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Three kinds of lies- a brief introduction to statistics

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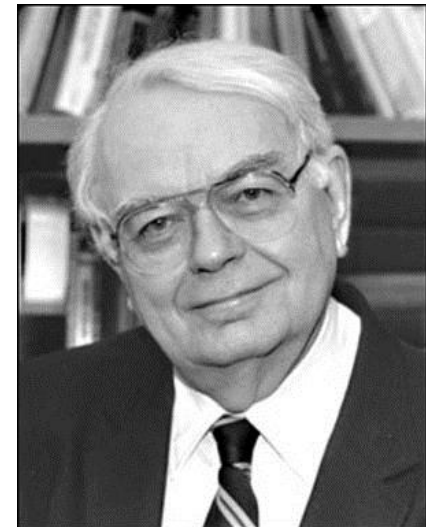


“There are three kinds of lies: lies, damned lies and statistics”

Attributed to Benjamin
Disraeli (1804-1881) by Mark
Twain



“Its easy to lie with statistics,
but it’s easier to lie without
them” Charles Frederick
Mosteller (statistician)





Why do we need statistics

- To separate what is a real difference (in an experiment) and what is caused by 'noise' (random biological and experimental variation)
- Human brains are built to find patterns – need something objective to confirm our judgement

Basic idea of statistics

- Using limited amounts of data to draw general conclusions
- Sample versus population
- Gather data from a sample of a population
- Use rules of probability to draw conclusions about the whole population
- What is the 'sample' and 'population' in the following?
 - Clinical trial
 - Enzyme assay on tissue cultured cells

Need for independent samples

- Statistical tests assume that each experimental unit (variable) was sampled (measured) independently of the others
- How many independent experimental units:
 - You are measuring blood pressure in animals. You have five animals in each group, and measure the blood pressure three times in each animal.
 - You have done a biochemical experiment three times, each time in triplicate.

Types of data (levels of measurement)

- Nominal scale (categories)
 - e.g gender, strain, genotype
- Ordinal Scale (ranks)
 - scoring system (e.g. Glasgow coma scale)
- Interval scale
 - E.g. Temperature in celcius
- Ratio scale
 - Most of the things we measure (e.g. weight, enzyme activity)



Increasing information



Why is this important?

- Experiments designed to find relationships between variables
- Dictates how to manipulate and present your data
- Dictates what statistical tests are appropriate

OK to compute:	Nominal	Ordinal	Interval	Ratio
Frequency distribution	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Median and percentiles	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Add or subtract	No	No	Yes	Yes
Mean, standard deviation, SEM	No	No	Yes	Yes
Ratio, or coefficient of variation	No	No	No	Yes
Statistical tests:				
Non-parametric	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Parametric	No	No	Yes	Yes

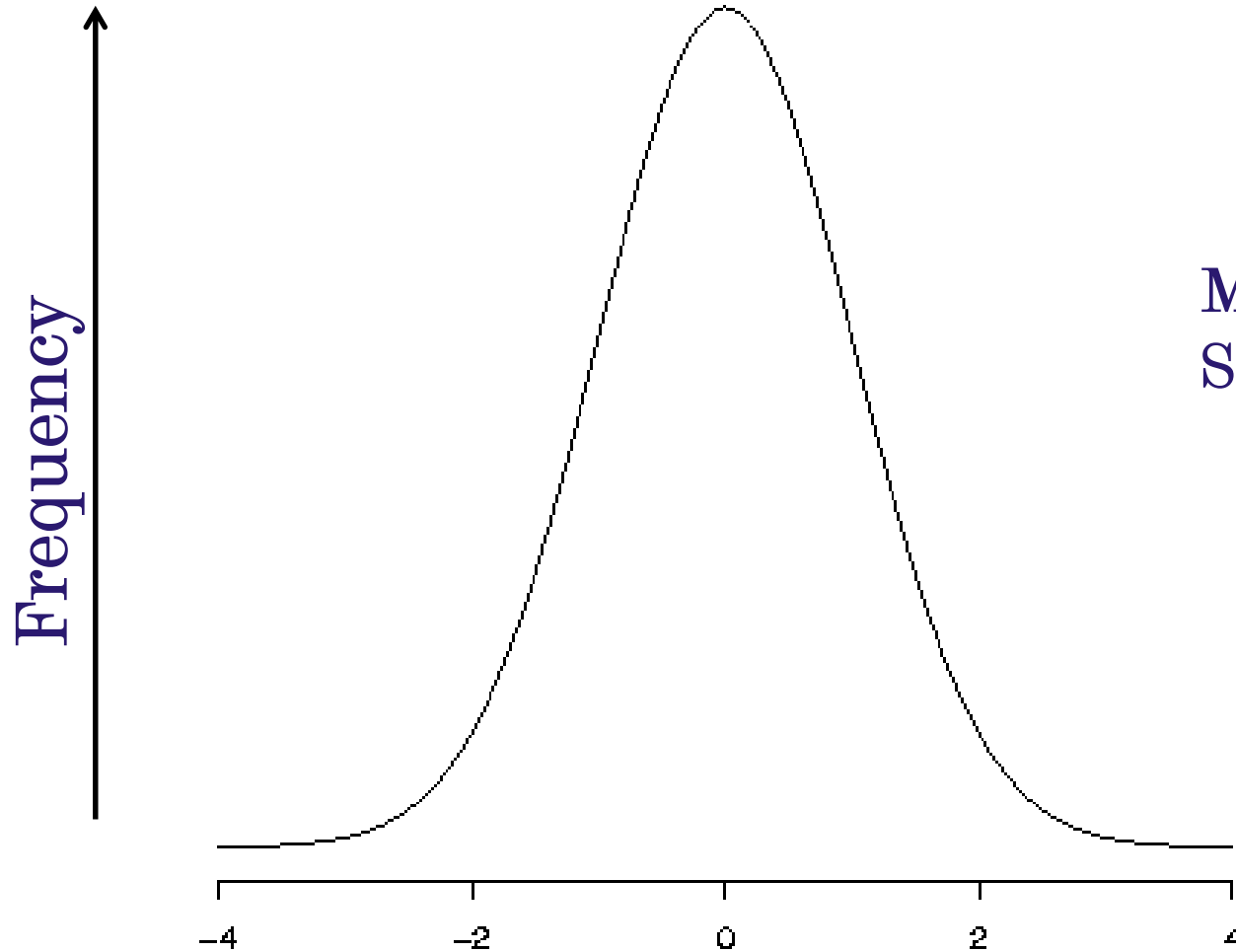
Parametric vs Non-parametric

- Parametric
 - Assumes the data you have sampled has come from a particular probability distribution
- Non-parametric
 - Probability distribution free
- What distribution is typically used in biomedical applications?



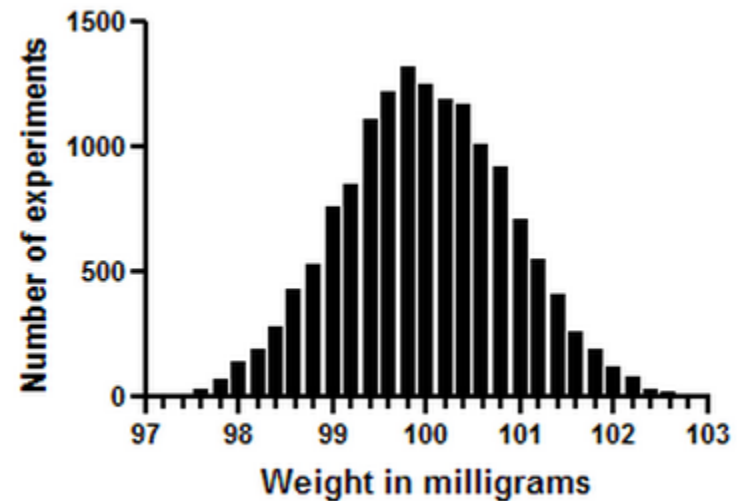
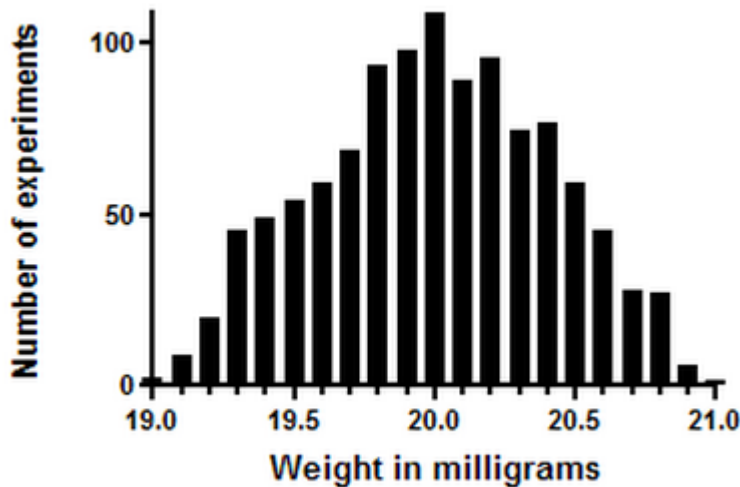
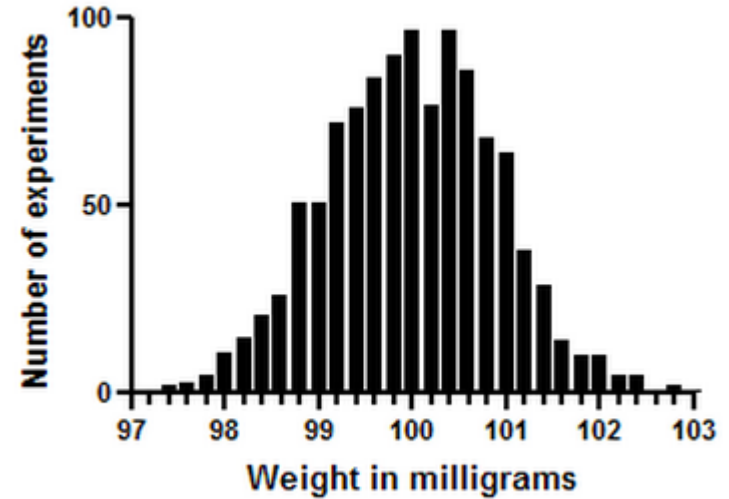
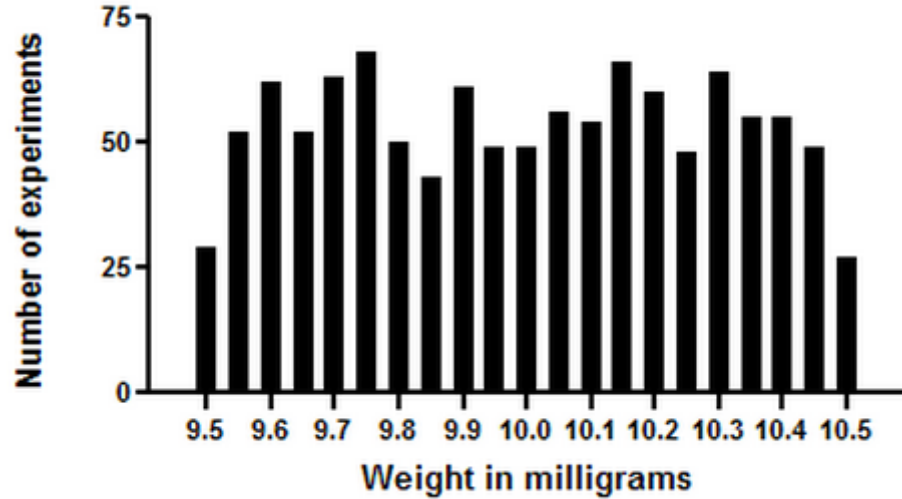
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The Normal (or Gaussian) Distribution



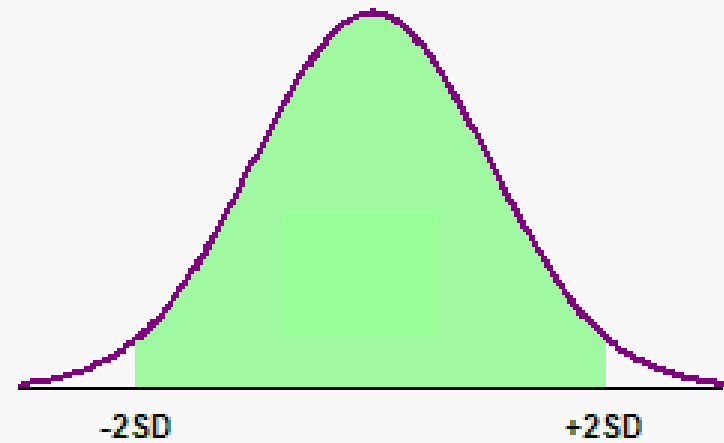
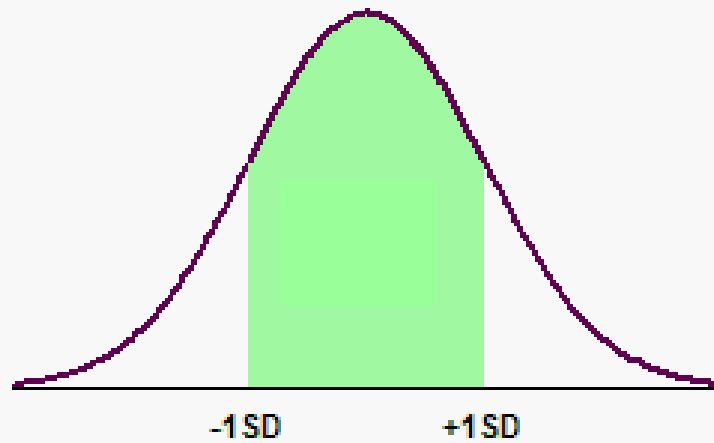


The Normal (or Gaussian) Distribution



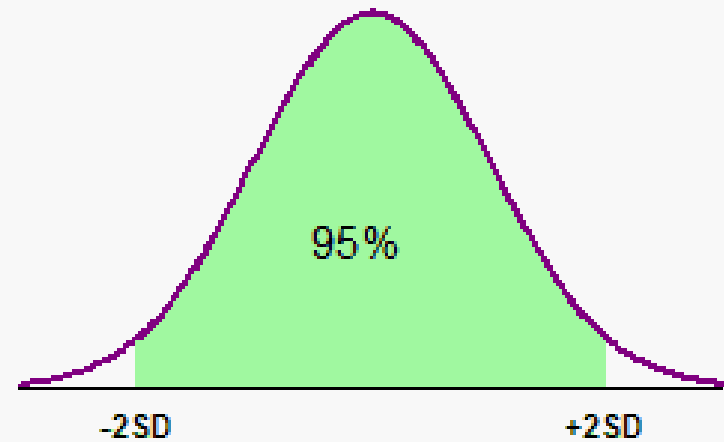
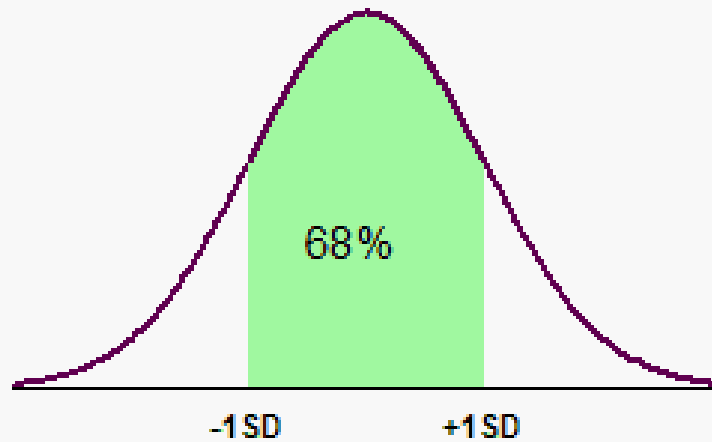


Standard deviation (SD) and normal distribution





Standard deviation (SD) and normal distribution

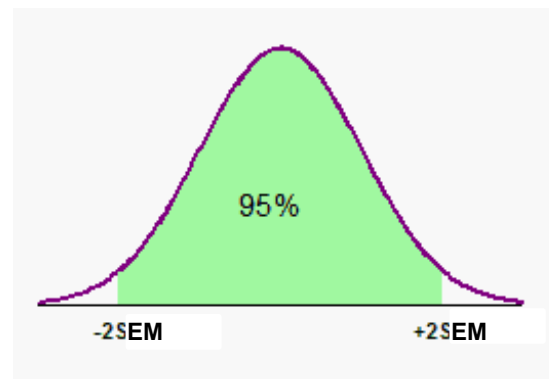


$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(\bar{x} - x)^2}{n - 1}}$$

- Subtract each value from the mean and square it
- Add those up
- Divide by the number of values less 1

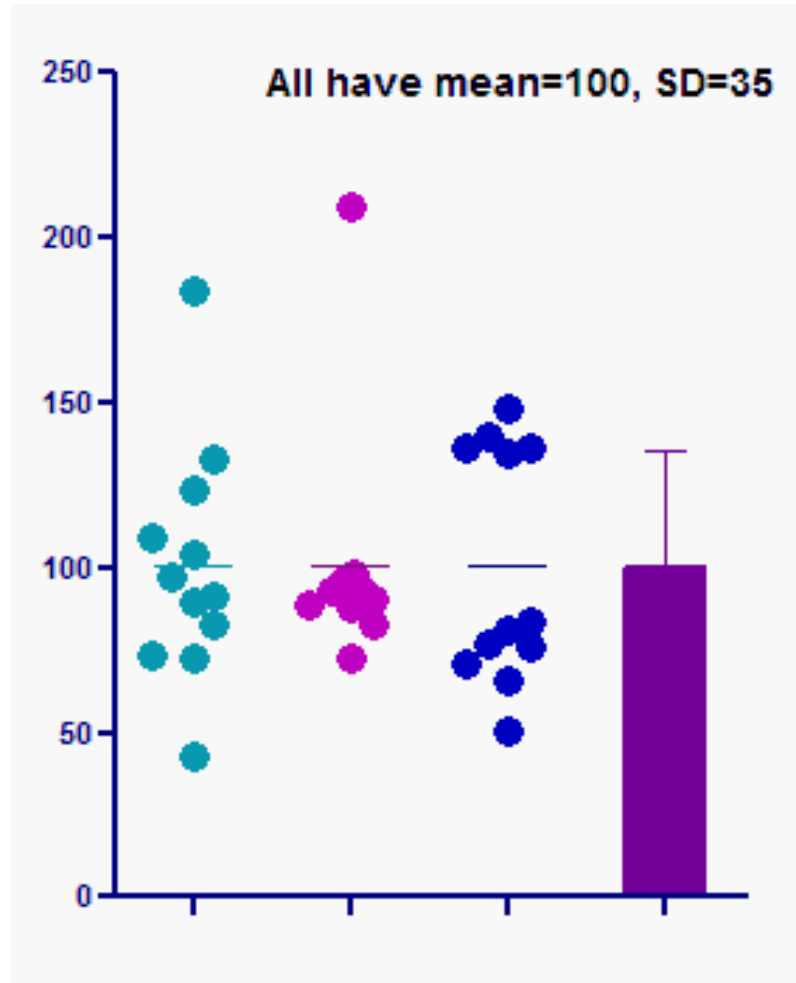
Standard Error of the Mean (SEM)

- Does this measure variability within your sample?
- No- quantifies the precision of the mean
- If you run the experiment again, the SEM gives an indication of where mean will fall
- Can use to generate confidence intervals (CI)





Beware assuming Gaussian distribution when interpreting SD



P values and statistical testing

- When testing if two groups of data differ (e.g Student's T test)
- First hypothesise that the two groups are identical (come from the same normal distribution)
- Called the 'null hypothesis'
- Assuming null hypothesis is true, what is the probability (p-value) of observing that data
- If p is large – null hypothesis is likely to be true
- If p is small– null hypothesis is likely to be false
 - Reject null hypothesis at given significance level (usually $p < 0.05$)

What does $p < 0.05$ mean?

- Arbitrary value
- Means that the observed difference had a 5% chance of being observed if null hypothesis was true
- OR 'there is a 5% chance or less of observing a difference as large as you observed even if the two population means are identical (the null hypothesis is true).

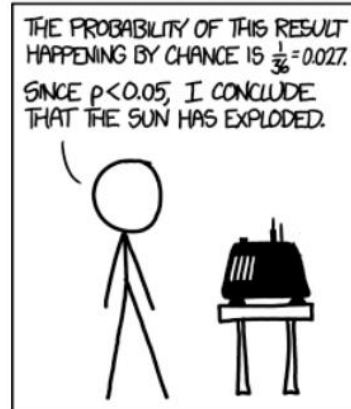


FREQUENTISTS VS. BAYESIANS

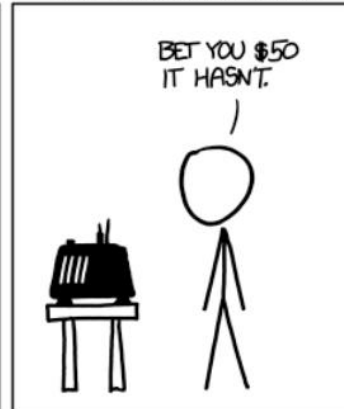
DID THE SUN JUST EXPLODE?
(IT'S NIGHT, SO WE'RE NOT SURE.)



FREQUENTIST STATISTICIAN:



BAYESIAN STATISTICIAN:





PROBABLE CAUSE

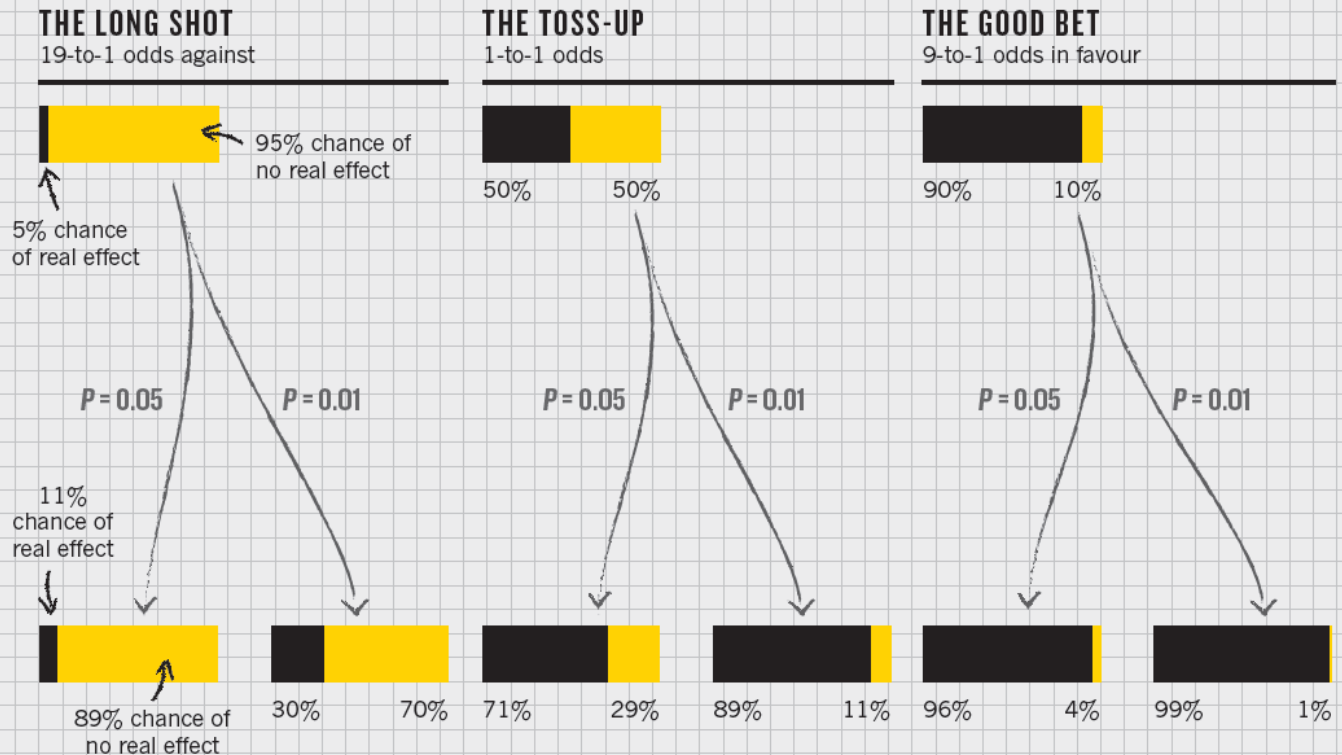
A *P* value measures whether an observed result can be attributed to chance. But it cannot answer a researcher's real question: what are the odds that a hypothesis is correct? Those odds depend on how strong the result was and, most importantly, on how plausible the hypothesis is in the first place.

■ Chance of real effect
■ Chance of no real effect

Before the experiment
The plausibility of the hypothesis — the odds of it being true — can be estimated from previous experiments, conjectured mechanisms and other expert knowledge. Three examples are shown here.

The measured *P* value
A value of 0.05 is conventionally deemed 'statistically significant'; a value of 0.01 is considered 'very significant'.

After the experiment
A small *P* value can make a hypothesis more plausible, but the difference may not be dramatic.

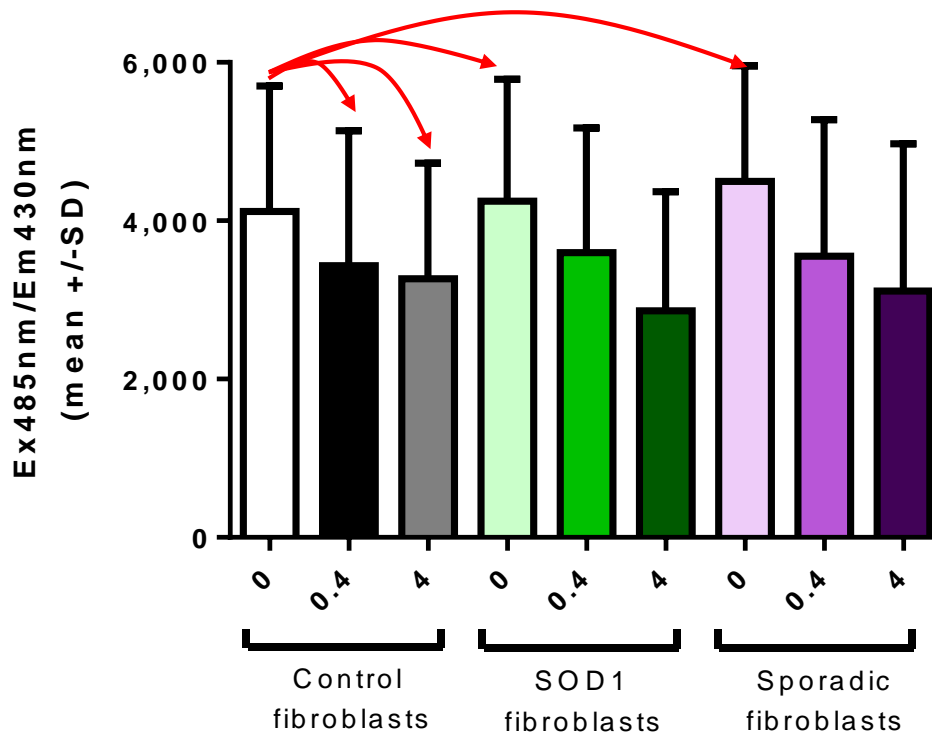


<http://www.nature.com/news/scientific-method-statistical-errors-1.14700>



Beware multiple testing

- Student's independent T Test is a parametric test for comparing two independent samples
- What if you had more than two samples?



18 comparisons

$$18 * 0.05 = 0.9$$

- Bonferroni correction. Simply divide threshold p-value by number of comparisons being made

Age (days)	35	42	50	56	63	70	77	84	91	98	105
Intensity - fore paws	0.034	NS	0.0207	0.0083	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0175	0.0323	NS
- hind paws	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0202	0.0453	0.0317	0.0043	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
Print Width - fore paws	NS	0.0078	0.0172	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0217	0.0088	0.0016	0.0002
- hind paws	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0185
Print Length - fore paws	NS	0.0011	< 0.0001	0.0005	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0492	0.0244	0.0109
- hind paws	NS	0.0408	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Print Area - fore paws	NS	NS	0.0213	0.0014	NS	NS	NS	0.0326	0.0399	0.0034	0.0001
- hind paws	NS	NS	NS	0.0169	NS	0.002	0.0113	NS	0.0463	NS	NS
Stand time - forelimb	NS	NS	< 0.0001	NS	< 0.0001	NS	< 0.0001	0.001	0.0001	0.0009	< 0.0001
- hindlimb	NS	NS	0.0074	NS	< 0.0001	NS	0.0016	NS	0.0001	0.0021	0.0001
Paw angle - fore paws	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0477	NS	NS	NS
- hind paws	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0465	NS	NS	NS
Swing - forelimb	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0314	NS	NS	NS	0.0278	0.0097	0.002
- hindlimb	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0061	NS	NS	0.05	NS
Stride length - front	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.039	NS	NS	0.0036	0.0045	0.0002	< 0.0001
- back	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0339	NS	NS	0.0005	0.0003	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
Duty cycle - forelimbs	NS	NS	< 0.0001	0.0195	0.0073	NS	NS	0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
- hindlimbs	0.0415	NS	NS	NS	0.0181	NS	NS	0.0053	< 0.0001	0.0007	0.0001
Max contact at % - fore	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0088
- hind	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0055
Swing speed - fore limb	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
- hind limb	NS	NS	0.0228	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0193	NS	NS	NS
Stand index - fore limb	NS	NS	0.0011	NS	0.0044	NS	NS	0.0117	0.0202	0.0416	0.0193
- hind limb	NS	NS	0.0053	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0052
Duration	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0322	NS	NS	0.0412	0.037
Step pattern #	NS	0.0173	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0248	0.0034	NS	0.0051
Step pattern Ca	0.0414	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Step pattern Cb	NS	NS	NS	0.0372	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0041	0.0039	0.0088
Step pattern Aa	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0211	NS	0.0019	0.018	0.0002
Step pattern Ab	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.0353	NS	0.0001	0.0005	< 0.0001

42 different
measures at 11
different
timepoints (462
comparisons)
P-value cut-off
<0.00011

ANOVA

- Analysis of variance
- Can cope with multiple comparisons
- Compares the variances within groups to the variances between them



ANOVA example

	Group1	Group2
Replicate 1	2	6
Replicate 2	3	7
Replicate 3	1	5
Mean		
Sum of squared differences from mean		
Overall mean		
Overall sum of squares		

‘Sum of squared differences from the mean’ is an estimate of the variance (used to calculate SD earlier)

$$\Sigma (\bar{x}-x)^2$$



ANOVA example

	Group1	Group2
Replicate 1	2	6
Replicate 2	3	7
Replicate 3	1	5
Mean	2	6
Sum of squared differences from mean	2	2
Overall mean	4	
Overall sum of squares	28	

Power of ANOVA is that it can take account of multiple variables and calculate interaction effects between these variables and so is statistically more powerful than a T-test

What about non-parametric tests?

- Mann-Whitney U-Test
- Doesn't assume data come from any distribution
- Works on *ranking* the data
- The magnitude of the data values is therefore irrelevant
- Use for ordinal data or if sample sizes small/not normally distributed

Mann-Whitney U test

	Width of leaf / cm							
Sunlight	6.0	4.8	5.1	5.5	4.1	5.3	4.5	5.1
Shade	6.5	5.5	6.3	7.2	6.8	5.5	5.9	5.5

Put data in rank order then sum up the ranks

Sunlight	Rank	Rank	Shade
4.1	1		
4.5	2		
4.8	3		
5.1	4.5		
5.1	4.5		
5.3	6		
5.5	8.5		
		8.5	5.5
		8.5	5.5
		8.5	5.5
		11	5.9
6.0	12		
		13	6.3
		14	6.5
		15	6.8
		16	7.2
R₁ =	41.5	94.5	= R₂

Mann-Whitney U test

- Calculate U value for each group (normalises data depending on sample size)
- U value can then be read off statistical tables
- Note that these types of tests are less statistically powerful than parametric tests
- For more than two groups use the Kruskal-Wallis test

Summary

- Plan your experiment before you start
 - Choose statistical methodology
- Understand the basis for the chosen test
- Be confident you can defend your choice