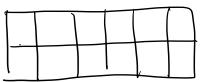
STA305/1004 - Class 4

January 18, 2017

Today's Class

- ▶ Hypothesis testing via randomization
- ► Two-sample t-test
- ▶ Paired t-test

Example: Wheat Yield



Two treat. AIR

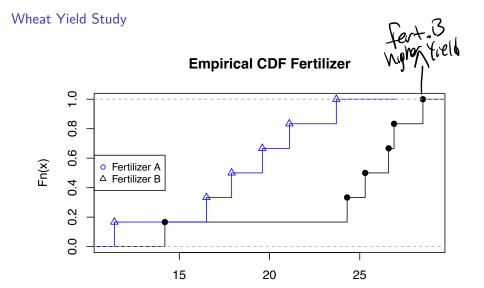
- ▶ Assigning treatments randomly avoids any pre-experimental bias.
- ▶ 12 playing cards, 6 red, 6 black were shuffled (7 times??) and dealt
- ▶ 1st card black \rightarrow 1st plot gets B
- ▶ 2nd card red \rightarrow 2nd plot gets A
- ▶ 3rd card black \rightarrow 3rd plot gets B
- Completely randomized design

Randomly assign. Freatments to Plots Such that G plots get A and b plots get B

Wheat Yield Example

B 26.9		1			
B 14.2	A 17.9	A 16.5	A 21.1	B 24.3	A 19.6

- ▶ Evidence that fertilizer type is a source of yield variation?
- ▶ Evidence about differences between two populations is generally measured by comparing summary statistics across two sample populations.
- ▶ A statistic is any computable function of the observed data.



yield

Wheat Yield Study

```
summary(yA); sd(yA); quantile(yA,prob=c(0.25,0.75))
## Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
##
    11.40 16.85 18.75 18.37 20.72
                                         23.70
## [1] 4.234934
     25%
           75%
##
## 16.850 20.725
summary(yB); sd(yB); quantile(yB,prob=c(0.25,0.75))
##
   Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
    14.20 24.55 25.95 24.30
                                 26.82
                                         28.50
##
## [1] 5.151699
     25%
           75%
##
## 24.550 26.825
```

Results

mean(yA)-mean(yB)

```
## [1] -5.933333
```

- ▶ So there is a moderate/large difference in mean yield for these fertilizers.
- ▶ Would you recommend B over A for future plantings?
- ▶ Do you think these results generalize to a larger population?
- ► Could the result be due to chance?

Hypothesis Testing Via Randomization

- ▶ Are the observed differences in yield due to fertilizer type?
- ▶ Are the observed differences in yield due to plot-to-plot variation?

Hypothesis Testing Via Randomization

Power??X P-Value

Ho: MA=MB

Ho: MA=MB

Hypothesis tests:

- $ightharpoonup H_0$ (null hypothesis): Fertilizer type does not affect yield.
- $ightharpoonup H_1$ (alternative hypothesis): Fertilizer type does affect yield.
- lacktriangle A statistical hypothesis evaluates the compatibility of H_0 with the data

We can evaluate H_0 by answering:

- ▶ Is a mean difference of -5.93 plausible/probable if H0 true?
- ▶ Is a mean difference of -5.93 large compared to experimental noise?

- ▶ Compare $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ =-5.93 (observed difference in the experiment) to values of $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ that could have been observed if H_0 were true.
- ▶ Hypothetical values of $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ that could have been observed under H_0 are referred to as samples from the null distribution.

Up to 10 true then MA=MB

- ▶ $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ is a function of the outcome of the experiment.
- ▶ If a different experiment were performed then we would obtain a diffrent value of $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$.

- ▶ In this experiment we observed $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b = -5.93$.
- ▶ If there was no difference between fertilizers then what other possible values of $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ could have been observed?

The cards were shuffled and we were dealt B, R, B, R, ...

В	Α	В	Α	В	В
В	Α	Α	Α	В	Α

Under this treatment assignment we oberved the yields:

B 26.9		1	l		
B 14.2	A 17.9	A 16.5	A 21.1	B 24.3	A 19.6

How many ways could treatments have been assigned if the

Another potential treatment assignment under Ho is:

| How many ways could treatments have been assign null hypothesis is true? | Regood of Polley com/nathantaback | Tool NATHANT/BACK (2007) once to join, then A, B, C, or E

 2^{12}

The yields obtained under this assignment are:

B 26.9	A 11.4	B 26.6	B 23.7	A 25.3	A 28.5
A 14.2	B 17.9	B 16.5	A 21.1	A 24.3	B 19.6

This data could occur if the experiment were run again.

observed mean Jeff = -5,93

Under this hypothetical assignment the mean difference is:

```
yA <- c(11.4,25.3,28.5,14.2,21.1,24.3)
yB <- c(26.9,26.6,23.7,17.9,16.5,19.6)
mean(yA-yB)
```

```
## [1] -1.066667
```

This represents an outcome of the experiment in a universe where:

- 1. The treatment assignment is B, A, B, B, A, A, B, B, A, A, B
- 2. H_0 is true (i.e., $\mu_A = \mu_B$, where μ_A, μ_B are the mean yields of fertilizers A and B).

The Null distribution

- ▶ What potential outcomes **could** we see if H_0 is true?
- ▶ Compute $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ for each possible treatment assignment.

The Null Distribution

▶ For each treatment assignment compute

$$\begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{G}} \end{pmatrix} & \delta_i = \bar{y}_a - \bar{y}_b, i = 1, 2, \dots, 924. \\ \\ \{\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_{924}\} \text{ enumerates all pre-randomisation outcomes assuming no} \end{cases}$$

- treatment effect.
- Since each treatment assignment is equally likely under the null distribution, a probability distribution of experimental results if H_0 is true can be described as

$$\hat{F}(y) = \frac{\#(\delta_{i} \leq y)}{924}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{\binom{12}{6}} I(\delta_{k} \leq y)}{\binom{12}{6}}$$

This is called the randomisation distribution.

Randomization Distribution

- ▶ The yield is not random since the plots were not chosen randomly.
- ▶ Their assignment to treatments is random.
- ▶ The basis for building a probability distribution for $\bar{y}_a \bar{y}_b$ comes from the randomization of fertilizers to plots.

Randomization Distribution

- ► This randomization results in 6 plots getting fertilizer A and the remaining 6 plots receiving fertilizer B.
- ▶ This is one of $\binom{12}{6} = 924$ equally likely randomizations that could have occured.

This represents an outcome of the experiment in a universe where:

- 1. H_0 is true.
- 2. The yield will be the same regardless of which fertilizer a plot received.

For example a plot that had a yield of 26.9 given fertilizer B would have the same yield if the plot received fertilizer A if H_0 is true.

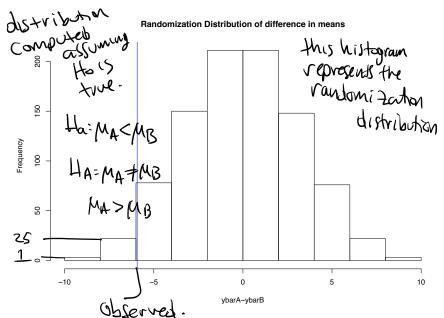
R Code for Randomization Distribution

```
yA \leftarrow c(11.4,23.7,17.9,16.5,21.1,19.6); yB \leftarrow c(26.9,26.6,25.3,28.5,14.2)
fert <- c(yA,yB); N <- choose(12,6) (2)
res <- numeric(N) # store the results
index <-combn(1:12,6) #Generate N treatment assignments Q1U
for (i in 1:N)
{res[i] <- mean(fert[index[,i]])-mean(fert[index[,i]])}</pre>
index[,1:2] #output first two randomizations
                                         (12-6),6; this means
(12-6),6; inthe intex.
## [1,] 2
## [2,] 2
## [3,] 3 3
## [4,] 4 4
## [5,] 5 5
## [6.]
```

res[1:2] #output first two mean diffs

```
## [1] -5.933333 -3.500000
```

Randomization Distribution



Hypothesis Testing

- ▶ Is there any contradiction between H_0 and the observed data?
- ► A **P-value** is the probability, under the null hypothesis of obtaining a more extreme than the observed result.

P-value =
$$P(\delta \le -5.93) = \hat{F}(-5.93)$$

- ▶ A small P-value implies evidence **against** null hypothesis.
- ▶ If the P-value is large does this imply that the null is true?

Randomization Test

- ► Assume *H*⁰ is true.
- Calculate the difference in means for every possible way to split the data into two samples of size 6.
- ▶ This would result in $\binom{12}{6} = 924$ differences.
- Calculate the probability of observing a value as extreme of more extreme than the observed value of the test statistic (*P-value*).
- ▶ If the P-value is small then there are two possible explanations:
- 1. An unlikely value of the statistic has occurred, or
- 2. The assumption that H_0 is true is incorrect.
- ▶ If the P-value is large then the hypothesis test is inconclusive.

DIA large p-value does not imply the is treel 2. The p-value is not the probability that the is true.

Computing the P-value

The observed value of the test statistic is -5.93. So, the p-value is

[1] 0.03 = 26 (924)

```
# of times values from the mean randomization distribution
# less than observed value
sum(res<=observed)
                        observed -5.93
## [1] 26
                        res contains all 924 potential
                               differenced and
N # Number of randomizations
                             Sum ( res & abserved)
                               Counts the # oftimes
## [1] 924
                                                re( 4 - 5.93
pval <- sum(res<=observed)/N # Randomization p value</pre>
round(pval,2)
```

Interpretation of P-value

- ▶ A p-value of 0.03 can be interpreted as: assume there is no difference in yield between fertilizers A and B then the proportion of randomizations that would produce an observed mean difference between A and B of at most -5.93 is 0.03.
- ▶ In other words, under the assumption that there is no difference between A and B only 3% of randomizations would produce an extreme or more extreme difference than the observed mean difference.
- ▶ Therefore it's unlikely (if we consider 3% unlikely) that an observed mean difference as extreme or more extreme than -5.93 would be observed if $\mu_A = \mu_B$.

Two-Sided Randomization P value

- If we are using a two-sided alternative then how do we calculate a p-value?
- The randomization distribution may not be symmetric so there is no justification for simply doubling the probability in one tail.

Let
$$\begin{array}{c} +c = \left(\begin{array}{c} \overline{Y}_{A} - \overline{Y}_{B} \end{array} \right) \\ \vdots \\ \overline{t} = \left(1 / {N \choose N_{A}} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{N} t_{i} \end{array}$$
 # plats get A-(6)

be the mean of the randomization distribution then we can define the two-sided p-value as

$$P(|T-\overline{t}| \geq |t^*-\overline{t}| | H_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{\binom{N}{N_A}} \frac{I(|t_i-\overline{t}| \geq |t^*-\overline{t}|)}{\binom{N}{N_A}},$$

The probability of obtaining an observed value of the test statistic as far, or farther, from the mean of the randomization distribution.

Two-Sided Randomization P value

```
yA \leftarrow c(11.4, 23.7, 17.9, 16.5, 21.1, 19.6)
vB \leftarrow c(26.9, 26.6, 25.3, 28.5, 14.2, 24.3)
fert <- c(yA,yB) #pool data
N \leftarrow choose(12,6)
res <- numeric(N) # store the results
index <-combn(1:12,6)
for (i in 1:N)
{
  res[i] <- mean(fert[index[,i]])-mean(fert[-index[,i]])
tbar <- mean(res)
pval <- sum(abs(res-tbar)>=abs(observed-tbar))/N
round(pval,2)
```

[1] 0.06 2 X ONE-Side p-value.

Randomization Test

- We could calculate the difference in means for every possible way to split the data into two samples of size 6.
- ▶ This would result in $\binom{12}{6} = 924$ differences.
- ▶ If there were 30 observations split evenly into two groups then there are $\binom{30}{15} = 155, 117, 520$ differences.
- ► So unless the sample sizes are small these exhaustive calculations are not practical.

Randomization Test

Instead we can create a permutation resample (Monte Carlo Sampling).

- 1. Draw 6 observations from the pooled data without replacement. (fert A)
- 2. The remaining 6 observations will be the second sample (fert B)
- 3. Calculate the difference in means of the two samples
- 4. Repeat 1-3 at least 250000 times.
- P-value is the fraction of times the random statistics exceeds the original statistic.

Estimate P-value via Monte Carlo Sampling

2501000

If M test statistics, t_i , i=1,...,M are randomly sampled from the permutation distribution, a one-sided Monte Carlo p value for a test of $H_0: \mu_T=0$ versus $H_1: \mu_T>0$ is

$$\hat{p} = rac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{M} I(t_i \geq t^*)}{M+1}.$$

Including the observed value t^* there are M+1 test statistics.

There are M+1: the observed will always be greater than or equal to it set.

Estimate P-value via Monte Carlo Sampling

```
N <- 250000 # number of times to repeat this process
    result <- numeric(N) # space to save random diffs.
    for (i in 1:N)
    { #sample of size 6, from 1 to 12, without replacement
      index <- sample(12,size=6,replace=F)</pre>
      result[i] <- mean(fert[index])-mean(fert[-index])</pre>
    #store observed mean difference
    observed <- mean(yA)-mean(yB)
    #P-value - mean - results will vary
## [1] 0.0281

The Max is when and M draws then p*(+p*)

P*=0.5 SE=0.001 then = 250,000 II
    pval <- (sum(result <= observed)+1)/(N+1)</pre>
```

Basic Decision Theory

Ho: MA=MB HA: MA+MB

Truth

P-value = $P(\text{test statistic} \ge \text{observed value of test statistic})$ as U

$$\alpha = P(\text{type I error}) = 305$$

 $\beta = P(\text{type II error})$

$$1 - \beta = \mathsf{power}$$

p (test-detects ad iff. when a diff. really exists)

The Randomization P-value

- An achievable P-value of the randomization test must be a multiple of $\frac{k}{\binom{12}{12}} = \frac{k}{924}$, where $k = 1, 2, \dots, 924$.
- ▶ If we choose a significance level of $\alpha = \frac{k}{924}$ that is one of the achievable P-values then $P(\text{type I error}) = \alpha$.
- ▶ The randomization test is an exact test.
- If α is not chosen to be one of the achievable P-values but $\alpha = \frac{k}{924}$ is the largest acheivable P-value less than α then $P(\text{type I error}) < \alpha$.



A test statistic should be able to differentiate between H_0 and H_a in ways that are scientifically relevant.

- ▶ Other test statistics could be used instead of $T = \bar{Y}_A \bar{Y}_B$ to measure the effectiveness of fertilizer A.
- ▶ The difference in group medians

$$median(Y_A) - median(Y_B)$$

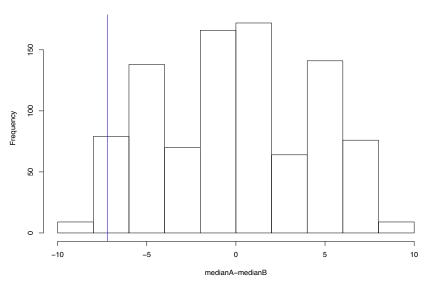
or trimmed means are examples of other test statistics.

The randomiztion distribution of the difference in group medians can be obtained by modifying the R code used for the difference in group means.

```
fert <- c(yA,yB) #pool data
N <- choose(12,6)
res <- numeric(N) # store the results
index <-combn(1:12,6) # Generate N treatment assignments
for (i in 1:N)
{
    res[i] <- median(fert[index[,i]])-median(fert[-index[,i]])
}</pre>
```

replace mean by median.

Randomization Distribution of difference in medians



The p-value of the randomization test can be calculated

```
# of times values from the median randomization
# distribution less than observed value
sum(res<=observed)</pre>
## [1] 36
N # Number of randomizations
## [1] 924
pval <- sum(res<=observed)/N # Randomization p value</pre>
round(pval,2)
## [1] 0.04
```

Why Is the median more valoust Compared to the mean? IQR are more Range. Voloust measure of Spread Spread to SD. median Mean Robust against outliers 3 (xi-x)2

If the two wheat yield samples are independent random samples from a normal distribution with means μ_A and μ_B but the same variance then the statistic

$$\bar{y}_A - \bar{y}_b \sim N\left(\mu_A - \mu_B, \sigma^2(1/n_A + 1/n_B)\right)$$
.

So,

$$rac{ar{y}_A - ar{y}_b - \delta}{\sigma \sqrt{(1/n_A + 1/n_B)}} \sim \textit{N}(0,1),$$

where $\delta = \mu_A - \mu_B$.

If we substitute

Solution becomes
$$S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_A} (y_{iA} - \bar{y}_A) + \sum_{i=1}^{n_B} (y_{iB} - \bar{y}_B)}{n_A + n_B - 2}$$

for σ^2 then

$$\frac{\bar{y}_A - \bar{y}_b - \delta}{s_{\sqrt{\left(1/n_A + 1/n_B\right)}}} \sim t_{n_A + n_B - 2},$$

is called the two sample t-statistic.

In the wheat yield example H_0 : $\mu_A = \mu_B$ and suppose that H_1 : $\mu_A < \mu_B$. The p-value of the test is obtained by calculating the observed value of the two sample t-statistic under H_0 .

$$t^* = \frac{\bar{y}_A - \bar{y}_b}{s\sqrt{(1/n_A + 1/n_B)}} = \frac{18.37 - 24.3}{4.72\sqrt{(1/6 + 1/6)}} = -2.18$$

The p-value is $P(t_{18} < -2.18) = 0.03$.

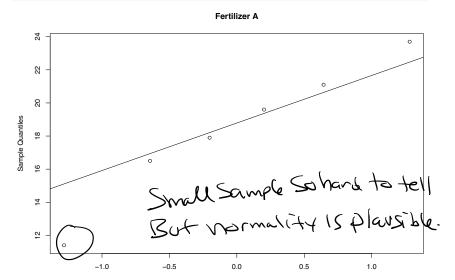
The calculation was done in R.

[1] 0.02715

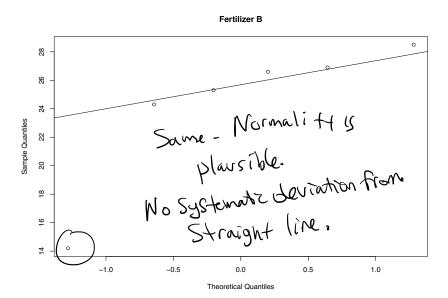
In R the command to run a two-sample t-test is t.test().

```
t.test(yA,yB,var.equal = TRUE,alternative = "less")
                                          C> H1: WACHB
##
##
   Two Sample t-test
##
## data: yA and yB
## t = -2.1793, df = 10, p-value = 0.02715
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is less than 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
##
         -Inf -0.9987621
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 18.36667 24.30000
```

The assumption of normality can be checked using normal quantile plots, although the t-test is robust against non-normality.



qqnorm(yB,main = "Fertilizer B");qqline(yB)



Two-Sample t-test versus Randomization Test

- ► The p-value from the randomization test and the p-value from two-sample t-test are almost identical.
- ▶ The randomization test does not depend on normality or independence.

Two-Sample t-test versus Randomization Test

- ▶ The randomization test does depend on Fisher's concept that after randomization, if the null hypothesis is true, the two results obtained from each particular plot will be exchangeable.
- ► The randomization test tells you what you could say if exchangeability were true.

Paired Comparisons

- Increase precision by making comparisons within matched pairs of experimental material.
- Randomize within a pair.

Boy's Shoe Experiment

pair is a box's feet.



- ► Two materials to make boy's shoes, A and B, are tested to evaluate if B is more sturdy compared to A.
- During the experimental test some boys scuffed their shoes more than others.
- Each boy's two shoes were subjected to the same treatment by having each boy wear both materials.
- Working with 10 differences B-A most of the boy-to-boy variation could be eliminated.
- Called a randomized paired comparison design.

Boy's Shoe Experiment

- ▶ Toss a coin to randomize material to L/R foot of a boy.
- ▶ Head: Material A used on right foot.
- Null hypothesis: amount of wear associated with material A and B are the same.
- ▶ So labelling given to a pair of results only affects the sign of the difference.

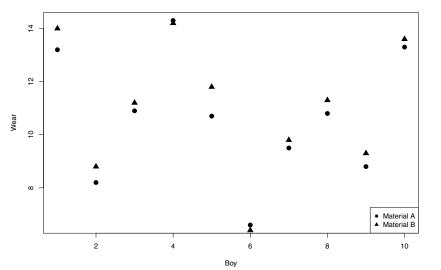
2 Samples -> 1 Sample.

library(BHH2)

data(shoes.data)

shoes.data

							d FF
##		boy	\mathtt{matA}	$\mathtt{side}\mathtt{A}$	\mathtt{matB}	sideB	0/ (11
##	1	1	13.2	L	14.0	R	13.2-14.0 = d.
##	2	2	8.2	L	8.8	R	
##	3	3	10.9	R	11.2	L	8.2-8.8 = 42
##	4	4	14.3	L	14.2	R	$10-9-11-2=d_{2}$
##	5	5	10.7	R	11.8	L	,
##	6	6	6.6	L	6.4	R	د
##	7	7	9.5	L	9.8	R	•
##	8	8	10.8	L	11.3	R	
##	9	9	8.8	R	9.3	L	137 12 = 410
##	10	10	13.3	L	13.6	R	13-7-13-6 = 20



```
diff <- shoes.data$matA-shoes.data$matB
meandiff <- mean(diff); meandiff
                                        H=MAT A
on Rightfoot
## [1] -0.41
shoe.dat2 <- data.frame(shoes.data,diff)</pre>
shoe.dat2
                                    Flip 2 16 the flip
Theads then
##
     boy matA sideA matB sideB diff
## 1
       1 13.2
                 L 14.0
                           R - 0.8
                                             the diff would
## 2
       2 8.2
                I. 8.8 R. -0.6
## 3
    3 10.9
                R 11.2 L -0.3
                                               be +0-8
    4 14.3
                 I. 14.2 R. 0.1
## 4
## 5
    5 10.7
                 R 11.8 L -1.1
    6 6.6
                 I. 6.4
                           R. 0.2
## 6
## 7
    7 9.5
                 L 9.8
                          R - 0.3
                 L 11.3 R -0.5
## 8
    8 10.8
## 9
       9 8.8
                 R. 9.3
                          L -0.5
## 10
      10 13.3
                 L 13.6
                           R = 0.3
```

Boy's Shoe Experiment

- ▶ The sequence of coin tosses is one of $2^{10} = 1024$ equiprobable outcomes.
- ► To test *H*₀ the average difference of -0.41 bserved observed can be compared with the other 1023 averages by calculating the average difference for each of 1024 arrangements of signs in:

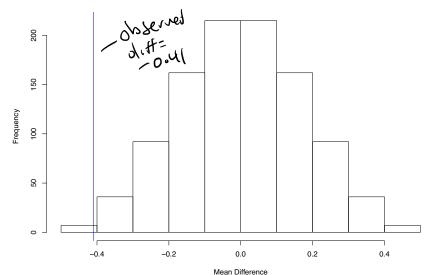
$$\bar{d} = \frac{\pm 0.8 \pm 0.6 \cdots \pm 0.3}{10}$$

```
\mathbb{N} \leftarrow 2^{(10)} \# number of treatment assignments
res <- numeric(N) #vector to store results
LR <- list(c(-1,1)) # difference is multiplied by -1 or 1
# generate all possible treatment assign
trtassign <- expand.grid(rep(LR, 10)) <
for(i in 1:N){
res[i] <- mean(as.numeric(trtassign[i,])*diff)</pre>
                          d from pravious
Slide
trtassign[1:2,]
    Var1 Var2 Var3 Var4 Var5 Var6 Var7 Var8 Var9 Var10
##
                -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
## 2 1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1 -1
res[1:2]
```

```
## [1] 0.41 0.25
```

hist(res, xlab="Mean Difference",main="Randomization Distribution Boys'
abline(v = meandiff,col="blue")

Randomization Distribution Boys' Shoes



```
sum(res<=meandiff) # number of differences le observed diff

## [1] 7

Sum(res<=meandiff)/N # p-value

## [1] 0.006835938

Olidana Hat MA - MB
```

If we assume that the differences -0.8, -0.6, -0.3, 0.1, -1.1, 0.2, -0.3, -0.5, -0.5, -0.3 are a random sample from a normal distribution then the statistic

$$t = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_{\bar{d}}/\sqrt{10}} \sim t_{10-1},$$

where, $s_{\bar d}$ is the sample standard deviation of the paired differences. The p-value for testing if $\bar D < 0$ is

$$P(t_9 < t)$$
.

In general if there are n differences then

$$t=rac{ar{d}}{s_{ar{d}}/\sqrt{n}}\sim t_{n-1},$$

where, $s_{\bar d}$ is the sample standard deviation of the paired differences. The p-value for testing if $\bar D < 0$ is

$$P(t_{n-1} < t)$$
.

NB: This is the same as a one-sample t-test of the differences.

In R a paired t-test can be obtained by using the command t.test() with paired=T.

```
##
##
    Paired t-test
##
## data: shoes.data$matA and shoes.data$matB
## t = -3.3489, df = 9, p-value = 0.004269
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is less than 0
                                     Very Close to the
vavidomization
Jistn. produc.
## 95 percent confidence interval:
          -Inf -0.1855736
##
## sample estimates:
## mean of the differences
##
                      -0.41
```

This is the same as a one-sample t-test on the difference.

```
# same as a one-sample t-test on the diff
t.test(diff,alternative = "less")
##
##
    One Sample t-test
##
## data: diff
## t = -3.3489, df = 9, p-value = 0.004269
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is less than 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
         -Inf -0.1855736
##
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
      -0.41
##
```

qqnorm(diff); qqline(diff)



