

## 5- Introduction to Statistical Inference

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## Readme

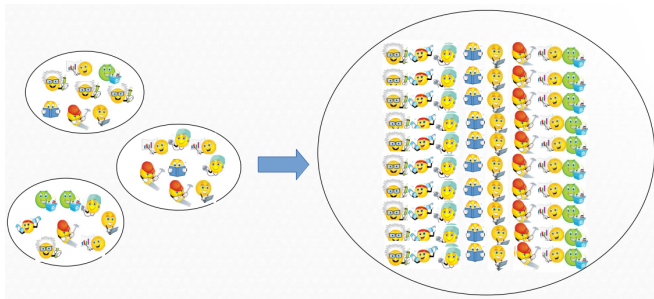
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# Outline

- The objectives of statistical inference
- Examples
- Point estimation. On incidence and prevalence
- Confidence intervals
- Sample size calculations

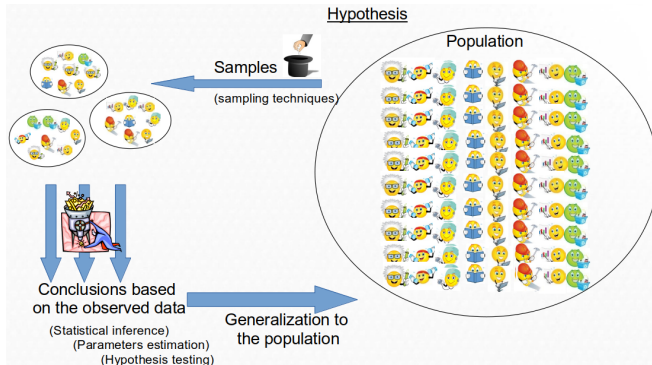
# The objectives of Statistical Inference (I)

Taking the observed (measured) values of a group of samples. . .



we aim at determining the properties of the entire population.

# The objectives of Statistical Inference (II)



# Example

- Consider the data in the “osteoporosis.csv” dataset.
- It can be useful to provide information such as:
  - The percentage of menopausal women with osteoporosis
  - The mean bone density in menopausal or non-menopausal women
  - The existence of significant differences:
    - Observed % of osteoporosis vs “theoretical” population values
    - BUA in menopausal vs non-menopausal
- Answering these questions (and questions like these) is the main goal of Statistical Inference

# Two types of statistical inference problems

- ESTIMATION

- When we wish to *learn some characteristics of our population*, such as
  - The percentage of non osteopenic or menopausal women
  - The mean bone density in each of these groups

- HYPOTHESIS TESTING

- When we wish to *check about some statement on some characteristic of the population* or we wish to make some *comparisons*
  - Is it true that the mean bone density is smaller than 75 in menopausal
  - Can we state that non menopausal women have a higher bone density than menopausal?

# Estimators: Aproximating the value of population parameters

- Numerical values calculated on a sample that we believe to be a good approximation of a certain real value (parameter) in the population.
- Intuitively, we work with many estimators, such as the mean or a computed percentage of a given sample, that we assume that are somehow characterizing a population.
- It is **not always obvious to decide which is the best estimator for each parameter**
- In order to decide which estimator we use we can rely on the *properties* of the estimators such as **the bias** or the **precision (the variance)** of the estimator.



## Example. Computing estimations (1)

- Read the Osteoporosis dataset and turn factors into variables automatically with Rbase function `read.delim`
- Take a sample of size 100 from the original file. Call it 'osteol00' and work with this file from now on.
- Compute the mean value of the variable containing bone density values BUA
- Split the computation between all subgroups from variable `classific` and variable `menop`
- Compute the percentage of menopausal women from variable `menop`

## Example. Computing estimations with R

```
library(dplyr)
```

```
##
```

```
## Attaching package: 'dplyr'
```

```
## The following objects are masked from 'package:stats':
```

```
##
```

```
##      filter, lag
```

```
## The following objects are masked from 'package:base':
```

```
##
```

```
##      intersect, setdiff, setequal, union
```

```
# Read data
```

```
osteoporosis <- read.delim2("~/Dropbox (Nuevo Equipo VHIR10
```

```
# Take subsample
```

```
osteo100 <- sample_n(osteoporosis, 100)
```

```
# mean bone density
```

```
buaMean <- mean(osteo100$bua)
```

```
print(buaMean)
```

## Exercise 2

- Read the diabetes dataset. Convert characters into factors before continuing.
- Provide an estimate of
  - The distribution of a numerical variable.
  - a proportion of at least one categorical variable and
  - the mean value of at least one numerical variable.
- Could you have used different estimators?
- How would you decide?

# How precise is an estimator?

- We all are familiar with “forks” associated with voting results.
  - They usually start “wide” and tend to disappear as more votes are counted.
- Imagine you are given an estimate of 18% for the incidence of a certain disease.
- Is it a good estimate?
- Hard to know without more information
  - $18 \pm 2$  is probably useful
  - $18 \pm 12$  is probably too wide to be considered useful
- So given an estimator and a n estimation (a value) **how can we provide a measure of how precise this estimation is?**

# The *Standard Error* of an estimator

- An obvious question when we choose an estimator is *how precise it is to approximate the value of the population parameter*.
- This can be answered using the **standard error of the estimator**
- The standard error is a great quantity :
  - It informs about the *precision* of our estimates
  - Helps build another type of estimators: *confidence intervals*
  - Helps find formulae to compute *sample size* for estimation

## Some standard errors

- Standard error of the sample mean

$$SEM = \frac{\hat{s}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- Standard error of the sample proportion

$$SEP = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}}$$

# Computing the standard error with R

- R does not usually include a function for standard errors, although it can be easily programmed.

```
SEM <- function (x){sd(x)/sqrt(length(x))}
```

```
SEP <- function (x){  
  ssize <- length(x)  
  p <- sum(x)/ssize  
  return(sqrt(p*(1-p)/ssize))  
}
```

# Confidence intervals

- Confidence intervals are based on standard errors
- Confidence interval for the mean

$$\underbrace{\bar{X} - t_{\epsilon/2} \frac{\hat{s}}{\sqrt{n}}}_{\text{Precision}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{X} + t_{\epsilon/2} \frac{\hat{s}}{\sqrt{n}} = \bar{\mathbf{X}} \pm \mathbf{t}_{\epsilon/2} \cdot \text{SEM}$$

- Confidence interval for the proportion

$$\underbrace{\hat{p} - z_{\epsilon/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}}}_{\text{Precision}} \leq \mu \leq \hat{p} + z_{\epsilon/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{p}} \pm \mathbf{z}_{\epsilon/2} \cdot \text{SEM}$$

## Example. Computing Confidence Intervals with R

- In general R does not compute (has no functions) for the direct calculation of confidence intervals
- This can be done by calling the corresponding tests functions such as `t.test` or `prop.test`
- Some R commander plugins such as EZR allow this computations directly



## Example. Computing Confidence Intervals with R (2)

```
t.test(osteo100[["bua"]])  
##  
## One Sample t-test  
##  
## data:  osteo100[["bua"]]  
## t = 44.079, df = 99, p-value < 2.2e-16  
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0  
## 95 percent confidence interval:  
##  71.34689 78.07311  
## sample estimates:  
## mean of x  
##      74.71
```

## Example. Computing Confidence Intervals with R (3)

```
cntMenop <- table(osteo100[["menop"]])["SI"]
ssize <- length(osteo100[["menop"]])
prop.test (x=cntMenop, n=ssize)

##
## 1-sample proportions test with continuity correction
##
## data:  cntMenop out of ssize, null probability 0.5
## X-squared = 9.61, df = 1, p-value = 0.001935
## alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.5
## 95 percent confidence interval:
##  0.5576555 0.7498823
## sample estimates:
##      p
## 0.66
```

# Sample Size for estimation (1)

- The standard error informs of how precise an estimation is **if one knows the variability and the sample size**

$$SE = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- We can proceed in the opposite sense: assuming we know:
  - ① the variability (e.g. from a pilot study) and
  - ② the highest precision we wish to attain (“arm length” of a confidence interval:

$$\Delta = z_{\epsilon_2} \cdot SE = z_{\epsilon_2} \cdot \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

## Sample Size for estimation (2)

- The sample size needed to attain this precision can be isolated from the previous equation:

$$n = \frac{z_{\epsilon_2}^2 \hat{\sigma}^2}{\Delta^2}$$

# Sample size example formulae

# Sample size calculations with R