# 10 Tests for Comparing *k* Populations (Cont'd)

MTH 3240 Environmental Statistics

Spring 2020



#### **Objectives**

#### Objectives:

- Obtain and interpret fitted values and residuals.
- Use plots to check the normality and common population standard deviation assumptions required by the ANOVA F test.
- Write out the group means and treatment effects versions of the ANOVA model, including any assumptions about the random error term  $\epsilon$ . (**Optional for Spring 2020**)
- Carry out a Kruskal-Wallis test for differences among k
  population means. (Optional for Spring 2020)
- Decide which test (the ANOVA F test or Kruskal-Wallis test) is more appropriate for a given set of data.

#### Fitted Values and Residuals

• The group means  $\bar{Y}_1, \bar{Y}_2, \dots, \bar{Y}_k$  are sometimes called *fitted values*.

#### **Fitted Values:**

Fitted Value for *i*th Group  $= \bar{Y}_i$ 

 Statistical software reports n duplicates of the fitted value for each group, one duplicate for each of the n individuals in the group. • A **residual**, denoted  $e_{ij}$ , is the **deviation** of an individual's observed  $Y_{ij}$  value away from the **fitted value** for that individual.

#### Residuals:

$$e_{ij} = Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i$$

 Statistical software reports the values of all N residuals, one for each individual in the study.

# Checking the ANOVA Assumptions

 The ANOVA F test requires that the k groups (samples) are from normal populations (or that their sample sizes are large) whose standard deviations are all equal. One-Factor Analysis of Variance (Cont'd)

Dealing With Non-Normal Data

Kruskal-Wallis Test

• Two ways to check the normality assumption:

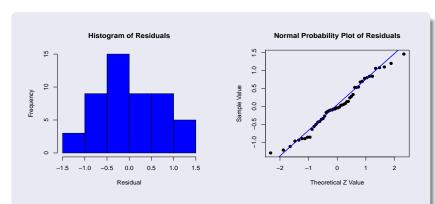
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  - Make k separate histograms or normal probability plots, one for each of the k groups.
  - Make a single histogram or normal probability plot plot of the N residuals  $e_{ij}$ .

#### Example

For the lead measurements at five labs, the **ANOVA** F **test** showed statistically significant differences among the means for the five labs.

To justify this test result, we check the **normality assumption** using the plots of the **residuals** on the next slide.



The plots indicate that the **normality assumption** appears to be met.

 A few ways to check the equal population standard deviation assumption:

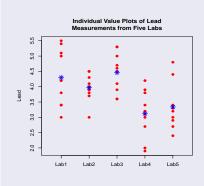
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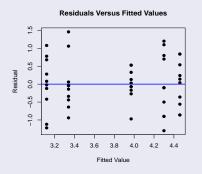
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  - An individual value plot of the k samples.
  - A plot of the *residuals* (y-axis) versus **fitted values** (group means, x-axis).
- In both plots, we look for roughly equal amounts of within-group (vertical) spread across the k groups.

#### Example

For the lead measurements at the five labs, we check the **equal standard deviation assumption** using either of these plots.





One-Factor Analysis of Variance (Cont'd)

Dealing With Non-Normal Data

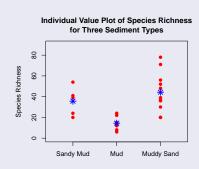
Kruskal-Wallis Test

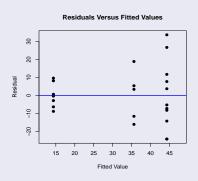
Because the amount of (vertical) spread in the points is roughly the same from one group to the next, the plots indicate that the **equal standard deviation** assumption appears to be met.  The reason we why plot the residuals versus fitted values (group means) is that usually, when the equal standard deviation assumption is violated, the groups with bigger means (fitted values) are usually the ones with bigger standard deviations  The reason we why plot the residuals versus fitted values (group means) is that usually, when the equal standard deviation assumption is violated, the groups with bigger means (fitted values) are usually the ones with bigger standard deviations.

So it's easier to detect violations of the equal standard deviation assumption by ordering the groups from left to right by their means (fitted values).

#### Example

The **common standard deviation assumption** is violated in the plots below, but it's easier to detect in the right plot because the groups with larger means (fitted values) have larger standard deviations.





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  - 2. Another part representing *random variation*.

Patterns are then detected by **estimating** or **testing hypotheses** about the **nonrandom** components in the model.

• An example of a simple statistical model is the one used to describe a measurement Y with measurement error  $\epsilon$ ,

$$Y = \mu + \epsilon$$

where  $\mu$  is the **true (unknown) concentration** being measured,

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This model is **equivalent** to saying that

$$Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$$
.

• Recall that for **one-factor ANOVA**, we suppose the groups (samples) are from k **normal** populations whose means are  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_k$  and whose **standard deviations** are all the **same**,  $\sigma$ .

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$$Y_{21}, Y_{22}, \dots, Y_{2n}$$
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:

Group k:  $Y_{k1}, Y_{k2}, \dots, Y_{kn}$  are a sample from a  $N(\mu_k, \sigma)$  distribution.



 This is written more succinctly as the so-called group means version of the one-factor ANOVA model.

One-Factor ANOVA Model (Group Means Version): A statistical model for describing samples from k normal populations is

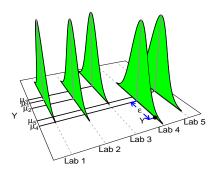
$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \qquad (1)$$

#### where

- $Y_{ij}$  is the jth observation (j = 1, 2, ..., n) in the ith group (i = 1, 2, ..., k).
- $\mu_i$  is the mean of the *i*th population, called the *i*th group population mean.
- $\epsilon_{ij}$  is a random error term following a  $\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma)$  distribution.



#### One-Factor Analysis of Variance Model



• In practice, the *model parameters*  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$ , and  $\sigma$  will be **unknown**, but they can be **estimated** from the data.

• Sometimes the model is written in terms of the **effects** of the treatments in an experiment (rather than in terms of the group population means  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$ ).

One-Factor ANOVA Model (Treatment Effects Version): Another version of the statistical model for describing samples from k normal populations is

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where  $Y_{ij}$  and  $\epsilon_{ij}$  are as described before, and

 $\mu$  is an *overall population mean* (for all k populations combined).

 $\alpha_i$  is the *effect* of the *i*th treatment.

(More formal definitions of  $\mu$  and the  $\alpha_i$ 's are on the next slide.)



- More formally,  $\mu$  and the  $\alpha_i$ 's are defined as follows:
  - $\mu=$  The average of the groups' population means  $\mu_1,\mu_2,\ldots,\mu_k$ , that is,

$$\mu = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mu_i.$$

 $\alpha_i$  = The discrepancy between the *i*th group's population mean  $\mu_i$  and the overall mean  $\mu$ , that is,

$$\alpha_i = \mu_i - \mu$$
.

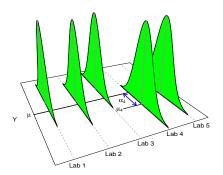


 With these definitions, we can write the ith group's mean, μ<sub>i</sub>, as the overall mean plus a treatment effect:

$$\mu_i = \mu + (\mu_i - \mu)$$
$$= \mu + \alpha_i.$$

This says the **two versions** of the **one-factor ANOVA model** are **equivalent**.

One-Factor Analysis of Variance Model



• In terms of the two ANOVA models, the hypotheses are:

	Hypothesis	Equivalent Hypothesis
	About the $\mu_i$ 's	About the $lpha_i$ 's
Null	$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$	$H_0: \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_k = 0$
Alternative	$H_a$ : The $\mu_i$ 's aren't all equal	$H_a$ : The $lpha_i$ 's aren't all 0

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In either case, the **null hypothesis** says there are **no differences** among the k population means (or among the mean responses to the k treatments).

The alternative hypothesis says there's a difference among at least one pair of the means.

# Parameter Estimates (Optional for Spring 2020)

 The estimators of the (unknown) model parameters, based on the data, are listed below along with an alternative notation for each estimator.

#### **Model Parameter Estimators**

	Alternate
	Notation for
Estimator	the Estimator
$\bar{Y}_i$	$\hat{\mu}_i$
$ar{Y}$	$\hat{\mu}$
$\bar{Y}_i - \bar{Y}$	$\hat{lpha}_i$
$\sqrt{\text{MSE}}$	$\hat{\sigma}$
	$egin{array}{c} ar{Y}_i \\ ar{Y} \\ ar{Y}_i - ar{Y} \end{array}$

ullet By adding and subtracting  $\bar{Y}_i$  to the right side of

$$Y_{ij} = Y_{ij},$$

we get

$$Y_{ij} = \bar{Y}_i + (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i).$$

Using the alternative notation  $\hat{\mu}_i$  and the definition of a residual  $e_{ij}$ , this says we can write an observation  $Y_{ij}$  as

$$Y_{ij} = \hat{\mu}_i + e_{ij} ,$$

which resembles the **group means** version of the **one-factor ANOVA model** (1).



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The square root of the mean squared error,  $\sqrt{\text{MSE}}$ , estimates the standard deviation  $\sigma$  of the N(0,  $\sigma$ ) error distribution.

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We'll look at these two approaches one at a time.



# **Transforming Data To Normality**

 The first approach to approach to testing hypotheses with non-normal samples is to transform the data (all k samples) to normality first.

# Carrying Out a Nonparametric Test (Optional for Spring 2020)

 The second approach to testing hypotheses with non-normal samples is to use a nonparametric test procedure, i.e. one that doesn't rely on a normality assumption.

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The *Kruskal-Wallis test* described next is a **nonparametric** alternative to the *ANOVA F test*.



# Kruskal-Wallis Test (Optional for Spring 2020)

• The *Kruskal-Wallis test* is a nonparametric test for differences among k population means  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$ .

• We'll want to test the hypotheses:

#### **Null and Alternative Hypothesis:**

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

 $H_a$ : The  $\mu_i$ 's aren't all equal.

(Same hypotheses as for the ANOVA F test.)



• The **test statistic**, denoted  $K_w$ , is obtained after combining the k groups and **ranking** the observations (smallest to largest).

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- As before, we'll let

 $Y_{ij}$  = The jth observation in the ith group

N =The total number of observations in the overall combined sample.



(cont'd)

 $R_{ij}$  = The **rank** of  $Y_{ij}$  in the overall combined sample.

 $ar{R}_i$  = The **mean rank** of the observations from the ith group.

 $ar{m{R}} = \mbox{The overall mean rank}$  of the N observations in the overall combined sample. Thus

$$\bar{R} = \frac{1}{N} \left( 1 + 2 + \dots + N \right).$$

It can be shown that

$$\bar{R} = \frac{N+1}{2}.$$



#### Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistic:

- Combine the k groups, keeping track of which group each observation originally belonged to, sort the observations, and rank them from smallest to largest. If two or more are tied, assign to each of them the average of the ranks they would've been assigned if they hadn't been tied.
- 2. Compute the group mean ranks  $\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2, \dots, \bar{R}_k$  and the overall mean rank  $\bar{R}$ .

#### 3. The test statistic is

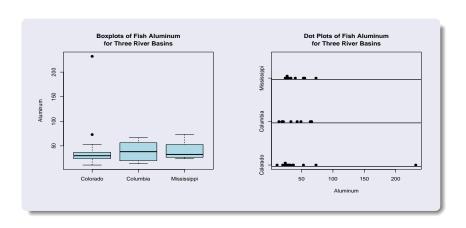
$$K_w = \frac{12}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{R}_i - \bar{R})^2.$$

#### Example

The table below shows **aluminum** (Al) concentrations ( $\mu$ g/g wet weight) measured in carp in the **Colorado**, **Columbia**, and **Mississippi** River basins.

#### Al in Fish

Colorado River Basin	Columbia River Basin	Mississippi River Basin
32	18.9	54.9
232	64.1	24.1
36	33.2	40.2
73	48.8	52.7
53	13.7	28.9
20	21.1	73.3
28	43.2	26.7
24	66.5	26.6
24		32.6
11		
37		
30		
26		



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:  $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$   
 $H_a$ : The  $\mu_i$ 's aren't all equal.

where  $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$ , and  $\mu_3$  are the (unknown) population **mean Al** concentrations in carp for the three river basins.

Notice from the graphs that there's a lot of **overlap** among the three groups (suggesting no differences in Al concentrations).

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The sample sizes are  $n_1 = 13$ ,  $n_2 = 8$ , and  $n_3 = 9$ , so

$$N = 13 + 8 + 9 = 30.$$

The overall combined sample, sorted and ranked, is shown below (Sample  ${\bf 1}=$  Colorado,  ${\bf 2}=$  Columbia, and  ${\bf 3}=$  Mississippi).

5	Sample	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	3	1
Obse	rvation	11.0	13.7	18.9	20.0	21.1	24.0	24.0	24.1	26.0
	Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6.5	6.5	8	9
		'								
3	3	1	3	1	1	3	2	1	1	3
26.6	26.7	28.0	28.9	30.0	32.0	32.6	33.2	36.0	37.0	40.2
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
2	2	3	1	3	2	2	1	3	1	
43.2	48.8	52.7	53.0	54.9	64.1	66.5	73.0	73.3	232.0	
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	•									
3	3	1	3	1	1	3	2	1	1	3
26.6	26.7	28.0	28.9	30.0	32.0	32.6	33.2	36.0	37.0	40.2
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
2	2	3	1	3	2	2	1	3	1	
43.2	48.8	52.7	53.0	54.9	64.1	66.5	73.0	73.3	232.0	
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	

Different font shades indicate river basins. Notice that the three groups are **evenly** "**intermingled**".

#### The three group mean ranks are:

$$\bar{R}_1 = \frac{1}{13}(1+4+6.5+6.5+9+12+14+15+18+19+24+28+30)$$
  
= 14.4.

$$\bar{R}_2 = \frac{1}{8}(2+3+5+17+21+22+26+27)$$
  
= **15.4**.

$$\bar{R}_3 = \frac{1}{9}(8+10+11+13+16+20+23+25+29)$$
  
= 17.2.

#### The **overall mean rank** is

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In this case, the **group mean ranks**  $\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2, \dots, \bar{R}_k$  would all be roughly equal, and therefore roughly equal to  $\bar{R}$ , so  $K_w$  would be **close to zero**.

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- But if H<sub>a</sub> was true, the k groups would be "segregated" when combined and sorted.
  - In this case  $\bar{R}_1, \bar{R}_2, \dots, \bar{R}_k$  would differ substantially from each other, and therefore also from  $\bar{R}$ , and  $K_w$  would be large.

Large values of  $K_w$  provide evidence in favor of  $H_a$ : The  $\mu_i$ 's aren't all equal.

• Now suppose the samples are from **any** k (continuous) populations that have (roughly) the same shape and whose means are  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$ .

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In this case, the **null distribution** is as follows.

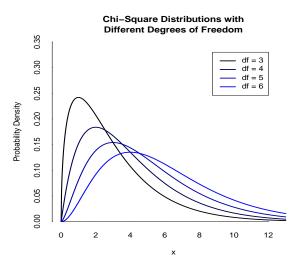
**Sampling Distribution of**  $K_w$  **Under**  $H_0$ : If  $K_w$  is the Kruskal-Wallis test statistic, then when

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

is true,  $K_w$  follows a distribution called the **chi-square distribution** with k-1 **degrees of freedom**, denoted  $\chi^2(k-1)$ . We write this as

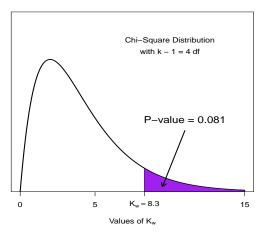
$$K_w \sim \chi^2(k-1).$$





- P-values and rejection regions are obtained from the right tail of the  $\chi^2(k-1)$  (chi-square) distribution.
- The next slide shows the **p-value** when the observed  $K_w$  value is  $K_w = 8.3$ .

#### P-Value for Kruskal-Wallis Test



#### Kruskal-Wallis Test for $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$

**Assumptions**: The data are independent random samples from k continuous populations that differ, if at all, by their means  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_k$  but not their shapes, and the sample sizes  $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_k$  are all large.\*

Null hypothesis:  $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = ... = \mu_k$ .

Test statistic value:  $K_w = \frac{12}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{R}_i - \bar{R})^2.$ 

**Decision rule**: Reject  $H_0$  if p-value  $< \alpha$  or  $K_w$  is in rejection region.



	P-value = area under	
Alternative	$\chi^2$ distribution with	Rejection region =
hypothesis	k-1 d.f.:	$K_w$ values such that:*
$H_a: \mu_i \neq \mu_i$ for some i and j	to the right of $K_w$	$K_w > \chi^2$

<sup>\*</sup> The sample sizes are considered to be large when they're all 5 or larger if k>3 and all 6 or larger if k=3. For smaller sample sizes, the test statistic  $K_w$  can be compared to a table of tail areas or critical values of the exact sampling distribution of  $K_w$ , found, for example, in [?] or [?].



<sup>\*\*</sup>  $\chi^2_{\alpha,k-1}$  is the  $100(1-\alpha)$ th percentile of the  $\chi^2$  distribution with k-1 d.f.

#### Example

Continuing from the previous example, we got  $K_w=0.54$ , and from a table of tail areas of the chi-square distribution, using k-1=2 df, the **p-value** is **greater than 0.100**.

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Continuing from the previous example, we got  $K_w = 0.54$ , and from a table of tail areas of the chi-square distribution, using k-1=2 df, the **p-value** is **greater than 0.100**.

Therefore, there's **no statistically significant evidence** for differences among the **mean Al concentrations** in carp for the **three river basins**.