## Tackling important statistical assumptions.

- 1) The issue of normality (last lecture):
- 2) The issue of homogeneity of variances (today):
- Standard (e.g., ANOVAs, regressions) assume homoscedasticity.
- Robust approaches (Welch's ANOVA, Weighted least squares) are good to deal with heteroscedasticity.

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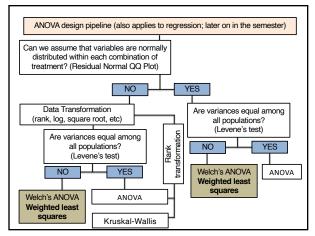
**REMINDER:** Classic non-parametric tests (ranked data, permutation tests) are often considered those tests that can handle non-normal data.

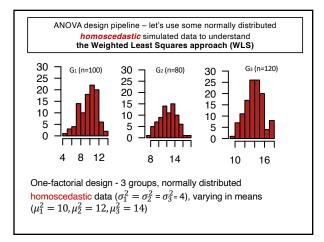
There is a common misunderstanding (however) in the statistical literature, including many biostatistics books, that non-parametric tests can also handle differences in variances among samples (because the term "non-parametric", it is often assumed that they are completely assumption free.

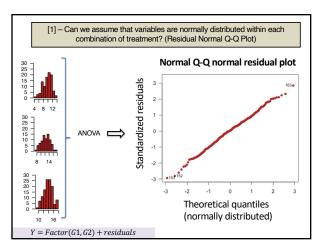
THIS IS NOT TRUE! They are also affected by variance differences among groups (e.g., the Kruskal-Wallis, ANOVAs on ranks).

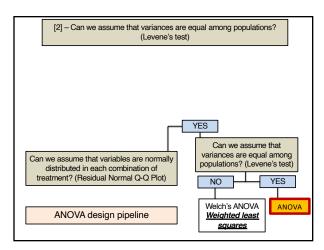
Example: test variance differences in ranks (rarely done in the literature but necessary)!

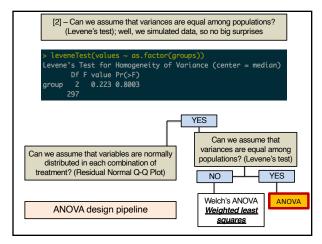
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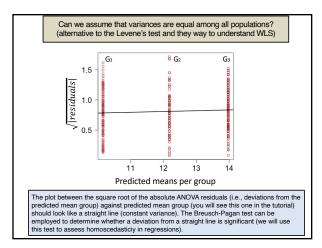


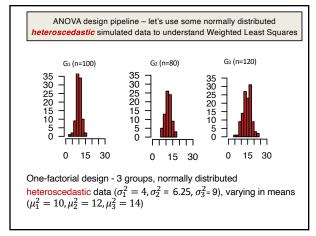


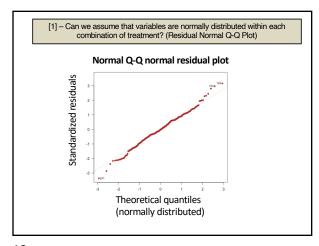


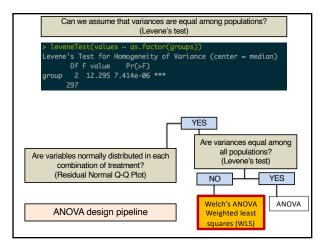


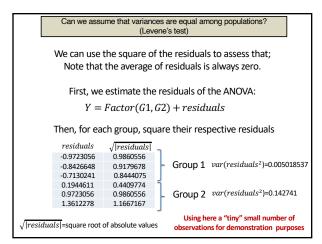


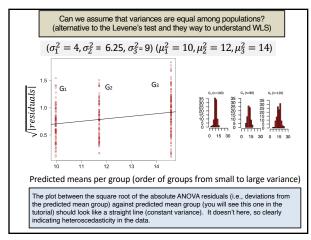


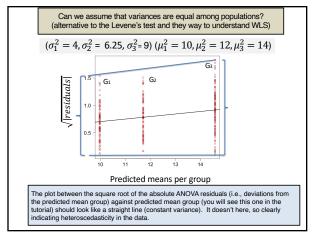












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# ANOVA is a regression model!

They differ in "design" but not in calculations!



The weighted least square	(WLS) approach for dealing	g with heteroscedasticity
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Welch's ANOVA covered in Intro Stats and can only deal with single factorial ANOVA designs

#### Today:

1) How does heteroscedasticity affect residual variation in ANOVAs?

#### And

How can we use the weighted least squares (WLS) approach to deal with heteroscedasticity in ANOVAs (original data or ranked-based ANOVA)

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The weighted least square (WLS) approach for dealing with heteroscedasticity

Welch's ANOVA covered in Intro Stats and can only deal with single factorial ANOVA designs

## Today:

1) How does heteroscedasticity affect residual variation in ANOVAs?

## And

2) How can we use the weighted least squares (WLS) approach to deal with heteroscedasticity in ANOVAs (original data or ranked-based ANOVA)

But first we need to understand that:

ANOVA is a regression model

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ANOVA is a regression model where the response variable is continuous and the predictors are categorical; the categorical predictors are coded in such a way that an ANOVA becomes a regression problem

Let's use a tiny fictional example with 2 groups (control, Group\_1)

Response	Factor (predictor)
1.2	control
2.7	control
3.1	control
4.1	Group_1
5.3	Group_1
6.1	Group_1

ANOVA is a regression model where the response variable is continuous and the predictors are categorical.

Response	Factor (predictor)	Contrast
1.2	control	0
2.7	control	0
3.1	control	0
4.1	Group_1	1
5.3	Group_1	1
6.1	Group_1	1

Contrasts are numerical values that can be used directly into a regression model so that ANOVA becomes estimating a regression model; The ANOVA of the regression model has then exactly the same results as the standard ANOVA.

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ANOVA is a regression model where the response variable is continuous and the predictors are categorical.

A tiny example:
groups <- c("control", "control", "Group\_1", "Group\_1", "Group\_1")
values <- c(1.2,2.7,3.1,4.1,5.3,6.1)

Running ANOVA using the R function aov:

> summary(aov(values~groups))
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
groups 1 12.042 12.042 11.94 0.0259 \*
Residuals 4 4.033 1.008

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Let's (quickly) revisit a simple regression model (as seen in Intro Stats). More on regressions later in our Multiple Regression module

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + e$$
 - e represents the vector of residual values.

$$\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}X)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}Y$$

 $\beta = (X^TX)^{-1} \ X^TY$  - Slope and intercept estimated by one single operation via Ordinary Least Squares (OLS).

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### Simple regression model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + e$$

- e represents the vector of residual values.

$$\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}X)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}Y$$

 $\beta = (X^TX)^{-1} \ X^TY \qquad \text{-Slope and intercept estimated by one single operation via Ordinary Least Squares (OLS).}$   $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X \qquad \text{-} \hat{Y} \text{ is called Y-hat and is a vector containing predicted values}$ 

$$\widehat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

containing predicted values.

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## Simple regression model

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

 $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + e$  - e represents the vector of residual values.

$$\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}X)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}Y$$

 $\beta = (X^TX)^{-1} \ X^TY \qquad \ \ \, \text{-Slope and intercept estimated by one single operation via Ordinary Least Squares (OLS).}$ 

$$\widehat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

-  $\hat{Y}$  is called Y-hat and is a vector containing predicted values.

$$e = Y - Y$$

- e represents the vector of residual values.

#### ANOVA as a regression model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + e$ $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ $\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}X)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}Y$ back to our tiny example Χ $\beta_0 = 2.333 :: \beta_1 = 2.833$ Response (Y) Constant $(\beta_0)$ Predictor $(\beta_1)$ 1.2 1 0 2.7 0 3.1 0 1 4.1 1 1 6.1 1 1

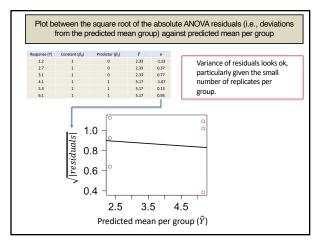
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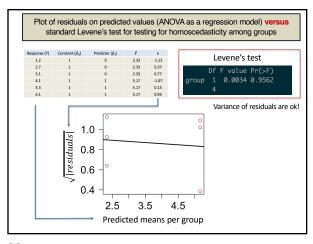
#### ANOVA as a regression model $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + e$ $\hat{Y} = 2.333 + 2.833X_1$ $\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ $e = Y - \hat{Y}$ - ? is called Y-hat and represents the vector of predicted values. - e represents the vector of residual values. $\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}X)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}Y$ $\beta_0 = 2.333 :: \beta_1 = 2.833$ Response (Y) Constant ( $\beta_0$ ) Predictor X<sub>1</sub> ( $\beta_1$ ) 1.2 2.33 -1.13 2.7 2.33 0.37 3.1 2.33 0.77 4.1 1 5.17 -1.07 5.3 5.17 0.13 5.17

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$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		ANOVA as a regression model			
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$					
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Response (Y)	Constant ( $\beta_0$ )	Predictor $(\beta_1)$	Ŷ	е
3.1 1 0 2.33 0.77 4.1 5.3 $\overline{X}$ 1 1 5.17 -1.07 5.17 0.13 6.1 1 1 $\overline{X}$ 1 1 0 0 1.3 5.17 0.93 In ANOVAs, predicted values are the predicted mean	1.2	1	0	2.33	-1.13
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2.7 - $\bar{X}$	1	0	2.33	0.37
$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	3.1	1	0	2.33	0.77
In ANOVAs, predicted values are the predicted mean	4.1	1	1	5.17	-1.07
In ANOVAs, predicted values are the predicted mean	5.3 - $\bar{X}$	1	1	5.17	0.13
	6.1	1	1	5.17	0.93
	In ANOVA			predicted	d mean

ANOVA as a regression model				
Response (Y)	Constant ( $\beta_0$ )	Predictor ( $\beta_1$ )	Ŷ	e
1.2	1	0	2.33	-1.13
2.7 - $ar{X}$	1	0	2.33	0.37
3.1	1	0	2.33	0.77
4.1	1	1	5.17	-1.07
5.3 - $ar{X}$	1	1	5.17	0.13
6.1	1	1	5.17	0.93
	$e_6 = 6.1$	0 – 5.17 = 0.93		
residuals (e) r	epresent variation	the predicted mean on around the obsergression model (or	rved group i	





Response	Factor	Constant ( $\beta_0$ )	Predictor $(\beta_1)$	Predictor ( $\beta_2$ )	
1.2	control	1	0	0	
2.7	control	1	0	0	
3.1	control	1	0	0	
4.1	Group_1	1	1	0	
5.3	Group_1	1	1	0	
6.1	Group_1	1	1	0	
8.1	Group_2	1	0	1	
9.4	Group_2	1	0	1	
10.1	Group_2	1	0	1	
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$					

# How does heteroscedasticity affect variance of residual variation in ANOVAs?



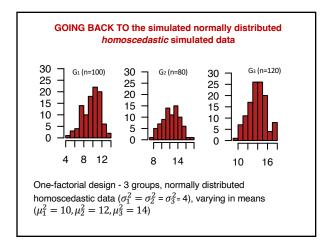
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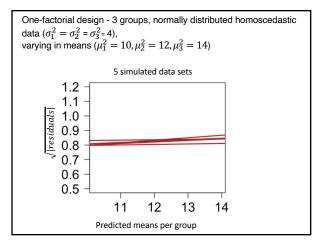
Here we will understand:

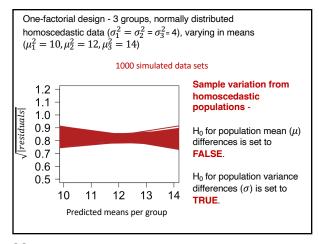
 $\stackrel{\textstyle \frown}{\bigsqcup}$  1) How heteroscedasticity affects variance of residual variation in ANOVAs

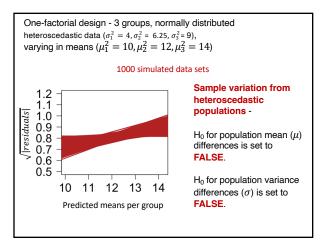
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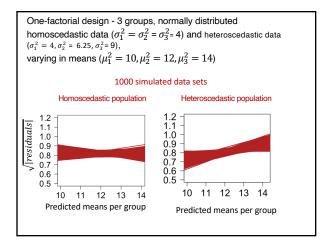
2) How weighted least squares (WLS) approach can be used to deal with heteroscedasticity in ANOVAs

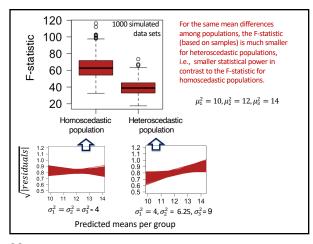












On the other hand, when samples are taken from populations with the same means, but their variances vary (heteroscedastic) then Type I error can increase!

(this will be demonstrated in TUTORIAL 5)

## Sample variation from heteroscedastic populations:

 $H_0$  for population mean  $(\mu)$  differences is set to **TRUE**.

Ho for population variance differences ( $\sigma$ ) is set to FALSE. AUSTRIAN JOURNAL OF STATISTICS

Volume 36 (2007), Number 3, 179-188

## How to keep the Type I Error Rate in ANOVA if Variances are Heteroscedastic

Karl Moder

Institute of Applied Statistics and Computing,
University of Natural Resources and Applied Life Sciences, Vienna

Abstract: One essential prerequisite to ANOVA is homogeneity of variances in underlying populations. Violating this assumption may lead to an increased type lerror rate. The reason for this undestrable effect is due to the calculation of the corresponding F-value. A slightly different test statistic keeps the level  $\alpha$ . The underlying distribution of this alternative method is Hotelling's  $T^2$ -can be approximated by a Fisher's F-distribution, this alternative test is very similar to an ordinary analysis of variance.

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## Here we will understand:

1) How heteroscedasticity affects variance of residual variation in ANOVAs

And

2) How weighted least squares (WLS) approach can be used to deal with heteroscedasticity in ANOVAs

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The weighted least squares (WLS) approach

$$\beta = (X^{T}X)^{-1} X^{T}Y (OLS)$$
$$\beta = (X^{T}WX)^{-1} X^{T}WY (WLS)$$

OLS and WLS are equal when W is an identity matrix in which all (main) diagonal elements equal to 1, i.e., all observations have the same weight in the regression estimates.

The weighted least squares (WLS) approach
Let's understand how weights change statistical estimates
(the case of the weighted mean)

$$\frac{1 \times 2 + 2 \times 3 + 3 \times 4 + 4 \times 5}{14} = 2.86$$
 Weighted mean Weights = 2,3,4,5 
$$\frac{1 + 2 + 3 + 4}{4} = 2.5$$
 regular mean

$$\frac{1\times5+2\times4+3\times3+4\times2}{14} = 2.14$$
 Weighted mean Weights = 5,4,3,2

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The weighted least squares (WLS) approach
Let's understand how weights change statistical estimates
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$$\frac{1 \times 2 + 2 \times 3 + 3 \times 4 + 4 \times 5}{14} = 2.86$$
 Weighted mean Weights = 2,3,4,5

$$\frac{1+1+2+2+2+3+3+3+3+4+4+4+4+4}{14} = \frac{40}{14} - 2.86$$

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The weighted least squares (WLS) approach  $\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}X)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}Y (OLS)$  $\beta = (X^{\mathrm{T}}WX)^{-1} X^{\mathrm{T}}WY (WLS)$ Variance of residuals Response (Y) Constant  $(\beta_0)$  Predictor  $(\beta_1)$   $\hat{Y}$ per group 1.2 1 0 2.33 -1.13 2.7 0 2.33 0.37 1.003333 3.1 1 0 2.33 0.77 4.1 1 1 5.17 -1.07 1.013333 5.17 0.13 0.93

The weighted least squares (WLS) approach – more variance, less influence in the regression estimation

$$\beta = (X^{T}X)^{-1} X^{T}Y (OLS)$$

$$\beta = (X^{T}WX)^{-1} X^{T}WY (WLS)$$

$$W = \frac{1}{s_{group}^{2}}$$

In **OLS**, each observation has the same weight (inform the model in the same way. In **WLS**, we treat each observation as more (smaller group residual variance) or less (larger groups residual variance) <u>informative</u> about the underlying relationship between X and Y.

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The weighted least squares (WLS) approach – more variance, less influence in the regression estimation

$$\beta = (X^{T}X)^{-1} X^{T}Y (OLS)$$

$$\beta = (X^{T}WX)^{-1} X^{T}WY (WLS)$$
1/Variance of residuals per group
$$0.997 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$0 \quad 0.997 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 0.997 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0.990 \quad 0$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0.990 \quad 0$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0.990 \quad 0$$

$$1/1.013333$$

The influence of each observation is the inverse of its group residuals variance (i.e., reciprocal, 1/variance)

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For the same mean differences among populations, the F-statistic (based on samples) is much smaller for heteroscedastic populations, i.e., smaller statistical power in contrast to the F-statistic for homoscedastic populations. The WLS makes it more powerful (larger F-values) and much closer to what is expected for homoscedastic populations.

