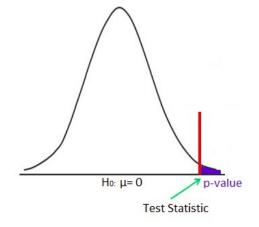
# 6. DATA ANALYSIS

### 6.1. Hypothesis Testing

- Your ideas have to be formulated in to a <u>clear</u> question.
- Fig. 1. It is not <u>acceptable</u> / <u>efficient</u> to collect data and then fish around for low <u>p-values</u> 1.
- > Start with *well-formulated* question before running an exp.



¹ helps to determine the <u>significance</u> of your <u>results</u>: a small p-value ( $\leq 0.05$ ) indicates strong evidence against the **null hypothesis**, so you <u>reject</u> the null hypothesis; a large p-value (> 0.05) indicates weak evidence against the **null hypothesis**, so you fail to <u>reject</u> the null hypothesis;

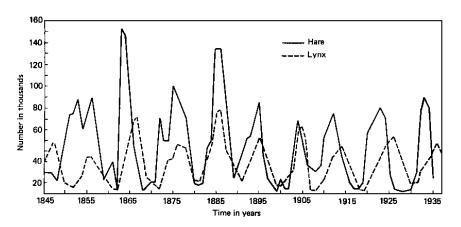
If the **p-value** <  $\alpha$ , then this represents a statistically significant **p-value**: we can **reject** the claimed hypothesis.

If the **p-value**  $\geq \alpha$ , we cannot **reject** the claimed hypothesis.

- > A <u>clear</u> question will stimulate relevant exp. <u>manipulations</u> and <u>statistical</u> analyses <sup>1</sup>.
- > Statistics will allow you to *evaluate* whether the differences *caused* by you *treatments* are likely to be *real* one **or** are likely to reflect *random* noise.



Photo source: Rudolfo's Usenet Animal Pictures Gallery (link no longer exists)



Population cycles in Lynx & its prey (MacLulich after Elton 1925) https://www.mun.ca/biology

<sup>1</sup> e. g., you observed that the population of the **species A** (lynx) reduces the population size of **species B** (hare)  $/h\epsilon$ :/

You testable working *hypothesis* is that *population* of hare will be lower in the presence of lynx then in the absence of lynx.

How to study? You can conduct a manipulation, *removing* lynx from half of you plots and keeping the other half as unmanipulated control.

By measuring difference in hare population you will find that you null hypothesis can be rejected.

### 6.2. Statistical & biological significance

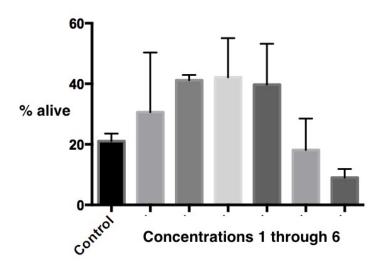
- ► **SS** is indicated by a *probability* level ¹.
- SS at p < 0.05 means that the null hypothesis  $(H_0)^2$  is *rejected*.
- There is a 95% *chance* that there is a difference between these two conditions.
- **BS** is indicated by the *size* of the effect.

<sup>1</sup> not necessarily *large* or *important* when you perform a *hypothesis* test (the validity of a claim that is made about something) in statistics *p*-value (probability level) helps determine the *significance* of your results.

The <u>p-value</u> is a number between 0 and 1 and interpreted in the following way:  $\leq$  0.05 - strong evidence against the H<sub>0</sub>, so you <u>reject</u> the H<sub>0</sub>; > 0.05 - weak evidence against the H<sub>0</sub>, so you fail to reject the H<sub>0</sub>; very close to 0.05 - are considered to be marginal (could go either way).

<sup>2</sup> that there is no difference between the **treatment** and **control**.

- Very <u>small</u> differences can be SS but not produce <u>consequences</u> that are important.
- In fact, we want to know if effects are "**BS**", although we often use "**SS**".
- We need to report both, if the difference is **SS** and the effect  $\underline{size}^{1}$ .

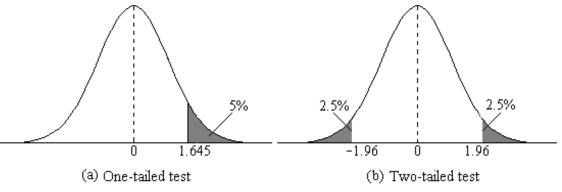


A number of cells with six different concentrations, n=3 https://stats.stackexchange.com/questions

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  e.g. with a *histogram* (mean±SE) or by reporting that hares were 30% more numerous in plots without lynx.

### 6.3. How to evaluate statistical significance?

- > Steps to assess **SS**:
- · define your **hypotheses** <sup>1</sup>;
- set the significance level (a-level) <sup>2</sup>;
- decide to use a one-tailed or two-tailed **test** <sup>3</sup>;
- determine sample **size** 4;
- · calculate **SD** <sup>5</sup>;



https://towardsdatascience.com/one-tailed-or-two-tailed-test-that-is-the-question-1283387f631c

- <sup>1</sup> i.e. the question you want to **answer** and stating your **hypothesis**;
- <sup>2</sup> the **threshold** that you set to determine significance: if your **p-value** is  $\leq$  to the set significance level, the data is considered SS;
- <sup>3</sup> a one-tailed (однобічний, is more powerful): testing for the possibility of the relationship in <u>one</u> direction, e.g. a new variety "A" you think is "more" productive than already existing variety "B"; two-tailed test: you are testing for the possibility of the relationship in <u>both</u> directions, e.g. a new variety "A" you think is "more" or "less" productive than already existing variety "B";
- $^{\scriptscriptstyle 4}$  practical part question, where 0.01 is confidence interval for  $\mu;$

<sup>5</sup> the formula is SD =  $\sqrt{\sum((x_i-\mu)^2/(n-1))}$ .

$$1.96 \pm \sqrt{\frac{o^2}{n}} \le 0.10$$

- · calculate the **variance** between 2 sample groups <sup>1</sup>;
- · calculate the **t-score** <sup>2</sup>;
- · determine the **df** <sup>3</sup>;
- · use a **t-table** to evaluate significance <sup>4</sup>.

E.g. if **t-score** = 2.61 gives  $\underline{p\text{-}value}$  between 0.01 and 0.025, which is  $\leq$  0.05, our data is **SS**, we reject the null hypothesis.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> the formula for variance is  $s_d = \sqrt{((s_1/N_1) + (s_2/N_2))}$ ;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> t-scores allow you to perform a t-test that lets you calculate the probability of two groups being significantly different from each other:  $t=(\mu_1-\mu_2)/s_a$ ;

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$  e.g. if we have 5 samples in each of two groups, df=8 i.e. ((5+5)-2=8);

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> in a statistics book or online.

### 6.4. How to calculate effect size?

- E.g. you studied how removal of large herbivores (goats) from some large scale plot *effect* the *population* of small herbivores (grasshopper).
- You found that in those without <u>mammalian</u> herbivores <u>grasshopper</u> population was <u>higher</u> and **SS** (**p=0.014**).
- > What was the *size* of the effect?
- > **One way**: the *absolute difference* (**AD**) in grasshoppers between two treatments:

$$| mean_{tretm.(no goats)} - mean_{ctrl.} | = AD$$

$$|14.8 - 6.75| = 8.05$$

**Another way**: AD is not as useful as <u>relative difference</u> (RD):

$$| \text{mean}_{\text{tretm.(no goats)}} - \text{mean}_{\text{ctrl.}} | / \text{mean}_{\text{ctrl.}} = \text{RD}$$

$$| 14.8 - 6.75 | / 6.75 | = 119 \%$$

By removing goats population of grasshoppers *increased* by **119** %.

**Third way**: to report standardized effect <u>sizes</u> scaled by a measure of the <u>variance</u> or <u>noise</u> involved in measuring them  $^{1,2}$ :

| mean  $_{
m tretm.(no\ goats)}$  - mean  $_{
m ctrl.}$  | / SD  $_{
m tretm.(no\ goats)}$  +  $_{
m ctrl.}$ 

i.e. 
$$(14.8 - 6.75) / 4.43 = 1.82$$
.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> the difference between the means divided by their standard deviation, SD;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> gives **unitless** (having no units of measurement) **value:** help evaluate how big or small an effect is when the units of measurement aren't intuitive (інтуїтивно зрозумілий). E.g. 2.3 ° C is a meaningful difference while a 2.3-point difference on an anxiety scale that runs from 7 to 49 is not so meaningful difference.

- > Such effect sizes are *unit-less* and allows us to compare it with the effects found in other studies.
- > No two populations are *exactly* identical, just as no two people are.
- By testing a  $\mathbf{H}_0^{-1}$  we are not calculating the *probability* that they are *identical*, but rater the *probability* that we can detect a *difference* between them.
- > We are saying that two populations are:
- truly different if p=0.049;
- not different if **p=0.051**

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> two populations are the same

> These numbers are a bit <u>arbitrary</u>, since in both cases we will be wrong appr. 5 times of 100.

Fig. **p=0.001** we can be more *confident* that the result was not caused by chance than if e.g. **p=0.05**.

> It is good to report <u>calculated</u> value rather than reporting p > or < than 0.05.

### 6.5. Alternative hypotheses

Many ecol. <u>hypotheses</u> are not simply  $\underline{true}$  or  $\underline{false}$  <sup>1</sup>.

## Null Hypothesis

## Alternative Hypothesis

https://keydifferences.com/

- How can we study this *phenomenon*?
- > Instead of rejecting  $H_0$  let us think what is the <u>size</u> of the effect caused by <u>competition</u>?
- Even if *competition* is found to be important, *predation* may also be important.
- By developing a set of *alternatives*, you do not become "attached" to the hypotheses you selected initially.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> e.g., we want to understand the role of <u>competition</u> in communities structuring. We can not conduct a simple experiment (it can be *predation*, *parasitism disturbance* etc.).

- Fig. If you start with a <u>list</u> of  $H_A$ , you likely will end up with something <u>interesting</u>.
- If you are *focusing* on only a single *hypothesis*, you will have to say *something* only if your results come out one particular way.
- $\rightarrow$  How to generate  $H_{\Lambda}$ ?
- Once you have identified a *pattern* that is interesting to you *consider* the other possible *factors* as alternatives that could also produce this pattern<sup>1</sup>.

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abiotic factors (e.g. precipitation, temperature etc.);
predators, parasitism, disease;
mating factors (e.g. sexual selection, nest-site availability);
microhabitatats (shelter from abiotic conditions);
disturbance (human or natural causes);
genetic or developmental influence etc.
```

> Should you test all of your *alternatives*?

No, you should not.

Although *getting* them all down on the paper for a *consideration* is a first step.

### 6.6. Negative results

- Assume, we <u>fail</u> to <u>reject</u> a  $H_0^{-1}$ , should we <u>conclude</u> that two populations really are the <u>same</u>?
- > No.
- $\rightarrow$  What can we <u>say</u>?
- > Only that we *failed* to show *difference* or *effect* we have hypothesized.
- > Why?

 $^{1}$  i.e. p > 0.05

#### Reasons:

- statistical tests give us far *more* power to *reject* hypotheses than to *accept* "negative" results (1).
- · in most cases we have very <u>weak</u> power to <u>evaluate</u> whether two populations are <u>similar</u> (2).
- · we rarely use *relevant statistics* to address this issue (3).
- · many papers with "negative" results in ecology never get published (4).
- · our ability to  $\underline{accept}$  a negative result also depend on the  $\underline{effect}$   $\underline{size}$  we are looking for <sup>1</sup>.

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1 e.g., it is generally accepted that:
a small effect size as a difference of 0.10 (10%) or <;
a large effect size as a difference of 0.40 (40%) or >.
```

- How to interpret results?
- If we expect a <u>really</u> large effect, we can be more <u>confident</u> that one truly didn't exist than if we were only <u>expecting</u> a small effect.

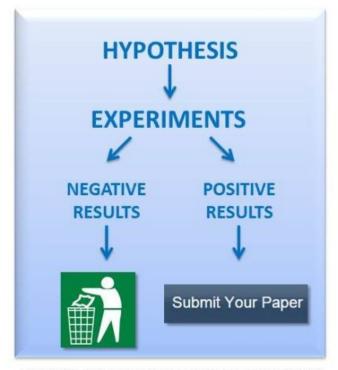


Figure 1: The most common approach taken by journals, in which only those experiments yielding positive results end up as publication material.



Figure 2: A more neutral approach, in which all results are published, as long as they are generated by well-carried out experiments based on sound hypotheses.

https://www.elsevier.com/

### 6.7. The numbers of data and test statistics

- > The numbers of the data itself is not very *meaningful*, because it's not *standardized*.
- You can obtain a <u>lot</u> of data points, but you have to extract <u>meaningful</u> things from it.
- Why test <u>statistics</u> <sup>1</sup> is important?
- It shows how *far* or *close* actual results are from claimed data in terms of *standard errors* (**SE**) of the sample mean <sup>2</sup>.
- > The *sample size* is another variable we need to calculate the *p-value* <sup>3</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> a statistic used in **statistical** hypothesis **testing**.

² depends on SD and the sample size (n): SE = SD/ $\sqrt{n}$ : SE is a measure of the <u>dispersion</u> of sample <u>means</u> around the <u>population</u> <u>mean</u>.

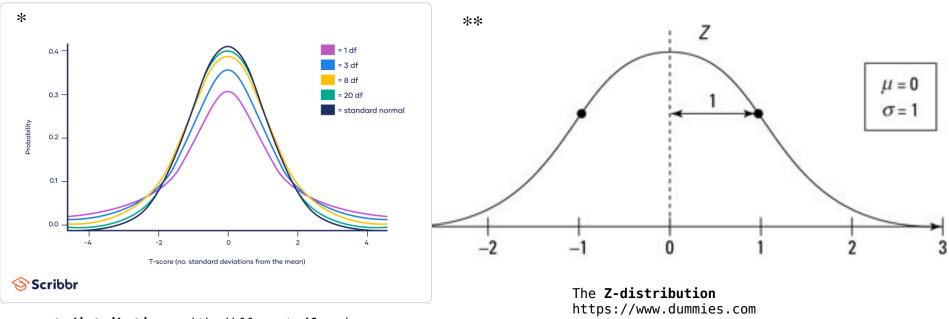
So, if we want to say how <u>widely scattered</u> some measurements are, we use the **SD**; if we want to indicate the <u>uncertainty</u> around the estimate of the mean measurement, we use **SE**.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> important because it determines whether we use the standard normal <u>distribution</u> (Z-distribution) to look up the <u>p-value</u>, or we use the <u>t-distribution</u> to look up the <u>p-value</u>. When you know the population **SD** you should use the **z-test**, when you estimate the sample **SD** you should use the **t-test**. Usually, we don't have the population **SD**, so we use the t-test.

If the sample size is < 30 (n < 30) <sup>1</sup>, we use the <u>t-distribution</u>\* to calculate the <u>p-value</u>.

We calculate the **df** (df=n-1) and use it to calculate the *p-value*.

If the sample is > 30 (n > 30)<sup>2</sup>, we use the <u>Z-distribution</u>\*\* to calculate the <u>p-value</u>.



t-distributions with different df and
the standard normal distribution
http://onlinestatbook.com

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> this is a <u>small</u> <u>sample</u> <u>size</u>; \* Student's probability distribution that is used to estimate population parameters when the sample size is <u>small</u> and/or when the population <u>variance</u> is <u>unknown</u>;

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> this is a *large* sample *size;* \*\* is a normal distribution with mean zero and standard deviation 1.