# Experimental Design and Data Analysis, Lecture

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#### Lecture overview

- Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA)
- 2 Kruskal-Wallis test
- permutation tests in the setting of one-way ANOVA

1-way ANOVA •0000000000000

one way ANOVA (analysis of variance) completely randomized design

#### Setting

1-way ANOVA 000000000000000

#### An experiment with:

- a numerical outcome Y:
- a factor that can be fixed at I levels ("treatment").

If I = 2, this is just the two-sample problem, and we could perform a t-test.

EXAMPLE Agricultural experiment with outcome total yield from a plot and treatment type of fertilizer.

**EXAMPLE** Quality of a genetic algorithm to determine the minimal value of a criterion function with outcome CPU time needed to find true minimum and treatment mutation probability set to 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04 or 0.05.

EXAMPLE Outcome time to develop mold on bread and treatment temperature of the environment fixed to 15, 19 or 22 degrees (garage, bedroom, living room).

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#### Design

- Select NI experimental units randomly from the population of interest.
- Assign level i of the factor to a random set of N units (i = 1, 2, ..., I).
- Perform the experiment NI times, independently.

Randomization in R.

```
> I=4; N=5
> rep(1:I,N)
 [1] 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4
> sample(rep(1:I,N))
 [1] 3 4 2 1 1 4 3 4 3 1 3 2 3 2 1 4 2 4 2 1
```

Use level 3 for unit 1, level 4 for unit 2, etc.

Using an equal number of units N for each level (called balanced design) is preferable, but not necessary.

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#### One-way ANOVA

#### Data

1-way ANOVA 00000000000000

```
sample 1: Y_{11}, Y_{12}, \dots, Y_{1N}
sample 2: Y_{21}, Y_{22}, \dots, Y_{2N}
sample I: Y_{I1}, Y_{I2}, ..., Y_{IN}.
```

Assume that these samples are obtained independently from I normal populations with (possibly different) population means  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_I$ , and with equal variances.

We want to test the null hypothesis  $H_A$ :  $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \cdots = \mu_I$  versus the alternative  $H_1: \mu_i \neq \mu_i$  for some (i, j).

The test statistic is a bit complicated. It is, together with its distribution under  $H_A$ , implemented in R.

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### One-way ANOVA model

1-way ANOVA

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A categorical explanatory variable (also called factor) with I different categories/levels corresponds to I groups/populations/levels.

The one-way ANOVA model is: with  $\mu_i = \mu + \alpha_i$ ,

$$Y_{ik} = \mu_i + e_{ik} = \mu + \alpha_i + e_{ik}, \quad i = 1, ..., I, \quad k = 1, ..., n_i,$$

- $Y_{ik}$  is the k-th response measured in group i,
- $\mu$  is the common mean,  $\alpha_i$  is the contribution of level  $i, i = 1, \dots, I$ ,

Assumption: the indep. errors  $e_{ik} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , with unknown variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Balanced design: the same number of observations per group  $n_i = N$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,I$ , so that the total number of observations is  $n=\sum_{i=1}^{I}n_i=NI$ .

Note: if I = 2, this is the setting for the two sample t-test with equal variances.

Parameters  $\mu, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l$  are not uniquely defined, one needs to specify one linear restriction on the parameters. Default parametrization in R is  $\alpha_1 = 0$  (group 1 is the reference class). Other common parametrizations are  $\mu = 0$  (then  $\mu_i = \alpha_i$ ) or  $\sum_{i=1}^{I} \alpha_i = 0$ . The parametrization in R can be set by the command contrasts.

### One-way ANOVA test

1-way ANOVA

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Setting: a one-way ANOVA model:  $Y_{ii} = \mu + \alpha_i + e_{ii}$ .

Hypotheses:  $H_A: \alpha_1 = \ldots = \alpha_k = 0$  (no factor effect) versus  $H_1:$  at least one  $\alpha_i \neq 0$  (factor effect is present).

Test statistic: with  $\bar{Y}_{i} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} Y_{ik}$  and  $\bar{Y}_{i} = \frac{1}{l} \sum_{k=1}^{l} \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} Y_{ik}$ , under  $H_0$ ,

$$F = \frac{\text{between-groups SS}}{\text{within-groups SS}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{I} n_i (\bar{Y}_{i\cdot} - \bar{Y}_{\cdot\cdot})^2 / (I-1)}{\sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{i\cdot})^2 / (n-I)} \sim F_{I-1,n-I},$$

the F-distribution with I-1 and n-I degrees of freedom.

Larger values of F = f give more evidence against  $H_0$  in favor of  $H_1$ , hence we only reject  $H_A$  if F is large. The test is therefore always right-sided: compare the *p*-value  $p_{right} = P(F > f)$  with a significance level  $\alpha$ .

In R: the p-value is in anova( $lm(y \sim f)$ , data=...), f is the factor.

In R: summary(lm(y $\sim$ f,data=...)) shows the coefficient estimates  $\hat{\alpha}_i$ 's in the treatment parameterization, to get these in the sum parametrization use (before 1m command) contrasts(f)=contr.sum.

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## One-way ANOVA table

1-way ANOVA

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One-way ANOVA results are usually presented in an one-way ANOVA table:

Source	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	<i>p</i> -value
Factor A	I-1	$SS_A$	$SS_A/(I-1)$	$f = \frac{SS_A/(I-1)}{RSS/(n-I)}$	P(F > f)
Residuals	n – I	RSS	RSS/(n-I)	1.007 (1. 1)	
Total	n - 1	SS⊤			

Here 
$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{i.})^2$$
,  $SS_A = \sum_{i=1}^{I} n_i (\bar{Y}_{i.} - \bar{Y}_{..})^2$ ,  $SS_T = RSS + SS_A$ .

A one-way ANOVA table in R looks as follows:

	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
Factor					
Residuals					

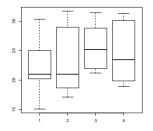
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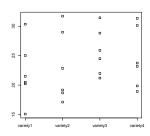
### Analysis in R — graphics

- > melon=read.table("melon.txt",header=TRUE)
- > melon

```
variety1 variety2 variety3 variety4
    15.09
            17.12
                    21.20
                             18.93
2
    20.21
            19.17
                    28.83
                             31.34
    30.35
          28.99
                    31.43
                             30.13
4
    25.03
            22.84
                    25.90
                             23.18
5
    20.50
            31.72
                    21.98
                             19.86
6
    21.50
            18.67
                    24.48
                             23.75
```

boxplot(melon); stripchart(melon, vertical=TRUE)





## Analysis in R — data input

If needed, create a data frame with a numeric column of responses  $Y_{i,n}$  and a second factor column of the corresponding factor levels.

```
> melon
 variety1 variety2 variety3 variety4
1
    15.09
            17.12
                    21.20
                             18.93
    20.21 19.17 28.83 31.34
3
    30.35 28.99 31.43 30.13
  25.03 22.84 25.90 23.18
4
5
    20.50 31.72 21.98 19.86
6
    21.50 18.67 24.48 23.75
> melonframe=data.frame(yield=as.vector(as.matrix(melon)),
+ variety=factor(rep(1:4,each=6))) #create a data frame in the right format
> melonframe[1:5.]
 vield variety
1 15.09
2 20.21
3 30.35
4 25.03
5 20.50
> is.factor(melonframe$variety); is.numeric(melonframe$variety)
[1] TRUE
[1] FALSE
```

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### Analysis in R — testing

```
> melonaov=lm(yield~variety,data=melonframe)
```

> anova(melonaov)

1-way ANOVA

Analysis of Variance Table

Response: yield

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) variety 3 43.55 14.516 0.5543 0.6512

Residuals 20 523.73 26.186

The command 1m creates an object of type linear model (many things can be extracted from it by using other functions), yield~variety is a model formula. Read it as: "explain yield using variety". The *p*-value for  $H_A: \alpha_1=\alpha_2=\alpha_3=\alpha_4=0$  (which is the same as  $H_A: \mu_1=\mu_2=\mu_3=\mu_4$ ) is 0.6512, hence  $H_A$  is not rejected, i.e., factor variety is not significant.

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```
> summary(melonaov)
[ some output deleted ]
Coefficients:
```

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
           22.1133
                       2.0891 10.585 1.21e-09 ***
(Intercept)
            0.9717
                      2.9545 0.329
                                       0.746
variety2
variety3
            3.5233
                      2.9545 1.193
                                       0.247
varietv4
            2.4183
                       2.9545
                               0.819
                                       0.423
```

By default R uses treatment parametrization, i.e.,  $\alpha_1 = 0$ . In this case, R reports the estimates of  $\mu_1 = \mu + \alpha_1 = \mu_1$ ,  $\alpha_2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1$ , ...,  $\alpha_l = \mu_l - \mu_1$ .

Thus, in the **treatment contrasts**, R takes the first level (here variety1, in alphabetical order) as a **base level** and compares the other levels to it. These **estimates** are  $\hat{\mu}_1 = 22.1133$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_2 - \hat{\mu}_1 = 0.9717$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_3 - \hat{\mu}_1 = 3.5233$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_4 - \hat{\mu}_1 = 2.4.183$ . Then  $\hat{\mu}_i = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\alpha}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, 4$ , are just the group means and can also be obtained by command **fitted(melonaov)**. The column Pr(>|t|) gives the **p-values** for testing  $\mu_1 = 0$  and  $\alpha_i = \mu_i - \mu_1 = 0$ , i = 2, 3, 4, respectively.

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# Analysis in R — estimation (2)

1-way ANOVA

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```
> confint(melonaov)

2.5 % 97.5 %

(Intercept) 17.755509 26.471158

variety2 -5.191228 7.134561

variety3 -2.639561 9.686228

variety4 -3.744561 8.581228
```

```
The 95% confidence intervals are for \mu_1: [17.755509, 26.471158]; for \mu_2 - \mu_1: [-5.191228, 7.134561], for \mu_3 - \mu_1: [-2.639561, 9.686228], for \mu_4 - \mu_1: [-3.744561, 8.581228].
```

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# Analysis in R — estimation (3)

An alternative to the (default) treatment parametrization is sum parametrization. This gives a decomposition of the population means into the overall mean  $\mu$  and factor effects  $\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\alpha_3,\alpha_4$  as

$$\mu_i = \mu + \alpha_i, \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots, I, \quad ext{with the restiction} \quad \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i = 0.$$

 $\alpha_i$ 's are expressing the deviations from the mean, and their average is zero.

```
> contrasts(melonframe$variety)=contr.sum #to specify sum-parametrization
> melonaov=lm(yield~variety,data=melonframe); summary(melonaov)
[ some output deleted ]
Coefficients:
```

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

The 4 lines of the table give estimates of  $\mu, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ , now in sum-parametrization. The estimate for  $\alpha_4$  is omitted, but could be computed from  $\sum_{i=1}^4 \hat{\alpha}_i = 0$ . We can compute the estimates for the  $\mu_i$ 's:  $\hat{\mu}_i = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\alpha}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, 4$  (they must be the same as before).

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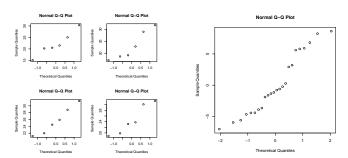
### Analysis in R — diagnostics

1-way ANOVA 000000000000000

> We can use the data to check whether the assumption of normality of the populations is not totally untrue. The residuals  $\hat{e}_{i,n} = Y_{i,n} - \hat{\mu}_i$  are the data corrected for the different population means and ought to look normal.

```
> par(mfrow=c(2,2)); for (i in 1:4) qqnorm(melon[,i])
```

> par(mfrow=c(1,1)); qqnorm(residuals(melonaov))



Because the 4 samples are small, separate QQ-plots are not so useful. The second plot, using residuals, uses all 24 points, but corrected for being sampled from different populations.

### If the assumptions fail?

1-way ANOVA 000000000000000

- The design of the experiment ensures that the data are independent random samples from the populations.
- However, the populations might be nonnormal or have different variances.
- If the number of data points is large, then the p-value should still be accurate.
- In the other case, consider:
  - transforming the data (e.g. use log Y);
  - using a different test;
  - omit some (outlying) data-points (careful!);
  - something else (there is no fix that always works).

Kruskal-Wallis test (a nonparametric counterpart of ANOVA test)

### Kruskal-Wallis test: design

The setting and design are the same as in the 1-way ANOVA (consider  $n_i = N$ , the balanced design). What if the normality assumption fails?

The Kruskal-Wallis test

- does not rely on the normality, it is based on ranks;
- is a nonparametric alternative to one-way ANOVA,
- is a generalization of the Mann-Whitney test for 2 samples;
- computes the sum of the ranks of  $Y_{i,1}, \ldots, Y_{i,N}$  for each i within the total data. Under  $H_0$  these N ranks should all lie randomly between 1 and NI.

#### Data

```
sample 1: Y_{11}, Y_{12}, \dots, Y_{1N}
sample 2: Y_{21}, Y_{22}, \dots, Y_{2N}
sample I: Y_{I1}, Y_{I2}, \ldots, Y_{IN}
```

Assume that these are sampled independently from *I* populations  $F_1, \ldots, F_I$  which are possibly different.

We test  $H_0: F_1 = \ldots = F_I$  versus  $H_1:$  at least two distributions are different.

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#### Kruskal-Wallis test: setting and analysis

Setting: measurements  $Y_{ik}$  for i = 1, ..., I and  $k = 1, ..., n_i$  from I different populations,  $Y_{ik}$  follows distribution  $F_i$  of population i.

Hypotheses:  $H_0: F_1 = \ldots = F_k$  versus  $H_1: F_i \neq F_i$  for some i, j.

Test statistic:  $W = \frac{12}{n(n+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{I} n_i \bar{R}_i^2 - 3(n+1)$ , where  $N = n_1 + ... + n_I$  and  $\bar{R}_i = \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} R_{ik}/n_i$  is the average pooled rank of the observations in sample i,  $R_{ik}$  are the pooled ranks.

Distribution of W under  $H_0$ :  $\chi_{l-1}^2$  (approximately), the test is one sided.

Assumption: all  $n_i > 5$ .

In R: kruskal.test(y,f,data=...), where y is the outcome, f is the factor.

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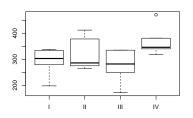
### Analysis in R — data input and graphics

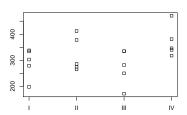
The dataset ratdata.txt contains the number of worms in rats in 4 different treatment groups.

> ratdata=read.table("ratdata.txt".header=TRUE): ratdata

```
TT TTT
              TV
    Т
1 279 378 172 381
2 338 275 335 346
3 334 412 335 340
4 198 265 282 471
5 303 286 250 318
```

> boxplot(ratdata); stripchart(ratdata,vertical=TRUE)





#### Analysis in R — data input

Create a data frame with the first columns containing all the outcomes  $Y_{i,n}$  and the second column that indicates the levels of the factor factor.

```
> ratframe=data.frame(worms=as.vector(as.matrix(ratdata)),
                group=as.factor(rep(1:4,each=5)))
+
> ratframe[1:6,]
  worms group
    279
   338
3
   334
4
   198
5
    303
6
    378
> is.factor(ratframe$group); is.numeric(ratframe$group)
[1] TRUE
[1] FALSE
```

# Analysis in R — testing (1)

Now we perform the Kruskal-Wallis test.

> attach(ratframe); kruskal.test(worms,group)

Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test

data: worms and group Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 6.2047, df = 3, p-value = 0.1021

The command kruskal.test performs the Kruskal-Wallis test and yields a p-value. The p-value for testing  $H_0: F_1 = F_2 = F_3 = F_4$  is 0.1021, hence  $H_0$  is not rejected.

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# Analysis in R — testing (2)

Compare the result of Kruskal-Wallis test with the ANOVA test results:

```
> rataov=lm(worms~group); anova(rataov)
Analysis of Variance Table
```

```
Response: worms
```

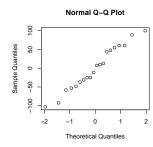
```
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
   27234 9078.1 2.2712 0.1195
```

Residuals 16 63954 3997.1

The one-way ANOVA also does not yield a significant difference.

#### > qqnorm(rataov\$residuals)

The residuals do not seem to deviate significantly from normal, and both tests could be used here



permutation tests for independent samples

#### Setting and design

#### Setting: an experiment with

- a numerical outcome Y.
- a factor that can be fixed at I levels ("label").

The same setting as 1-way ANOVA. The sample sizes for each label may differ.

**EXAMPLE** Medical experiment with outcome age at onset of a certain disease and label blood type.

EXAMPLE Quality of a genetic algorithm to determine the minimal value of a criterion function with outcome CPU time needed to find true minimum and label mutation probability set to 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04 or 0.05.

#### Design:

- Select I different labels
- Select  $N_i$  experimental units randomly from the population of label i.
- Perform the experiment  $N_1 + N_2 + ... + N_l$  times, independently.

#### **Analysis**

#### Data

```
sample 1: Y_{1,1}, Y_{1,2}, \dots, Y_{1,N_1}
sample 2: Y_{2,1}, Y_{2,2}, \dots, Y_{2,N_2}
:
sample I: Y_{l,1}, Y_{l,2}, \dots, Y_{l,N_l}.
```

Assume that these are sampled independently from I populations  $F_1, \ldots, F_I$  which are possibly different.

We test the null hypothesis  $H_0: F_1 = F_2 = \cdots = F_l$  versus the alternative  $H_1: F_i \neq F_i$  for some (i, j).

We choose a test statistic that expresses the conjectured differences between the I levels, and simulate the distribution of this statistic under  $H_0$ .

The same null hypothesis as in the Kruskal Wallis test, the difference between the Kruskal Wallis test and permutation tests is in the test statistic.

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### Analysis in R — data input and graphics

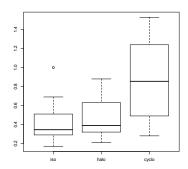
The dataset dogs.txt concerns measures of plasma epinephrine in dogs for three different anesthesia drugs ("iso", "halo", "cyclo").

> dogs=read.table("dogs.txt",header=TRUE)

boxplot(plasma~treat,data=dogsdata)

- > treat=factor(rep(1:3,c(10,10,10)),labels=c("iso","halo","cyclo"))
- > dogsdata=data.frame(plasma=as.vector(as.matrix(dogs)),treat)

```
> head(dogsdata)
  plasma treat
    0.28
           iso
   0.51
           iso
   1.00
         iso
   0.39
          iso
   0.29
           iso
    0.36
           iso
```



# Analysis in R — testing (1)

```
> attach(dogsdata)
> mystat=function(x) sum(residuals(x)^2)
> B=1000
> tstar=numeric(B)
> for (i in 1:B) {
  treatstar=sample(treat) ## permuting the labels
   tstar[i]=mystat(lm(plasma~treatstar)) }
> myt=mystat(lm(plasma~treat))
```

The above test statistic is the sum the squared residuals. This can be programmed efficiently as sum(residuals(lm(data~labels))<sup>2</sup>). Note that we do **not use the** p-values of lm, we find p-values in a bootstrap fashion.

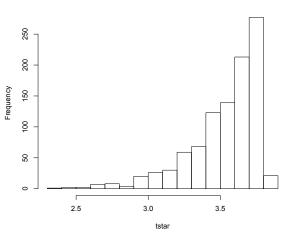
# Analysis in R—testing (2)

#### > hist(tstar)

- > myt
- [1] 2.72474
- > pl=sum(tstar<myt)/B
- > pr=sum(tstar>myt)/B
- > 2\*min(pl,pr)
- [1] 0.03

The treatment is clearly significant. This is (hopefully) in line with your results using 1-way ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis test in the corresponding assignment.

#### Histogram of tstar



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#### Discussion

- A permutation test for independent samples can be performed with any test statistic that expresses difference between the samples. As an alternative to the summed squared deviations from the average per label one can look at differences in mean per label, differences in scale, etc.
- An alternative to the permutation test for independent samples is the Kruskal-Wallis test.
- Nearly all hypotheses concerning the dependence of some quantity on different levels of a "treatment" can be investigated using some sort of permutation.
- By permuting the categories of either the row or column factor in a contingency table, one can test the null hypothesis of no dependence between these two factors.
- In fact a permutation test is a bootstrap test, because the distribution of the test statistic is approximated by simulation.

to finish

#### <u>'To</u> wrap up

#### Today we learned:

- One-way ANOVA
- Kruskal-Wallis test
- permutation tests in the setting of one-way ANOVA

Next time: 2-way ANOVA, factorial design, multiple comparisons.

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