

# STAT 401A - Statistical Methods for Research Workers

## Modeling assumptions

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# Normality assumptions

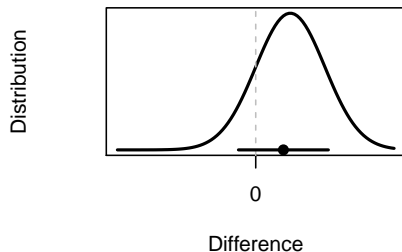
In the paired t-test, we assume

$$D_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2).$$

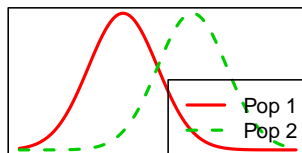
In the two-sample t-test, we assume

$$Y_{ij} \stackrel{ind}{\sim} N(\mu_j, \sigma^2).$$

**Paired t-test**



**Two-sample t-test**



# Normality assumptions

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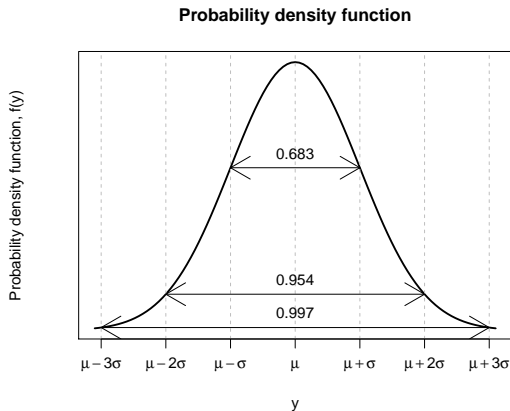
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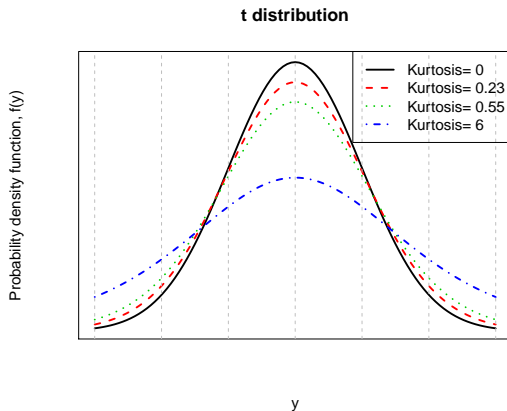
Key features of the normal distribution assumption:

- Centered at the mean (expectation)  $\mu$
- Standard deviation describes the spread
- Symmetric around  $\mu$  (no skewness)
- Non-heavy tails, i.e. outliers are rare (no kurtosis)

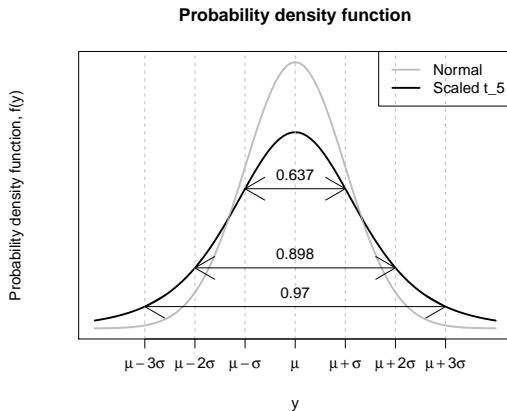
# Normality assumptions



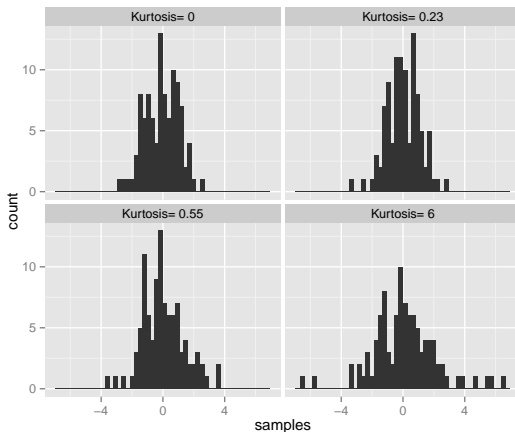
# Kurtosis (heavy-tailedness)



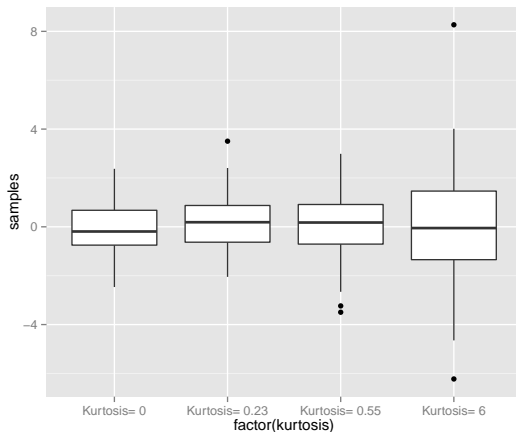
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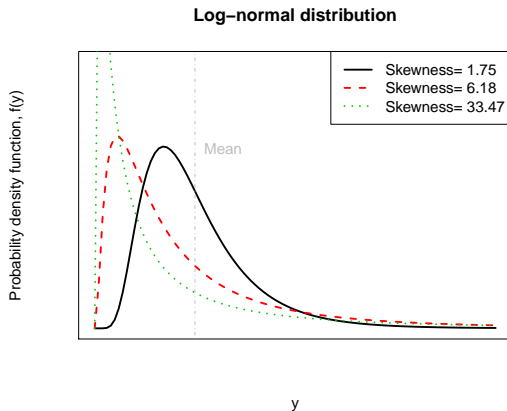


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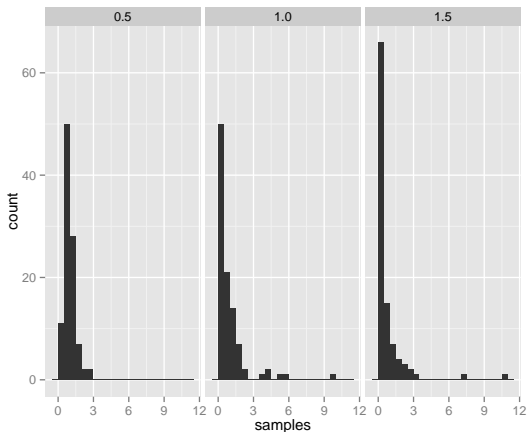




# Skewness



# Samples from skewed distributions



# Robustness

## Definition

A statistical procedure is **robust to departures from a particular assumption** if it is valid even when the assumption is not met.

**Remark** If a 95% confidence interval is robust to departures from a particular assumption, the confidence interval should cover the true value about 95% of the time.

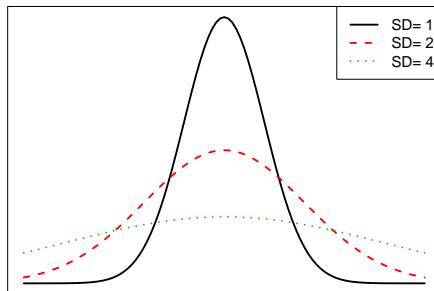
# Robustness to skewness and kurtosis

Percentage of 95% confidence intervals that cover the true difference in means in an equal-sample two-sample t-test with non-normal populations (where the distributions are the same other than their means).

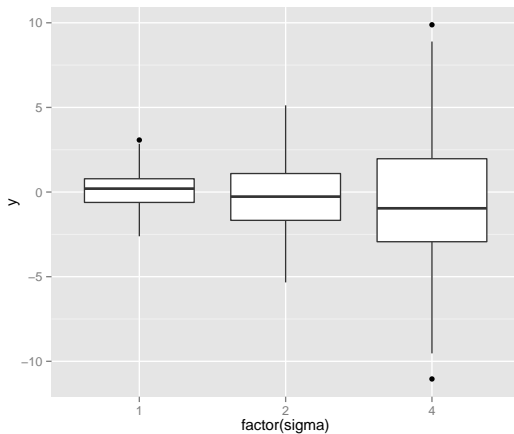
sample size	strongly skewed	moderately skewed	mildly skewed	heavy-tailed	short-tailed
5	95.5	95.4	95.2	98.3	94.5
10	95.5	95.4	95.2	98.3	94.6
25	95.3	95.3	95.1	98.2	94.9
50	95.1	95.3	95.1	98.1	95.2
100	94.8	95.3	95.0	98.0	95.6

# Differences in variances

Normal distribution



# Differences in variances



## Robustness to differences in variances

Percentage of 95% confidence intervals that cover the true difference in means in an equal-sample two-sample t-test ( $r = \sigma_1/\sigma_2$ ).

n1	n2	r=1/4	r=1/2	r=1	r=2	r=4
10	10	95.2	94.2	94.7	95.2	94.5
10	20	83.0	89.3	94.4	98.7	99.1
10	40	71.0	82.6	95.2	99.5	99.9
100	100	94.8	96.2	95.4	95.3	95.1
100	200	86.5	88.3	94.8	98.8	99.4
100	400	71.6	81.5	95.0	99.5	99.9

# Outliers

## Definition

A statistical procedure is **resistant** if it does not change very much when a small part of the data changes, perhaps drastically.

Identify outliers:

- 1 If recording errors, fix.
- 2 If outlier comes from a different population, remove and report.
- 3 If results are the same with and without outliers, report with outliers.
- 4 If results are different, use resistant analysis or report both analyses.



# Common ways for independence to be violated

- Cluster effect
  - e.g. pigs in a pen
- Correlation effect
  - e.g. measurements in time with drifting scale
- Spatial effect
  - e.g. corn yield plots (drainage)

# Common transformations for data

From: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data\\_transformation\\_\(statistics\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_transformation_(statistics))

## Definition

In statistics, **data transformation** refers to the application of a deterministic mathematical function to each point in a data set that is, each data point  $y_i$  is replaced with the transformed value  $z_i = f(y_i)$ , where  $f$  is a function.

The most common transformations to

- If  $y \in (0, 1)$ , then  $f(y) = \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{y})$ .
- If  $y$  is a count, then  $f(y) = \sqrt{y}$ .
- If  $y$  is positive and right-skewed, then  $f(y) = \log(y)$ , the *natural logarithm* of  $y$ .

**Remark** Since  $\log(0) = -\infty$ , the logarithm cannot be used directly when some  $y_i$  are zero. In these cases, use  $\log(y + c)$  where  $c$  is something small relative to your data, e.g. half of the minimum non-zero value.

# Log transformation

If  $z_{ij} = \log(y_{ij})$  and we run a two-sample t-test on the  $z$ 's, then we assume

$$Z_{ij} \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_j, \sigma^2)$$

and we calculate the quantity  $\bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1$  and  $\exp(\bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1) = e^{\bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1}$  estimates

$$\frac{\text{Median of population 2}}{\text{Median of population 1}}$$

on the original scale or, equivalently, it estimates the **multiplicative effect** of moving from population 1 to population 2.

# Log transformation interpretation

If we have a randomized experiment:

**Remark** It is estimated that the response of an experimental unit to treatment 2 will be  $\exp(\bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1)$  times as large as its response to treatment 1.

If we have an observational study:

**Remark** It is estimated that the median for population 2 is  $\exp(\bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1)$  times as large as the median for population 1.

# Confidence intervals with log transformation

If  $z_{ij} = \log(y_{ij})$  and we assume

$$Z_{ij} \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_j, \sigma^2),$$

then a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  two-sided confidence interval for  $\mu_2 - \mu_1$  is

$$(L, U) = \bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1 \pm t_{n_1+n_2-2}(1 - \alpha/2)SE(\bar{Z}_2 - \bar{Z}_1).$$

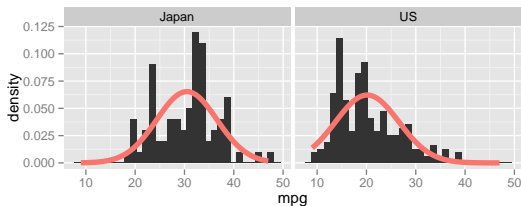
A  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for

$$\frac{\text{Median of population 2}}{\text{Median of population 1}}$$

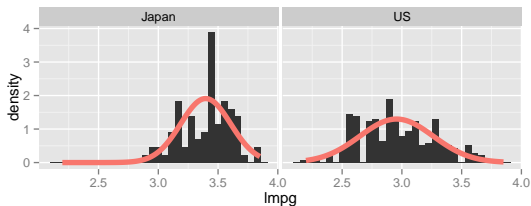
is  $(e^L, e^U)$ .

# Miles per gallon data

Untransformed:

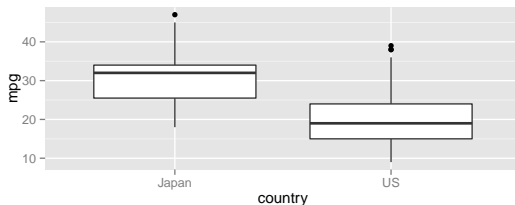


Logged:

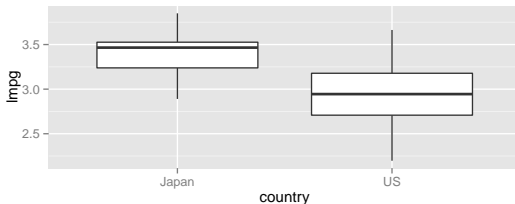


# Miles per gallon data

Untransformed:



Logged:



## Equal variances?

We might also be concerned about the assumption of equal variances.

Untransformed:

	country	n	mean	sd
1	Japan	79	30.48	30.48
2	US	249	20.14	20.14

the ratio of the standard deviations is around 1.5 and there are 3 times as many observations in the US.

Logged:

	country	n	mean	sd
1	Japan	79	3.40	3.40
2	US	249	2.96	2.96

Now the ratio of standard deviations is only 1.15.



# Using R for t-test using logarithms

```
t = t.test(log(mpg)~country, d, var.equal=TRUE)
exp(t$estimate)
```

```
mean in group Japan    mean in group US
      29.85             19.21
```

```
exp(-diff(t$estimate)) # I had to put in the negative sign
```

```
mean in group US
      1.554
```

```
exp(t$conf.int)
```

```
[1] 1.445 1.672
attr(,"conf.level")
[1] 0.95
```

# SAS code for t-test using logarithms

```
DATA mpg;  
    INFILE 'mpg.csv' DELIMITER=', ' FIRSTOBS=2;  
    INPUT mpg country $;  
  
PROC TTEST DATA=mpg TEST=ratio;  
    CLASS country;  
    VAR mpg;  
run;
```

# SAS output for t-test using logarithms

## The TTEST Procedure

Variable: mpg

country	N	Geometric Mean	Coefficient of Variation	Minimum	Maximum
Japan	79	29.8525	0.2111	18.0000	47.0000
US	249	19.2051	0.3147	9.0000	39.0000
Ratio (1/2)		1.5544	0.2928		

country	Method	Geometric Mean	95% CL Mean		Coefficient of Variation	95% CL CV	
Japan		29.8525	28.4887	31.2817	0.2111	0.1820	0.2514
US		19.2051	18.4825	19.9560	0.3147	0.2882	0.3467
Ratio (1/2)	Pooled	1.5544	1.4452	1.6719	0.2928	0.2712	0.3183
Ratio (1/2)	Satterthwaite	1.5544	1.4636	1.6508			

Method	Coefficients				
	of Variation	DF	t Value	Pr >  t	
Pooled	Equal	326	11.91	<.0001	
Satterthwaite	Unequal	193.33	14.46	<.0001	

## Equality of Variances

Method	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Folded F	248	78	2.17	0.0001

# Conclusion

Japanese median miles per gallon is 1.55 [95% CI (1.46,1.65)] times as large as US median miles per gallon.