Lecture 19: ANOVA Part I

Chapter 5.5

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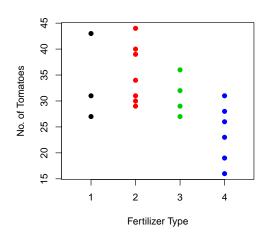
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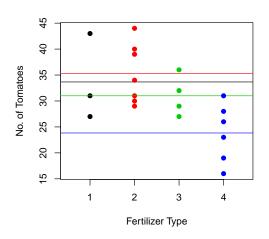
- \triangleright n is small.
- ▶ Independence: $n \le 10\%$ rule
- ▶ Observations come from a nearly normal distribution:
 - ► Look at a histogram of the data (difficult when *n* is small)
 - Consider whether any previous experiences alert us that the data may be normal

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 $ightharpoonup n_i$ plants assigned to each of the k=4 fertilizers:

n_1	n_2	n_3	<i>n</i> ₄	total n
3	7	4	6	20

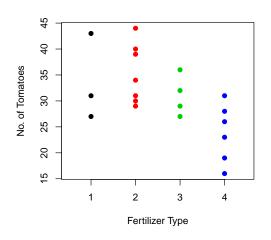
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 $ightharpoonup n_i$ plants assigned to each of the k=4 fertilizers:

Count the number of tomatoes on each plant

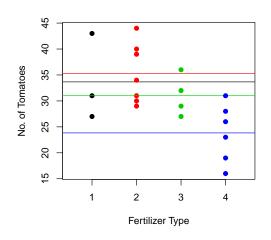
Tomato Fertilizer

We observe the following, where each point is one tomato plant.



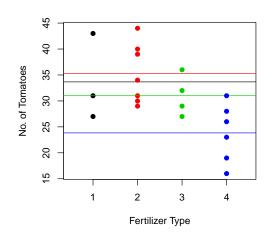
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Tomato Fertilizer

We observe the following, where each point is one tomato plant. Plot the sample mean of each level. Question: are the mean tomato yields different?



Analysis of Variance

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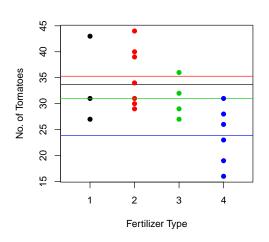
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Ex. for groups 1 & 2:

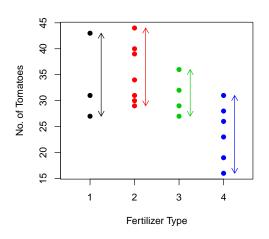
$$H_0: \qquad \mu_1=\mu_2$$

vs.
$$H_a$$
: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

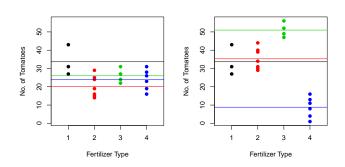
Numerator: the between-group variation refers to the variability between the levels (the 4 horizontal lines):



Denominator: the within-group variation refers to the variability within each level (the 4 vertical arrows):



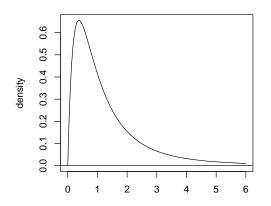
Now compare the following two plots. Which has "more different" means?



F Distributions

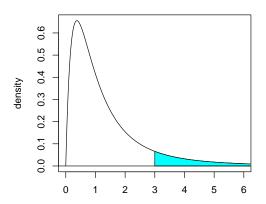
F Distributions

For $df_1 = 4$ and $df_2 = 6$, the F distribution looks like:



F Distributions

p-values are computed where "more extreme" means larger. Say the F=3, the p-value is the area to the right of 3 and is computed in R: pf(3,df1=4,df2=6,lower.tail=FALSE)



Conducting An *F*-Test

The results are typically summarized in an ANOVA table:

Source of Variation	df	SS	MS	F	<i>p</i> -value
Between groups	k – 1	SSTr	$MSTr = \frac{SSTr}{k-1}$	MSTr MSE	р
Within groups	n-k	SSE	$MSE = \frac{\hat{S}SE}{n-k}$		
Total	n-1	SST			

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- 2. Trade off of *n* and normality of observations within each group.
- 3. Each of the groups has constant variance $\sigma_1^2 = \ldots = \sigma_k^2 = \sigma^2$. Check via:
 - boxplots
 - ightharpoonup comparing the sample standard deviations s_1, \ldots, s_k

Discussion of Quiz

Question 1: Why did $\frac{1}{20}$ studies yield a positive/significant result i.e. that there is a link between jelly beans and acne?

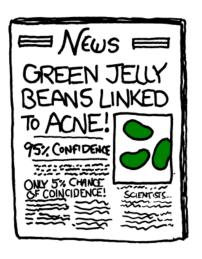
Discussion of Quiz

Question 1: Why did $\frac{1}{20}$ studies yield a positive/significant result i.e. that there is a link between jelly beans and acne?

Not that the p-value is 0.05, rather that $\alpha = 0.05$:

- significance level AKA
- type I error rate AKA
- false positive rate

i.e. we expect 1 out of 20 results to be significant even if there is no effect.



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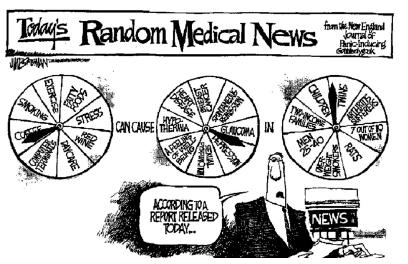
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Journal of Negative Results: http://www.jnrbm.com/

Publication Bias



From: Sterne JA, Davey Smith G (2001) Sifting the evidence - What's wrong with significance tests. BMJ 322: 226231.

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▶ Type I errors. Setting a smaller α yields a more conservative procedure: all things being equal, you will reject H_0 less often.

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Should I use $\alpha=0.05$ as my significance level? Before using it, put some thought into the balance between:

- ▶ Type I errors. Setting a smaller α yields a more conservative procedure: all things being equal, you will reject H_0 less often.
- ▶ Type II errors. Setting a bigger α yields a more liberal procedure: all things being equal, you will reject H_0 more often.

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If you repeat experiments many times, you're bound to get a significant result eventually just by chance alone.

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Use the Bonferroni correction to α : If you are conducting n tests, use $\alpha^* = \frac{\alpha}{n}$. You'll study its properties in HW8.