# Advanced Statistics for Neuroscience Exam preparation

#### **Topics**

- 1. Mean, median, mode (10pt)
  - Be able to calculate by hand
- 2. Distributions (10pt)
  - Names, values integers or not, positive or not, infinite or not, one or two parameters
- 3. Normally distributed samples (10pt)
  - Formulas for mean, variance, etc.
- 4. T-test, F-test, Chi-square-test, KS-test (10pt)
  - What does each test, what properties do they compare
- 5. Measures for pairwise association (10pt)
  - formulas for Pearson, Rank-Order, Chi-square, mutual information
- 6. Linear regression (10pt)
  - Formulas for sum of squared errors and estimated variance, interpretation of log likelihood and BIC
- 7. Logistic regression (10pt)
  - probabilities and logits, construction of design matrices, formula for binomial variance
- 8. FDR correction (10pt)
  - Apply Benjamini-Hochberg criterion to p-values
- 9. Boostratpping (10pt)
  - Explain computational steps of bootstrapping
- 10. Linear discriminant analysis (10pt)
  - explain computational steps of LDA and potentially formulas
- 11. Formulas

#### Mean, median, mode

 $\underline{Mean}$  is the average of a set.  $\underline{Median}$  is the point that divides a distribution into two areas of equal size, i.e. the middle point (if dataset has an even number of points, take the average of the two center values).  $\underline{Mode}$  is the most probable point (the most frequent number in the dataset).

Variability, how spread out are the observations in a distribution. Typically measured as a distance from the mean.  $\underline{Variance}$  is the average squared difference from the mean.

Mean:

$$\mu_x = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

*Variance*, true variance can only be calculated when the true mean  $(\mu)$  of the distribution is known:

$$Var(x) = \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \langle x \rangle)^2$$

Standard deviation is the square root of variance:

$$Std(x) = \sqrt{Var(x)}$$

#### **Distributions**

Unimodal, bimodal, multimodal be careful not to confuse bimodal and binomial

Normal distribution - a Gaussian distribution with zero-mean and unit variance, symbol for Normal distribution is  $\Phi$ . Can include positive or negative numbers. Dependent on the parameters  $\mu$  (mean) and  $\sigma$  (standard deviation,  $\sigma^2$  is variance)

Gamma distribution - a two parameter distribution that includes the shape parameter  $\alpha$  and scale parameter  $\theta$  (or instead of the scale parameter, the rate parameter  $\lambda = 1/\theta$ ). Exponential and chi-square distributions are examples of gamma distributions. Only include positive numbers.

 $Lognormal\ distribution$  - grows in multiplicative scale, always takes positive values. Many biological observations happen in lognormal distribution

Bernoulli distribution- a distribution describing the outcome of a binary experiment. A special case of the binomial distribution.

Poisson distribution - "the law of rare events", the probability of a given number of events happening in a fixed interval of time. Defined only at positive integer values, where  $\lambda$  is the expected rate of occurence. As  $\lambda$  grows, the curve gets lower and more spread out.

When the area to the left of the mode is larger, it is called 'negative skew', when the right area to the right of mode is larger, it is 'positive skew'

Chi-square distribution  $\chi^2$ 

#### Normally distributed samples

Mean and variance of normally distributed data are listed in Section 1.

Additionally, can incorporate Bessel's correction, a means for correcting for sample variance where we have n observations  $x_i$  but no further information (whereas in the original variance we have the *true population mean*  $\mu$ ), this incorporates  $\frac{1}{N-1}$  such that we get a corrected sample variance of:

$$m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_{i}, \qquad s^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i} (x_{i} - m)^{2}$$

For normally distributed samples, the expected value of Bessel's correct variance equals true variance.

Standard error calculates the standard deviation of the sample mean. It's value is inferred, not observed, since it is extrapolating from a hypothetical scenario where we repeatedly collect new samples many times, it is calculated for true variance as:

$$SE(x) = \frac{Std(x)}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

But when variance and mean are calculated from sample population, SE(x) is calculated as:

$$SE(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i} (x_i - m)^2}$$

Z-Scoring is when we normalize a dataset to the mean and standard deviation, and is useful for identifying how far a sample deviates from the mean. Calculated as such:

$$z_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}$$

#### T-test, F-test, Chi-square-test, KS-test

T-test is a test for whether two populations differ under the null distribution.

$$t_m = \frac{m - \mu_0}{s^2 / \sqrt{n}}, \qquad m = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i, \qquad s^2 = \frac{1}{n - 1} \sum_i (x_i - m)^2$$

Where  $\mu_0$  is the hypothetical true mean that we are testing our sample mean against.

The Student's t-distribution tells us how an observed sample mean is distributed around the true mean when we don't know the true variance. We can use the t-test for performing hypothesis testing, i.e. that the hypothesis is either: due to chance (the null hypothesis  $H_0$ ) or not due to chance (alternate hypothesis  $H_1$ ). This requires us to select a level of significance, known as the  $\alpha$ , often something like  $\alpha = 0.05$  (5%) or lower. In a normal distribution, 95.4 of the probability

mass function falls within  $\pm 2\sigma$  of  $\mu$ . Typically the p-value is selected from a table that correlates p-values to t-statistics

Independent (unpaired) t-test is used when we have two independent sample sets—such as wild-type and mutants—and want to test whether the means are significantly different. Calculate the sample means and variance for each group as above, then calculate the standard error of the difference as:

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$$

Where  $s_1^2$  and  $n_1$  are the sample variance and n for sample 1, and  $s_2^2$  and  $n_2$  are the sample variance and n for sample 2. The test statistic for the difference is then:

$$t_{diff} = \frac{(m_1 - m_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{SE}$$

Which, for the null hypothesis that  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$  becomes:

$$t_{diff} = \frac{(m_1 - m_2)}{SE}$$

With  $n_1 + n_2 - 2$  degrees of freedom

Paired (dependent) t-test is used when we have paired samples, such as observations of the same n individuals before and after treatment. Must first calculate the average distance between sample pairs:

$$m_D = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i, \qquad d_i = x_{1i} - x_{2i}$$

Where  $x_{1i}$  and  $x_{2i}$  are the same subject between two conditions. Then the estimated variance becomes:

$$s_D^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (d_i - m_D)^2$$

and the standard error of differences becomes:

$$SE_D = \frac{s_D}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Giving us a test statistic of:

$$t_{diff} = \frac{m_D}{SE_D} = \frac{m_D}{s_D/\sqrt{n}}$$

F-test measures for differences in variance. Two distributions may have similar means but different variances. The F-statistic is the ratio of the two sample variances:

$$f = \frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$$

Chi-square test allows us to infer whether two sample sets are drawn from the same or different distributions. Used for **binned** datasets, i.e. **will only accept positive integers**. For continuous data, we use the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (KS).

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(n_i - e_i)^2}{e_i}$$

Where N is the number of distinct categories the observations are binned into, i is all of the integers between  $\{1, ..., N\}$ ,  $n_i$  is the number observed in each bin, and  $n_e$  is the number expected per bin.

#### Measures for pairwise association

Parametric tests assume normal distribution, non-parametric tests don't.

*Pearson's r*: also known as linear correlation coefficient, is a parametric test. Given paired observations  $(x_i, y_i)$ , with i = 1, 2, ..., N, r is calculated as:

$$r = \frac{(x_i - \mu_x)(y_i - \mu_y)}{\sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - \mu_x)^2} \sqrt{\sum_i (y_i - \mu_y)^2}}$$

Calculation of variance ignores Bessel's correction since the N is assumed to be large.

Non-parametric (rank-order) correlations don't assume normality about the distribution. Nonparametric correlation is more robust when the corrolation is monotonic and nonlinear, as well as more resistant to outliers.

To obtain rank-order correlation, sort all values of  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  separately in ascending order and replace the value with it's rank (1, 2, 3, ..., N), assigning all 'ties' (i.e. multiple identical values) to the mean of the ranks.

Spearman Rank-Order Correlation: Let  $R_i$  be the rank of  $x_i$  among all x values, and  $S_i$  be the rank of  $y_i$  among all y values, then rank-order correlation is:

$$r_s = \frac{\sum_{i} (R_i - \mu_R)(S_i - \mu_S)}{\sqrt{\sum_{i} (R_i - \mu_R)^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i} (S_i - \mu_S)^2}}$$

Where means are calculated as:

$$\mu_R = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i R_i, \qquad \mu_S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i S_i$$

Significance is calculated from t-statistic of  $r_s$  with N-2 degrees of freedom:

$$t = r_s \sqrt{\frac{N-2}{1-r_s^2}}$$

Information-based measures of association include *Shannon information*. Mutual information as a fraction of marginal entropies is expressed as:

$$U(x,y) = 2\frac{H(x) + H(y) - H(x,y)}{H(x) + H(y)}$$

The result of this is 0 if x and y are independent, and unity if they are perfectly dependent.

Kendall's Tau and Wilcoxon rank-sum test are other nonparametric tests, with Kendall's tau using relative rank (higher/lower) and Wilcoxon rank-sum testing for medians of data.

#### Linear regression

Linear regression attempts to fit a line to a set of data using linear least squares, trying to minimize the summed square error (SSE). When attempting to fit N observations  $(x_i, y_i)$  to a straight line such that y(x) = y(x; a, b) = a + bx, and assuming that uncertainty  $\sigma_i$  is known then using the following equations:

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{N} [y_i - y(x_i)]^2$$

$$S = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}, \qquad S_x = \sum_{i} \frac{x_i}{\sigma_i^2}, S_y = \sum_{i} \frac{y_i}{\sigma_i^2}$$
 (1)

$$S_{xx} = \sum_{i} \frac{x_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}, \qquad S_{xy} = \sum_{i} \frac{x_i y_i}{\sigma_i^2}$$
 (2)

If we assume the data to be normally distributed with uniform standard deviation  $\sigma$ , the denominators become 1, and the formulas can be simplified as:

$$S = \sum_{i} 1 = N, \qquad S_x = \sum_{i} x_i^n, \qquad S_y = \sum_{i} y_i$$
 (3)

$$t_i = (x_i^n - \frac{S_x}{S}), \qquad S_t t = \sum_i t_i^2, \qquad S_{ty} = \sum_i t_i y_i$$
 (4)

$$\hat{b} = \frac{S_{ty}}{S_{tt}}, \qquad \hat{a} = \frac{S_y - S_x \hat{b}}{S} \tag{5}$$

Where n is the degree of fit, i.e. 1 for a linear fit, 2 for quadratic.

#### Logistic regression

Design matrix X must be chosen in such a way that teh inner product matrix S is invertible.

$$S = X^T \cdot X$$

Logistic regression: models the log-odds of an event as a linear combination of one or more independent variables. The data must be discrete counts or proportions, i.e. survivors of a treatment, successes in a trial. Uses a logistic function for mapping between real numbers  $\lambda \in [-\infty, +\infty]$  and probabilities  $\pi \in [0, 1]$ .

Must define a **logit parameter**  $\lambda \in [-\infty, +\infty]$  as a logarithmic function of probability  $\pi \in [0, 1]$ 

$$\lambda = \ln(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi})$$
 FDR correction Boostrapping Linear discriminant analysis

## Formulas

### Normal Distribution

$$\Phi(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} exp^{\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$