II. Data exploration & Statistical analyses

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Disease Eco-Evo Lab

In this course we will see:

- How to **explore your data**, verify your model assumptions
- Build simple (lm) and generalized (glm) linear models
- Perform simple ANOVAs (analyses of variance) and post-hoc tests
- How to perform model comparison (stepwise regression, using AIC)

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- Plot your data using ggplot2 and the Hmisc package
- Useful tips to organize your layout, change the legends, etc.
- Export your plot in high resolution (for publication / presentation...)

Mind the dogs!

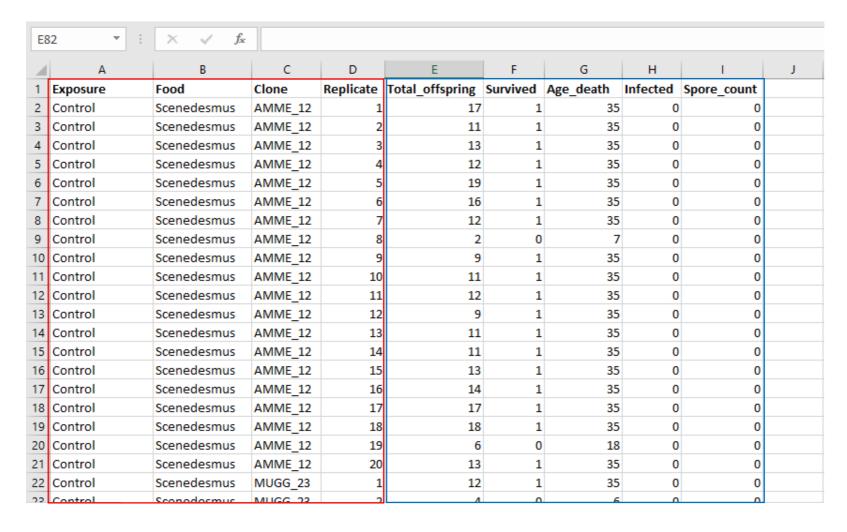


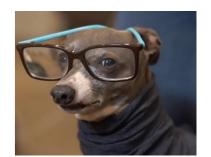
The **Listen** Dog



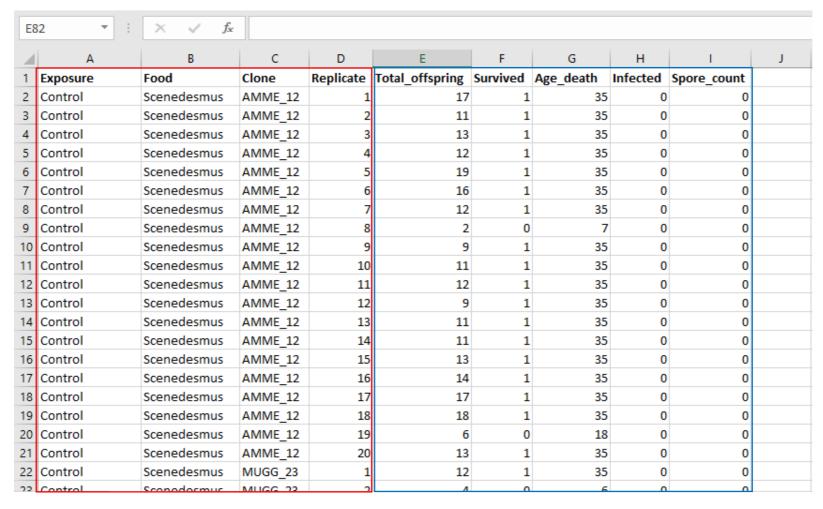
The **Do** Dog

Is your data well organized?





Is your data well organized?

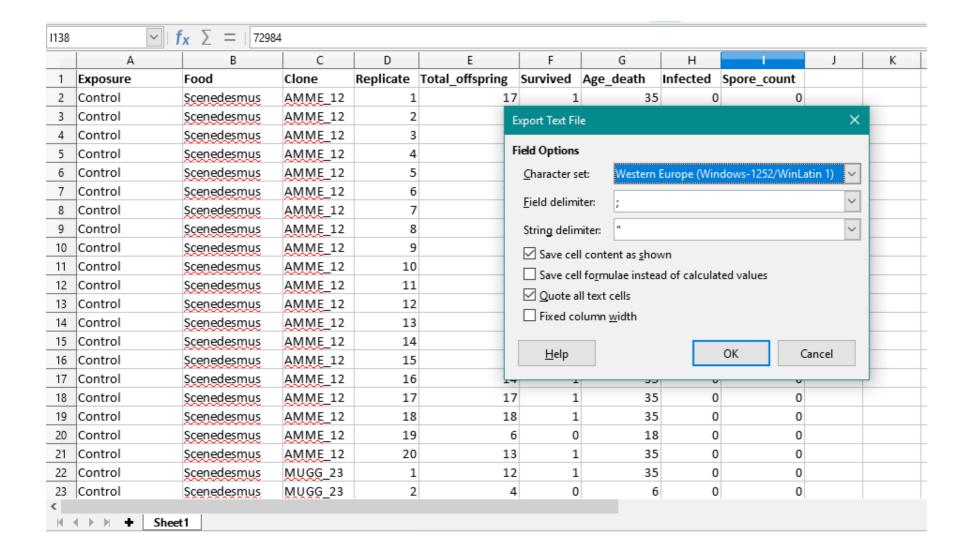




Response variables (Continuous, Binomial...)



Export your data safely (as .csv)





The purpose of statistical analyses



- You need an objective, non-biased tool to confirm (or disprove) the differences that you THINK you can see on your plots
- Otherwise, the goal is basically the same as plotting your data: you want to use explanatory variables (your x-axis, facet, colours...) to explain differences in your response variable (your y-axis)
- Therefore, if you know what kind of plot you want to make out of your data, then you already know which statistical analyses you want to run!

"Your hypothesis, is your plot, is your model"

Factors and levels



In this course we will only focus on explanatory variables that take the form of **Factors** (as opposed to continuous variables)

Factor	Treatment	
Factor levels	No pesticideLow doseHigh Dose	3

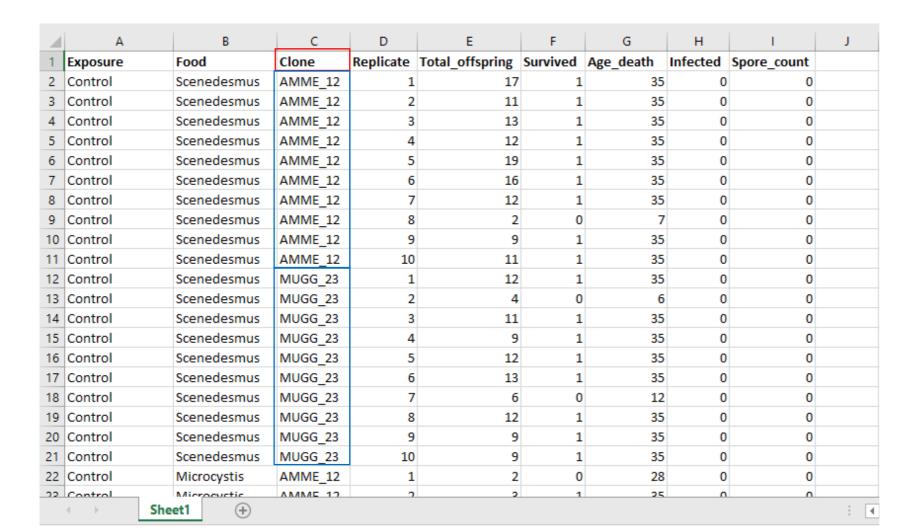
Variable	Dose	
Values	0 1.57 5.43 9.67 	~ ~

Factors and levels

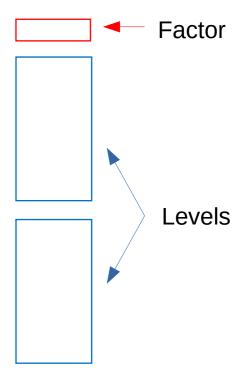


- In laboratory experiments, you often apply treatments to your organisms of interest
- For instance, you could expose your organism to **different diets**, or incubate them at different **temperatures**
- If you organized your data correctly, then remember that your factors should be placed as header (either Food, or Temperature), which can contain several levels (groups of rows with the same name)

Factors and levels







ANOVA vs. t-test



t-tests can be performed when you want to compare the mean of only two groups:

(example: one factor, two levels → the 'pills' group and the 'placebo' group)

- ANOVAS should be performed when you want to compare the means of at least three groups:

(example 1: one factor, three levels → the 'pills', 'placebo' and 'control' group)

One-Way ANOVA

(example 2: two factors, two levels → 'pills' or 'placebo' X 'sleep' or 'no sleep')

Two-Way ANOVA

ANOVA: the principles



- Like other classical statistical tests, we calculate a test statistic (the F-ratio) with which we can obtain the probability of obtaining the data assuming the null hypothesis (the P-value).

- A significant P-value (usually taken as P<0.05) suggests that at least one group mean is significantly different from the others.

Null hypothesis: all population means are equal

Alternative hypothesis: at least one population mean is different from the rest.

ANOVA: the principles



- ANOVA separates the variation in the dataset into 2 parts: between-group and within-group.

(NB: These variations are called the **sums of squares**)

- The **F-ratio** is then calculated as:

Mean between-group SS

Mean within-group SS

- → If the average difference between groups is similar to that within groups, the F ratio is about 1.
- → As the average difference between groups becomes greater than that within groups, the F ratio becomes larger than 1.

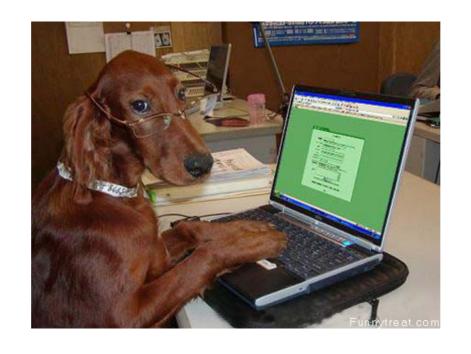
Linear models



- In order to perform an analysis of variance (ANOVA), you first need to fit a linear model to your data.
- Basically, your data becomes presented as a **formula** that resembles a mathematical function:

$$Y = B.X + U$$

- Y is a matrix containing a set of measurements on each of the dependent variables
- X is your design matrix (observations on each of the independent variables)
- B is a matrix containing parameters (to be estimated)
- U is the error matrix, containing noise (uncorrelated, normally distributed)



Please progress forward to Step 3!

Post-hoc tests

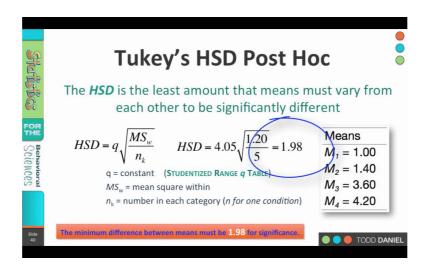


- The information that you get from an ANOVA is often incomplete: <u>at least one group</u> <u>mean is significantly different from the others</u>!
- For instance, you could be working with a factor that has **more than two levels** (Treatments: T1 to T4) and 'treatment' comes out as significant in your ANOVA. In that case, **you still don't know if all treatments are different from one another**, or if maybe only one is bad for the health, while the other three are comparable!
- In that case, you want to follow your ANOVA by **post-hoc tests**, which occur 'after' your main analysis.

Post-hoc tests



- One common and popular method of post-hoc analysis is **Tukey's HSD test** ('Honestly Significant Difference'). Tukey's test **compares the means of all treatments to the mean of every other treatment.**
- In general, HSD is preferred when you want to make all the possible comparisons between a large set of means (six or more means) and is considered the best available method when confidence intervals are desired, or if sample sizes are unequal.



Post-hoc tests



- There are other ways to perform post-hoc tests, all of which should be able to be performed in R (either with base functions or via specific packages). For instance:

Fisher's LSD (Least Significant Difference): This test is the most liberal of all Post Hoc tests. The critical t for significance is unaffected by the number of groups. This test is generally not considered appropriate if you have more than 3 means.

Dunn's t-test: In general, this test should be used when the number of comparisons you are making exceeds the number of degrees of freedom you have between groups (e.g. K-1). This test is extremely conservative and rapidly reduces power as the number of comparisons being made increase.



Please progress forward to Step 7!

Generalized linear models



- The 'simple' linear model that we've been using so far is actually a specific case of a broader class of linear models, which are called 'generalized' (because they are not limited to normally distributed data, and can be used in many other cases).
- In 'generalized' linear models (or GLMs), each outcome (Y) of the dependent variables is assumed to be generated from a particular distribution in an exponential **family**, that includes the normal (gaussian), as well as non-normal probability distributions.
- GLMs always contain a 'link function', which provides the relationship between the linear predictor and the mean of the distribution function.

Distribution	Support of distribution	Typical uses	Link name	Link function, $\mathbf{X}oldsymbol{eta}=g(\mu)$	Mean function
Normal	real: $(-\infty, +\infty)$	Linear-response data	Identity	$\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mu$	$\mu = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{eta}$
Poisson	integer: $0,1,2,\ldots$	count of occurrences in fixed amount of time/space	Log	$\mathbf{X}oldsymbol{eta} = \ln(\mu)$	$\mu = \exp(\mathbf{X}oldsymbol{eta})$

Generalized linear models



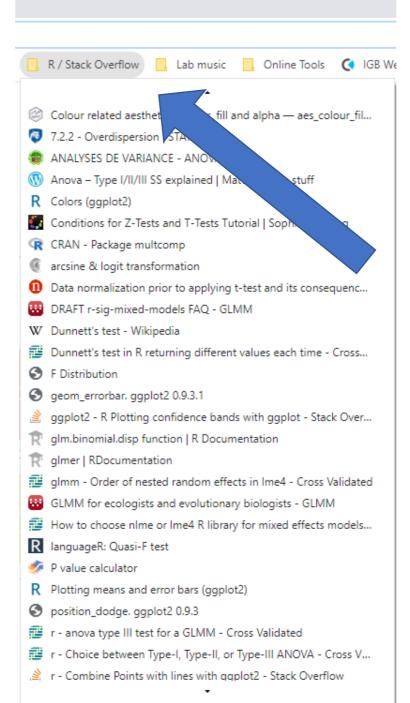
Generalized linear models are fit using the glm() function. The form of the glm function is

glm(formula, family=family(link=linkfunction), data=)

Family	Default Link Function
gaussian	(link = "identity")
binomial	(link = "logit")
Gamma	(link = "inverse")
poisson	(link = "log")
quasibinomial	(link = "logit")
quasipoisson	(link = "log")

Useful tips:

- Stack Overflow is your friend!
- If you found a page helpful, save it under a safe directory!





This way, you won't have to look for it ever again!

Stack Overflow & distraction!

