

the logic of parametric tests

define the test statistic (e.g. mean)

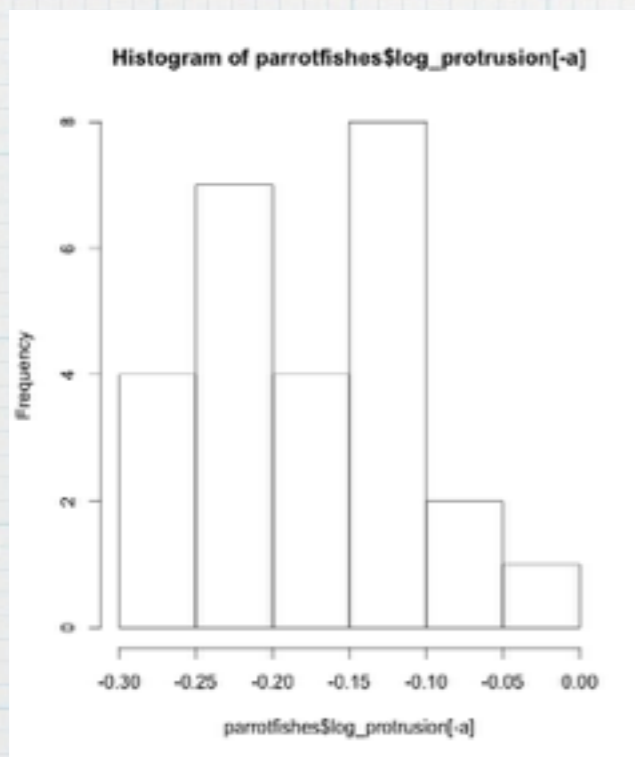
compare the observed test statistic to a distribution calculated for random samples that are drawn from a single (normal) distribution.

the distribution is parametrized based on your sample

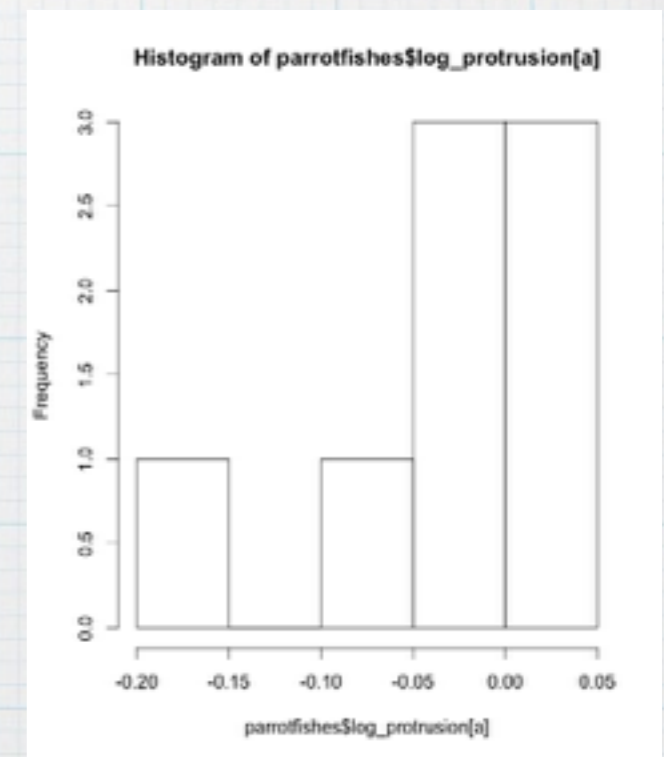
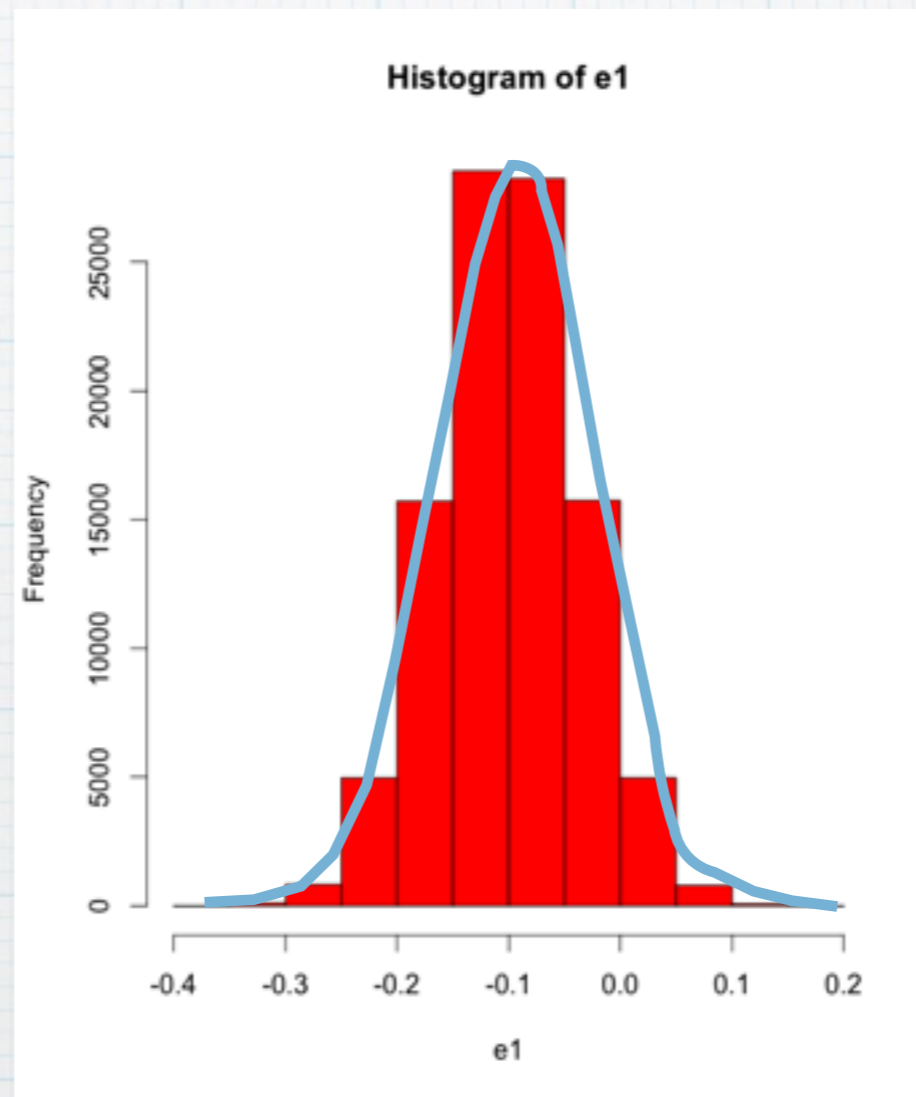
ask what is the probability of the data under the model

the logic of parametric tests: example with a t-test

t-distribution under H_0 : the distribution of the test statistic calculated for 2 random samples drawn from a single (normal) distribution



Group 0

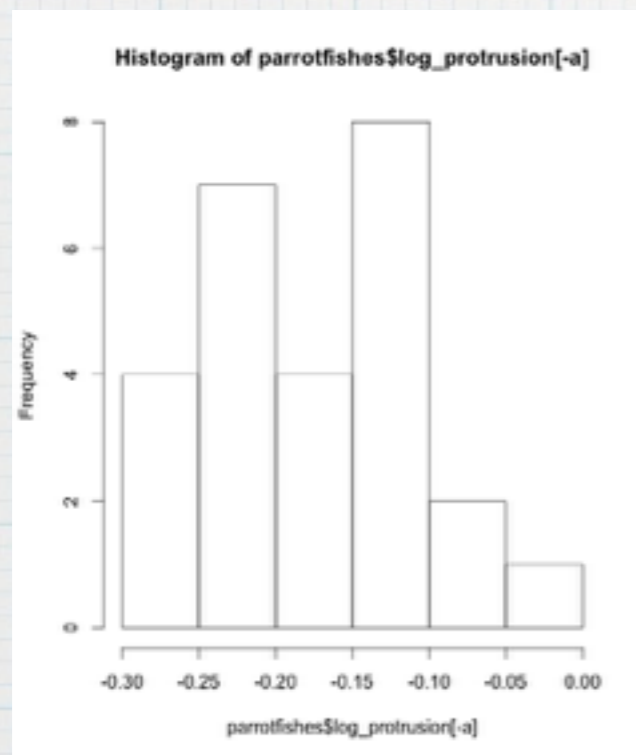


Group 1

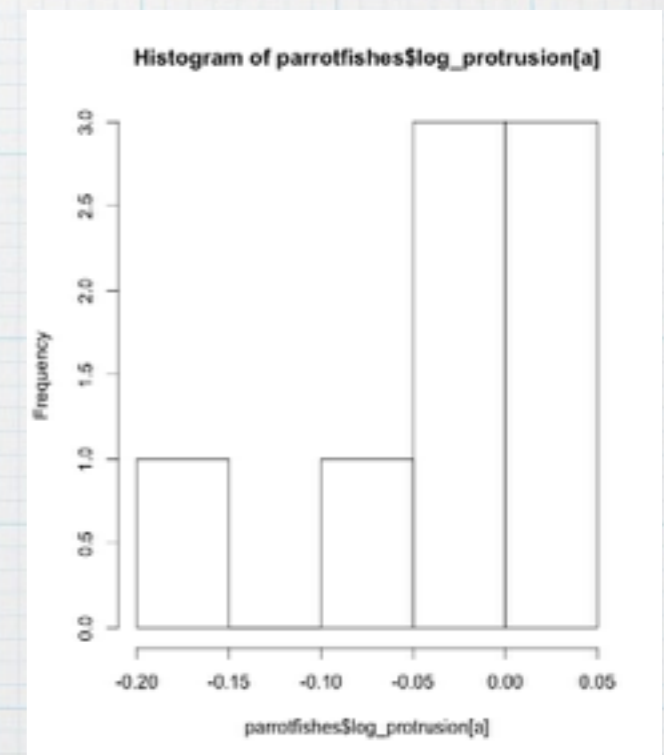
the logic of parametric tests: example with a t-test

step 1: extract sample data

	mean	var	diff
group0	-0.036	0.0037	-0.134
group1	-0.17	0.004	



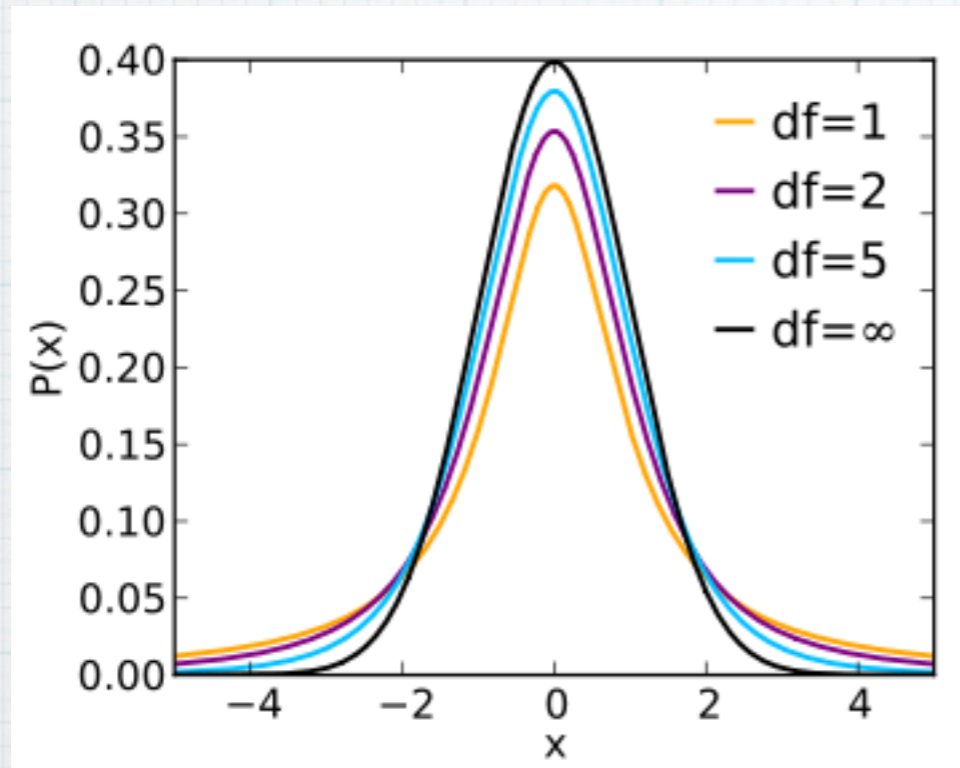
Group 0



Group 1

the logic of parametric tests: example with a t-test

step 2: calculate the test statistic - t



$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

	mean	var	diff
group0	-0.036	0.0037	-0.134
group1	-0.17	0.004	

the logic of parametric tests: example with a t-test

step 2: calculate the test statistic - t

compare test statistic to a value from a theoretical distribution

	mean	var	diff
group0	-0.036	0.0037	-0.134
group1	-0.17	0.004	

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

$t = 5.4747, df = 12.119, p\text{-value} = 0.000137$


the logic of parametric tests

define the test statistic (e.g. mean)

compare the observed test statistic to a distribution calculated for random samples that are drawn from a single (normal) distribution.

ask what is the probability of the data under the model

This is where all the assumptions (normality, homogeneity of avarice) come from!



Assumptions: t-test

1) normality of the data

2) samples are independent

its possible to test the 1st assumption using histograms, qqplot, and tests for normality (e.g. Shapiro-Wilk test)

often, the problem is lack of power due to small n

Assumptions: ANOVA

- 1) normality of the data
- 2) samples are independent
- 3) homogeneity of variance (**critical**)

its possible to test the 1st assumption using histograms, qqplot, and tests for normality. power problem more extreme

its critical to test for homogeneity of variance (leveneTest in library car)

Assumptions: regression

1) normality of the **residuals**

2) samples are independent

3) homogeneity of variance

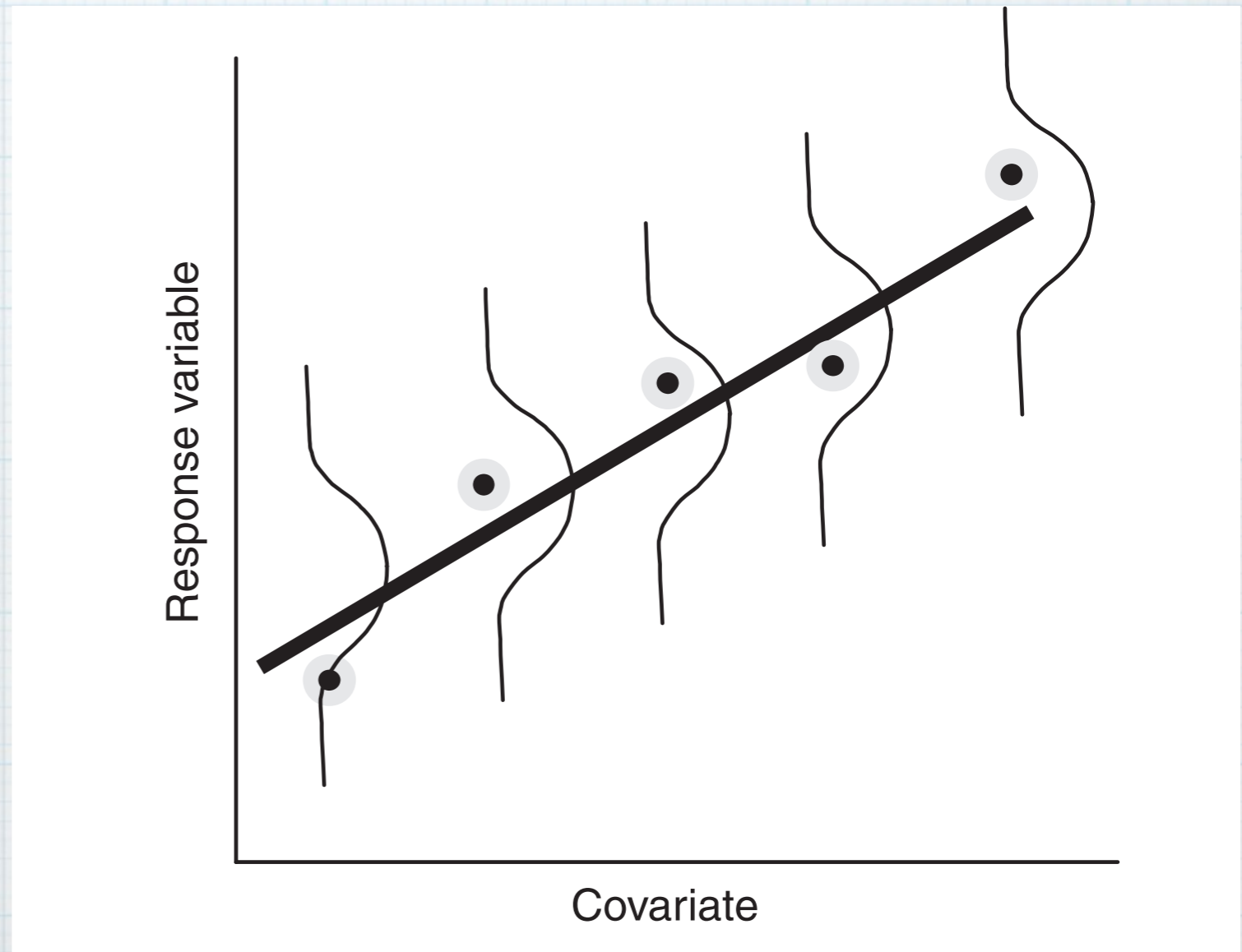
it is generally difficult to test regression assumptions.

its possible to test the 1st assumption using histograms, qqplot, and tests for normality on residuals.

remember to think about power

Assumptions: regression

- 1) normality of the **residuals**
- 2) samples are independent
- 3) homogeneity of variance



Assumptions: regression

1) normality of the **residuals**

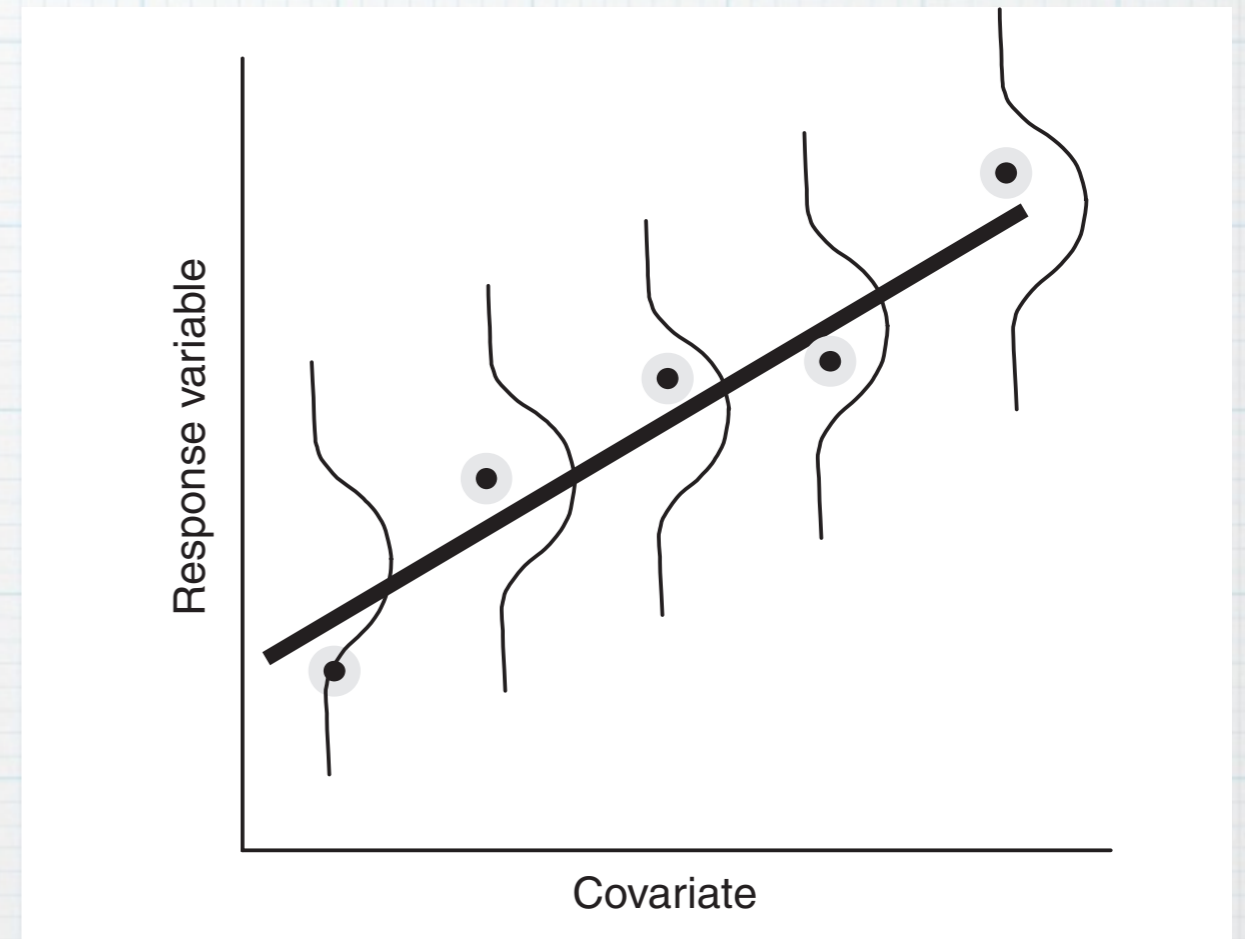
2) samples are independent

3) homogeneity of variance

```
model=lm(Y~X)
```

```
hist(model$residuals)
```

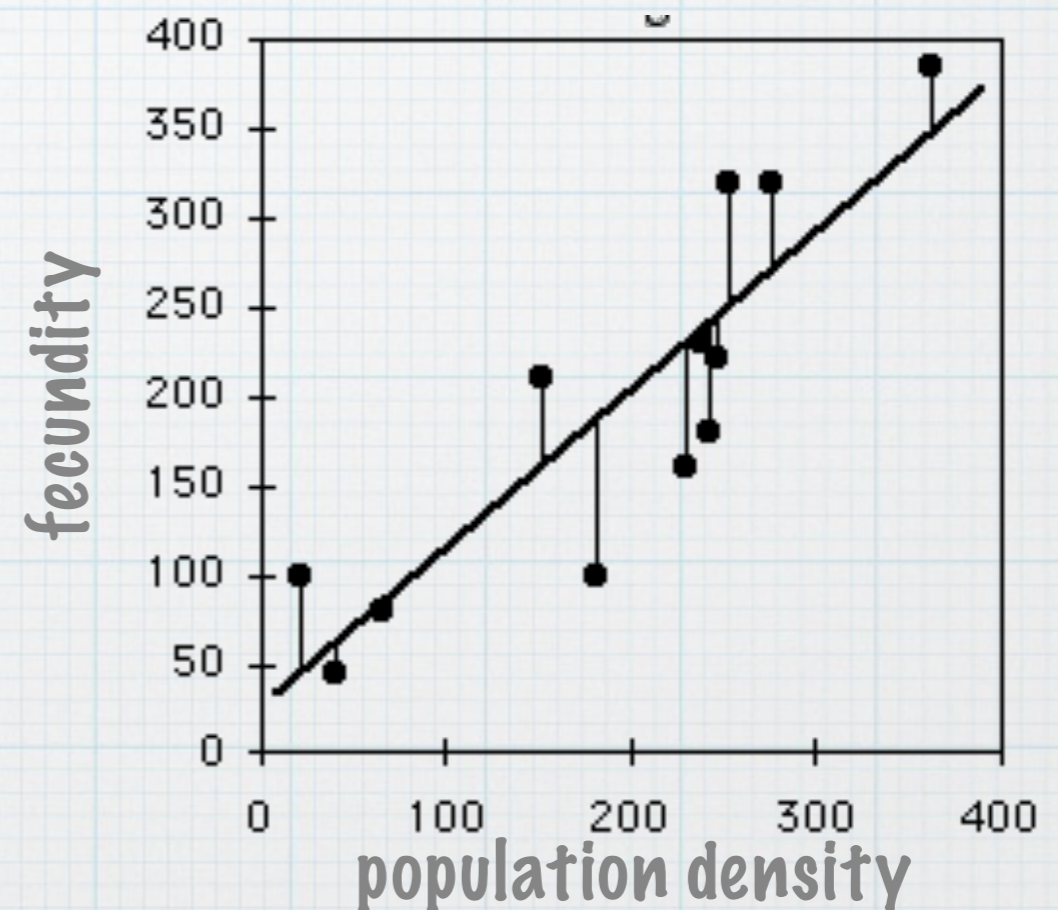
```
plot(model$fitted.values ,Y)
```



points in extreme x values have strong leverage

More assumptions: regression

- 1) normality of the residuals
- 2) samples are independent
- 3) homogeneity of variance
- 4) X is known with no error



```
library(lmodel2)
```

```
lmodel2(density~ fecundity, data=data, nperm=99)
```

More assumptions: regression

```
Call: lmodel2(formula = Predicted_by_model ~ Survival, data =  
mod2ex1, nperm = 99)
```

```
n = 54    r = 0.8387315    r-square = 0.7034705
```

```
Parametric P-values:    2-tailed = 2.447169e-15    1-tailed = 1.223585e-15
```

```
Angle between the two OLS regression lines = 9.741174 degrees
```

```
Permutation tests of OLS, MA, RMA slopes: 1-tailed, tail corresponding to sign
```

```
A permutation test of r is equivalent to a permutation test of the OLS slope
```

```
P-perm for SMA = NA because the SMA slope cannot be tested
```

Regression results

	Method	Intercept	Slope	Angle (degrees)	P-perm (1-tailed)
1	OLS	0.6852956	0.6576961	33.33276	0.01
2	MA	0.4871990	0.7492103	36.84093	0.01
3	SMA	0.4115541	0.7841557	38.10197	NA

Confidence intervals

	Method	2.5%-Intercept	97.5%-Intercept	2.5%-Slope	97.5%-Slope
1	OLS	0.4256885	0.9449028	0.5388717	0.7765204
2	MA	0.1725753	0.7633080	0.6216569	0.8945561
3	SMA	0.1349629	0.6493905	0.6742831	0.9119318

```
Eigenvalues: 0.1332385 0.01090251
```

```
H statistic used for computing C.I. of MA: 0.007515993
```

```
library(lmodel2)
```

```
lmodel2(density~ fecundity, data=data, nperm=99)
```

More assumptions: regression

For species data, samples cannot be truly considered independent, because they share a common history

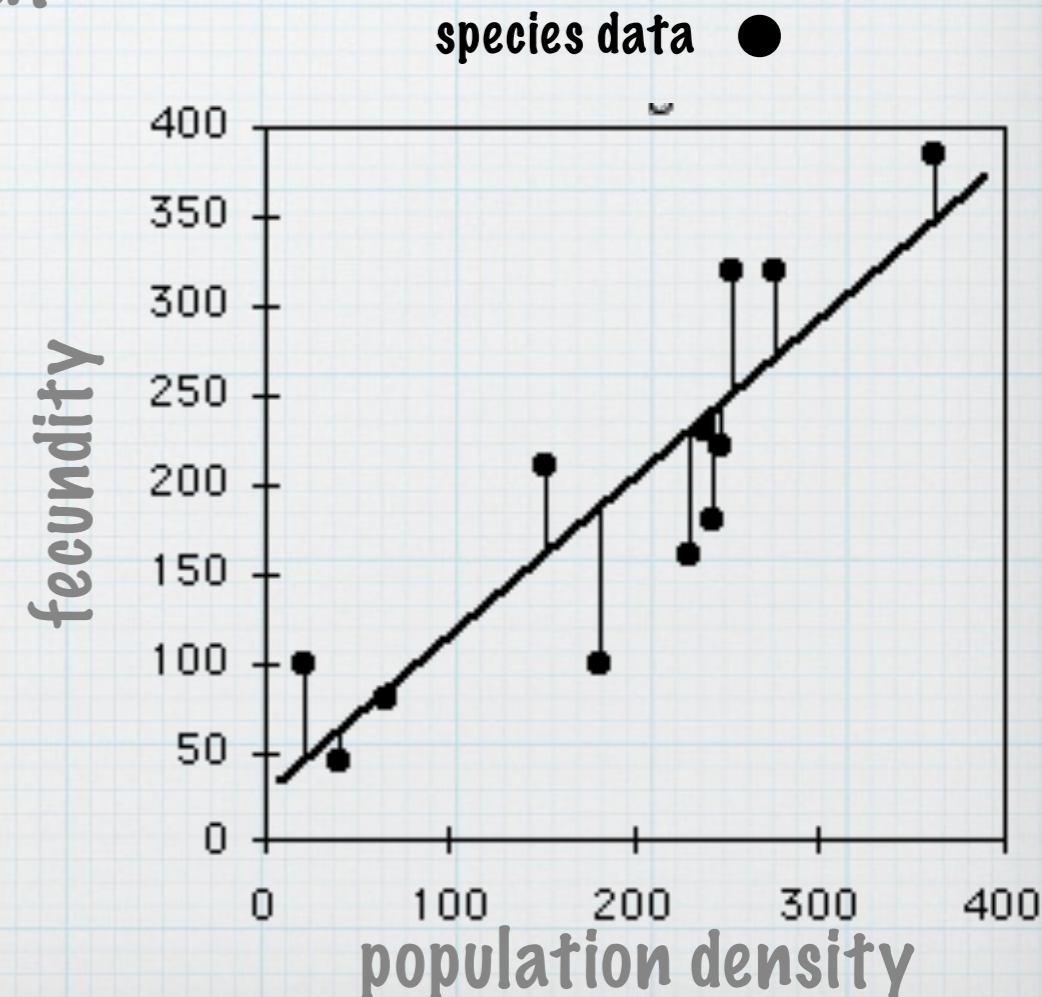
its possible to account for this correlation if phylogenetic information is available

If this is applicable for your data, learn more at

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phylogenetic_comparative_methods

or here

http://bodegaphylo.wikispot.org/Phylogenetic_Comparative_Methods



What if my assumptions are invalid?

the logic of parametric tests

define the test statistic (e.g. mean)

compare the observed test statistic to a distribution calculated for random samples that are drawn from a single (normal) distribution.

ask what is the probability of the data under the model

Can I compare my data to another distribution?

Permutation, Montecarlo, and bootstrap: what's the deal?

Permutation & randomization tests: generating the probability of test statistics from the data, rather than a theoretical distribution

Montecarlo: generating the probability of test statistics from the process, rather than a theoretical distribution

Bootstrap, Jackknife: estimating bias and precision of estimates from the data, rather than a theoretical distribution



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the logic of randomisation tests

define the test statistic (e.g. mean)

shuffle the data, extract test statistic

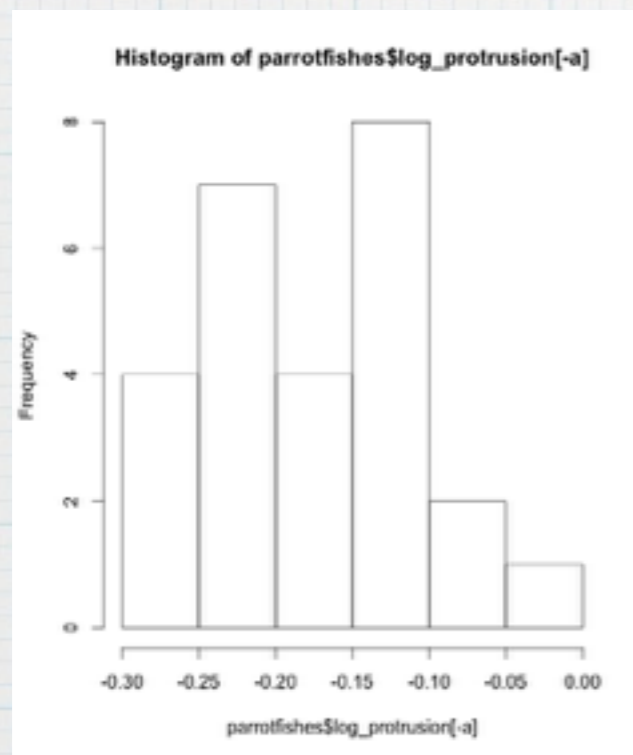
repeat for all possible permutations (permutation test) or a sub-sample of them (randomization)

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

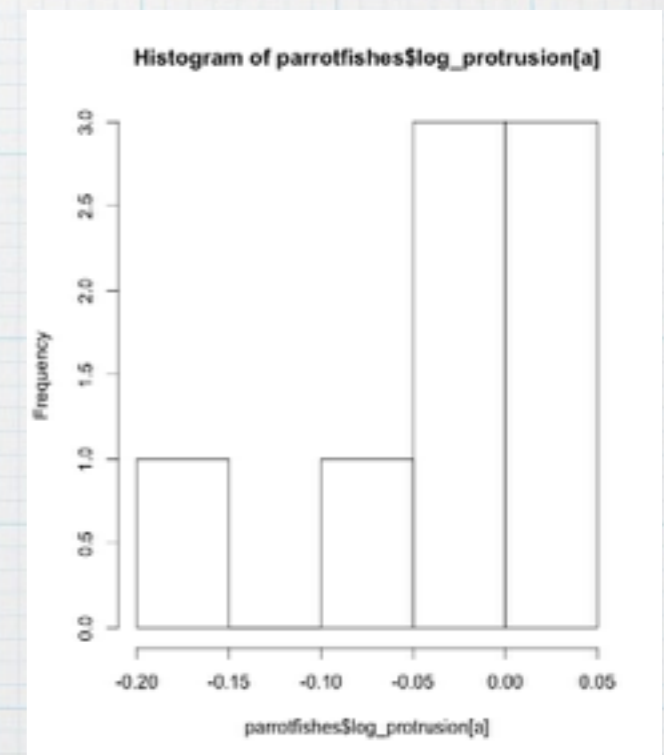
the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

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Group 0

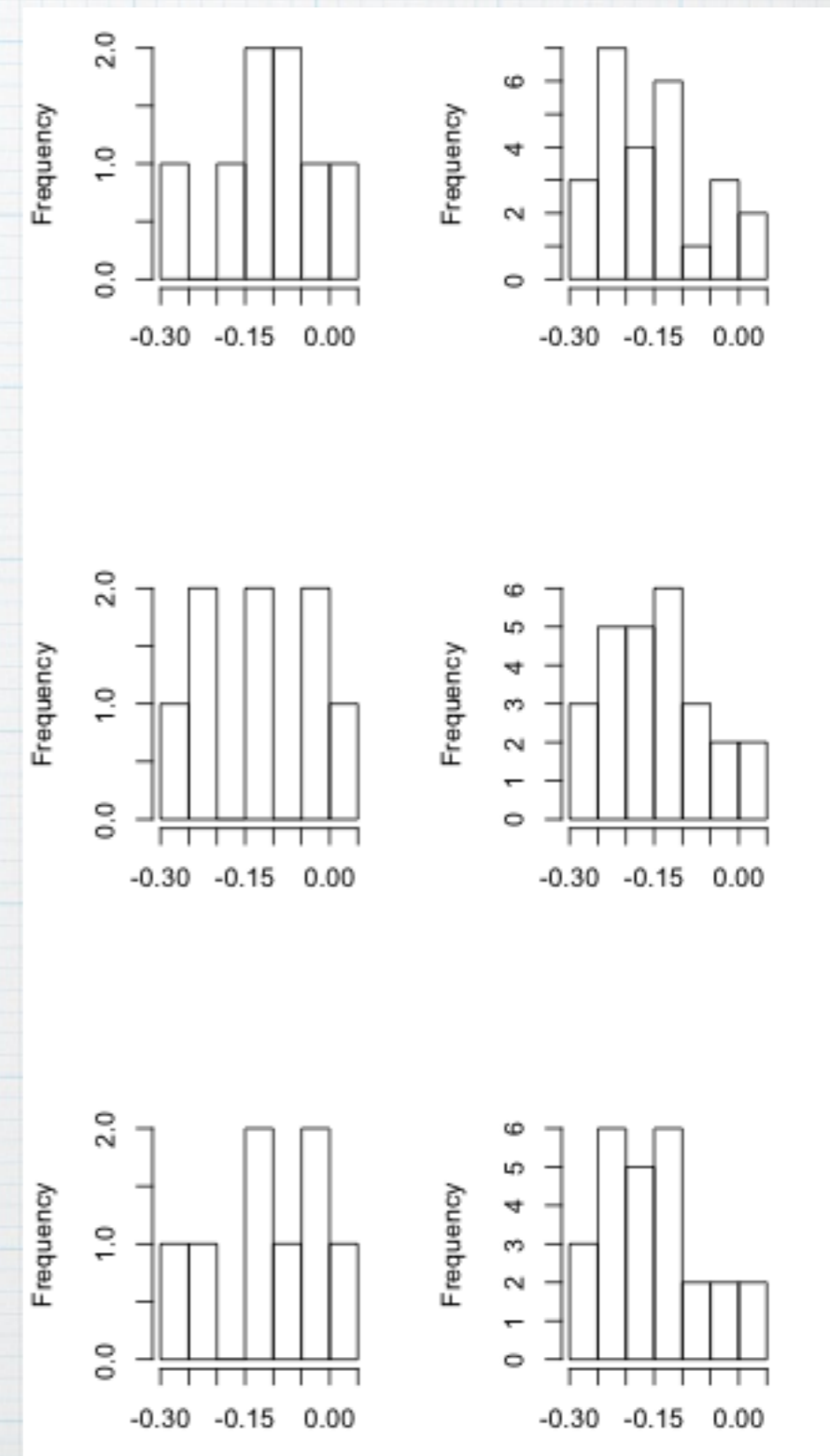


Group 1

the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

step 2: shuffle the data, extract the test statistic. repeat.

	group0	group1	diff
iteration 1	0.8023	0.2460	0.5563
iteration 2	0.3252	0.9017	-0.5764
iteration 3	0.6556	0.7817	-0.1261
iteration 4	0.9292	0.2860	0.6432
iteration 5	0.9953	0.9452	0.0501
iteration 6	0.2650	0.8852	-0.6201
iteration 7	0.8313	0.9650	-0.1336
iteration 8	0.4534	0.6516	-0.1981
iteration 1000	0.8300	0.7998	0.0301



the logic of parametric tests

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

Min. :-0.1198963

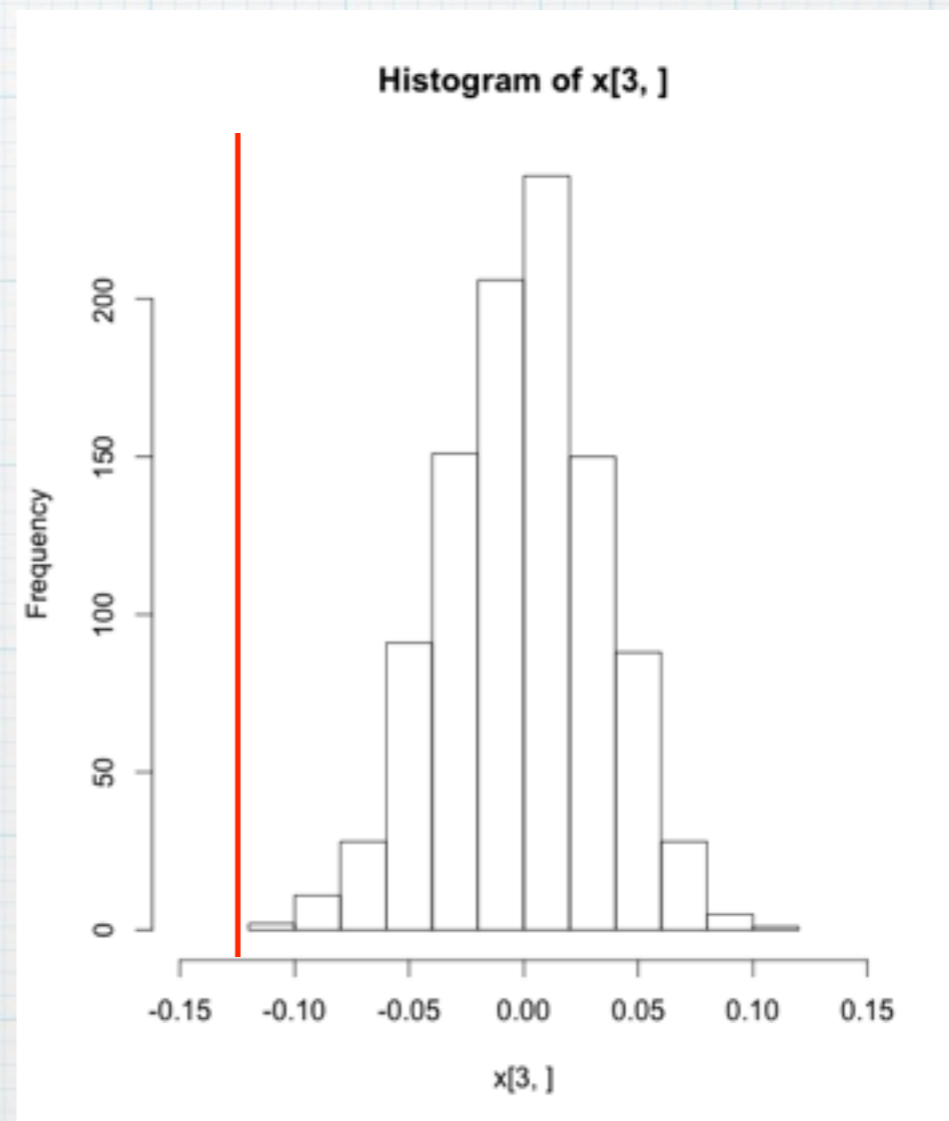
1st Qu.:-0.0235121

Median : 0.0010862

Mean :-0.0003389

3rd Qu.: 0.0223127

Max. : 0.1062735



the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

define the test statistic (e.g. mean)

shuffle the data, extract test statistic

repeat for all possible permutations (permutation test) or a sub-sample of them (randomization)

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

No assumptions regarding the distribution of population



the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

step 1: extract sample data

```
real.diff=(data$dependent[group0]-data$dependent[group1])
```


the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

step 2: shuffle the data, extract the test statistic.

```
randomvector=sample(n)  
mock.data=data$dependent[randomvector]  
mock.diff=(data$dependent[group0]-data$dependent[group0])
```

the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

step 2: shuffle the data, extract the test statistic. **repeat**

```
all.diff=matrix(NA,1000,1)
```

```
for (i in 1:1000){
```

```
  randomvector=sample(n)
```

```
  mock.data=data$dependent[randomvector]
```

```
  mock.diff=(data$dependent[group0]-data$dependent[group0])
```

```
  all.diff[i]=mock.diff
```

```
}
```

the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

$$p = (\text{length}(\text{which}(\text{all.diff} > \text{real.diff})) + \text{length}(\text{which}(\text{all.diff} < -\text{real.diff}))) / 1000$$

the logic of randomisation tests: example with a t-test

define the test statistic (e.g. mean)

shuffle the data, extract test statistic

repeat for all possible permutations (permutation test) or a sub-sample of them (randomization)

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

possible to choose other statistics e.g. (t) or (f)

Permutation, Montecarlo, and bootstrap: what's the deal?

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the logic of randomisation tests: example using Lloyd's index

define the test statistic (e.g. Lloyd's index)

model the process. for example, place "organisms" randomly on a grid, with parameters (density) matching your's

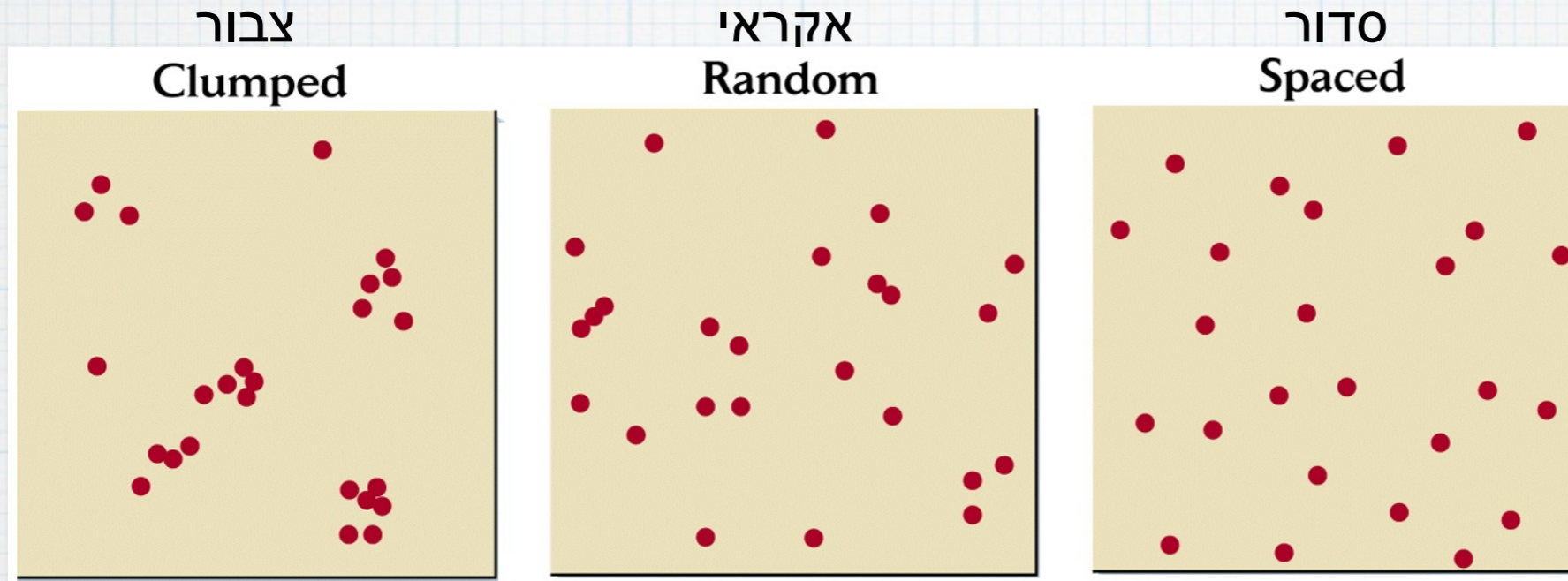
calculate the test statistic (Lloyd's index)

repeat multiple times

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

the logic of randomisation tests: example using Lloyd's index

define the test statistic (e.g. Lloyd's index)

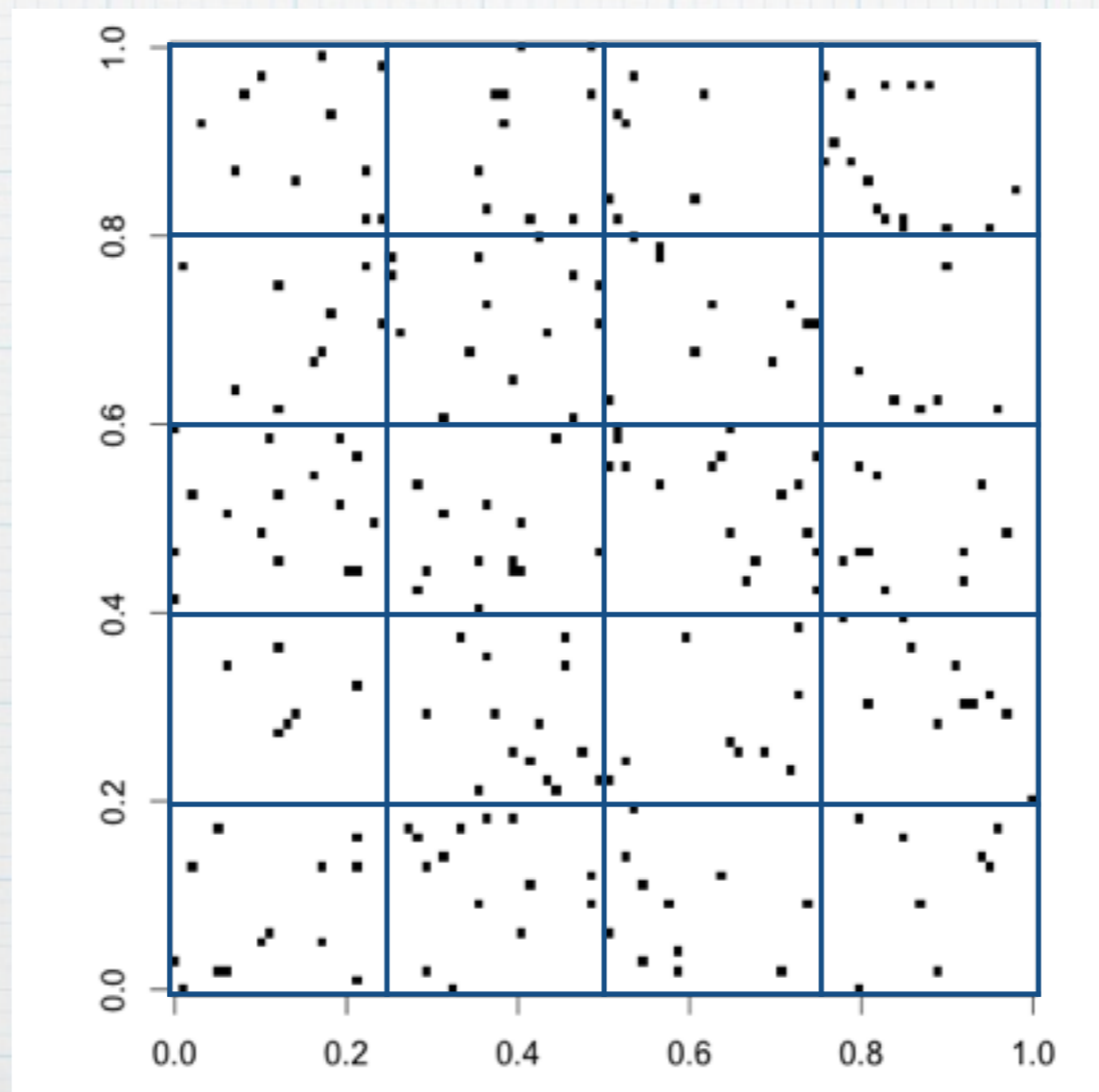


$$L = \frac{V}{\bar{X}^2} + 1 - \frac{1}{\bar{X}}$$

the logic of randomisation tests: example using Lloyd's index

define the test statistic (e.g. Lloyd's index)

place "organisms" randomly on a grid, with parameters (density) matching yours. calculate Lloyd's



$$L = 1.06$$

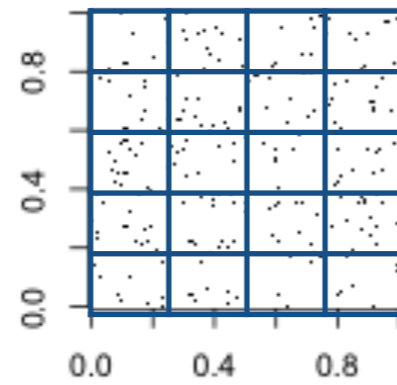
the logic of randomisation tests: example using Lloyd's index

define the test statistic (e.g. Lloyd's index)

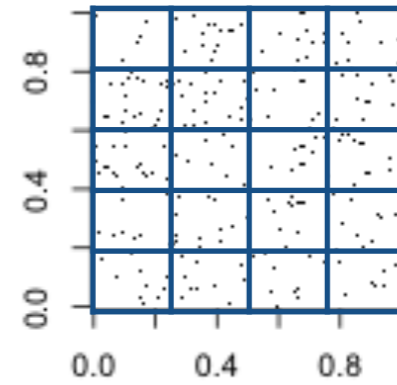
place "organisms" randomly on a grid, with parameters (density) matching your's

calculate Lloyd's index

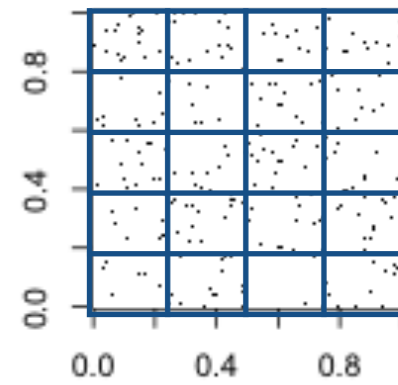
repeat multiple times



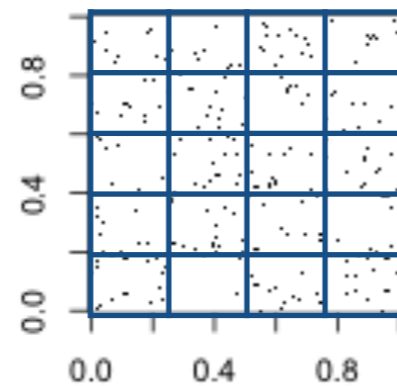
$L = 1.06$



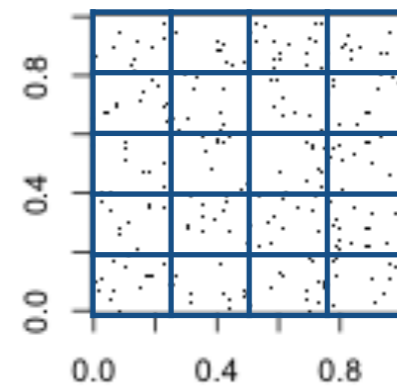
$L = 1.12$



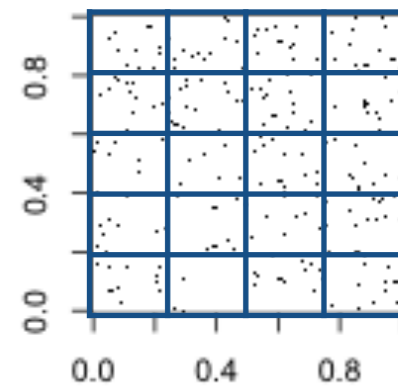
$L = 0.95$



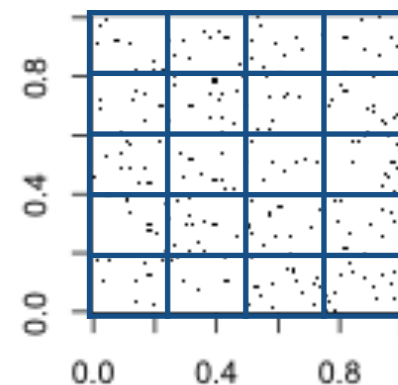
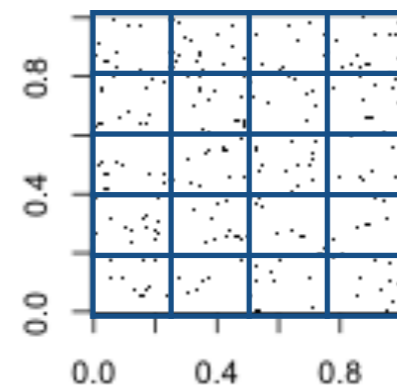
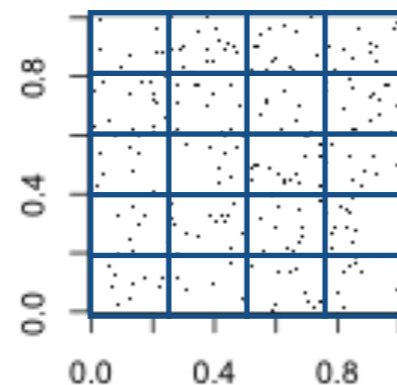
$L = 0.99$



$L = 1.02$



$L = 1.01$



the logic of randomisation tests: example using Lloyd's index

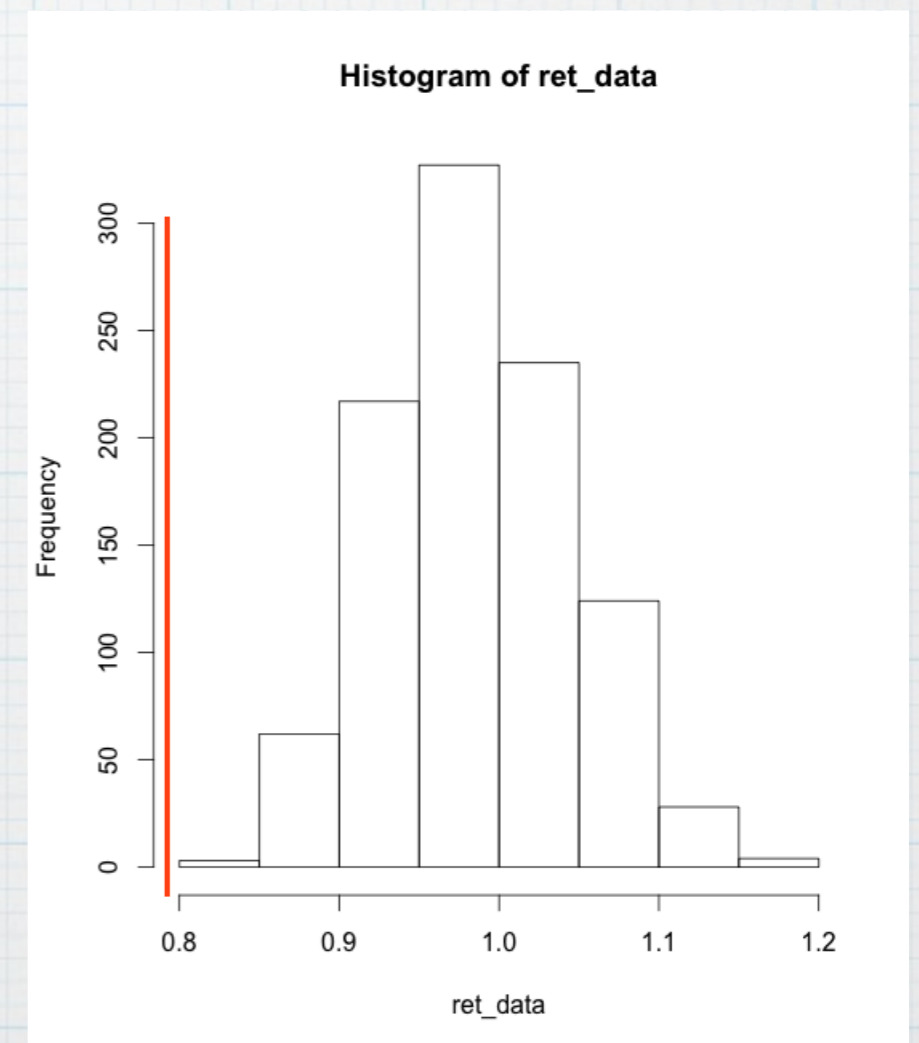
define the test statistic (e.g. Lloyd's index)

model the process. for example, place "organisms" randomly on a grid, with parameters (density) matching your's

calculate the test statistic (Lloyd's index)

repeat multiple times

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution



the logic of randomisation tests: example using Lloyd's index

define the test statistic (e.g. Lloyd's index)

model the process. for example, place "organisms" randomly on a grid, with parameters (density) matching your's

calculate the test statistic (Lloyd's index)

repeat multiple times

ask what is the probability of the observed test statistics under the generated distribution

one can make more complex models, i.e. place organisms that have an interaction between them

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Bootstrap, Jackknife: estimating bias and precision of parameters from the data, rather than a theoretical distribution

the logic of bootstrap

compute the parameter of interest (e.g. number of species)

from your n samples. the sample estimate is \hat{S} .

sample (with replacement) n samples from your original dataset

calculate the parameter of interest: \hat{S}_b

repeat B times (For SE and bias estimation 50-100, For CI calculation 1000)

Use the results to generate an empirical sampling distribution of \hat{S} .

the logic of bootstrap

The bootstrap estimate of the parameter

$$\hat{S}_{bs} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \hat{S}_i$$

The bootstrap standard error (i.e. the standard deviation of the bootstrap estimate)

$$s.e._{bs}(\hat{S}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{i=1}^B (\hat{S}_i - \hat{S}_{bs})^2}$$

The bootstrap estimate of the bias:

$$b_{bs} = \hat{S}_{bs} - \hat{S}$$

The bias corrected estimate:

$$\hat{S} - (\hat{S}_{bs} - \hat{S}) = 2\hat{S} - \hat{S}_{bs}$$

Definition: Bias = $S_{\text{hat}} - S$; where S is the true parameter. Hence, $S = S_{\text{hat}} - \text{bias}$ where the bias is estimated by $(S_{\text{hat}}_{bs} - S_{\text{hat}})$