MATH 3080 Lab Lecture 4

Curtis Miller

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Lecture 4

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Procedures such as the two-sample t-test exist to compare the means of two distinct populations. But what if we want to compare the means of more than just two populations? When doing so, we often wish to discern:

- whether there is a difference in the means of any of the populations' means; and
- if there is a difference, which means are different.

A naïve first attempt would perform two-sample t-tests for every combination of two populations. If there are K populations, there would be $\binom{K}{2}$ tests. Aside for there being many separate tests (and thus a lot of work), when one conducts many tests like this, the chances of making a Type I error on any test are high, often much higher than the specified Type I error rate α . The **Bonferroni correction** would suggest we divide the significance level by the number of tests done, thus rejecting one of the null hypotheses if the p-value drops below $\alpha/\binom{K}{2}$. This correction, however, is quite drastic, perhaps too conservative.

Another solution, at least for determining whether any of the means are different, is to perform what's known as a "overall" test. In this case, it would determine whether any of the means are different from each other. Depending on the result of the overall test, we would then look to determine which means differ. (If the test does not reject the null hypothesis of no difference we would not proceed with a detailed analysis.)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure looking to address the first issue: whether there is a difference in means among the populations. Later we will look at the other issue.

Suppose there are K populations; thus, there are K means, $\mu_1, \mu_2, \cdots, \mu_K$. ANOVA seeks to decide between:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \dots = \mu_K = \mu$$

 H_A : there exists i, j s.t. $\mu_i \neq \mu_j$

However, the ANOVA procedure is seen as doing more than just deciding between two hypotheses. In fact, we're estimating the statistical model:

$$x_{ik} = \mu_k + \epsilon_{ik}$$

where $i \in \{1, ..., n_k\}$ and $n_1 + \cdots + n_K = N$. The model listed above is the **one-way ANOVA** model, since the populations differ in only one aspect.

ANOVA assumes that for all i and k, $\epsilon_{ik} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. We call the terms ϵ_{ik} the **residuals** of the model. The normality of the residuals matters for smaller sample sizes, but less so for larger sample sizes. But the assumption of common variance matters a great deal, regardless of sample size. Thus we must always check it. Statisticians often use box plots to judge whether the common variance assumption is appropriate.

Let $\bar{x}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} x_{ik}$ and $\bar{x}_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} x_{ik}$ $SSE = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (x_{ik} - \bar{x}_k)^2$ and $SSTr = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (\bar{x}_k - \bar{x}_i)^2$. Let $\nu_n = K - 1$ and $\nu_d = N - K$ be the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom, respectively. Then the ANOVA test statistic is:

$$f = \frac{SSE/\nu_n}{SSTr/\nu_d}$$

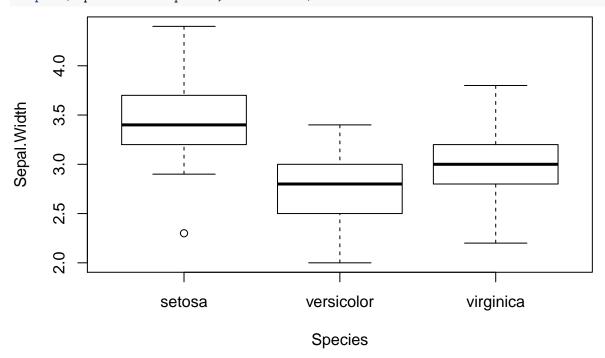
The distribution of f if H_0 is true is the F-distribution F_{ν_n,ν_d} distribution, the F distribution with numerator degrees of freedom ν_n and denominator degrees of freedom ν_d . The p-value is $P(F_{\nu_n,\nu_d} > f)$.

A number of R functions can perform ANOVA, particularly oneway.test(), aov(), and lm().

oneway.test()

Consider the iris data set. Due to the assumption that the populations have a common variance, we should check with a boxplot whether the assumption seems plausiable.

boxplot(Sepal.Width ~ Species, data = iris)



The spread of the data sets are similar; furthermore, the boxplot does suggest that there could be a difference in means. We instruct oneway.test() to perform ANOVA via a command resembling oneway.test(x ~ f, data = d), where x is the variable we test, f identifies the populations, and d is a data frame containing the variables x and f (in long-form format). Note that x must be numeric and f must be a factor variable. This holds throughout the lecture.

```
oneway.test(Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
##
```

One-way analysis of means (not assuming equal variances)
##
data: Sepal.Length and Species
F = 138.91, num df = 2.000, denom df = 92.211, p-value < 2.2e-16</pre>

```
aov()
```

aov() performs ANOVA but is more general purpose and tends to produce output resembling that from other statistics programs. The call to aov() is similar to the call to oneway.test().

```
res <- aov(Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
print(res)
## Call:
      aov(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
##
##
## Terms:
##
                    Species Residuals
                   63.21213
                              38.95620
## Sum of Squares
## Deg. of Freedom
                                   147
##
## Residual standard error: 0.5147894
## Estimated effects may be unbalanced
summary(res)
##
                Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
                 2 63.21 31.606
                                     119.3 <2e-16 ***
## Species
## Residuals
               147
                    38.96
                             0.265
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
lm()
ANOVA is understood as being a particular instance of a linear model. Linear models will be discussed
later, but for now we can see how lm(), the primary function for estimating linear models, can be used for
estimating the ANOVA model parameters and performing the ANOVA test.
When using lm(), the call is lm(x - f - 1, data = d).
res2 <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species - 1, data = iris)
print(res2)
##
## lm(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species - 1, data = iris)
##
## Coefficients:
##
       Speciessetosa Speciesversicolor
                                            Speciesvirginica
               5.006
##
                                   5.936
                                                       6.588
summary(res2)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species - 1, data = iris)
##
## Residuals:
##
       Min
                1Q Median
                                 30
                                         Max
## -1.6880 -0.3285 -0.0060 0.3120
                                    1.3120
##
## Coefficients:
##
                      Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
```

```
## Speciessetosa
                      5.0060
                                 0.0728
                                          68.76
                                                  <2e-16 ***
## Speciesversicolor
                      5.9360
                                 0.0728
                                          81.54
                                                  <2e-16 ***
## Speciesvirginica
                      6.5880
                                 0.0728
                                          90.49
                                                  <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.5148 on 147 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.9925, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9924
## F-statistic: 6522 on 3 and 147 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

We should interpret the results found here as only an estimate of the aforementioned ANOVA model. We should not read anything into the statistical tests performed. The reason why is because effectively all that's being done is testing whether the means of any of the populations are zero, which generally isn't of interest in this context.

The above command estimated the aforementioned ANOVA model verbatim, but different formulations of the ANOVA model exist. For instance, we could say:

$$x_{i1} = \beta_1 + \epsilon_{i1}$$

$$x_{ik} = \beta_1 + \beta_k + \epsilon_{ik}$$

We interpret $\mu_1 = \beta_1$ and $\mu_k = \beta_1 + \beta_k$, or $\beta_k = \mu_k - \mu_1$. We would then rewrite our hypotheses as:

$$H_0: \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_K = 0$$

$$H_A: \beta_k \neq 0$$
 for some k

The lm() call lm(x ~ f, data = d) estimates the parameters of this model and perform the ANOVA test.

```
res3 <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
print(res3)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)</pre>
```

```
## lm(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
##
```

Coefficients:

(Intercept) Speciesversicolor Speciesvirginica
5.006 0.930 1.582

summary(res3)

```
##
## lm(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
##
## Residuals:
                10 Median
       Min
                                3Q
                                       Max
## -1.6880 -0.3285 -0.0060 0.3120
                                   1.3120
##
## Coefficients:
                     Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
                       5.0060
                                  0.0728 68.762 < 2e-16 ***
## (Intercept)
```

```
## Speciesversicolor 0.9300 0.1030 9.033 8.77e-16 ***
## Speciesvirginica 1.5820 0.1030 15.366 < 2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 0.5148 on 147 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.6187, Adjusted R-squared: 0.6135
## F-statistic: 119.3 on 2 and 147 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16</pre>
```

Finding the Differences

Rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference provides useful information; we know that at least some of the population means are different. However, we also need to determine *which* means are different, and by how much they differ.

One idea is to compute confidence intervals for differences in means and see which intervals include 0. Any intervals not including zero suggest that the corresponding two populations differ in their means. But if we compute t confidence intervals as we have done before, then we run into the same multiple hypothesis testing problem we had before. Again, we could look to the Bonferroni correction for guidance, but the original problem of being perhaps too conservative still stands.

A less conservative approach is the Tukey honest significant difference approach. With this approach, a single Type I error rate α is chosen to represent the probability of any rejection of the null hypothesis of no difference being an error. Then for every pair of populations we compute a confidence interval for the difference in means. We can then use these intervals to determine by how much means of different populations differ.

Recall the object res above formed by a call to aov(). This object is of class aov and the function TukeyHSD() can accept it as an argument. TukeyHSD() can then compute the desired confidence intervals.

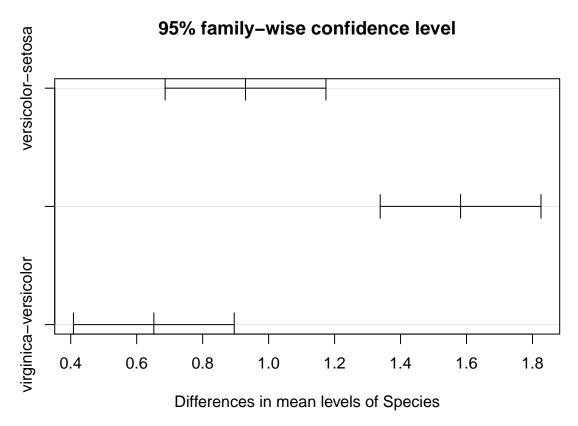
Let's demonstrate:

TukeyHSD(res)

```
##
     Tukey multiple comparisons of means
##
       95% family-wise confidence level
##
## Fit: aov(formula = Sepal.Length ~ Species, data = iris)
##
## $Species
                          diff
##
                                     lwr
                                                upr p adj
                         0.930 0.6862273 1.1737727
## versicolor-setosa
                                                        0
## virginica-setosa
                         1.582 1.3382273 1.8257727
                                                        0
## virginica-versicolor 0.652 0.4082273 0.8957727
                                                        0
```

The printed output is certainly informative but plots are nice to have. Fortunately plotting these intervals is also easy.

```
plot(TukeyHSD(res))
```



We see that 0 is in none of these intervals. This means that there's significant evidence that every pair of population means are different, with virginica and setosa flowers having the greatest difference in sepal length and versicolor and virginica the least difference.

There are of course parameters we can set if we want, say, different confidence levels. See the function documentation for more details.