Research Methodology Statistics

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Why we need statistical data analysis?

Investigations in diverse fields like agriculture, medicine, physics, biology, chemistry etc. require collection of "observations". Observations are almost always subject to random error. Hence statistical methods have to be employed to collect as well as to analyze the data.

Statistical data analysis

Studying a problem through the use of statistical data analysis usually involves four basic steps:

- 1. Defining the problem.
- 2. Collecting the data.
- 3. Analyzing the data.
- 4. Conclusions and recommendations.

Defining the problem

An exact definition of the problem is imperative in order to obtain accurate data about it. It is extremely difficult to gather data without a clear definition of the problem.

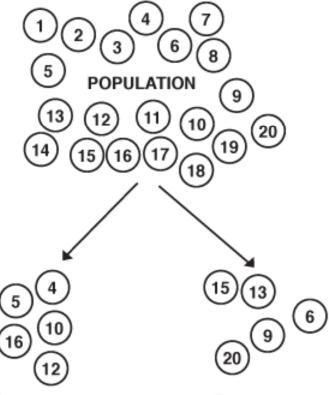
Collecting the data

The three basic principles of experimental design are:

- 1. Randomization.
- 2. Replication.
- 3. Blocking.

Randomization

Randomization is the cornerstone underlying the use of statistical methods in experimental design. By randomization we mean that both the allocation of the experimental material and the order in which individual runs or trials of the experiment are to be performed are randomly determined.



Treatment group 1

Treatment group 2

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Replication

By replication we mean a repetition of the basic experiment. Replication has two important properties:

- 1. It allows the experimenter to obtain an estimate of the experimental error.
- 2. If the sample mean is used to estimate the effect of a factor in the experiment, then replication permits the experimenter to obtain a more precise estimate of this effect.

Without replication



Treatment 1 0.1 L water/day

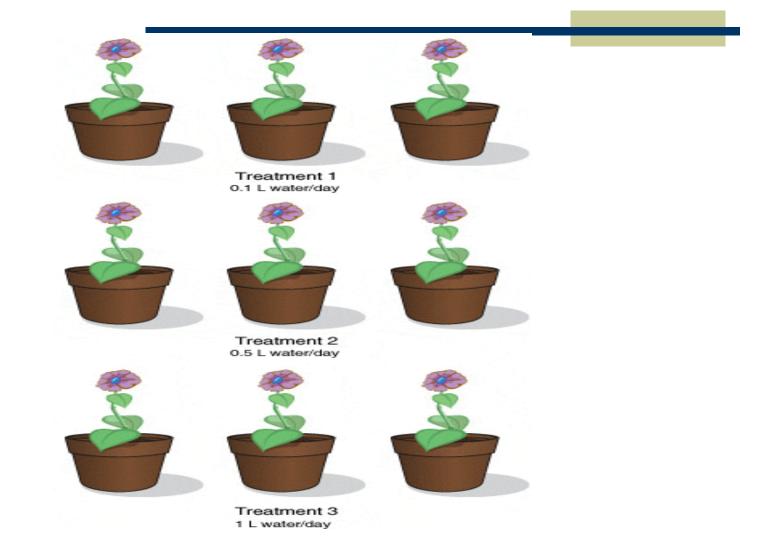


0.5 L water/day



Treatment 3 1 L water/day

With replication



Basic Statistics Terms

- **Null hypothesis Ho** is a <u>hypothesis</u> that is presumed true until statistical evidence in the form of a hypothesis test indicates otherwise.
- In formulating a particular null hypothesis, we are always also formulating an **alternative hypothesis Ha**, which we will accept if the observed data values are sufficiently improbable under the null hypothesis .

Definition of Type I and Type II errors

Sometimes our decisions will be correct and sometimes not. There are two possible errors, which we will call Type I and Type II errors, respectively.

- A *Type I error* is the error of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true. The probability of committing a Type I error is usually denoted by α .
- A *Type II error* is the error of accepting the null hypothesis when it is false. The probability of making a Type II error is usually denoted by β .

Type I and Type II errors

	OTHESIS TESTING	Rea	lity
0010		The Null Hypothesis Is True	The Alternative Hypothesis is True
R e s	The Null Hypothesis Is True	Accurate 1 - α	Type II Error β
a r h	The Alternative Hypothesis is True	Type I Error α	Accurate 1 - β

P-value

P-value is a measure of how much evidence we have against the null hypotheses. The smaller the p-value, the more evidence we have against H0.

Traditionally, researchers will reject a hypothesis if the p-value is less than 0.05. Sometimes, though, researchers will use a stricter cut-off (e.g., 0.01) or a more liberal cut-off (e.g., 0.10). The general rule is that a small p-value is evidence against the null hypothesis while a large p-value means little or no evidence against the null hypothesis.

•P-value	 Interpretation
•P< 0.01	•very strong evidence against H0
•0.01< P< 0.05	 moderate evidence against H0
•0.05< P< 0.10	 suggestive evidence against H0 little or no real evidence against
•0.10< P	 Ittle or no real evidence against HO

Choice of sample size

Why would we want to plan?

- 1. The larger the sample sizes are, the easier it is to detect or find differences in the means.
- 2. The larger the sample size is, the higher the "cost" and the more likely that practically unimportant differences are to be found statistically significant.

Planning to detect any important difference

Let Δ = smallest difference range considered important by the researcher.

Specify Δ , β , α , σ and r use table A.10 (Applied linear statistical models by Neter, Wasserman and Kunter) to determine the needed sample size n (= n_1 = n_2 =...= n_r). Planning to detect any important difference

Example:

Let $\Delta = 3$, $\beta = 0.1$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $\sigma = 2$ and r = 4

 $\Delta \sigma = 1.5$, Power=1- $\beta = 0.9$

 \implies Need n=14 observations at each factor level.

 \implies Need 14*4=56 homogeneous units.

Planning sample size to find the best treatment

Let λ = important difference between any two adjacent means.

r=number of factor level.

 σ = standard deviation.

Specify λ , α , σ and r use table A.11 (Applied linear statistical models by Neter, Wasserman and Kunter) to get d= $\lambda \sqrt{n} / \sigma$ and solve for n.

Planning sample size to find the best treatment

Example:

Let $\lambda=2$, $\alpha=0.05$, $\sigma=3$ and r=5

 $1-\alpha=0.95 \implies d=3.0552$

 $n = (3.0552*3/2)^2 = 21.002 \approx 21$

We need 21 observations at each of 5 levels

 \implies we need 105 experimental units.

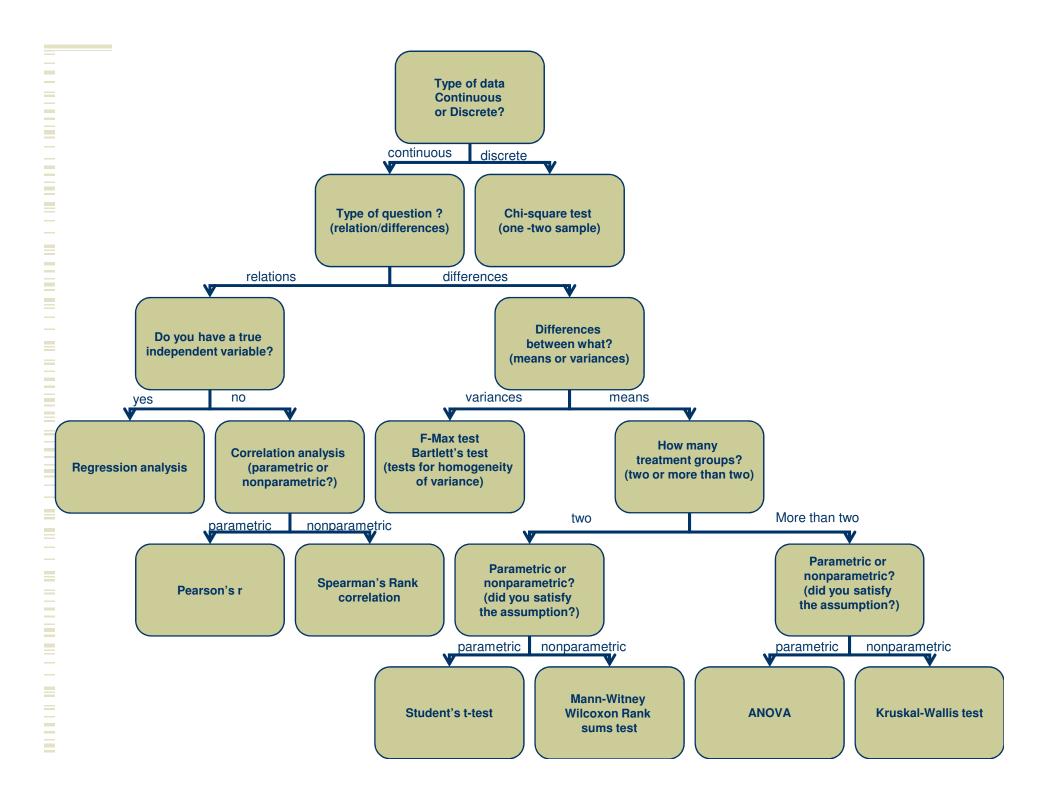
Blocking

If the experimental units are not homogeneous, considerable improvement can be achieved by blocking (grouping) together units that are homogeneous.

Example: Rats coming from the same litter.

Analyzing the data

Your choice of statistical analysis should be made prior to conducting an experiment. There is little sense in collecting data that you can't analyze properly. Use the following flow chart to help you decide which statistic to use.



Assumptions For ANOVA

1. *Normality*: assume that observations in each group are normally distributed.

2. *Homogeneity of the variance*: observations in each group have the same variance

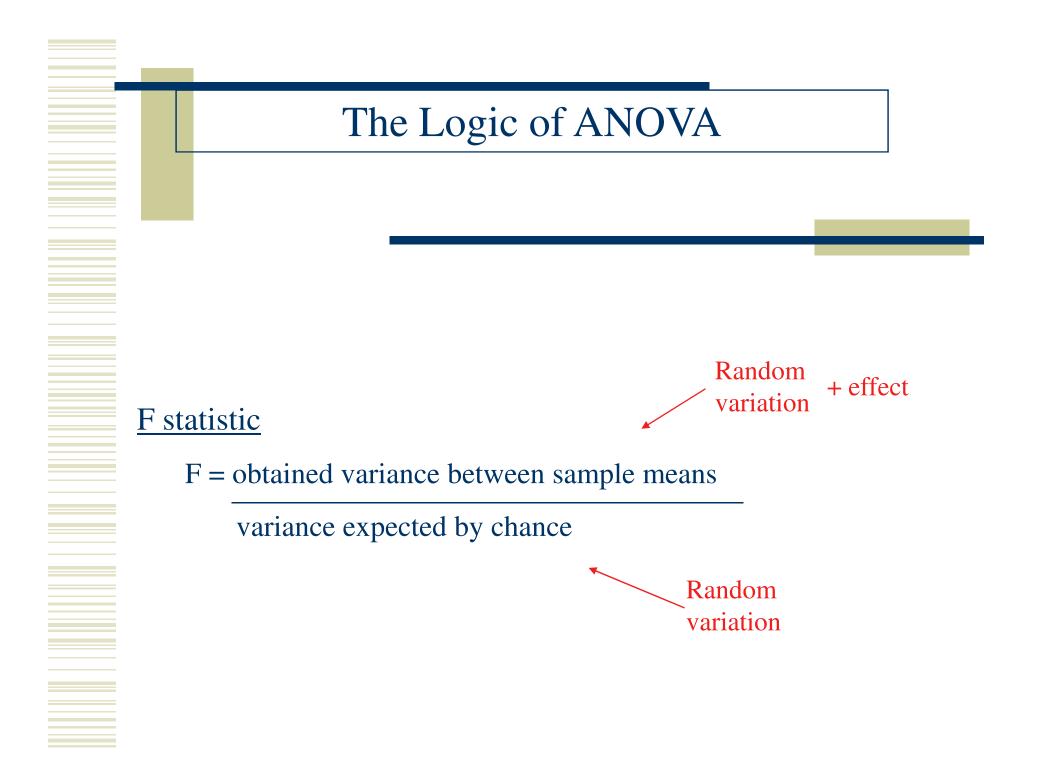
3. *Independence of observations*: this means that knowing one observation in one experimental group tells us nothing about the other observations

Violation of assumptions

ANOVA is robust with respect to the violation of normality and homogeneity of variance.

But

large inequality of the sample sizes and large heterogeneity of variances, are bad



ANOVA

Example:

In a study on the effect of nitrogen fertilization on cereal crops, plots of a particular variety of wheat were randomly given fertilizer at one of four rates: 0, 50, 100, 150. At a certain date, plants were randomly selected from the plots and the plant height (in cm) was measured [based on Ghandorah(1985a)].

Can we conclude that all 4 fertilizer rates have equal effects on the average plant height?

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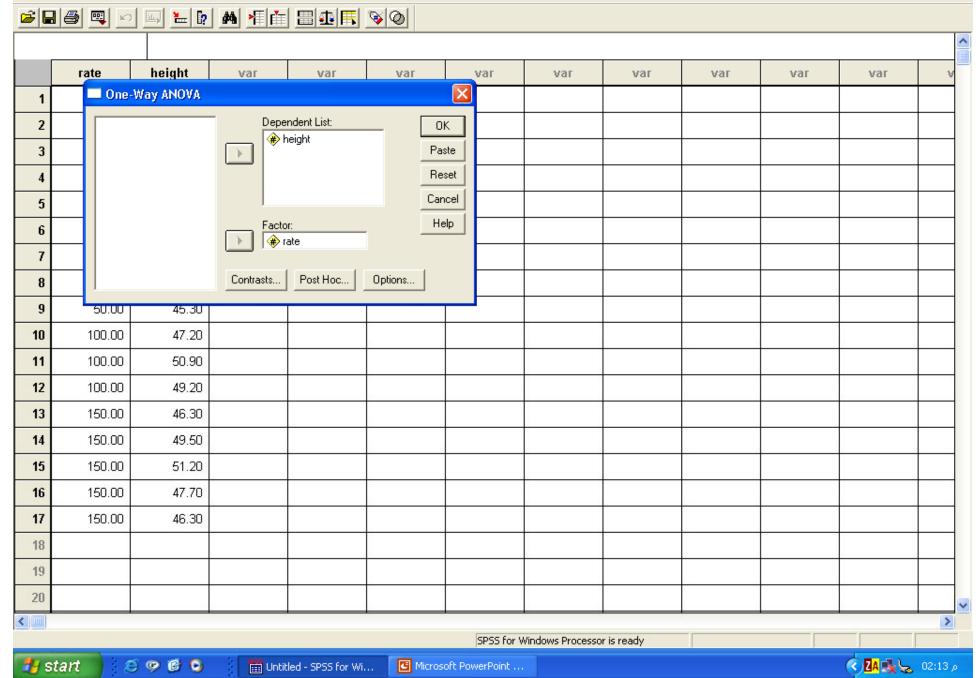
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ANOVA

ANOVA

HEIGHT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	329.482	3	109.827	32.012	.000
Within Groups	44.600	13	3.431		
Total	374.082	16			

Ho: all 4 fertilizer rates have the same effect on plant height.

Ha: Some of the 4 fertilizer rates have different effects on plant height.

P-value = 0

We conclude that at least one of the 4 fertilizer rates have different effects on the average plant height.

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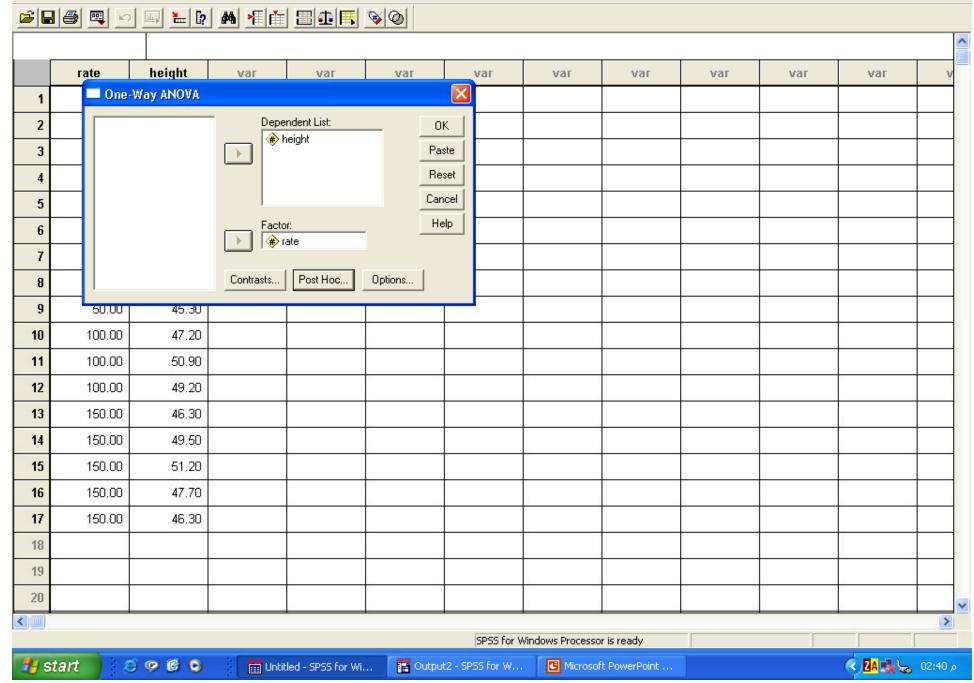
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Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: HEIGHT Tukey HSD

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*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

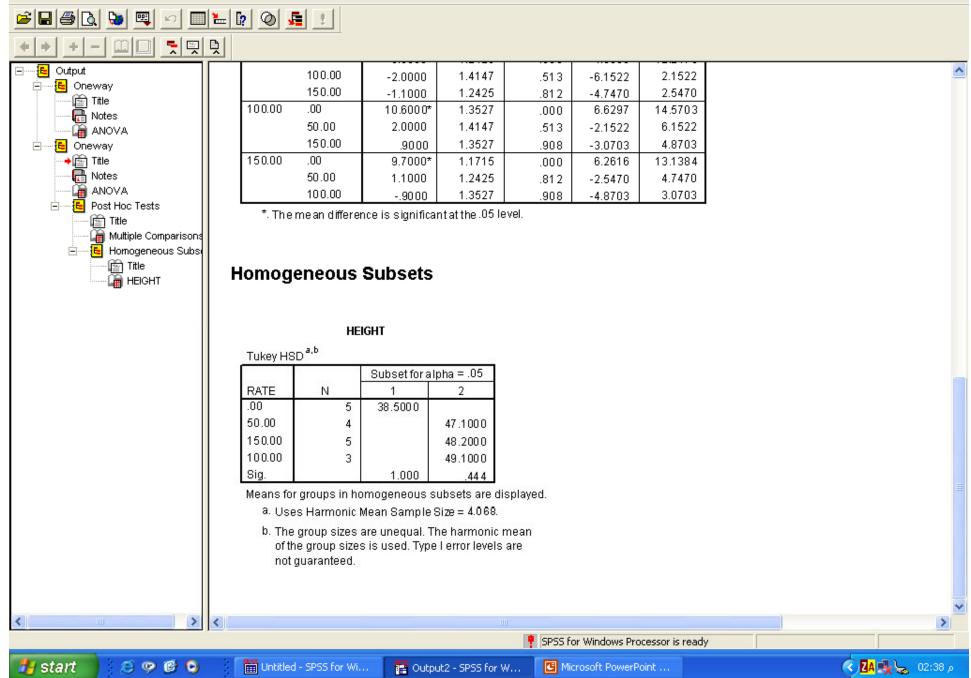
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ANOVA

0	50	100	150
38.5	47.1	49.1	48.2

From mean separation we can see that there is no significant difference between the effect of 50, 100 and 150 fertilizer rates on plant height.

We can recommend to use the 50 fertilizer rate because it is coast effective.

Extra Example on Blocking

In a study it was desired to know the effect of water stress on the protein content of wheat.

Because the protein content of wheat is known to differ from one variety to another, six local varieties of Saudi wheat were chosen for the experiment and it was assumed that there is no interaction between the wheat varieties and the water stress levels on the protein content. Therefore, three plots of each type of wheat were chosen and randomly assigned to the three levels of water stress, namely three watering intervals of every 10, 16, and 22 days. After harvest, the wheat from each plot was separately ground into flour, and the protein content (as a percent of the dry weight) was measured [Based on Basahy (1990)]. 🧰 glmdata - SPSS for Windows Data Editor

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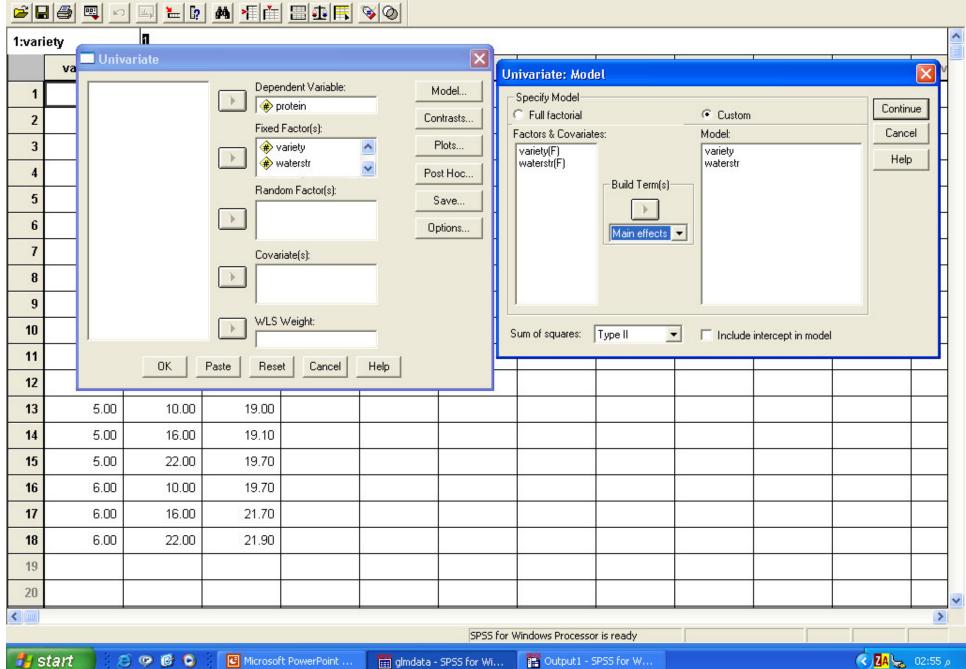
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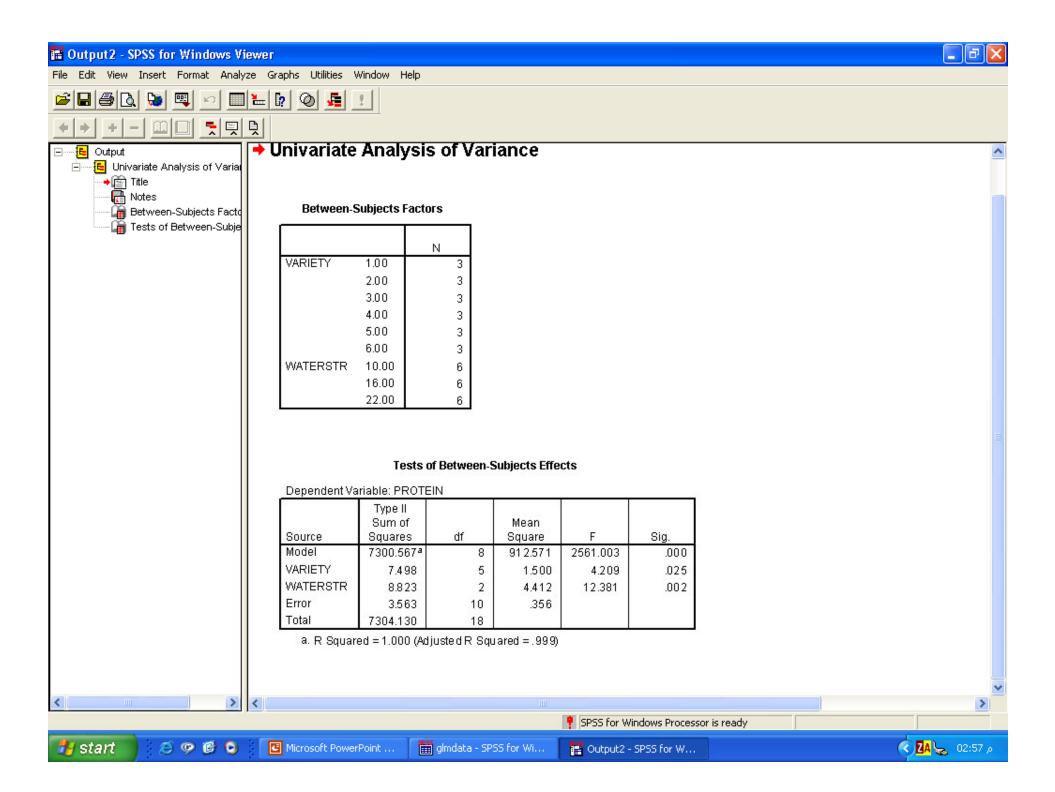
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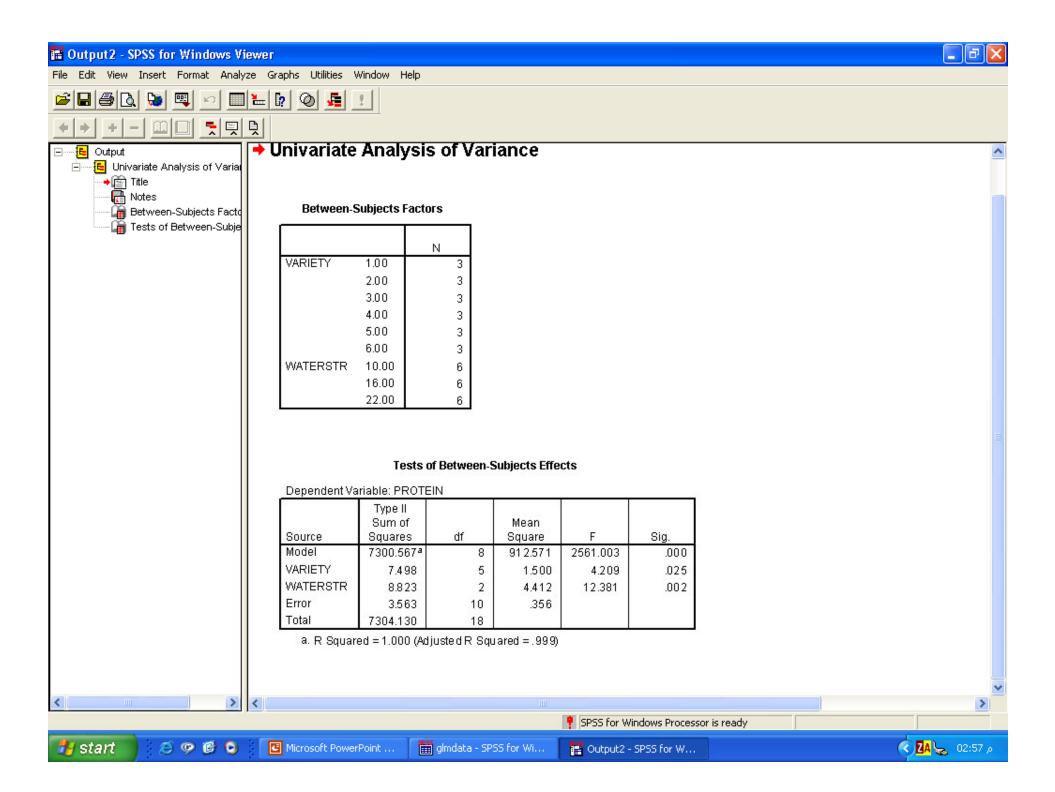
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Results

Using the randomized block design there is a significant difference in the protein content using different levels of water stress while using the simple one way anova there is no significant difference at α =0.01.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PROTEIN

	Type II Sum of		Mean							
Source	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.					
Model	7300.567 ^a	8	91 2.57 1	2561.003	.000					
VARIETY	7.498	5	1.500	4.209	.025					
WATERSTR	8.823	2	4.412	12.381	.002					
Error	3.563	10	.356							
Total	73 04.1 30	18								

a. R Squared = 1.000 (Adjusted R Squared = .999)

ANOVA

PROTEIN

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.823	2	4.412	5.982	.012
Within Groups	11.062	15	.737		
Total	19.885	17			

Conclusions and recommendations

Once the data has been analyzed, the experimenter may draw conclusions or inferences about the results. The statistical inference must be physically interpreted, and the practical significance of these findings evaluated. Then recommendations concerning these findings must be made.

The use of graphical display is a very effective way to present experimental results.

Thank you for listening