

Completely Randomized Designs (CRD) One-Way ANOVA

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Example: Meat Storage Study (Kuehl, 2000, Example 2.1)

- Researcher wants to investigate the effect of packaging on **bacterial growth** of stored meat.
- Some studies suggested controlled gas atmospheres as alternatives to existing packaging.
- Different **treatments** (= packaging types)
 - Commercial plastic wrap (ambient air)
 - Current techniques (control groups) Vacuum package
 - 1% CO, 40% O₂, 59% N New techniques $100\% CO_2$
- **Experimental units**: 12 beef steaks (ca. 75g).
- Measure effectiveness of packaging by measuring how successful they are in suppressing bacterial growth.

Example: Meat Storage Study

- Three beef steaks were randomly assigned to each of the packaging conditions.
- Each steak was packaged separately in its assigned condition.
- Response: (logarithm of the) number of bacteria per square centimeter.
- The number of bacteria was measured after nine days of storage at 4 degrees Celsius in a standard meat storage facility.

First Step (Always): Exploratory Data Analysis

- If very few observations: Plot all data points.
- With more observations: Use **boxplots** (side-by-side)
- Alternatively: Violin-plots, histogram side-by-side, ...
- See examples in R: 02_meat_storage.R

Such plots typically give you the same (or even more) information as a formal analysis (see later).

Side Remark: Factors

- Categorical variables are also called factors.
- The different values of a factor are called levels.
- Factors can be **nominal** or **ordinal** (ordered)
 - Hair color: {black, blond, ...}
 nominal
 - Gender: {male, female}
 nominal
 - Treatment: {commercial, vacuum, mixed, CO₂} nominal
 - Income: {<50k, 50-100k, >100k}
- Useful functions in R:
 - factor
 - as.factor
 - levels

ordinal

Completely Randomized Design: Formal Setup

- Compare g treatments
- Available resources: *N* experimental units
- Need to assign the N experimental units to g different treatments (groups) having n_i observations each, i = 1, ..., g.
- Of course: $n_1 + n_2 + ... + n_g = N$.
- Use randomization:
 - Choose n₁ units at random to get treatment 1,
 - n₂ units at random to get treatment 2,
 - •
- This randomization produces a so called completely randomized design (CRD).

Setting up the Model

- Need to set up a model in order to do statistical inference.
- **Good message**: problem looks rather easy.
- Bad message: Some complications ahead regarding parametrization.

Remember: Two Sample *t***-Test for Unpaired Data**



- Allows us to **test** or construct **confidence intervals** for the true (unknown) difference $\mu_X \mu_Y$.
- Note: Both groups have their "individual" mean but they share a common variance (can be extended to other situations).

From Two to More Groups

- In the meat storage example we had 4 groups.
- Hence, the *t*-test is **not** directly applicable.
- Could try to construct something using only pairs of groups (e.g., doing all pairwise comparisons).
- Will do so later. Now we want to expand the model that we used for the two sample *t*-test to the more general situation of g > 2 groups.
- As we might run out of letters, we use a common letter (say Y) for all groups and put the grouping and replication information in the index.

Cell Means Model

- We need two indices to distinguish between the different treatments (groups) and the different observations.
- Let Y_{ij} be the *j*th observation in the *i*th treatment group, $i = 1, ..., g; j = 1, ..., n_i$.
- Cell means model: Every group (treatment) has its own mean value, i.e.



- Also called separate means model.
- Note: Variance constant across groups (as for standard two-sample *t*-test!)

Illustration of Cell Means Model

- See R-Code: 02_model_illustration.R
- Or visit

https://gallery.shinyapps.io/anova shiny rstudio/

• Why **cell means**? Have a look at meat storage data:

Commercial	Vacuum	Mixed	CO ₂		
7.66 6.98 7.80 ∧	5.26 5.44 5.80	7.41 7.33 7.04	3.51 2.91 3.66		
cell					

Cell Means Model: Alternative Representation

- We can "extract" the deterministic part in $Y_{ij} \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$.
- Leads to

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$

with ϵ_{ij} i. i. d. ~ $N(0, \sigma^2)$.

- The ϵ_{ij} 's are random "errors" that fluctuate around zero.
- In the regression context:
 - *Y* is the **response**.
 - Treatment is a categorical predictor (a factor).
 - Hence, this is nothing else than a regression model with a categorical predictor.

Yet Another Representation (!)

• We can also write $\mu_i = \mu + \alpha_i$, i = 1, ..., g.



- E.g., think of μ as a "global mean" and α_i as the corresponding deviation from the global mean.
- α_i is also called the *i*th **treatment effect**.
- This looks like a needless complication now, but will be very useful later (with factorial treatment structure).
- Unfortunately this model is not identifiable anymore.
- Reason: g + 1 parameters (μ, α₁, ..., α_g) for g different means...

Ensuring Identifiability

- Need side constraint: many options available.
- Sum of the treatment effects is **zero**, i.e.

$$\alpha_g = -(\alpha_1 + \cdots \alpha_{g-1})$$
(R: contr.sum)



- Sum of weighted treatment effects is zero: (R: do manually)
- Set $\mu = \mu_1$, hence $\alpha_1 = 0$, $\alpha_2 = \mu_2 \mu_1$, $\alpha_3 = \mu_3 \mu_1$, ... i.e. a comparison with group 1 as reference level. (R: contr.treatment)
- Only g 1 elements of the treatments effect are allowed to vary freely. We also say that the treatment effect has g 1 degrees of freedom (df).

Encoding Scheme of Factors

- The encoding scheme (i.e., the side constraint being used) of a factor is called contrast in R.
- To summarize: we have a total of g parameters: $\mu, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{g-1}$ to parametrize the g group means μ_1, \dots, μ_g .
- The interpretation of the parameters μ, α₁, ..., α_{g-1} strongly depends on the parametrization that is being used.
- We will re-discover the word "contrast" in a different way later...

Parameter Estimation

- Choose **parameter estimates** $\hat{\mu}, \hat{\alpha}_1, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_{g-1}$ such that model fits the data "well".
- Criterion: Choose parameter estimates such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{g} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (y_{ij} - \hat{\mu} - \hat{\alpha}_i)^2$$

is **minimal** (so called **least squares criterion**, exactly as in regression).

• The **estimated cell means** are simply

$$\hat{\mu}_i = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\alpha}_i$$

Illustration of Goodness of Fit

See blackboard (incl. definition of residual)

Some Notation

Symbol	Meaning	Formula
y _i .	Sum of all values in group <i>i</i>	$y_{i\cdot} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij}$
\overline{y}_i .	Sample average in group <i>i</i>	$\overline{y}_{i\cdot} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij} = \frac{1}{n_i} y_{i\cdot}$
у	Sum of all observations	$y_{} = \sum_{i=1}^{g} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} y_{ij}$
<i>y</i>	Grand mean	$\overline{y}_{} = \frac{y_{}}{N}$

Rule: If we replace an index with a **dot** (" \cdot ") it means that we are summing up values over that index.

Parameter Estimates, the Other Way Round

- "Obviously", the $\hat{\mu}_i$'s that minimize the least squares criterion are $\hat{\mu}_i = \overline{y}_i$.
- Means: Expectation of group *i* is estimated with sample mean of group *i*.
- The $\alpha'_i s$ are then simply estimated by applying the corresponding parametrization, i.e.

$$\hat{\alpha}_i = \hat{\mu}_i - \hat{\mu} = \overline{y}_{i} - \overline{y}_{..}$$



The **fitted** values $\hat{\mu}_i$ (and the **residuals**) are **independent** of the parametrization, but the $\hat{\alpha}_i$'s **(heavily) depend** on it!

Parameter Estimation

• We denote **residual** (or **error**) **sum of squares** by

$$SS_{E} = \sum_{i=1}^{g} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{i}} (y_{ij} - \overline{y}_{i.})^{2}$$
empirical variance
in group *i*
stimator for σ^{2} is MS_{E} , **mean squared error**, i.e.
$$\hat{\sigma}^{2} = MS_{E} = \frac{1}{N-g} SS_{E} = \frac{1}{N-g} \sum_{i=1}^{g} (n_{i} - 1) s_{i}^{2}$$

- This is an **unbiased estimator** for σ^2 (reason for N g instead of N in the denominator).
- We also say that the error estimate has N g degrees of freedom (N observations, g parameters) or

$$N - g = \sum_{i=1}^{g} (n_i - 1).$$

Estimation Accuracy

 Standard errors for the parameters (using the sum of weighted treatment effects constraint)

Parameter	Estimator	Standard Error
μ	<i>y</i>	σ/\sqrt{N}
μ_i	\overline{y}_i .	$\sigma/\sqrt{n_i}$
$lpha_i$	\overline{y}_{i} . — \overline{y}	$\sigma \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_i} - \frac{1}{N}}$
$\mu_i - \mu_j = \alpha_i - \alpha_j$	$\overline{y}_{i\cdot} - \overline{y}_{j\cdot}$	$\sigma \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_i} + \frac{1}{n_j}}$

• Therefore, a 95% confidence interval for α_i is given by



Single Mean Model

- Extending the null-hypothesis of the *t*-test to the situation where *g* > 2, we can (for example) use the (very strong) null-hypothesis that treatment has **no effect** on the response.
- In such a setting, all values (also across different treatments) fluctuate around the same "global" mean μ.
- Model reduces to: Y_{ij} i. i. d. ~ $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- Or equivalently: $Y_{ij} = \overset{\checkmark}{\mu} + \epsilon_{ij}, \ \epsilon_{ij} \text{ i. i. d.} \sim N(0, \sigma^2).$
- This is the **single mean** model.

Comparison of models

- Note: Models are "nested", single mean model is a special case of cell means model.
- Or: Cell means model is more flexible than single mean model.
- Which one to choose? Let a **statistical test** decide.



Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

- Classical approach: decompose "variability" of response into different "sources" and compare them.
- More modern view: Compare (nested) models.
- In both approaches: Use statistical test with global null hypothesis

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_g$$

versus the alternative

 $H_A: \mu_k \neq \mu_l$ for **at least one pair** $k \neq l$

- H_0 says that the single mean model is ok.
- H_0 is equivalent to $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_g = 0$.

Decomposition of Total Variability

See blackboard.

Illustration of Different Sources of Variability



ANOVA table

 Present different sources of variation in a so called ANOVA table:

Source	df	Sum of squares (SS)	Mean Squares (MS)	F-ratio
Treatments	<i>g</i> – 1	SS _{Trt}	$MS_{Trt} = \frac{SS_{Trt}}{g-1}$	$\frac{MS_{Trt}}{MS_E}$
Error	N-g	SS_E	$MS_E = \frac{SS_E}{N - g}$	

- Use F-ratio (last column) to construct a statistical test.
- Idea: Variation between groups should be substantially larger than variation within groups in order to reject H_0 .
- This is a so called one-way ANOVA.

because only one factor involved

More Details about the *F*-Ratio

- It can be shown that $E[MS_{Trt}] = \sigma^2 + \sum_{i=1}^g n_i \alpha_i^2 / (g-1)$
- Hence under H₀: MS_{Trt} is also an estimator for σ² (contains no "signal" just "error").

• Therefore, under
$$H_0: F = \frac{MS_{Trt}}{MS_E} \approx 1.$$

- If we observe a value of F that is "much larger" than 1, we will reject H₀.
- What does "much larger" mean here?
- We need to be more precise: we need the distribution of *F* under *H*₀.

F-Distribution

- Under H_0 it holds that F follows a so called *F***-distribution** with g 1 and N g degrees of freedom: $F_{g-1, N-g}$.
- The *F*-distribution has two degrees of freedom parameters: one from the numerator and one from the denominator mean square (treatment and error).

• Technically:
$$F_{n,m} = \frac{\frac{1}{n}(X_1^2 + \dots + X_n^2)}{\frac{1}{m}(Y_1^2 + \dots + Y_m^2)}$$
 where X_i, Y_j are i.i.d. $N(0,1)$.

- Illustration and behaviour of quantiles: see R-Code.
- We reject H₀ if the corresponding *p*-value is small enough or if F is larger than the corresponding quantile (the F-test is always a one-sided test).

More on the *F*-Test

- It holds that $F_{1,n} = t_n^2$ (the square of a t_n -distribution)
- It can be shown that the *F*-test for the g = 2 case is nothing else than the squared *t*-test.
- The *F*-test is also called an **omnibus test** (Latin for "for all") as it compares **all group means** simultaneously.



Analysis of Meat Storage Data in R

- Use function aov to perform "analysis of variance"
- When calling summary on the fitted object, an ANOVA table is printed out.



Analysis of Meat Storage Data in R

 Coefficients can be extracted using the function coef or dummy.coef



Compare with fitted values (see R-Code).

ANOVA as Model Comparison

• Because $SS_T = SS_{Trt} + SS_E$ we can rewrite the nominator of the *F*-ratio as



- Or in other words, SS_{Trt} is the reduction in residual sum of squares when going from the single mean to cell means model.
- If we reject the *F*-test, we conclude that we really need the more complex cell means model.

Checking Model Assumptions

- Statistical inference (e.g., F-test) is only valid if the model assumptions are fulfilled.
- Need to check
 - Are the errors **normally distributed**?
 - Are the errors **independent**?
 - Is the error variance constant?
- We don't observe the errors but we have the residuals as proxy.
- Will use graphical assessments to check assumptions.
 - QQ-Plot
 - Tukey-Anscombe plot (TA plot)
 - Index plot

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QQ-Plot (is normal distribution good approximation?)

- Plot empirical quantiles of residuals vs. theoretical quantiles (of standard normal distribution).
- Points should lie more or less on a straight line if residuals are normally distributed.
- R:plot(fit, which = 2)
- If unsure, compare with (multiple) simulated versions from normal distribution with the same sample size

qqnorm(rnorm(nrow(data))

• **Outliers** can show up as isolated points in the "corners".

QQ-Plot (Meat Storage Data)



Tukey-Anscombe Plot (TA-Plot)

- Plot residuals vs. fitted values
- Checks homogeneity of variance and systematic bias (here not relevant yet, why?)
- R:plot(fit, which = 1)
- "Stripes" are due to the data structure (g different groups)

Tukey-Anscombe Plot (Meat Storage Data)



Constant Variance?



Index Plot

- Plot residuals against time index to check for potential serial correlation (i.e., dependence with respect to time).
- Check if results close in time too similar / dissimilar?
- Similarly for potential **spatial** dependence.

Fixing Problems

- Transformation of response (square root, logarithm, ...) to improve QQ-Plot and constant variance assumption.
- Carefully inspect potential outliers. These are very interesting and informative data points.
- Deviation from normality less problematic for large sample sizes (reason: central limit theorem).
- Extend model (e.g., allow for some dependency structure, different variances, ...)
- Many more options...
- More details: Exercises and Oehlert (2000), Chapter 6.