# Comparing Many Group Means with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Ryan Miller



# Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

- Lately we've been working with statistical methods for analyzing numerical data
  - ► The one-sample *t*-test, or the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, are used to analyze *one-sample* data
  - ► The two-sample *t*-test, or the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, are used to analyze *two-sample* data

# Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

- Lately we've been working with statistical methods for analyzing numerical data
  - ► The one-sample *t*-test, or the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, are used to analyze *one-sample* data
  - ► The two-sample *t*-test, or the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, are used to analyze *two-sample* data
- ▶ Today, we'll learn about a statistical method, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), used to compare more than two groups
  - We'll introduce ANOVA from the perspective of statistical modeling

#### Statistical Models

- ► A **model** is a simplified representation of some phenomenon that is intended to aide in *explanation* or *prediction* 
  - A statistical model is one that involves a probability distribution

#### Statistical Models

- ► A **model** is a simplified representation of some phenomenon that is intended to aide in *explanation* or *prediction* 
  - ► A **statistical model** is one that involves a *probability* distribution
- ► For example, we've used the Normal distribution as a statistical model for the *sampling distribution* of a difference in proportions:

$$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2, \sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})/n_1 + \hat{p}(1-\hat{p})/n_2})$$

- ► This is a *model* because it simplifies the distribution of possible differences in proportions using a bell-curve
  - ▶ It is a *statistical model* because the simplified representation involves a probability distribution



# Modeling Conventions

Typically, statistical models are expressed in this form:

$$Y_i = f(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

In this view, the model is a rule used to translate an *input* (X) into an *output* (Y) while allowing for uncertainty  $(\epsilon)$ 

# Modeling Conventions

Typically, statistical models are expressed in this form:

$$Y_i = f(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

- In this view, the model is a rule used to translate an input (X) into an output (Y) while allowing for uncertainty ( $\epsilon$ )
- ▶ The two-sample t-test can be expressed as a statistical model:

$$y_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i$$

- $\triangleright \mu_i$  is the group mean for the  $i^{th}$  data-point
- $\epsilon_i$  is a random error or deviation from the group mean
- ightharpoonup Collectively (for all data-points),  $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma)$



# The Two-sample *t*-test as a Statistical Model

▶ The two-sample t-test can be expressed as a statistical model:

$$y_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i$$

- For this model, if the  $i^{th}$  subject belongs to group #1, then  $y_i = \mu_1 + \epsilon_i$ 
  - ▶ In words, the observed outcome for this subject is the population mean of group #1 plus a random error  $(\epsilon_i)$

# The Two-sample t-test as a Statistical Model

▶ The two-sample t-test can be expressed as a statistical model:

$$y_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i$$

- ▶ For this model, if the  $i^{th}$  subject belongs to group #1, then  $y_i = \mu_1 + \epsilon_i$ 
  - In words, the observed outcome for this subject is the population mean of group #1 plus a random error  $(\epsilon_i)$
- **Decause** these random errors follow an  $N(0, \sigma)$  distribution, the expected outcome of the i<sup>th</sup> subject is the population mean of the group they belong to
  - Obviously we do not know the population mean, so it must be estimated from the data in order to actually make use of this model

#### Estimation and Prediction

- As you'd expect,  $\bar{y}_1$  is our point estimate of  $\mu_1$ , and  $\bar{y}_2$  is our point estimate of  $\mu_2$ 
  - Using these estimates, the model can be used to make predictions:

$$\hat{y}_i = \bar{y}_i$$

- $\triangleright$   $\hat{y}_i$  is the *predicted* outcome for the  $i^{th}$  data-point
  - So, this model says that the predicted value for a data-point is the mean of the group that the data-point belongs to
  - ▶ Remember, a model is an attempt to *simplify* reality

#### Example - The two-sample *t*-test as Model

In the mass shootings dataset, school shootings had an average of 22.5 victims, while workplace shootings had an average of 12.0 victims

- 1) What would the model on the previous slide *predict* as the number of victims in the three shootings displayed below?
- 2) How far off (from the actual observed values) is the model for these data-points?

```
mass <- read.csv("https://remiller1450.github.io/data/MassShootings.csv")
mass[c(3.5.12), c("Case", "Location", "Year", "Victims", "Place")]
##
                                                Case
                                                               Location Year
## 3
         Virginia Beach municipal building shooting Virginia Beach, VA 2019
## 5
                             SunTrust bank shooting
                                                            Sebring, FL 2019
                                                           Parkland, FL 2018
## 12 Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting
      Victims
                  Place
## 3
           16 Workplace
            5 Workplace
## 12
           34
                 School
```

#### Example - two-sample *t*-test (solution)

- 1) This model would use the two group means as the basis for predictions, so  $\hat{y}_3 = 12.0$ ,  $\hat{y}_5 = 12.0$ , and  $\hat{y}_{12} = 22.5$
- 2) These predicted values are off by 4.0, -7.0, and 11.5 (respectively)

```
mass[c(3,5,12), c("Case", "Location", "Year", "Victims", "Place")]
                                                              Location Year
##
                                               Case
## 3
         Virginia Beach municipal building shooting Virginia Beach, VA 2019
## 5
                             SunTrust bank shooting
                                                          Sebring, FL 2019
## 12 Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting
                                                          Parkland, FL 2018
      Victims
                  Place
## 3
           16 Workplace
          5 Workplace
## 5
## 12
                 School
```

#### **Evaluating Model Accuracy**

- Because models are a simplification of reality, they're always inaccurate (at least to some degree)
- A model's inaccuracy can be understood by studying its residuals:

$$r_i = \hat{y}_i - y_i$$

- ▶ The *i*<sup>th</sup> residual represents how far off the model's prediction is for the i<sup>th</sup> data-point
  - A positive residual means the observed value for the i<sup>th</sup> data-point is above what the model predicts

# **Evaluating Model Accuracy**

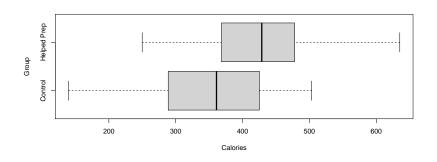
► The accuracy of a model as a whole can be summarized using a Sum of Squares:

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i^2$$

▶ If SSE is small, the model's predictions tend to be very close to the observed values, thus indicating the model fits the data well

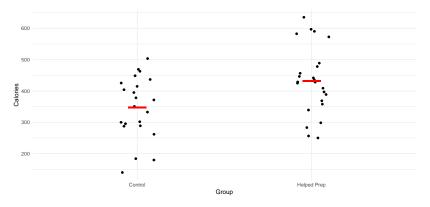
# Example - Children Assisting in Meal Prep

- A 2014 study published in Appetite explored whether children helping out in the kitchen leads to better eating habits. The study randomly assigned:
  - $n_1 = 25$  children to help their parents prepare a healthy lunch meal (pasta, chicken, cauliflower, and salad)
  - $n_2 = 21$  children to eat the same meal prepared entirely by the parent



# Example - Children Assisting in Meal Prep

We could model these data using the two group means:

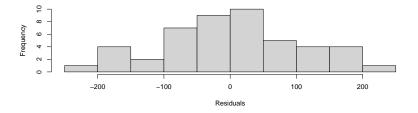


This model has simplified things to involve only  $\bar{y}_1=346.8$  and  $\bar{y}_2=431.4$ , the model's predictions for members of these two groups (ie: we've simplified this scenario to the red-lines plus random error)



# Example - Children Assisting in Meal Prep

- Is this model a good representation of the phenomenon it is attempting to simplify?
  - Let's look at the model's residuals:



This model's sum of squared residuals, or  $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{y}_i - y_i)^2$ , is 476056 ► So is this a good model?



#### Null Models

► To *statistically* evaluate the efficacy of a model, we might compare it to an even simpler model (a Null Model)

#### **Null Models**

- ➤ To statistically evaluate the efficacy of a model, we might compare it to an even simpler model (a Null Model)
- ▶ If its sum of squared residuals is significantly lower, we can be confident that the model we're evaluating is a better representation of the data
  - ▶ In our example, the implication (of a significantly lower sum of squared residuals) would be that "Calories" and "Group" have a statistically significant association

#### Null Models

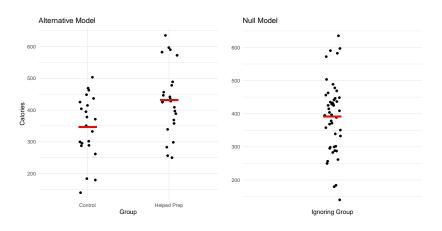
- More specifically, the Null model that we'll consider is one that ignores "Group" when making predictions
  - ► That is, if "Group" and "Calories" are *not associated*, knowing a data-point's group won't lead to more accurate predictions

Null Model: 
$$Y_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$$

Alternative Model:  $Y_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i$ 



#### Null vs. Alternative Models



#### Total Sum of Squares

- We can summarize the Null Model using the sum of squares of it's residuals
  - We'll call this sum,  $SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{y} y_i)^2$
  - ► This is short for *Sum of Squares Total*, as it represents the largest possible amount of modeling error

#### Total Sum of Squares

- We can summarize the Null Model using the sum of squares of it's residuals
  - We'll call this sum,  $SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{y} y_i)^2$
  - ► This is short for *Sum of Squares Total*, as it represents the largest possible amount of modeling error
- ➤ To evaluate whether using "Group" to predict "Calories" is a better model than just using the overall mean of "Calories", we compare SSE and SST
  - If  $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{y}_i y_i)^2$  is significantly lower than  $SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{y} y_i)^2$ , we can confidently conclude that "Group" actually improves predictions



#### ANOVA

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistically compares the Null and Alternative models described on the previous few slides using a standardized value known as the F-statistic:

$$F = \frac{(SST - SSE)/(d_1 - d_0)}{SSE/(n - d_1)}$$

 $\triangleright$   $d_1$  and  $d_0$  refer to the number of parameters involved in each model, in our example  $d_0 = 1$  (the single overall mean) and  $d_1 = 2$  (the two group means)

#### **ANOVA**

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistically compares the Null and Alternative models described on the previous few slides using a standardized value known as the F-statistic:

$$F = \frac{(SST - SSE)/(d_1 - d_0)}{SSE/(n - d_1)}$$

- $lack d_1$  and  $d_0$  refer to the number of parameters involved in each model, in our example  $d_0=1$  (the single overall mean) and  $d_1=2$  (the two group means)
- ► Thus, the *F* statistic can be interpreted as the *standardized drop* in the sum of squares *per additional parameter* included in the alternative model

#### Simplifying the *F*-statistic

- It is convention to refer to the drop in sum of squares, SST - SSE, as SSG, referring to the amount of variability explained by the "Groups"
  - ▶ Using SSG, we can express the F-statistic as:

$$F = \frac{SSG/(d_1 - d_0)}{SSE/(n - d_1)}$$

Going a step further, sums of squares divided by their degrees of freedom are called mean squares, they allow for a much simpler looking *F* statistic:

$$F = \frac{MSG}{MSE}$$

MSG is the mean square of groups, MSE is the mean square of error



#### ANOVA in R

```
kc <- read.csv("http://users.stat.ufl.edu/-winner/data/kid_calories.csv")
kc$Group <- ifelse(kc$Trt == 1, "Helped Prep", "Control")
anova_models <- aov(Calories - Group, data = kc)
summary(anova_models)</pre>
##

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
```

```
## Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)

## Group 1 83755 83755 7.917 0.00724 **

## Residuals 45 476056 10579

## ---

## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

#### ANOVA in R

# When the Alternative model involves only 2 groups, ANOVA is equivalent to Student's *t*-test:

```
summary(anova_models)
             Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
             1 83755 83755 7.917 0.00724 **
## Group
## Residuals 45 476056 10579
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
t.test(x= kc$Calories[kc$Group == "Helped Prep"],
      y= kc$Calories[kc$Group == "Control"],
      var.equal = TRUE)
##
## Two Sample t-test
##
## data: kc$Calories[kc$Group == "Helped Prep"] and kc$Calories[kc$Group == "Control"]
## t = 2.8137, df = 45, p-value = 0.007236
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 24 04243 145 15859
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
## 431 3996 346 7991
```

# ANOVA for Comparing Multiple Groups

- As mentioned at the start of this lecture, a common use of ANOVA is to simultaneously compare the means of multiple groups
  - ► Clearly it's possible for more than two group means to be used when forming the Alternative model's predictions:

Null Model: 
$$Y_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$$

Alternative Model: 
$$Y_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i$$

We could also express this model comparison in terms of null and alternative hypotheses:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \ldots = \mu_k$$

 $H_A$ : At least one mean differs



#### Example - Tailgating and Drug Use

- Previously, we analyzed data from a study investigating risky driving behavior among regular users of different drugs
  - Specifically, we looked at the average following distances of four groups (No Drug, Alcohol, THC, and MDMA)
  - We can now assess the association between "Drug" and "Distance" (or Log(Distance)) using a single hypothesis test (ANOVA))
- Does "Drug" appear to be associated with an individual's following distance?

#### Example - Tailgating and Drug Use

## Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

## Residuals 115 24.326 0.2115

## ---

#### Post-Hoc Testing

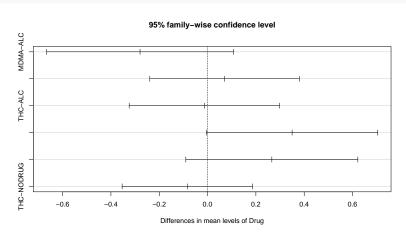
- Following a statistically significant ANOVA test, it is common to investigate which groups have different means
- Statistically, Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test (Tukey's HSD) will do this while adjusting for *multiple comparisons* 
  - Recall that performing more than one hypothesis test using a significance threshold of  $\alpha = 0.05$  increases the chances of making at least one Type I error beyond 5%
  - Tukey's HSD is designed such that multiple groups can be compared to the threshold  $\alpha = 0.05$  while maintaining a family Type I error rate of 5%

```
##
     Tukey multiple comparisons of means
##
       95% family-wise confidence level
##
## Fit: aov(formula = LD ~ Drug, data = tail)
##
## $Drug
                      diff
## MDMA-ALC
             -0.27947379 -0.66645712 0.1075095 0.2411710
## NODRIIG-ALC
                0.07044162 -0.23914504 0.3800283 0.9339585
## THC-ALC
               -0.01341974 -0.32449124 0.2976518 0.9994882
## NODRUG-MDMA 0.34991541 -0.00476067 0.7045915 0.0546053
## THC-MDMA
                0.26605404 -0.08991885 0.6220269 0.2138699
## THC-NODRIG -0.08386137 -0.35368446 0.1859617 0.8495067
```

#### Post-Hoc Testing

It is common to visually represent the results of Tukey's HSD by plotting the adjusted confidence intervals:

```
post <- TukeyHSD(anova_models)
plot(post)</pre>
```



# Model Assumptions

- Like any method of statistical inference, ANOVA is built upon a probability model
  - ▶ Recall  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma)$ , or the model errors are Normally distributed (with a StdDev of  $\sigma$ )

# Model Assumptions

- Like any method of statistical inference, ANOVA is built upon a probability model
  - ▶ Recall  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma)$ , or the model errors are Normally distributed (with a StdDev of  $\sigma$ )
- Thus, in order for the results of an ANOVA test to be statistically valid, we must make sure that this probability model is appropriate
  - Namely, we need data in each group to be approximately Normal
  - We also need each group to have a similar amount of variability (ie: similar standard deviations)

#### Model Assumptions

- Like any method of statistical inference, ANOVA is built upon a probability model
  - ▶ Recall  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma)$ , or the model errors are Normally distributed (with a StdDev of  $\sigma$ )
- Thus, in order for the results of an ANOVA test to be statistically valid, we must make sure that this probability model is appropriate
  - Namely, we need data in each group to be approximately Normal
  - We also need each group to have a similar amount of variability (ie: similar standard deviations)
- Data transformations (such as the log-transformation) are often helpful when using ANOVA

#### Conclusion

This presentation introduced ANOVA as a statistical method for comparing the means of multiple groups, I expect you to know the following:

- Situations where ANOVA is used (ie: comparing the means of multiple groups)
- ► How to perform ANOVA and post-hoc testing in R (ie: aov() and TukeyHSD())
- ► How to interpret ANOVA output (ie: what are sums of squares, what is the *F*-statistic, etc.)
- Model assumptions made during ANOVA (ie: Normality and equal variance)