	Ashkhen	Vardan	Vika
Satenik	Liana	Anush (R)	Hripsime	Nelli

The Royal Guinea Pig Problem



- *Once upon a time there were King and Queen*
- *They had a favorite pet – Peppa the Guinea Pig*
- *And life was great – until one day...*

The Royal Guinea Pig Problem



- *Once upon a time there were King and Queen*
- *They had a favorite pet – Peppa the Guinea Pig*
- *And life was great – until one day... Peppa became very ill*

The Royal Guinea Pig Problem

- The Guinea pig lost appetite and began losing weight . It even stopped eating its favorite treat - carrot
- You are commissioned to find a cure for Peppa – and get half of the Kingdom
- Or else...



Available resources:

- Castle basement full of mice and rats
- 2 types of diet: regular grass or carrot-rich
- 3 natural compounds to use as treatments

Peppa's Information

Age: 5 years 2 months; Sex: Female, Skin Color: Pink;
Favorite snack: carrots

	Last Week	This Week
Diet	Grass and Carrots	Grass
Weight	550g	423g
Food Intake	128g/day	105g/day

Now, Lets Design the Experiment!

Research Question(s):

1. Diagnose Peppa first! You noticed inflammation in the guts.
2. Does the treatment make a difference?
3. Is diet affecting weight?

Endpoints:

1. Body weight
2. Food intake
3. Activity



Define success:

1. Significant difference between sick and treated mice body weight
2. No significant body weight change from the baseline weight

Study design:

1. 5 Treatment groups: Naïve, negative control (harsh chemical to make mice sick), 3 treatments (all sick animals). We will not consider combinations
2. Diet: grass only vs crass + carrots

Data analysis and visualization:

1. t-Test: Naïve vs. Negative control to see if the inflammation made the animals sick
2. ANOVA + pairwise comparison: what treatment9s) work?
3. Dot plots, histograms, boxplots

Reporting :

Explain your results clearly to a non-scientists (aka King and Queen)

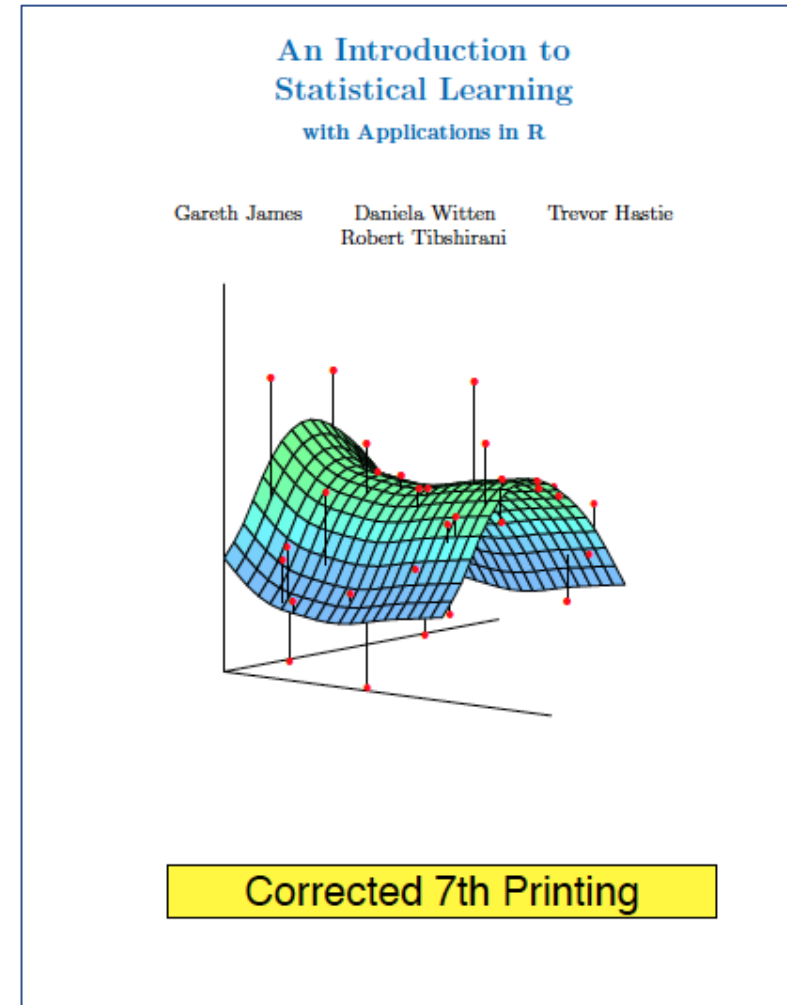
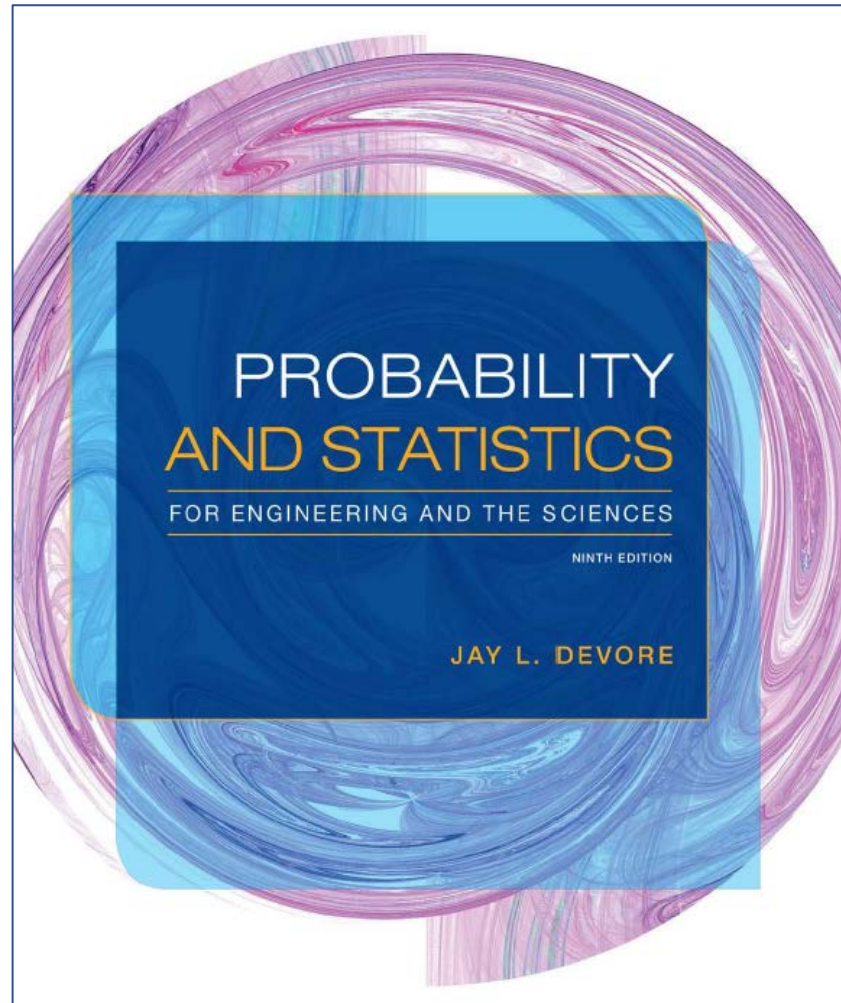
Homework (Due Next Tuesday)



- Clone our GitHub
https://github.com/sargdavid/abi_statistics
- Find the data file in the “data” folder
- Visualize the data (dot plot, histogram, boxplot)
- Data analysis (t-Test, ANOVA with pair-wise comparisons)
- Report the results: what is the best treatment available, and how confident you are that it will work. Hint: take into account the patient’s preferences
- Report limitations of your study

Questions

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<https://www.statlearning.com/>

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An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R

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- >  10 Unsupervised Learning
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Probability: Central Limit Theorem and Bayes' Theorem

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be a random sample from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then if n is sufficiently large, \bar{X} has approximately a normal distribution with $\mu_{\bar{X}} = \mu$ and $\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2 = \sigma^2/n$, and T_o also has approximately a normal distribution with $\mu_{T_o} = n\mu$, $\sigma_{T_o}^2 = n\sigma^2$. The larger the value of n , the better the approximation.

If a statistic T is some linear combination of RV's
Then for large samples $T / \text{SE}(T)$ is
approximately normally distributed regardless
of the population of the data. This is the
fundamental theorem of all statistics.

Bayes' Theorem

Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k be a collection of k mutually exclusive and exhaustive events with *prior* probabilities $P(A_i)$ ($i = 1, \dots, k$). Then for any other event B for which $P(B) > 0$, the *posterior* probability of A_j given that B has occurred is

$$P(A_j|B) = \frac{P(A_j \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A_j)P(A_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(B|A_i) \cdot P(A_i)} \quad j = 1, \dots, k \quad (2.6)$$

Suppose that we assume a model for the Data based on some parameter-s θ , $P(\text{Data} | \theta)$
And suppose we give a prior distribution to θ , $P(\theta)$.
 $P(\theta)$ represents our prior believe before collecting the data and then we collect the data Data.

Then Bayes theorem gives us the posterior distribution of θ given the observe Data

$P(\theta | \text{Data})$ incorporating the observed data to the distribution of θ .

Probability homework

Q 1:

A is a disease : Prostate Cancer $\{A1, A2\}$

A1: Healthy A2: Prostate cancer

B is a genotype variable, it has 3 possible values
 $\{B1, B2, B3\}$

The following tables give the conditional probabilities of A and of B|A

Genotype	Prob(Bj Ai)	
	A1: Healthy	A2: Prostate C.
B1	0.2	0.8
B2	0.4	0.1
B3	0.4	0.1
Total	1	1

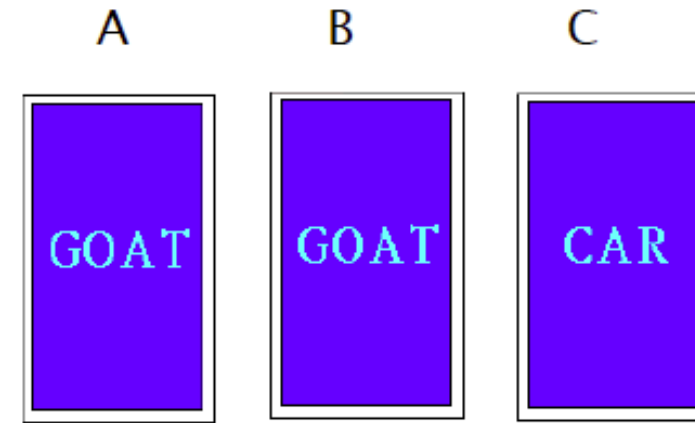
Disease	A1: Healthy	A2: Prostate C.
	0.8	0.2

The Data: For each patient we measure the genotype either B1, B2 or B3.

Calculate the posterior distribution of A (prostate cancer) given a genotype Bj.

Q 2:

Goat game (a TV Game): Behind three closed doors, one has a car, and two have a goat.



- Player chooses one door, say door C
- Game host shows a goat behind a door, say door A
- There are two closed doors left B, C. The player is asked if he would like to switch.

Question : Is it better to switch (S) or not to switch (S^c)?

The Two-Sample t Test and t -Confidence Interval

Pooled t -Interval Procedure

Purpose To find a confidence interval for the difference between two population means, μ_1 and μ_2

Assumptions

1. Simple random samples
2. Independent samples
3. Normal populations or large samples
4. Equal population standard deviations

Step 1 For a confidence level of $1 - \alpha$, use Table IV to find $t_{\alpha/2}$ with $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$.

Step 2 The endpoints of the confidence interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ are

$$(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2) \pm t_{\alpha/2} \cdot s_p \sqrt{(1/n_1) + (1/n_2)},$$

where s_p is the pooled sample standard deviation.

Step 3 Interpret the confidence interval.

Note: The confidence interval is exact for normal populations and is approximately correct for large samples from nonnormal populations.

Pooled t -Test

Purpose To perform a hypothesis test to compare two population means, μ_1 and μ_2

Assumptions

1. Simple random samples
2. Independent samples
3. Normal populations or large samples
4. Equal population standard deviations

Step 1 The null hypothesis is $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$, and the alternative hypothesis is

$$H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \quad \text{or} \quad H_a: \mu_1 < \mu_2 \quad \text{or} \quad H_a: \mu_1 > \mu_2$$

(Two tailed) or (Left tailed) or (Right tailed)

Step 2 Decide on the significance level, α .

Step 3 Compute the value of the test statistic

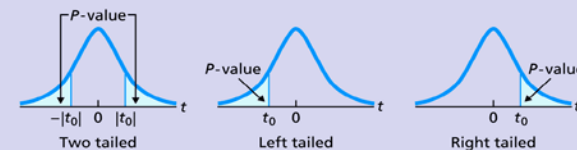
$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{s_p \sqrt{(1/n_1) + (1/n_2)}},$$

where

$$s_p = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}.$$

Denote the value of the test statistic t_0 .

Step 4 The t -statistic has $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$. Use Table IV to estimate the P -value, or obtain it exactly by using technology.



Step 5 If $P \leq \alpha$, reject H_0 ; otherwise, do not reject H_0 .

Single-Factor ANOVA

- The relevant hypotheses are
- $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_I$ (POPULATION MEANS ARE EQUAL)
- versus
- H_a : at least two the of the μ_i 's are different
- If $I = 4$, H_0 is true only if all four μ_i 's are identical. H_a would be true, for example, if

$$\mu_1 = \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 = \mu_4, \text{ if } \mu_1 = \mu_3 = \mu_4 \neq \mu_2,$$

or if all four μ_i 's differ from one another.

- Assumptions
 - Samples are independent
 - Populations are Normal
 - POPULATION VARIANCES ARE EQUAL

The Test Statistic

Mean square for treatments is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MSTr} &= \frac{J}{I-1} [(\bar{X}_{1.} - \bar{X}_{..})^2 + (\bar{X}_{2.} - \bar{X}_{..})^2 + \cdots + (\bar{X}_{I.} - \bar{X}_{..})^2] \\ &= \frac{J}{I-1} \sum_i (\bar{X}_{i.} - \bar{X}_{..})^2 \end{aligned}$$

and mean square for error is

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{S_1^2 + S_2^2 + \cdots + S_I^2}{I}$$

The test statistic for single-factor ANOVA is $F = \text{MSTr}/\text{MSE}$.

Theorem

Let $F = \text{MSTr}/\text{MSE}$ be the test statistic in a single-factor ANOVA problem involving I populations or treatments with a random sample of J observations from each one. When H_0 is true and the basic assumptions of this section are satisfied, F has an F distribution with $\nu_1 = I - 1$ and $\nu_2 = I(J - 1)$. Because a larger f is more contradictory to H_0 than a smaller f , the test is upper-tailed:

$$\begin{aligned} P\text{-value} &= P(F \geq f \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is true}) \\ &= \text{area under the } F_{I-1, I(J-1)} \text{ curve to the right of } f \end{aligned}$$

Statistical software will provide an exact P -value. Refer to Section 9.5 for a description of how our book's table of F critical values, Table A.9, can be used to obtain an upper or lower bound (or both) on the P -value.

Multiple Comparisons in ANOVA

- Several of the most frequently used procedures are based on the following central idea.
- First calculate a confidence interval for each pairwise difference $\mu_i - \mu_j$ with $i < j$. Thus if $I = 4$, the six required CIs would be for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ (but not also for $\mu_2 - \mu_1$), $\mu_1 - \mu_3$, $\mu_1 - \mu_4$, $\mu_2 - \mu_3$, $\mu_2 - \mu_4$, and $\mu_3 - \mu_4$.
- Then if the interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ does not include 0, conclude that μ_1 and μ_2 *differ significantly* from one another; if the interval does include 0, the two μ 's are judged not significantly different.

Tukey's Procedure (the T Method)

With probability $1 - \alpha$,

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{X}_i - \bar{X}_j - Q_{\alpha, I, I(J-1)} \sqrt{\text{MSE}/J} &\leq \mu_i - \mu_j \\ &\leq \bar{X}_i - \bar{X}_j + Q_{\alpha, I, I(J-1)} \sqrt{\text{MSE}/J} \end{aligned} \quad (10.4)$$

for every i and j ($i = 1, \dots, I$ and $j = 1, \dots, I$) with $i < j$.

2^p Factorial Experiments

- If an experimenter wishes to study simultaneously the effect of p different factors on a response variable and the factors have l_1, l_2, \dots, l_p levels, respectively, then a complete experiment requires at least $l_1 \cdot l_2 \cdot \dots \cdot l_p$ observations.

In such situations, the experimenter can often perform a “screening experiment” with each factor at only two levels to obtain preliminary information about factor effects.

An experiment in which there are p factors, each at two levels, is referred to as a **2^p factorial experiment**.

2^3 Experiments

As in Section 11.3, we let X_{ijkl} and x_{ijkl} refer to the observation from the l th replication, with factors A , B , and C at levels i, j , and k , respectively. The model for this situation is

$$X_{ijkl} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \delta_k + \gamma_{ij}^{AB} + \gamma_{ik}^{AC} + \gamma_{jk}^{BC} + \gamma_{ijk} + \epsilon_{ijkl}$$

for $i = 1, 2; j = 1, 2; k = 1, 2; l = 1, \dots, n$. The ϵ_{ijkl} 's are assumed independent, normally distributed, with mean 0 and variance σ^2 .

Because there are only two levels of each factor, the side conditions on the parameters of (11.14) that uniquely specify the model are simply stated:

$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0, \dots, \gamma_{11}^{AB} + \gamma_{21}^{AB} = 0, \gamma_{12}^{AB} + \gamma_{22}^{AB} = 0,$$

$$\gamma_{11}^{AB} + \gamma_{12}^{AB} = 0, \gamma_{21}^{AB} + \gamma_{22}^{AB} = 0,$$

and the like.

These conditions imply that there is only one functionally independent parameter of each type (for each main effect and interaction).