MARROW

2024 NEET-SS

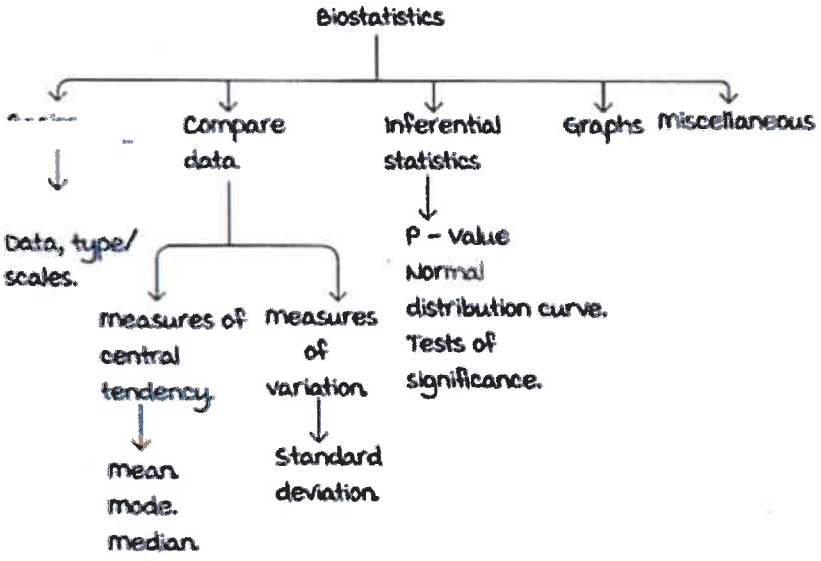
UPDATED PEDIATRICS NOTES

BIOSTATICS

INTRODUCTION TO DATA IN BIOSTATISTICS

Uses :

- Define cut-offs.
- Understand variation.
- To present data.
- To make inference (provide evidence).



Data

00:07:54

Quantitative	Qualitative
• Continuous. • measurable. • E.g. weight, height, AST, ALT levels. • mean of data can be calculated	• Discrete. • Countable. • E.g. No. of people who are sick/ healthy, alive/dead. Gender. • Proportions/ percentages can be calculated

Pulse rate is a data which is discrete and countable, however it is quantitative as we calculate its mean.

BP is quantitative data.

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Feedback

Scales of data

00:14:25

Nominal	Ordinal	Interval	Ratio
• Named data. • No sequence • E.g. Gender, religion, blood groups.	• Inherent order. • Has a sequence. • E.g. Stage, grade, the severity of the disease.	• Interval between two values is present. • No start point/no absolute zero. • E.g. °C, dB.	• Ratio can be calculated. • There is zero point/ absolute zero. • E.g. Na, K, FEV levels.

Interval type of data :

Example : 20 °C is not half as hot as 40 °C, but colder compared to 40 °C. Here the intensity of data is measured. Also, the temperature can go below 0 °C (in minus °C), which means there is no absolute zero.

Ratios :

Example : A weak fragile child weighs 20 Kg when the ideal weight should have been 40 Kg in the same age group. The ideal weight is a x child's age, which means the values can be expressed in multiples (double, triple) of each other i.e calculation of ratios is possible.

Also, there is absolute zero/ no value below zero.

Active space

MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND VARIATION

Measures of Central tendency 00:01:59

Mean :

1. Arithmetic mean :
   - Average = $\frac{\Sigma(\text{summation})}{n}$
2. Geometric mean :
   - Calculated in case of : Exponential data.
     Extreme values.
   - Example : Human development index
     (India = 0.647, ranked at 129 in 2019)
3. Harmonic mean :
   - Calculated in case of : Inverse data.
     Fractional values.

Advantages :

- Best measure of central tendency.
- Easiest to calculate.

Disadvantages :

- most affected by extreme values.

Median :

Central value after arranging in ascending or descending order.

Advantages :

- Least affected by extreme values.

Mode :

The most frequently occurring value.

Mode = 3 median − 2 mean.

Advantages :

- The most robust measure of central tendency.
- The last to be affected by extreme values.

Data with extreme values : Preferred measure is median.
Preferred mean is geometric mean.

Active space

Measures of variation

00:14:11

1. Range :

Range = maximum to minimum.

a. Standard deviation :

Gives the mean deviation of every value from the mean.

Formula : The root of the mean of squared deviation.

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma (x - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$$

In case of a small sample,

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

$n - 1$ is the correction for the small sample ($n < 30$).

3. Variance :

Variance (V) = SD^2

$$V = \frac{\Sigma (x - \bar{x})^2}{n}$$

4. Coefficient of variation (CV) :

Absolute variation between a different populations.

$$CV = \frac{S.D}{mean} \times 100$$

5. Standard error :

Gives the error in different studies in terms of standard deviation.

Alternatively, gives the variation between values when different researches are done.

a. Standard error for mean :

- For quantitative data.
- $SE_m = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{n}}$

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b. Standard error for proportions :

- For qualitative data.
- $SE_p = \sqrt{\frac{PQ}{N}}$

P : Prevalence.

Q : 100 - prevalence.

n : Sample size.

If p- value or Confidence interval is provided as input, Standard error has to be calculated and not the Standard deviation.

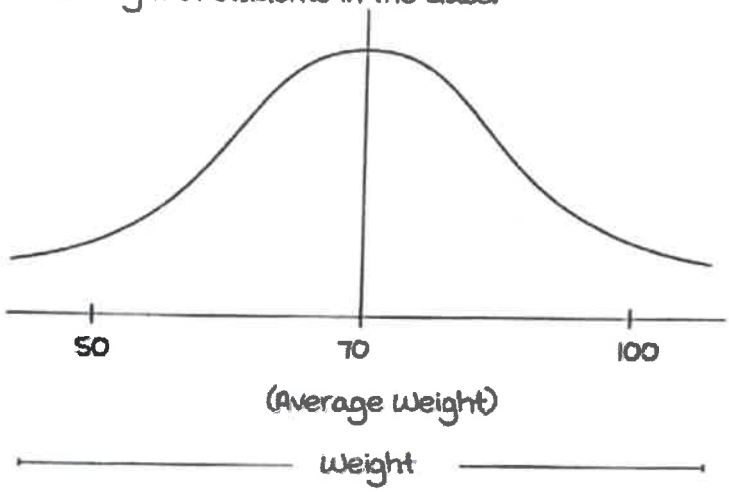
NORMAL DISTRIBUTION CURVE

Normal distribution curve

00:00:08

It represents the distribution of data in a bell-shaped curve, in a large sample.

Eg : The weight of students in the class.



Features of Normal distribution curve :

It is also known as the Gaussian distribution curve.

It is a bilaterally symmetrical bell-shaped curve.

The ends never touch the baseline.

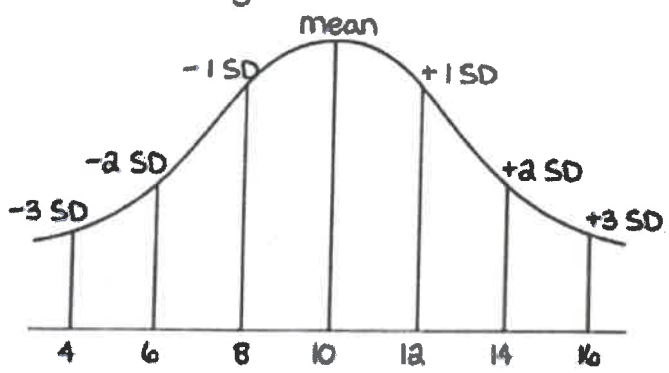
mean = median = mode → Coincide at 0 or the centrepoint.

SD = 1.

AUC = 1 (Area under Curve), means the whole population is accounted for.

Eg : mean Hb ($\bar{x}$ Hb) at a place = 10 gm% ± 2 g%.

where 1 SD = 2 g%



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Assumptions in normal distribution curve : First assumption

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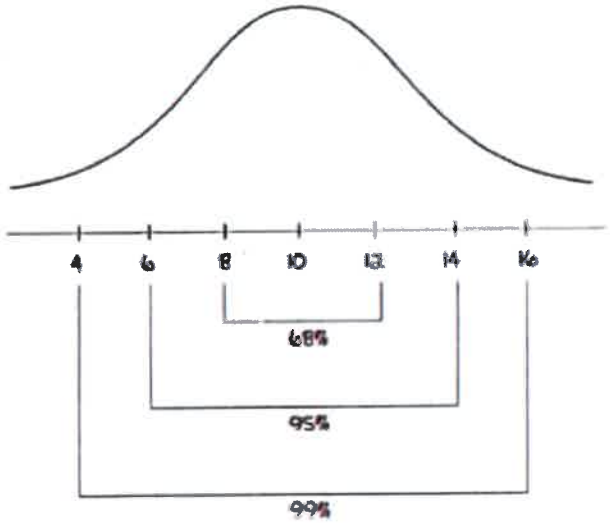
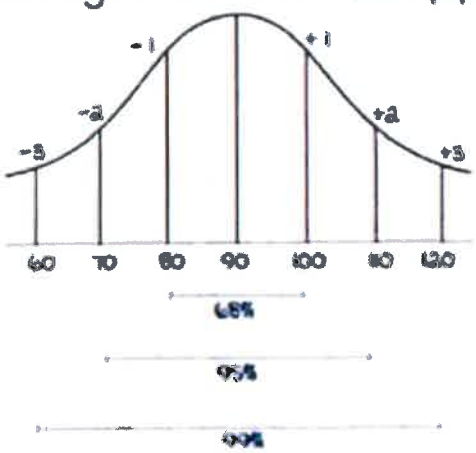
Between the − 1 SD and + 1 SD : 68% of the population lies.
Between the − 2 SD and + 2 SD : 95% of the population lies.
Between the − 3 SD and + 3 SD : 99% of the population lies.



Eg : mean blood glucose = 90 ± 10 SD.
How much of the population will be expected to fall between :

- 80 to 100 mg/dl = 68% population.
- 70 to 110 mg/dl = 95% population.
- 70 to 100 mg/dl = 68% + 13.5 % population [(95−68)/2=13.5]
- more than 70 mg/dl = 100 − 2.5 % = 97.5% population.
- Less than 100 mg/dl = 84% population (100−13.5+2+0.5).
- more than 100 mg/dl = 16 % population.
- Less than 60 mg/dl = 100 − 99 = 1/2 = 0.5% population.
- Less than 120 mg/dl = 100 − 0.5 % = 99.5% population.



Feedback

Q. The mean blood glucose from 5929 ANC females in the state of maharashtra was found to be 130 ± 5 mg/dl. The cut off for diagnosing GDM was kept as higher than 140 mg/dl. How many pregnant females are expected to be GDM diagnosed?

A. < 50.
B. 50 to 100.
C. 100 to 200.
D. 200 to 500.

mean = 130, +1 SD = 135, +2 SD = 140, +3 SD = 145
−1 SD = 125, −2 SD = 120, −3 SD = 115.

To be GDM diagnosed, they must belong to above +2 SD of population.

Above +2 SD = 100 − 95% (between +2 and −2 SD) − 2.5% (less than −2 SD) = 2.5%

2.5% of 5929 ~ 150 females, which falls under range of 100–200.

Second assumption : Zone of Normalcy 00:20:51

Zone of normalcy/normal zone :

Between the − 2 SD and + 2 SD = 95% of population.

Z score :

It is also called standard deviate.

It gives the location of the value in terms of the standard deviation (SD).

The cut off for Z score : ± 2 SD/± 1.96 SD.

If the Z score is > 2 : Abnormal Z score.

It is calculated by = $\frac{\text{Observed value} - \text{Expected value}}{\text{SD}}$

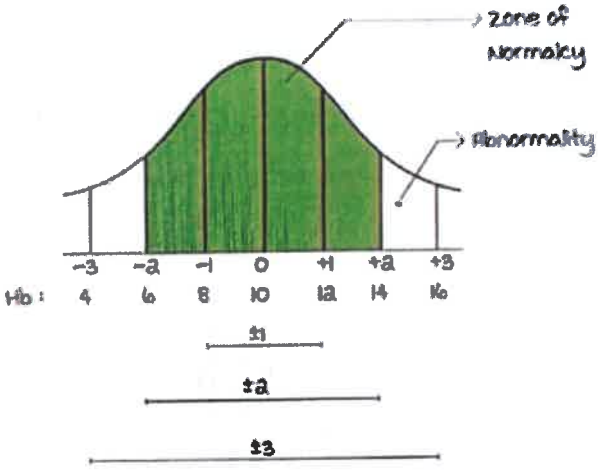
Eg : Observed value of Hb = 15 gm /dl.

Expected value (always the mean value) = 10

SD = 2

Z score = $\frac{15 - 10}{2}$ = 2.5

Z score 2.5 : It lies 2.5 SD away from the mean.



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CONCEPT OF PROBABILITY VALUE

P value

00:01:05

P value :

Probability value (chance of events expressed in decimals).

Normal value ranges from 0 to 1.

0 : Lowest probability.

1 : maximum probability.

Standard errors (SE) :

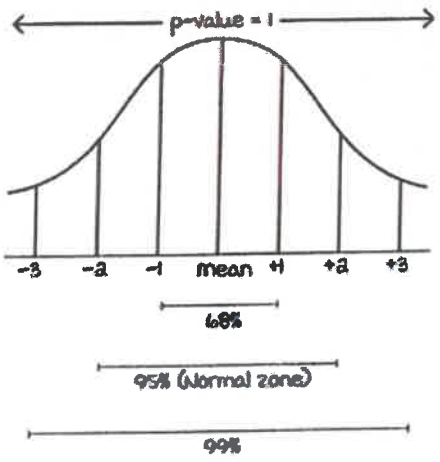
±1, ±2, ±3,...

Confidence limit/interval :

+1 to − 1 = 68% confidence interval.

+2 to − 2 = 95% confidence interval.

+ 3 to − 3 = 99% confidence interval.



In the normal distribution curve :

The highest probability is towards the centre : 1.

The lowest probability lies on either side of the curve.

At +2 to − 2 standard deviation the P value is : 0.05 −

Zone of normalcy.

Active space

P value – abnormal zone

00:06:20

Example : Randomised clinical trial – two groups A and B

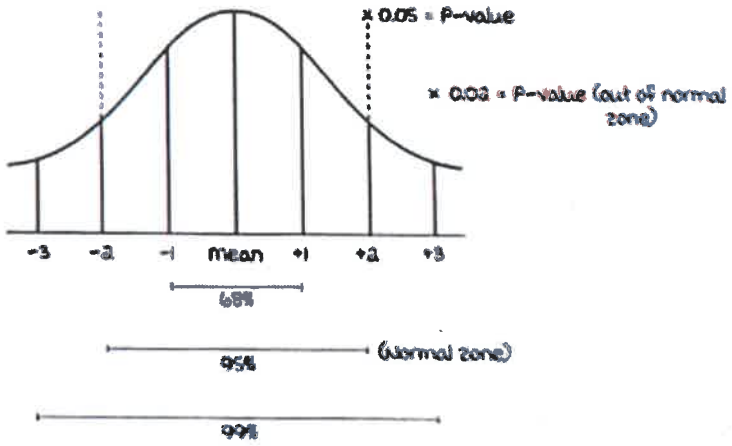
Group A
↓
Drug is given (Remdesivir)
↓
check A'

Group B
↓
Placebo given (Vitamin C/zinc)
↓
Check B'

The collected data is incorporated in a machine : Gives P value.

If the P value is 0.02 : Abnormal/out of the normal zone.

P value > 0.05	P value < 0.05
Normal variant	Abnormal variant
Non-significant	significant
No effect found	Effect is found
Null hypothesis : Accepted	Null hypothesis : Rejected



P value – normal zone and changes

00:16:42

The normal zone for P value – 95% confidence interval

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If the normal zone moved from 95% to 68% :

Previously non-significant becomes significant.
Chances of finding an effect increases.
The chances of reject of null hypothesis increases.
The chances of alpha error increases.

If the normal zone moves from 95% to 99% :

Previously significant becomes non-significant.
The chances of finding an effect decreases.
The chances of accepting of null hypothesis increases.
The chances of beta errors increase.

Alpha error, type I & II error

00:23:08

Definition :

It is the probability of finding an effect (just by chance) which in reality does not exist.
It corresponds to the P value/confidence interval/limit.

Example : P value of 0.02 corresponds to α value 2%.
It means there is 2% chance of error in the study.
It also means there is 98% of confidence in the study.

68% corresponds to 32% alpha.
95% corresponds to 5% alpha.
99% corresponds to 1% alpha.

FPER : The chance of finding disease in a healthy patient.

Type I error :

Rejecting a null hypothesis, which in reality is true.

Type II error :

Accepting a null hypothesis, which is false in reality.

TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Statistical mathematical formula to derive a p-value.
Determines if P-value is significant or non significant.

Types of tests of significance

00:02:59

Types

1. Parametric
   Quantitative
   Normal distribution data

2. Non-parametric
   Qualitative
   Non-normal distribution data

Parametric test	Situation	Non-parametric test
Paired 't' test.	Single group	mc nemar's test.
Unpaired 't' test A/K/A independent sample 't' test.	Two groups	Chi square test (χ^2).
Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	Three or more groups	Kruskal-wallis test. Chi square for trend.

Advance tests of significance

00:08:59

- Large sample ($n > 30$) = 'z' test.
- Ordinal data : wilcoxan rank test (w/R)
  - w/R sign test — For grouped data.
  - w/R sum test — For ungrouped data.
- Normalcy of data : Kolmogorov smirnov test.
- Outliers : Dixon's Q test.
- Internal consistency of questionnaire : Cronbach's α score
- Compare a new test with a gold standard test : Bland altman analysis.

Access options

- Level of agreement : KAPPA test.

$$\text{Formula} = \frac{\text{Observed level of agreement} - \text{expected level of agreement}}{1 - \text{expected level of agreement}}$$

Active space

CORRELATION, REGRESSION AND SKEW

Correlation

00:00:13

Relation between 2 variables.

Scatter plots are used.

Types :

Linear

- Also known as Pearson-Karl correlation.
- Represented by : r
- Range : −1 to +1

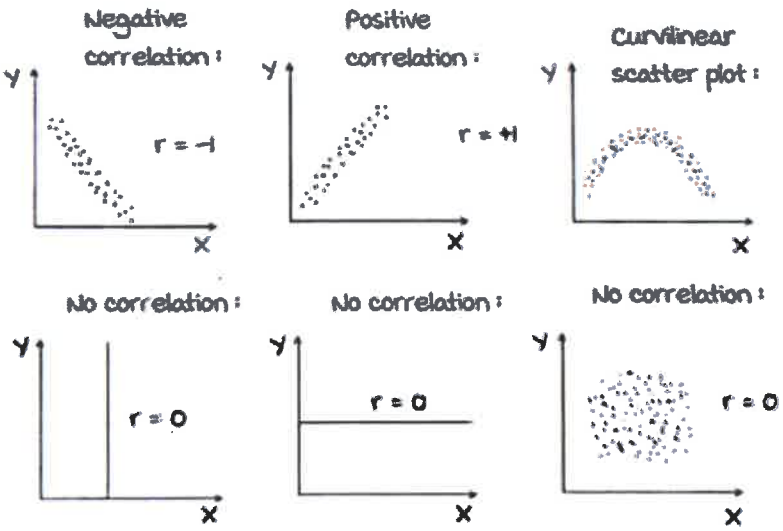
  −1 : Perfect negative correlation.

  +1 : Perfect positive correlation.

  r = 0 : No correlation.

Curvilinear

- Also known as non-linear/ Spearman correlation.
- Represented by : ρ



Scatter plots

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Coefficient of determination

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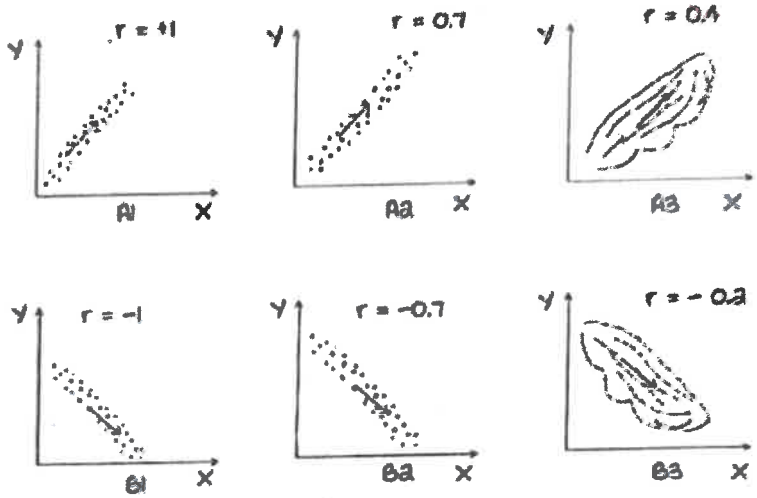

+1 : Perfect positive correlation (1 unit change in X axis = 1 unit change in Y axis).

> 0.7 : Strong positive correlation.

0.5 – 0.7 : moderately positive correlation.

< 0.5 : Weak correlation.

< 0.3 : Very weak correlation.

Coefficient of determination (CD) :

The percentage change in one variable which is accounted for by a unit change in another variable.

CD = r^2 in %.

Regression

00:18:26

Primarily refers to prediction.

Types :

1. Linear : If variables as quantitiative.
2. Logistic : If variables are qualitative.
    1. Univariate linear regression :
        Eg : Predicting renal failure based on GFR.
    2. Univariate logistic regression :
        Eg : Predicting MI based on obesity levels.
    3. Multivariate linear regression :
        Eg : Predicting the renal status based on serum Na, urea, creatinine and GFR levels.

Active space

4. Multivariate logistic regression :

Eg : Predicting the presence or absence of MI based on smoking and obesity levels, family history.

Linear regression, $y = a + bx$.

y : Dependent variable.

a : Regression constant.

b : Coefficient of independent variable/slope of curve

x : Independent variable

Skew

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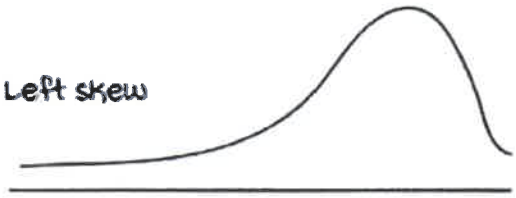
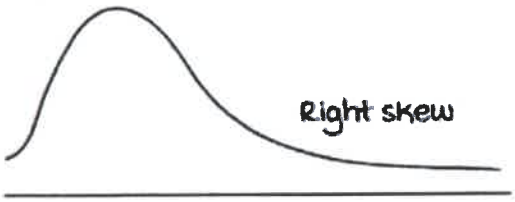
Describes a non normal distribution.

- Left skew (Direction based on the tail end) :

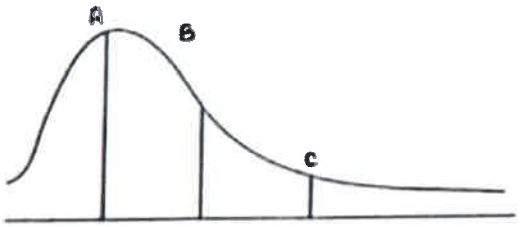


mean < median < mode (looking towards the left).

- Right skew :



mean > median > mode (looking towards the right).



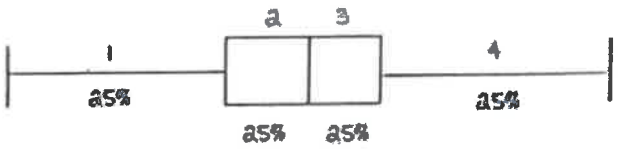
A : mode

B : median

C : mean

Since it's a right skew, mean > median > mode.

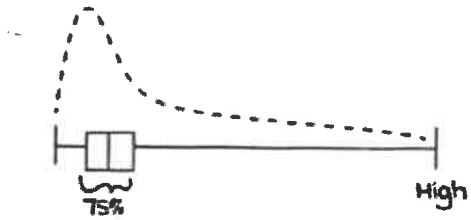
Skew and Box and Whisker (quartile):



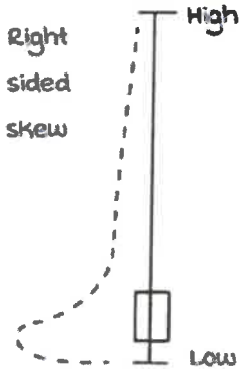
Each whisker : 25%

The box : 50%, each part : 25%

1.

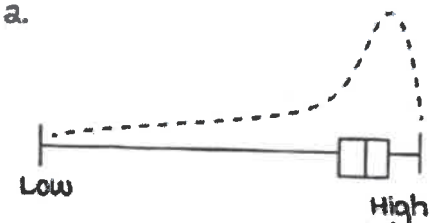


Right side skew

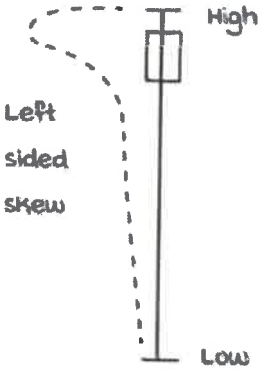


Conventionally if nothing is mentioned, left side is taken as the low side of the variable.

2.



Left sided skew



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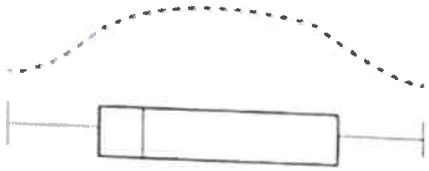

Cannot comment about the skewness (deviated median).

Active space

SAMPLING METHODS AND CALCULATION

Sample :

- Quantity (calculation).
- Quality (sampling methods).

Both should be sufficient to represent the population.

Sampling methods 00:01:12

Types :

1. Non-probability/Non-random sampling :
    a. Convenience sampling :
        - Easy to perform.
        - Chance for selection bias.
        - may not be representative of total population.
    b. Quota sampling :
        - Predefined set of rules for sampling.
        - Chance for bias.
    c. Purposive sampling :
        - There is a secondary intention.
    d. Snowball sampling :
        - Rapidly increasing.
        - For example : 3 people bring 3 people each and in turn the new 3 people bring another 3 each.
        - Preferred in case of diseases with social stigma (hidden diseases) : Alcoholism
          IV drug abuse
          male to male
          Transgenders

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