

# MATH 204: Principles of Statistics 2

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Textbook: McClave and Sincich (2006), *Statistics* (10th Edition), Chapters 10-14.

Prerequisites: MATH 203 (or equivalent)

Some statistical computing knowledge useful.

Method of Assessment:

- ▶ Assignments
- ▶ Mid-Term
- ▶ Final

Precise breakdown to be confirmed.

# Course Objectives

- ▶ Extensions of MATH 203 topics to other practical experimental contexts
- ▶ Introduction to statistical computation using standard software (SPSS)
- ▶ Practice in the use of statistical methods, in particular, hypothesis testing and linear modelling.

# Three main sections

- I. THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND DESIGNED EXPERIMENTS
- II. LINEAR REGRESSION MODELLING
- III. NON-PARAMETRIC TESTING

# Typical experimental scenario

- ▶ two different groups of subjects
- ▶ single observation/measurement made on each subject
- ▶ scientific question of interest

ARE THE TWO GROUPS OF SUBJECTS SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT IN TERMS OF THEIR MEASURED VALUES ?

## Example: Pre-Natal Care

Objective: To compare the birthweights of babies in two groups of mothers.

- ▶ GROUP A: Received **five or fewer** pre-natal visits
- ▶ GROUP B: Received **more than five** pre-natal visits

**Do the GROUP A babies have significantly different birthweights from those from GROUP B ?**

## Data: Birthweights (grammes)

- ▶ GROUP A: 10 subjects

2164	2600	2184	2080	1820
2496	2184	2080	2184	2576

- ▶ GROUP B: 7 subjects

3224	2704	2912	2444	3120
	2912	3848		

# First step in analysis: statistical summary

- ▶ GROUP A:

- ▶ Sample size:  $n_A = 10$
- ▶ Sample mean:  $\bar{x}_A = 2236.8$
- ▶ Sample variance:  $s_A^2 = 61190.4$

- ▶ GROUP B: 7 subjects

- ▶ Sample size:  $n_B = 7$
- ▶ Sample mean:  $\bar{x}_B = 3023.429$
- ▶ Sample variance:  $s_B^2 = 198679.6$



Recall, for data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$\bar{x}$  measures the “average” of sample

$s^2$  measures the amount of variability around the average.

In the birthweight example

$$\bar{x}_A = 2236.8 \quad \bar{x}_B = 3023.429$$

so it appears that Group B birthweights are higher....

... **BUT ARE THEY SIGNIFICANTLY HIGHER ?**

i.e. is the difference due to chance alone

- ▶ sample sizes quite small
- ▶ birthweights quite variable

# Statistical Testing

We adopt the following procedure to assess the “significance” of the difference between  $\bar{x}_A$  and  $\bar{x}_B$ .

1. Define a *test statistic*,  $T$ , that permits comparison of the two groups
2. *Predict* how  $T$  will behave assuming that the two groups are **not** significantly different.
3. Compare the *prediction* with what was actually *observed*.

Formally, we

- ▶ assume a **Normal distribution** for the data in the two groups  
i.e.  $x_{A1}, \dots, x_{An_A}$  are drawn from a population of birthweights that is well-modelled by a

$$Normal(\mu_A, \sigma_A^2)$$

distribution.

Similarly

$$x_{B1}, \dots, x_{Bn_B} \sim Normal(\mu_B, \sigma_B^2)$$

We might initially assume that

$$\sigma_A^2 = \sigma_B^2$$

- ▶ consider the two hypotheses

$$H_0 : \mu_A = \mu_B$$

$$H_a : \mu_A \neq \mu_B$$

$H_0$  is the **NULL HYPOTHESIS**

$H_a$  is the **ALTERNATIVE HYPOTHESIS**

- ▶ define the test statistic

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_A - \bar{x}_B}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_A} + \frac{1}{n_B}}}$$

where

$$s^2 = \frac{(n_A - 1)s_A^2 + (n_B - 1)s_B^2}{n_A + n_B - 2}$$

$s^2$  is the estimate of the common population variance

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma_A^2 = \sigma_B^2$$

Here

$$s^2 = \frac{(10 - 1)61190.4 + (7 - 1)198679.6}{10 + 7 - 2} = 116186.1$$

so that

$$s = 340.8608.$$

Thus

$$t = \frac{2236.8 - 3023.429}{340.8608 \sqrt{\frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{7}}} = -4.683$$

Now, if the null hypothesis was **true**, so that

$$\mu_A = \mu_B$$

the test statistic  $t$  should look like an observation from a

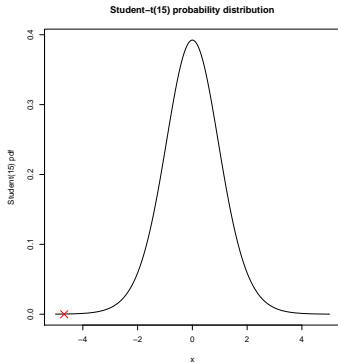
### **Student-t**

distribution with

$$n_A + n_B - 2 = 15$$

“degrees of freedom”.

i.e.  $t$  should lie somewhere in the “high-probability region” of the Student-t(15) probability distribution



Clearly, in this case,  $t$  does not lie in a high probability region.



i.e. we are surprised to see  $t$  so far away from zero.

The predicted behaviour of  $t$ , under the assumption that  $H_0$  is TRUE, DOES NOT MATCH THE OBSERVED BEHAVIOUR !

Therefore, the assumption that  $H_0$  is true MUST BE INCORRECT and we

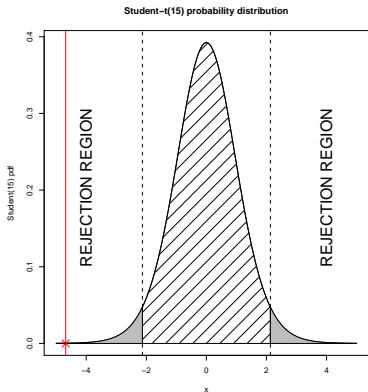
REJECT  $H_0$

How do we quantify the “statistical significance” ?

Two approaches:

1. Define the “high-probability” region, and reject  $H_0$  if  $t$  does not lie in this region.
2. Compute the level of “surprise” at observing  $t$  under the assumption that  $H_0$  is TRUE.

For 1: Set *significance level*  $\alpha$ , with  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , and find the central  $1 - \alpha$  “high-probability” region, between the two values  $-C_R$  and  $C_R$  (marked by dotted lines).



If  $t < -C_R$  or  $t > C_R$ , **REJECT  $H_0$** .

Typically,  $\alpha = 0.05$  (or 0.01), so for the Student-t(15) distribution

$$C_R = 2.131 \quad (\text{or } 2.947)$$

The regions  $(-\infty, -C_R)$  and  $(C_R, \infty)$  form the **CRITICAL REGION** or **REJECTION REGION**.

If  $t$  lies in the critical region, we **reject  $H_0$** .

For 2: To compute the level of “surprise”, we evaluate the probability of observing a “more extreme” test statistic under the assumption that  $H_0$  is TRUE.

Here, this probability is

$$p = 0.00029.$$

This probability is very small, so we are **very surprised** by the observed result.

$p$  is termed the *p-value* or *observed significance level*.

If  $p < \alpha = 0.05$  (or 0.01), we **reject  $H_0$** .

## Some questions:

- ▶ How do we choose the test statistic ?
- ▶ How do we choose  $\alpha$  ?
- ▶ Why is the distribution of  $T$  (and  $t$ ) a Student-t(15) distribution ?
- ▶ How do we compute  $C_R$  and  $p$  ?

## Equal Variances ?

Is the assumption of equal population variances

$$\sigma_A = \sigma_B$$

fair in this case ?

$$s_A^2 = 61190.4$$

$$s_B^2 = 198679.6$$

so that

$$\frac{s_A^2}{s_B^2} = 0.3080.$$

Can we test  $\sigma_A = \sigma_B$  formally ?

Yes:

$$H_0 : \sigma_A = \sigma_B$$

$$H_a : \sigma_A \neq \sigma_B$$

Test statistic is

$$F = \frac{s_A^2}{s_B^2} = 0.3080$$

If  $H_0$  is true,  $F$  should look like an observation from a

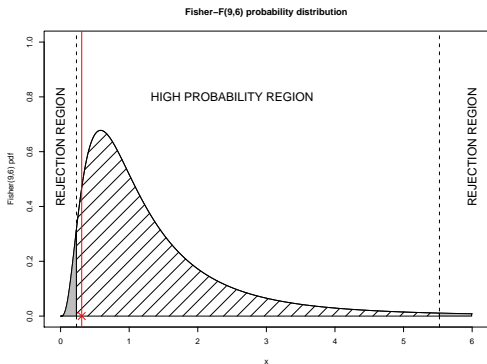
**Fisher-F**

distribution with

$$(n_A - 1, n_B - 1)$$

“degrees of freedom”.





From tables, for  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,

$$C_{R_1} = 0.231 \quad C_{R_2} = 5.523$$

so the observed value of  $F$  **does** lie in the high probability region, and there is **no reason to reject  $H_0$**  at  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

Can also compute a 95 % *confidence interval* for  $\mu_A - \mu_B$

$$(\bar{x}_A - \bar{x}_B) \pm t_{n_A+n_B-2}(0.975)s\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_A} + \frac{1}{n_B}}$$

where

$$t_{n_A+n_B-2}(0.975) = 2.131$$

that is, the 0.975 probability point of the *Student - t*(15) distribution.

Hence the 95 % confidence interval is

$$(-1144.59, -428.67)$$

- does not contain zero !

NOTE: Significance level  $\alpha$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= P[H_0 \text{ is rejected, given that } H_0 \text{ is TRUE}] \\ &= P[H_0 \text{ rejected} | H_0 \text{ is TRUE}]\end{aligned}$$

If

- ▶  $T$  is the test statistic *random variable*
- ▶  $\mathcal{R}$  is the rejection region

then

$$\alpha = P[T \text{ lies in } \mathcal{R} | H_0 \text{ TRUE}] = P[T \in \mathcal{R} | H_0 \text{ TRUE}]$$

that is,  $\alpha$  is the probability of committing a

**TYPE I ERROR**

## Part I

# Analysis of Variance

In this section

- ▶ introduction to the terminology of *designed experiments*
- ▶ extension of statistical testing theory to comparison of more than two population means
- ▶ **THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) F-TEST**

## 1.1 DESIGNED EXPERIMENTS

Data collection studies typically fall into one of two categories:

- (i) **Observational** studies: the experimenter has **no control** over the variables under study, and can only measure **outcomes**.
- ▶ The IQ of MAC and PC users
  - ▶ The relationship between environmental exposure to toxins and health status.

i.e. The experimenter does not control the exposure to variables that may cause changes in the outcome of interest.

This type of study is common in medicine and epidemiology as it is relatively cheap to carry out.

Common type of observational study:

**CASE-CONTROL STUDY**

## Example (Smoking and Lung Cancer)

A study (Doll and Hill, 1950) investigated 649 lung cancer cases and 649 matched healthy controls, both drawn from a population of men in the UK. They found out what proportion in each group were smokers.

Neither health status nor smoking status were controlled by the experimenter, but were merely observed.

	Smokers	Non-smokers	Total
Lung cancer	647	2	649
Controls	622	27	649

This type of study can be unreliable, and cannot uncover all the relationships of interest.

A preferred approach involves the experimenter controlling the variables that cause variation in the other variables.

Note that this may not be ethical in a smoking/lung cancer study.

- (ii) **Designed experiments**: the experimenter can the levels of variables that may affect the variable of interest.



## Example (Birthweight study)

GROUP A : 5 or fewer visits

GROUP B : More than 5 visits.

at the control of

(a) Mothers → **OBSERVATIONAL STUDY**

(b) Doctors → **DESIGNED EXPERIMENT**

- after each mother is recruited to take part in the study, they are **RANDOMLY** assigned to either GROUP A or GROUP B. This is termed a

**RANDOMIZED EXPERIMENTAL STUDY**

This type of study is preferable, but can be more difficult to implement.

# Terminology

- ▶ **Response variable** (dependent variable): the variable of interest in the study
- ▶ **Factors** : the variables that may have an effect of the response variable
  - ▶ **quantitative** if measured on a numerical scale
  - ▶ **qualitative** otherwise
- ▶ **Factor Levels**: the values of the factors utilized in the experiment
- ▶ **Treatments**: the factor-level combinations utilized.
- ▶ **Experimental Units** (subjects): the objects on which the factors are measured or observed.

Therefore:

- ▶ A *designed experiment* is one for which the analyst or experimenter **controls** the specification of treatments and the method of assigning units to treatments.
- ▶ An *observational experiment* or study is one for which the analyst simply **observes** the treatments and response on a sample of experimental units.

## Example (Birthweight study)

- ▶ **Response:** Birthweight (g)
- ▶ **Factor:** Pre-natal treatment group
- ▶ **Factor levels:** GROUP A or GROUP B

that is, we have a single factor with two factor levels.

## Example (SAT scores)

The SAT scores of female and male students in four schools are to be compared.

- ▶ **Response:** SAT score
- ▶ **Factors:** SEX and SCHOOL (both qualitative)
- ▶ **Factor levels:**
  - ▶ SEX: Female and Male
  - ▶ SCHOOL: A,B,C,D

that is, we have a two factors, SEX with two factor levels and SCHOOL with four factor levels. There are 8 possible treatments:

$(F, A), (F, B), (F, C), (F, D), (M, A), (M, B), (M, C), (M, D)$

## Example (Pain Relief)

Different pain relief remedies are to be compared : factors are

- ▶ REMEDY (quantitative/qualitative, 3 levels)
  - ▶ Dose level 0
  - ▶ Dose level 1
  - ▶ Dose level 2
- ▶ AGE GROUP (quantitative/qualitative, 4 levels)
  - ▶ 0-16 years
  - ▶ 17-40 years
  - ▶ 41-65 years
  - ▶ 66 years and over
- ▶ SEX (qualitative, 2 levels)
  - ▶ Female
  - ▶ Male

A total of  $3 \times 4 \times 2 = 24$  possible treatment combinations;  
REMEDY is the only factor that can be assigned by the analyst.

# Completely Randomized Design

A *completely randomized design* (CRD) is a design for which treatments are randomly assigned to experimental units, or in which random samples of experimental units are selected for each treatment.

The term can be applied to both experimental and observational studies. For example,

- ▶ if the treatments are FEMALE/MALE for the factor SEX, a CRD draws independent samples of FEMALES and MALES for the two treatment groups.
- ▶ if the treatments are DOSE 0/DOSE 1, a CRD assigns experimental units independently to the two treatment groups at random.

# Statistical Objectives

The experimental units assigned to different treatments (factor-level combinations) form

independent samples

from

different populations

in a CRD.

We wish to **compare** treatments: specifically, we wish to compare the treatment **means**.

**A Multiple Group Comparison of Means !**



Suppose that there are  $k$  treatments:

TMT 1	Mean $\mu_1$
TMT 2	Mean $\mu_2$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$
TMT $k$	Mean $\mu_k$

We wish to test the hypotheses

$$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \cdots = \mu_k$$

$H_a$  : At least two of the  $k$  treatment means are different

How do we do this ?

What is the relevant test statistic ?

# Comparing $k$ Treatments

Suppose

TMT 1 has  $n_1$  experimental units  
TMT 2 has  $n_2$  experimental units  
 $\vdots$   
TMT  $k$  has  $n_k$  experimental units

Denote by  $x_{ij}$  the response for unit  $j$  in treatment group  $i$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, n_i$  and  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .

Let

$$\bar{x}_i = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} x_{ij}$$

denote the sample mean for treatment  $i$ , and

$$s_i^2 = \frac{1}{n_i - 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2$$

denote the sample variance for treatment  $i$ .

Now we consider **pooling**, that is, combining all units into a single group.

Define

- ▶ the total sample

$$n = n_1 + \cdots + n_k = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$$

- ▶ the overall sample mean

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} x_{ij}$$

- ▶ the overall sample variance

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x})^2$$

Finally, consider the **pooled** sample variance

$$s_P^2 = \frac{1}{n - k} \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) s_i^2$$

- the extension of the pooled estimate of the population variance in a two-sample  $t$ -test.

Using these quantities, we can derive a test statistic for multiple group comparison.

We wish to compare how much variation is due to the

A DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TREATMENTS

and how much is due to

B RANDOM VARIATION WITHIN TREATMENTS

We measure A using the statistic

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2$$

SST - Sum of Squares for Treatments

We measure B using the statistic

$$\begin{aligned}SSE &= \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 \\ &= (n - k)s_P^2\end{aligned}$$

SSE - Sum of Squares for Error

NOTE: This measure of random or error variability implicitly assumes that the variability **within** the treatment groups is the **same for each group**. That is, population variances

$$\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$$

are equal.

In practice this assumption must be checked.

Finally, we define the test statistic using the mean levels of variability

- ▶ MST - Mean Square for Treatments

$$MST = \frac{SST}{k - 1} = \frac{1}{k - 1} \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2$$

- ▶ MSE - Mean Square for Error

$$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n - k} = \frac{1}{n - k} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 = s_p^2$$



Then the test statistic is

$$F = \frac{MST}{MSE} = \frac{\text{Average Variation due to Treatments}}{\text{Average Variation due to Errors}}$$

$F$  large  $\implies$  Treatments Different !

$F$  small  $\implies$  Treatments Similar !

The behaviour of  $F$  is given by the following Theorem

## Theorem (ANOVA $F$ -test to compare $k$ treatments in a Completely Randomized Design)

To test the hypothesis of **equal treatment means**,

$$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \cdots = \mu_k$$

$H_a$  : *At least two of the  $k$  treatment means are different*

*the test statistic is*

$$F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$$

If  $H_0$  is **TRUE**, then

$$F \sim \text{Fisher-}F(k - 1, n - k)$$

*and the rejection region for a test at significance level  $\alpha$  is the region to the right of the  $1 - \alpha$  probability point of this Fisher- $F$  distribution,  $C_R$ .*

NOTE: If

$$SS = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x})^2$$

is the *overall* or *total* sum of squares, then

$$SS = SST + SSE$$

so we can decompose the overall variation ( $SS$ ) into the variation due to treatments ( $SST$ ) and the variation due to the errors ( $SSE$ ).

# Assumptions behind the ANOVA F-test

1. The samples are randomly selected in an independent manner from the  $k$  treatment populations.  
[Satisfied in a CRD]
2. All  $k$  populations have distributions that are approximately normal.
3. The  $k$  population variances are equal.

$$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \dots = \sigma_k^2.$$

## Example (Milk Quality Data)

The impact on milk protein level of three different diets is being studied.

Data: Measurements of milk protein levels for  $n = 1337$  samples.

- ▶ **Response:** Milk Protein Level (%)
- ▶ **Factor:** DIET
- ▶ **Factor levels:**  $k = 3$ 
  - ▶ 1: Barley
  - ▶ 2: Barley + Lupins
  - ▶ 3: Lupins

	TMT 1	TMT 2	TMT 3
$n_i$	425	459	453
$\bar{x}_i$	3.532	3.430	2.312
$s_i^2$	0.102	0.091	0.114

$$SST = 10.606$$

$$SSE = 136.432$$

$$SS = 147.038$$

$$k - 1 = 2$$

$$n - k = 1334$$

Therefore

$$MST = \frac{SST}{k - 1} = \frac{10.606}{2} = 5.303$$

$$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n - k} = \frac{136.432}{1334} = 0.102$$

and

$$F = \frac{MST}{MSE} = 51.851$$

If  $H_0$  is true, that is,

$$\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$$

then  $F$  should look like an observation from a

Fisher-F( $k - 1, n - k$ )

distribution.

Here we are dealing with the

Fisher-F(2, 1334)

distribution. From tables, we discover that if  $\alpha = 0.05$ , then

$$F_{\alpha}(2, 1334) = 3.002$$

and thus we

Reject  $H_0$

and conclude that there is a **significant** impact on milk protein level due to diet.



Note: Tables in McClave and Sincich (p 901) only give

$$F_{0.05}(2, 120) = 3.07$$

$$F_{0.05}(2, \infty) = 3.00$$

so we cannot look up  $F_{0.05}(2, 1334)$ . However, we know that

$$3.00 < F_{0.05}(2, 1334) < 3.07$$

and here the test statistic is  $F = 51.851$ .

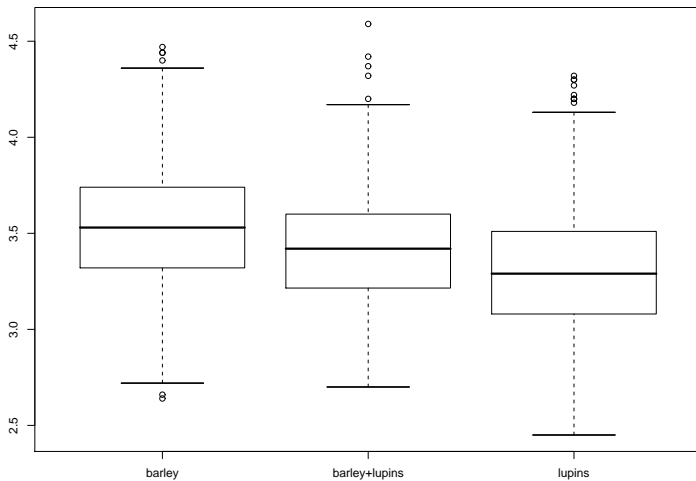
## Are the assumptions met ?

1. **Independent samples** : Not possible to tell with current information. In fact, data comprise repeated measurements on 79 cows - potentially not independent, as observations on the same cow are likely to be more similar.
2. **Normal Distributions** : Visual inspection of boxplots indicates that this may be valid.
3. **Equal variances** :

$$s_1^2 = 0.102 \quad s_2^2 = 0.091 \quad s_3^2 = 0.114$$

so assumption appears to be valid  
- can we test this formally ?

Milk Data: 3 Treatments



## Example (Anxiety Response Treatment)

In a study of Alzheimer's disease and care of its sufferers, a medication designed to improve anxiety relief has been developed.

In a lab experiment,  $n = 20$  rats were assigned to one of four ( $k = 4$ ) treatment groups corresponding to dose-level of the medication.

A measure of response to a “flee stimulus” was recorded.

- ▶ **Response:** Pull response to stimulus (units of force)
- ▶ **Factor:** DOSE-LEVEL
- ▶ **Factor levels:**  $k = 4$ 
  - ▶ Dose 0 (zero units)
  - ▶ Dose 1 (one unit)
  - ▶ Dose 2 (two units)
  - ▶ Dose 3 (three units)

0	1	2	2
27.0	22.8	21.9	23.5
26.2	23.1	23.4	19.6
28.8	27.7	20.1	23.7
33.5	27.6	27.8	20.8
28.8	24.0	19.3	23.9

We find that

$$SST = 140.094 \quad SSE = 116.324 \quad SS = 256.418$$

$$MST = 46.698 \quad MSE = 7.270$$

and

$$F = 6.423$$

which we need to compare with the Fisher-F(3, 16) distribution.

For  $\alpha = 0.05$ , from McClave and Sincich (p 901)

$$F_{0.05}(3, 16) = 3.24$$

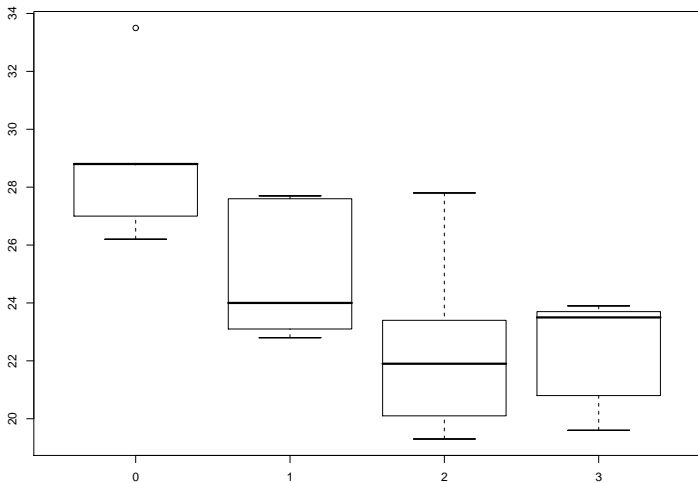
and so we

Reject  $H_0$

at  $\alpha = 0.05$  and conclude that there is a significant difference between treatment groups.

p-value is 0.0046.

### Alzheimer's Medication: Animal model trial



Note: Here

	DOSE 0	DOSE 1	DOSE 2	DOSE 3
$s_i^2$	8.018	5.873	11.315	3.875

so we might suspect that the treatment variances  $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \sigma_3^2, \sigma_4^2$  are **not equal**. We may test this formally using

### LEVENE'S TEST

- SPSS can report this test result.

Note: Visual inspection can give an idea of whether the equal variance assumption is valid, or whether the populations are normal. **But the sample sizes may be small, so that visual inspection or testing may not detect deviations from these assumptions.**

Ideally we would like to be able to relax these assumptions.



# The ANOVA Table

For a completely randomized design, we may report the results of the ANOVA F-test in a stylized form, the **ANOVA Table**

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F
TREATMENTS	$k - 1$	$SST$	$MST = \frac{SST}{(k - 1)}$	$F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$
ERROR	$n - k$	$SSE$	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{(n - k)}$	
TOTAL	$n - 1$	$SS$		

Note

(i)  $(k - 1) + (n - k) = (n - 1)$

(ii)  $SST + SSE = SS$

i.e. we can fill in missing values if they are not given.

Sometimes an extra column is added at the right of the table to give the  $p$ -value of the ANOVA F-test.

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
TMT	$k - 1$	$SST$	$MST$	$F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$	$p\text{-val}$
ERROR	$n - k$	$SSE$	$MSE$		
TOTAL	$n - 1$	$SS$			

where  $p\text{-val}$  solves

$$\frac{MST}{MSE} = F_{p\text{-val}}(k - 1, n - k)$$

and  $F_{\alpha}(\nu_1, \nu_2)$  is the  $(1 - \alpha)$  probability point of the Fisher-F distribution.

# SPSS Handout: Examples

- ▶ **DIET**: milk-protein level example (p. 1)
- ▶ **DOSE-LEVEL**: pull-strength in Alzheimer's example (p. 3)
- ▶ **DIAGNOSIS**: (p. 5)
  - ▶ **RESPONSE**: gut permeability of drug mannitol in AIDS/HIV patients
  - ▶ **FACTOR**: AIDS/HIV Status
  - ▶ **FACTOR LEVELS**:  $k = 4$ 
    - ▶ AIDS - Full AIDS
    - ▶ ARC - AIDS-related conditions
    - ▶ HIV+ - HIV positive
    - ▶ HIV- - HIV negative

# SPSS Handout: Examples

- ▶ **BATCH NUMBER:** bacteria level (per mill.) in different batches of milk (p. 7)
  - ▶ RESPONSE: Bacteria level count per million
  - ▶ FACTOR: Batch number
  - ▶ FACTOR LEVELS: 1,2,3,4,5 ( $k = 5$ )
- ▶ **TREATMENT GROUP:** Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) score in different treatment groups(p. 9)
  - ▶ RESPONSE: PTSD score
  - ▶ FACTOR: Therapeutic treatment method
  - ▶ FACTOR LEVELS:  $k = 4$ 
    - ▶ SIT - "Stress Innoculation Therapy"
    - ▶ RE - "Relive Experience"
    - ▶ SC - "Standard Counselling"
    - ▶ WL - "Waiting List" (Control)

# Levene's Test

To test

$$H_0 = \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \dots = \sigma_k^2$$

$$H_1 = \text{At least one pair of } \sigma^2 \text{ different.}$$

Test statistic

$$W = \frac{(n - k) SST_Z}{(k - 1) SSE_Z} = \frac{MST_Z}{MSE_Z}$$

where  $SST_Z$  and  $SSE_Z$  are the usual sums of squares evaluated for the new data  $z_{ij}$  where

$$z_{ij} = |x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i|.$$

If  $H_0$  is true

$$W \sim \text{Fisher-F}(k - 1, n - k).$$

## Example (PTSD Example (see handout))

$$n = 45, k = 4.$$

F-statistic	$F = 3.046$
Critical Value	$F_{0.05}(3, 41) \simeq 2.84$
	$F_{0.025}(3, 41) \simeq 3.46$
	$F_{0.01}(3, 41) \simeq 4.31$

Tables in McClave and Sincich give  $F_{\alpha}(3, 40)$ .

$\implies$  Reject  $H_0$  at  $\alpha = 0.05$  ( $p = 0.039$ ).

**BUT** Levene's Test suggests that the assumption of equal variances is **NOT** valid.

Why do we need the three assumptions ?

- ▶ independence
- ▶ Normality
- ▶ equal variances

- so that we can predict (under  $H_0$ ) that

$$F \sim \text{Fisher-F}(k - 1, n - k)$$

and complete the test (compute  $p$ -values and the rejection region).

But our hypothesis of interest is

$$H_0 : \text{No difference between treatments}$$

Under this hypothesis, the treatment labels

SHOULD NOT MATTER !

i.e. we should be able to exchange the labels, and not notice any major difference in the test statistic.

This leads us to consider **permutation** or **randomization** tests.

i.e. we compute the test statistic for all possible relabellings consistent with  $H_0$ , retaining the group sample sizes, and use these values to compute the rejection region.



# Randomization/Permutation Tests

Suppose that there are  $N$  possible relabellings that give rise to test statistics

$$F_1, F_2, \dots, F_N$$

Then the **rejection region** for significance level  $\alpha$  is the interval to the right of

$$N(1 - \alpha)\text{th largest of the values } F_1, F_2, \dots, F_N$$

and the  $p$ -value is

$$\frac{\text{Number of } F_1, F_2, \dots, F_N \geq F}{N}$$

where

$$F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$$

is the true test statistic.

If the group sample sizes are  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  then

$$N = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!}$$

where

$$n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3.2.1$$

("  $n$  factorial" ) - potentially very large.

## Example (PTSD Example)

$$k = 4, n = 45 \quad (n_1 = 14, n_2 = 10, n_3 = 11, n_4 = 10)$$

There are

$$\frac{45!}{14!10!11!10!} = 2.610 \times 10^{24}$$

possible relabellings: a very big number.

We compute  $F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$  for each relabelling. For the real data,  $F = 3.046$ .

## Example (PTSD Example (continued))

Using this approach, we compute for  $\alpha = 0.05$

CRITICAL VALUE :  $C_R = 2.844$

$p$ -VALUE :  $p = 0.040$

Compare this with the ANOVA F-test values

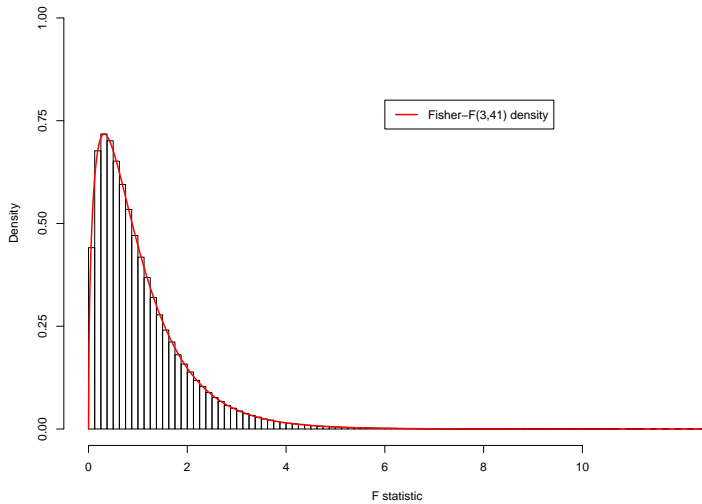
CRITICAL VALUE :  $C_R = 2.833$

$p$ -VALUE :  $p = 0.039$

(using the Fisher-F(3,41) distribution.

Thus we obtain virtually identical results; **but the randomization test does not need the assumptions of normality or equal variances.**

### Permutation Distribution



## Example (PTSD Example (continued))

Thus the null hypothesis (of equal means) is

REJECTED

under both procedures at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  significance level.

In this case, the computations give similar conclusions. Here the truth or otherwise of the normality/equal variance assumptions **does not matter**.

## Final Note on ANOVA F-test for a CRD

If  $k = 2$ , consider  $F = MST/MSE$ ;

$$\begin{aligned}MST &= \frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2 = n_1 (\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x})^2 + n_2 (\bar{x}_2 - \bar{x})^2 \\ &= \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 + n_2} (\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}MSE &= \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 = s_p^2 \\ &= \frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$F = \frac{\left(\frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 + n_2}\right) (\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)^2}{s_p^2} = \left(\frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)}{s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}\right)^2$$

Thus  $F = t^2$ , where  $t$  is the two-sample  $t$ -test statistic.

Thus if  $k = 2$ , the ANOVA F-test and the two sample  $t$ -test are **EQUIVALENT**

$$t \sim \text{Student-t}(n - 2)$$

$$F \sim \text{Fisher-F}(1, n - 2)$$

and we must get the same conclusion (to reject  $H_0$  or otherwise) using either statistic.