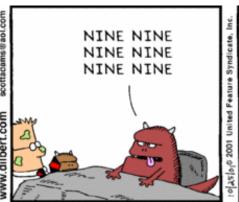


L9: Resampling methods





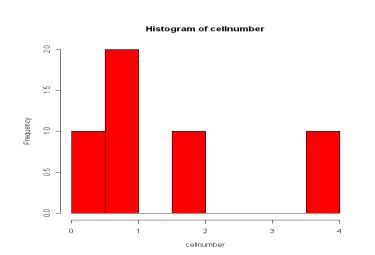


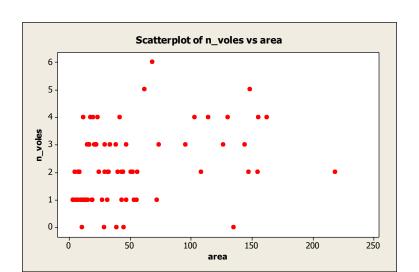
Random Resampling

- Computationally-intensive statistical techniques that avoid parametric assumptions by extracting maximum information from the data:
- We re-sample our original data many times and calculate a statistic of interest (mean, variance, correlation coefficient, etc.).
- Each re-sample contains a random component and the many re-samples give a new distribution



- When sample sizes are small or the underlying distributions are non-normal or contain outliers, standard parametric techniques can generate misleading results.
- Resampling gives us robust and powerful techniques to avoid these problems. We can:
 - reduce uncertainty in descriptive statistics (means, variances, confidence intervals, etc)
 - do tests (t, r, F, etc) against a "perfect" null distribution
- Resampling uses ONLY the information in your data, not assuming anything about the distribution they came from.





Resampling to reduce uncertainty in descriptive statistics

Bootstrap and Jack-knife

- Bootstrapping is for estimating confidence intervals around parameter estimates
- Jack-knifing is for sensitivity analysis: identify outliers and their impact

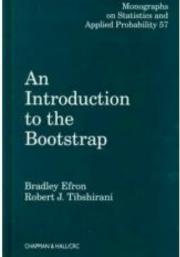
| Method | Description | Nickname | |
|-----------|--|---------------------------|--|
| Bootstrap | Randomly resample with replacement | "sample with replacement" | |
| Jackknife | Systematically omit single data points | "drop one out" | |

The Bootstrap

- For estimating the variation in a test statistic (e.g. SE and 95% CI) without assuming a distribution
- Resample the observed data with replacement (aka
 Monte Carlo sampling) a large number (≥1000) of times,
 making each the same size as the original sample
- Calculate the statistic of interest for each of the samples, yielding a bootstrapped distribution for the statistic.









Grouse on leks

Imagine we have these data for numbers of black grouse on each of 20 leks:

```
Number <-
c(0,1,3,1,1,0,0,8,10,4,1,5,
0,8,0,1,1,0,1,5)
```

- mean and standard error of this distribution is 2.500 ± 0.698
- Para 95% CI = SE. t_{crit} =0.698 x 2.093 = 1.46 → {1.03–3.96}

| | P= | P= | P= | P= |
|----------|-------|--------|--------|---------|
| DF | 0.1 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.001 |
| 1 | 6.314 | 12.706 | 63.657 | 636.619 |
| 2 | 2.92 | 4.303 | 9.925 | 31.599 |
| 3 | 2.353 | 3.182 | 5.841 | 12.924 |
| 19 | 1.729 | 2.093 | 2.861 | 3.883 |
| 20 | 1.725 | 2.086 | 2.845 | 3.85 |
| infinity | 1.645 | 1.96 | 2.576 | 3.291 |

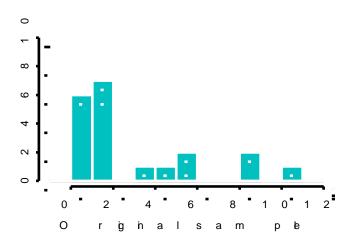
How robust are these estimates?

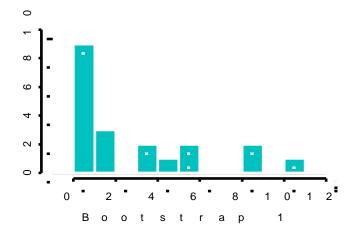


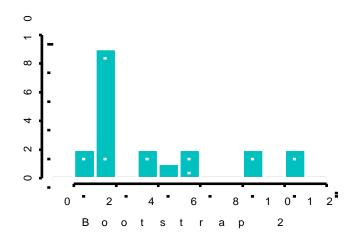
Sampling with replacement

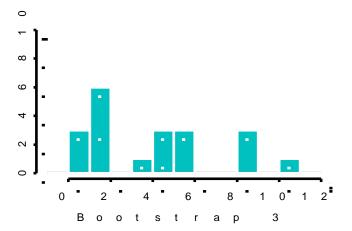
| Lek No. | Lek Size | Bootstrap 1 | Bootstrap 2 | Bootstrap 3 |
|-------------------|----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 2 | | 3 | 3 | 5 |
| 3 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 8 |
| 4 | 1 | 10 | 8 | 1 |
| 5 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 4 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 1 |
| 7 | 0 | 8 | 5 | 0 |
| 8 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 9 | 10 | 8 | 5 | 5 |
| 10 | 4 | | 8 | 5 |
| 11 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 0 |
| 12 | 5 | | 1 | 3 |
| 13 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 10 |
| 14 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| 15 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 |
| 16 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| 17 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 1 |
| 18 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 19 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| 20 Maan | 5 | 4 | 2.25 | 4 2 500 |
| Mean | 2.500 | 2.450 | 3.25 | 3.500 |
| standard error | 0.698 | 0.716 | 0.743 | 0.698 |

Bootstrap histograms

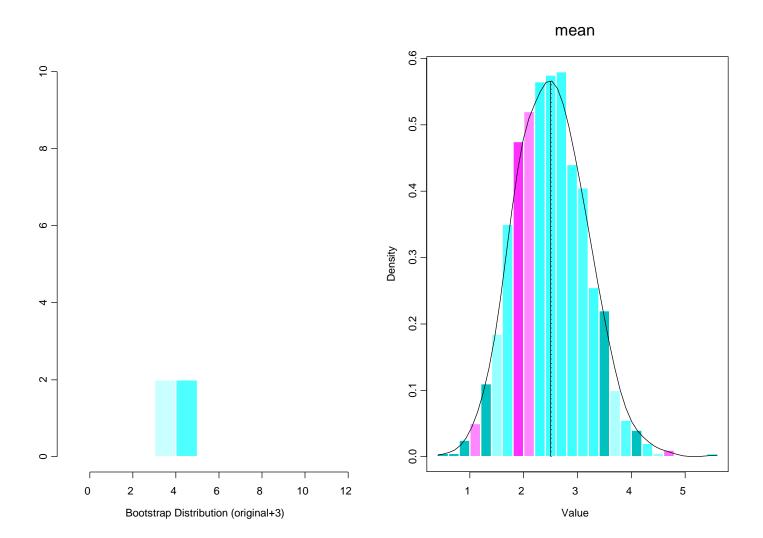






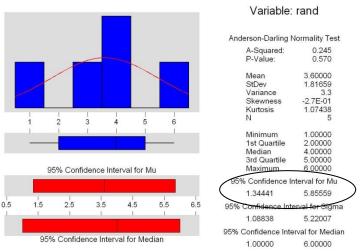


Bootstrap distribution



```
> b <- boot(Number, statistic=samplemean, R=1000)</pre>
> b
                                        > samplemean <- function(x, d) {</pre>
ORDINARY NONPARAMETRIC BOOTSTRAP
                                             return (mean (x[d]))
                                        + }
Call:
                                                                     mean
boot(data = Number, statistic = samplemean, R = 1000)
Bootstrap Statistics:
   original bias std. error
t1* 2.5 -0.0083 0.6683733
 > boot.ci(b,conf=0.95,type = c("norm","basic","perc","bca"))
 BOOTSTRAP CONFIDENCE INTERVAL CALCULATIONS
 Based on 1000 bootstrap replicates
 CALL:
 boot.ci(boot.out = b, conf = 0.95, type = c("norm", "basic",
     "perc", "bca"))
                                                         Mean= 2.5
 Intervals:
 Level Normal
                      Basic
                                                         (95% CI 1.4-4.147)
 95% (1.198, 3.818) (1.100, 3.749)
 Level Percentile
                               BCa
                                                         Parametric estimates
 95% (1.251, 3.900) (1.400, 4.147)
                                                         95% CI 1.03-3.96
 Calculations and Intervals on Original Scale
```

Descriptive Statistics



A sample of just {4,6,4,1,3}...

```
> b <- boot(rand, samplemean, R=1000)
```

ORDINARY NONPARAMETRIC BOOTSTRAP

Some BCa intervals may be unstable

```
Call:
boot(data = rand, statistic = samplemean, R = 1000)
```

```
Histogram of rand
                                       Histogram of b$t
          Histogram of t
0.4
             3
                  4
                                           -3 -2 -1 0 1
                                            Quantiles of Standard Normal
```

```
Bootstrap Statistics:
    original bias
                      std. error
                                           Types of
t.1 *
         3.6
               0.025
                      0.7241681
                                           confidence
> boot.ci(b,conf=0.95,type =
                                           intervals...
+ c("norm", "basic", "perc", "bca"))
BOOTSTRAP CONFIDENCE INTERVAL CALCULATIONS
Based on 1000 bootstrap replicates
CALL :
boot.ci(boot.out = b, conf = 0.95, type = c("norm",
   "basic",
    "perc", "bca"))
Intervals:
Level
          Normal
                               Basic
      (2.156, 4.994)
95%
                          (2.200, 5.000)
Level
          Percentile
                                BCa
      (2.2, 5.0) (1.8, 4.6)
95%
Calculations and Intervals on Original Scale
```

Can estimate anything...

- 1. mean and variance of a single sample
- 2. difference between two samples
- 3. correlation between two samples
- 4. regression coefficients
- 5. ratio of variances, etc,

R.M. Gunton et al. / Forest Ecology and Management xxx (2010) xxx-xxx

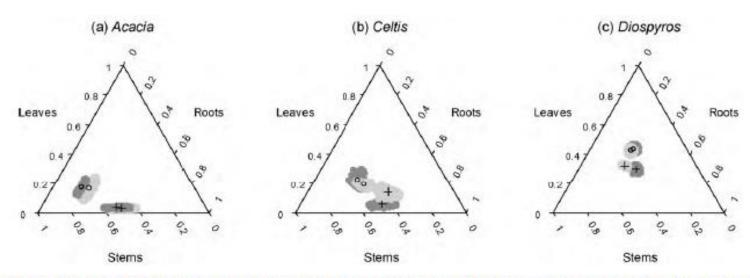


Fig. 3. Mean leaf, root and stem mass fractions for the three species (shaded regions indicate 95% confidence regions from bootstrapping). The mass-partitioning patterns for each species are shown for low light (circles) and high light (crosses) with low nitrogen (pale shading) and high nitrogen (dark shading).

6

Can estimate anything...

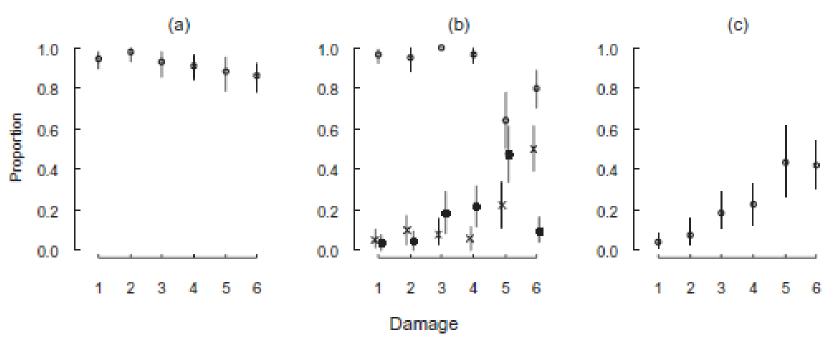


Fig. 3. Detailed results for Eucalyptus tetrodonta from the extended dataset: proportions of (a) trees that resprouted (b) trees with each type of resprout, among those that resprouted (root: crosses; basal: filled circles; epicormic: open circles) and (c) trees with root or basal resprouts, among those that resprouted epicormically. Codes for damage types: 1 = tertiary or higher-level branches survived, 2 = secondary branches survived, 3 = only primary branches survived, 4 = main stem snapped above 2 m from the ground, 5 = main stem snapped up to 2 m above ground level, 6 = uprooted. The vertical bars show 95% confidence intervals estimated from bootstrapping.

Franklin et al (2009), Austral Ecology

The Jack-knife

How sensitive is a statistic to any one datum?

- useful for identifying outliers and deriving robust confidence intervals after compensating for the bias these outliers introduce.
- we recalculate the statistic of interest (mean, t, r, etc) N times, where n is the number of data points we have. Each time omit one data point
- Thus our N estimates are calculated using N-1 observations each.
- From our n estimates we can calculate a mean and an estimate of the variation in our data. Just as importantly, we can identify unusual (outlier) data points.

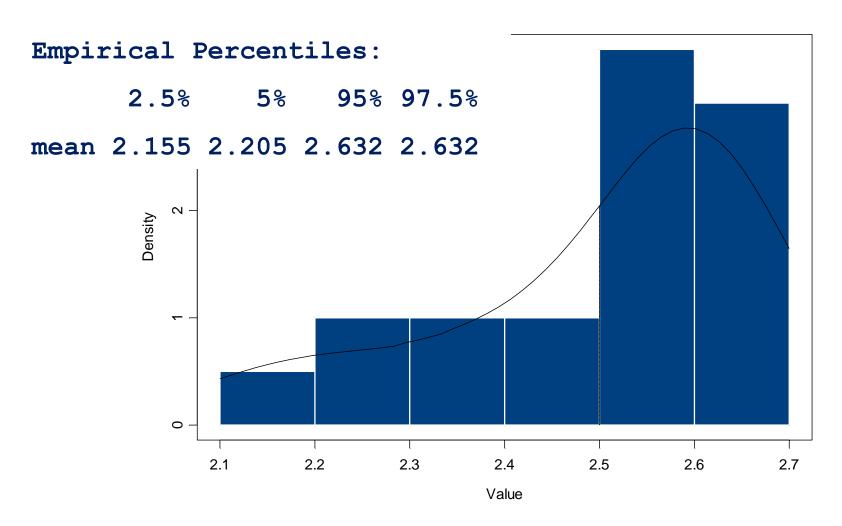


Leaving data out

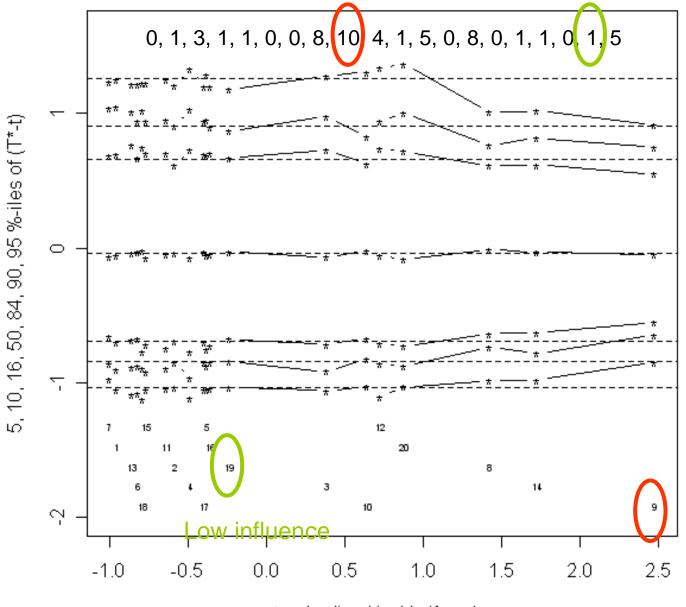
| Lek No. | Number of birds | Jackknife 1 | Jackknife 2 | Jacknife 3 |
|----------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|------------|
| 1 | 0 | X | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 11 | 1 | X | 1 |
| 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | X |
| 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| 9 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 10 |
| 10 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 12 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| 13 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 14 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| 15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 17 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 18 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 19 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 20 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Mean | 2.500 | 2.632 | 2.579 | 2.474 |
| standard error | 0.698 | 0.722 | 0.731 | 0.735 |

Jack-knife distribution

Observed mean = 2.5



jack.after.bootstrap()



standardized jackknife value

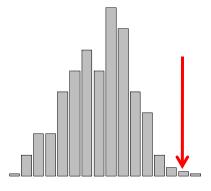
High influence

Randomisation: the "perfect null"

Randomisation for the perfect null

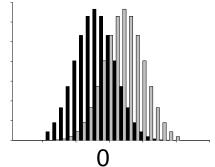
Implement your null hypothesis: build up a "null distribution" from your data to compare an observed statistic to.

- Allows you to get away from parametric assumptions and avoid low power of nonparametric tests
- Very flexible customise your tests



What is a null hypothesis?

- "A precise but inaccurate dream..."
- For Normal errors, we can take the observed s to estimate σ and then imagine μ is 0.



- For GLMs, we can't do this since mean is linked to SD. So our null model already has an intercept, but we can use deviance estimates to imagine what the stats would be if all other effects are 0.
- What about weird distributions?

DIY "null" distributions

- State your null hypothesis in the form "Y does not depend on X". If this is true, X might as well be random. So:
- Randomise the values of X (keep Y in order if you have other variables not being tested)
 - To randomise, sample without replacement (the default in sample())
- Calculate your statistic from the randomised "data" and store it in a suitable array...
- Repeat lots of times (999? 9999? 99999?). E.g.:

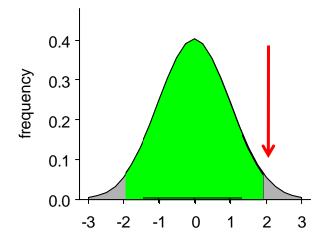
```
> stats.ran <- matrix(NA, nrow=999, ncol=2)
> for(r in 1:999) {
+    X.ran <- sample(data$X)
+    stats.ran[r,] <- lm(Y ~ X.ran)$coef }</pre>
```

DIY "null" distributions

 Now find some quantiles of your "null" distribution to see what values are most likely:

```
> quantile( stats.ran[1,],
+ probs=c(0.005,0.025,0.975,0.995) )
```

- and compare your true statistic to these.
- One-tailed or two-tailed test?

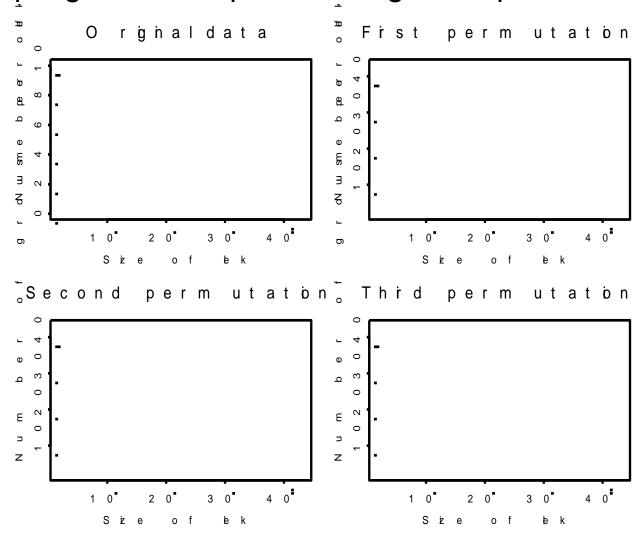


Example: Permutation test for association

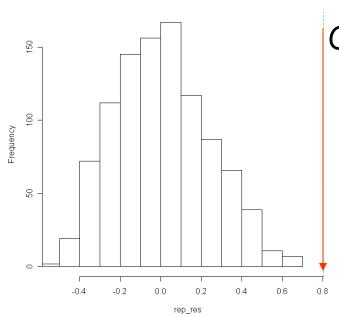
| Lek No. | Lek Size | Number of birds | Permutation | Permutation 2 | Permutation 3 |
|---------|----------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1 | 5 | 0 | 5 | 43 | 24 |
| 2 | 8 | 1 | 7 | 33 | 19 |
| 3 | 24 | 3 | 8 | 5 | 34 |
| 4 | 10 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 6 |
| 5 | 3 | 1 | 19 | 3 | 12 |
| 6 | 2 | 0 | 6 | 2 | 2 |
| 7 | 5 | 0 | 10 | 6 | 33 |
| 8 | 22 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| 9 | 43 | 10 | 2 | 8 | 7 |
| 10 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 2 |
| 11 | 2 | 1 | 33 | 10 | 43 |
| 12 | 6 | 5 | 12 | 34 | 8 |
| 13 | 6 | 0 | 24 | 6 | 3 |
| 14 | 33 | 8 | 43 | 24 | 10 |
| 15 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 4 | 22 |
| 16 | 12 | 1 | 22 | 7 | 6 |
| 17 | 8 | 1 | 34 | 3 | 5 |
| 18 | 7 | 0 | 6 | 22 | 8 |
| 19 | 19 | 1 | 8 | 12 | 3 |
| 20 | 34 | 5 | 4 | 19 | 5 |
| | Corr=r | 0.802 | -0.206 | 0.018 | -0.041 |

Example: Permutation test for association

Sampling without replacement gives a permuted sample.



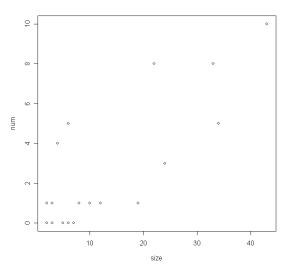
Example: Permutation test for association



permutation distribution

Observed correlation r = 0.802

1000 permutations give null distribution of correlation coefficient, all smaller than observed P < 0.001 that observed correlation would arise by chance



Pearson correlation of rank(size) and rank(num) = 0.654 P-Value = 0.002 (this is Spearman's rank correlation)

Pearson correlation of s and n = 0.802Bootstrap *P*-Value < 0.001

Practicals

Day 5 P6_resamp

 This afternoon's P7_power is hardly a practical, likely to take only a few minutes.
 Use the rest of the sessions as you want.