

# **Lecture 19**

## **Introduction to ANOVA**

**STAT 512**  
**Spring 2011**

**Background Reading**  
**KNNL: 15.1-15.3, 16.1-16.2**

# Topic Overview

- Categorical Variables
- Analysis of Variance
- Lots of Terminology
- An ANOVA example

# Categorical Variables

- To this point, with the exception of the last lecture, all explanatory variables have been quantitative; e.g. comparing  $X = 3$  to  $X = 5$  makes sense numerically
- For *categorical* or *qualitative* variables there is no ‘numerical’ labeling; or if there is, it isn’t meaningful.

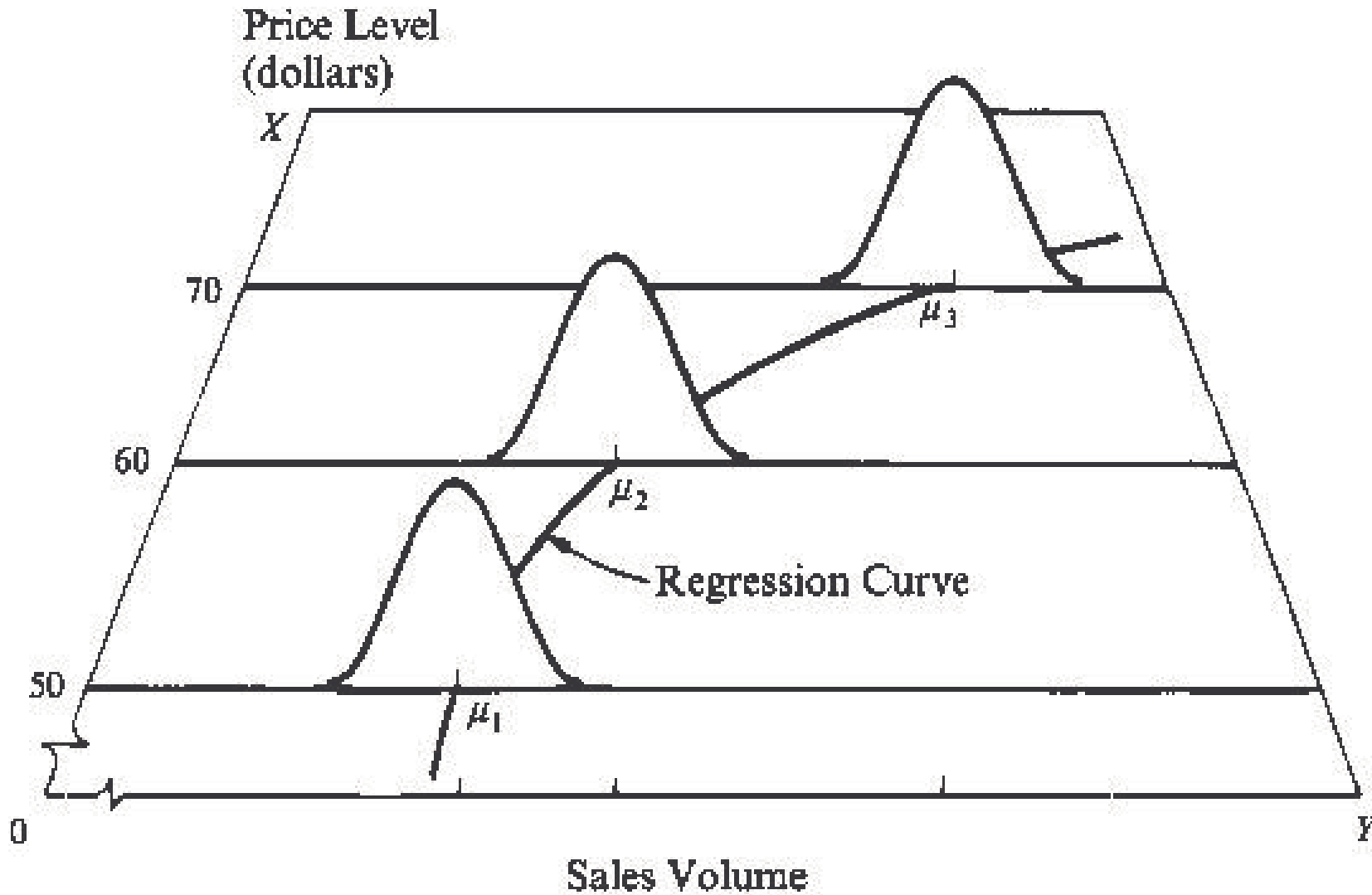
# Example

- Five medical treatments – ten subjects on each treatment.
- Goal: Compare the treatments in terms of their effectiveness
  - If there were two treatments, what would we use?

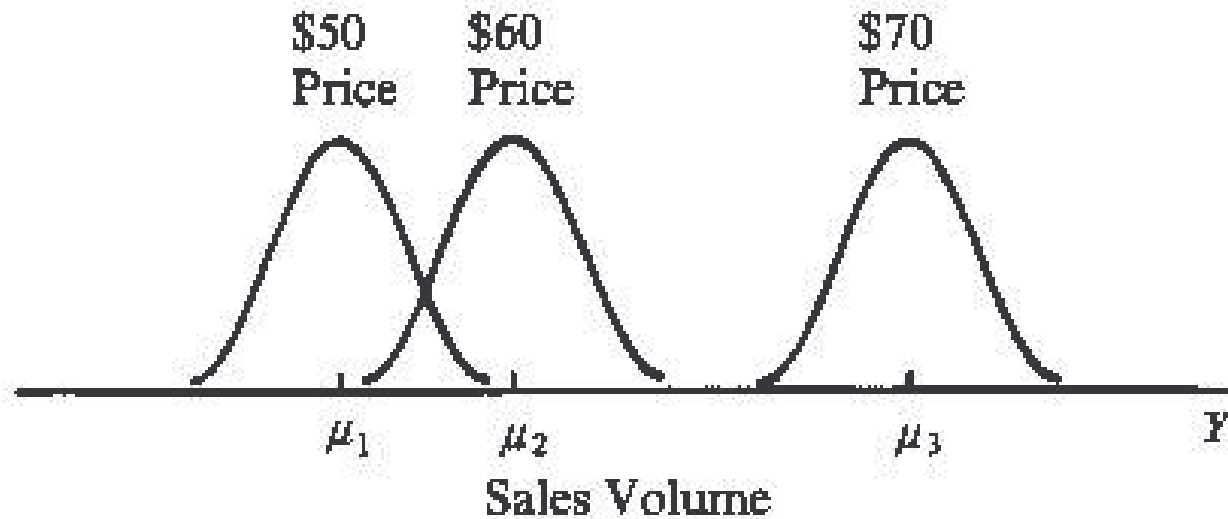
# ANOVA

- *ANOVA = Analysis of Variance*
- Compare means among treatment groups, without assuming any parametric relationships (regression does assume such a relationship).
- Example: Price vs. Sales Volume

# Regression Model



# ANOVA Model



**KEY DIFFERENCE:** No assumption is made about the manner in which Price and Sales Volume are related.

# Similarities to Regression

- Assumptions on errors identical as to regression
- We assume each population is normal and the variances are identical. We also assume independence.
- Can get “predicted values” for each group, as well as CI’s.



# Differences

- No specific relationship is assumed.
- Goal becomes: look for differences among the groups.

# Terminology

- We may refer to any qualitative predictor variable as a *factor*.
- Each factor has a certain number of *levels*.
- *Experimental factors* are “set” or “assigned” to the experimental units; *observational factors* are characteristics of the experimental units that cannot be assigned.

# Terminology (2)

- Factors are *qualitative* if they represent traits that could not be placed in some logical numerical order.
  - GENDER, BRAND, DRUG
- Factors are *quantitative* if levels are described by numerical quantities on an equal interval scale.
  - AGE, TEMPERATURE

# Terminology (3)

- A *Treatment* is a specific experimental condition (determined by factors and levels of each factor).
- The *Experimental Unit* (Basic Unit of Study) is the smallest unit to which a treatment can be assigned.
- A design is called *balanced* if each treatment is replicated the same number of times (i.e. same number of EU's per treatment).

# Examples

Five medications – each used for 10 subjects

- Medication is an experimental factor; EU is the subject (person) receiving the medication.
- There are five treatments, which may or may not have any logical “ordering”
- Design is balanced (generally) since we are able to assign the treatments.

Ten age groups – 50 subjects

- Age is an observational, quantitative factor; subject is again the EU; Design is probably not balanced

# Examples (2)

## Blood Type

- Observational factor
- Qualitative factor
- Again design probably not balanced

## Brand of Product

- Observational, qualitative factor
- Design likely balanced by arrangement

# Multiple Factors

- With two or more factors, each combination of levels is generally called a *treatment combination*
- Can treat as single variable if desired
- Example: Blood Type \* Medication
  - 4 blood types
  - 5 medications
  - 20 treatment combinations

# Crossed Factors

- Two factors are *crossed* if all factor combinations are represented.
- Example: Blood Type \* Medication

	1	2	3	4	5
A	xx	xx	xx	xx	xx
B	xx	xx	xx	xx	xx
AB	xx	xx	xx	xx	xx
O	xx	xx	xx	xx	xx

Note: This type of table is called a *design chart*.



# Nested Factors

- One factor has levels that are unique to a given level of another factor
- Example: Plant \* Operator

Plant #1	Plant #2	Plant #3
Op #1	Op #4	Op #7
Op #2	Op #5	Op #8
Op #3	Op #6	Op #9

- We say: Operators are nested within manufacturing plants.

# Control Groups

- Often a *control* or *placebo* treatment is used. This treatment is more of a “standard” than a treatment, as it is the case of no treatment at all.
- Comparing treatments to controls can be a very effective way of showing that a treatment is effective.

# Fixed vs. Random Factors

- For the most part, we will consider only *fixed effect models* in this class. A factor is called *fixed* because the levels are chosen in advance of the experiment and we were interested in differences in response among those specific levels.
- Note: *Random* factors will need to be treated differently, since their levels are chosen randomly from a large population of possible levels.

# Randomization

- Completely separate concept from random effects.
- In an experimental study, generally want to avoid any potential bias in the design by *randomizing treatments to experimental units* whenever possible.
- Randomization may be *constrained*.  
Example: Have 100 people, 50 men and 50 women. Randomly assign each of the 5 treatments to 10 men and 10 women.

# Experimental Designs

- Completely Randomized Design
- Factorial Experiments
- Randomized Complete Block Designs
- Nested Designs
- Repeated Measures Designs
- Incomplete Block Designs
- We'll discuss some of these. More thorough experimental design course: STAT 514.

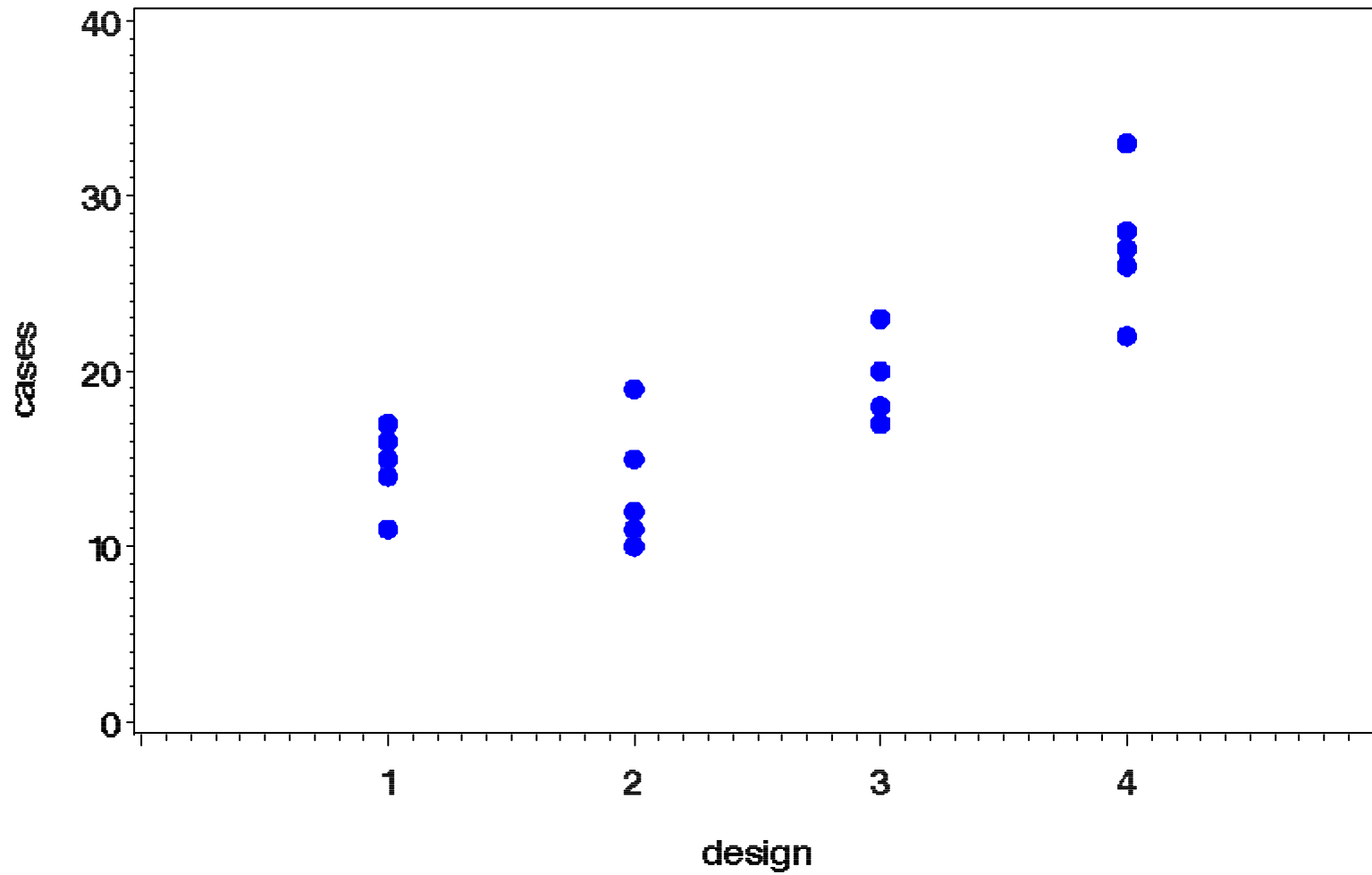
# Example

- Kenton Food Company Example (p685)
- Compare four different package designs (numbered 1, 2, 3, 4 in no particular order)
- Response: # of cases sold
- 20 stores, but one was destroyed by fire during the study; 19 observations
- SAS file: kenton.sas

# Data

Design 1	Design 2	Design 3	Design 4
11	12	23	27
17	10	20	33
16	15	18	22
14	19	17	26
15	11		28

# Scatter Plot





# ANOVA Code (SAS)

```
proc glm data=kenton;  
  class design;  
  model cases=design;  
  means design /bon lines cldiff;
```

- Class statement identifies ALL categorical variables (separate by spaces as in model)
- Means statement requests comparisons of the group means (lots of options)

# Output

Source	DF	SS	MS	F Value	Pr > F
Model	3	588	196	18.59	<.0001
Error	15	158	10.5		
Total	18	746			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	cases Mean
0.788055	17.43042	3.247563	18.63158

# Output (2)

Bonferroni (Dunn) t Tests for cases

NOTE: This test controls the Type I experimentwise error rate, but it generally has a higher Type II error rate than Tukey's for all pairwise comparisons.

Alpha	0.05
Error Degrees of Freedom	15
Error Mean Square	10.54667
Critical Value of t	3.03628

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by \*\*\*.

# Output (3)

design Comparison	Difference Means	Simultaneous Confidence	95% Limits	
4 - 3	7.700	1.085	14.315	***
4 - 1	12.600	6.364	18.836	***
4 - 2	13.800	7.564	20.036	***
3 - 4	-7.700	-14.315	-1.085	***
3 - 1	4.900	-1.715	11.515	
3 - 2	6.100	-0.515	12.715	
1 - 4	-12.600	-18.836	-6.364	***
1 - 3	-4.900	-11.515	1.715	
1 - 2	1.200	-5.036	7.436	
2 - 4	-13.800	-20.036	-7.564	***
2 - 3	-6.100	-12.715	0.515	
2 - 1	-1.200	-7.436	5.036	

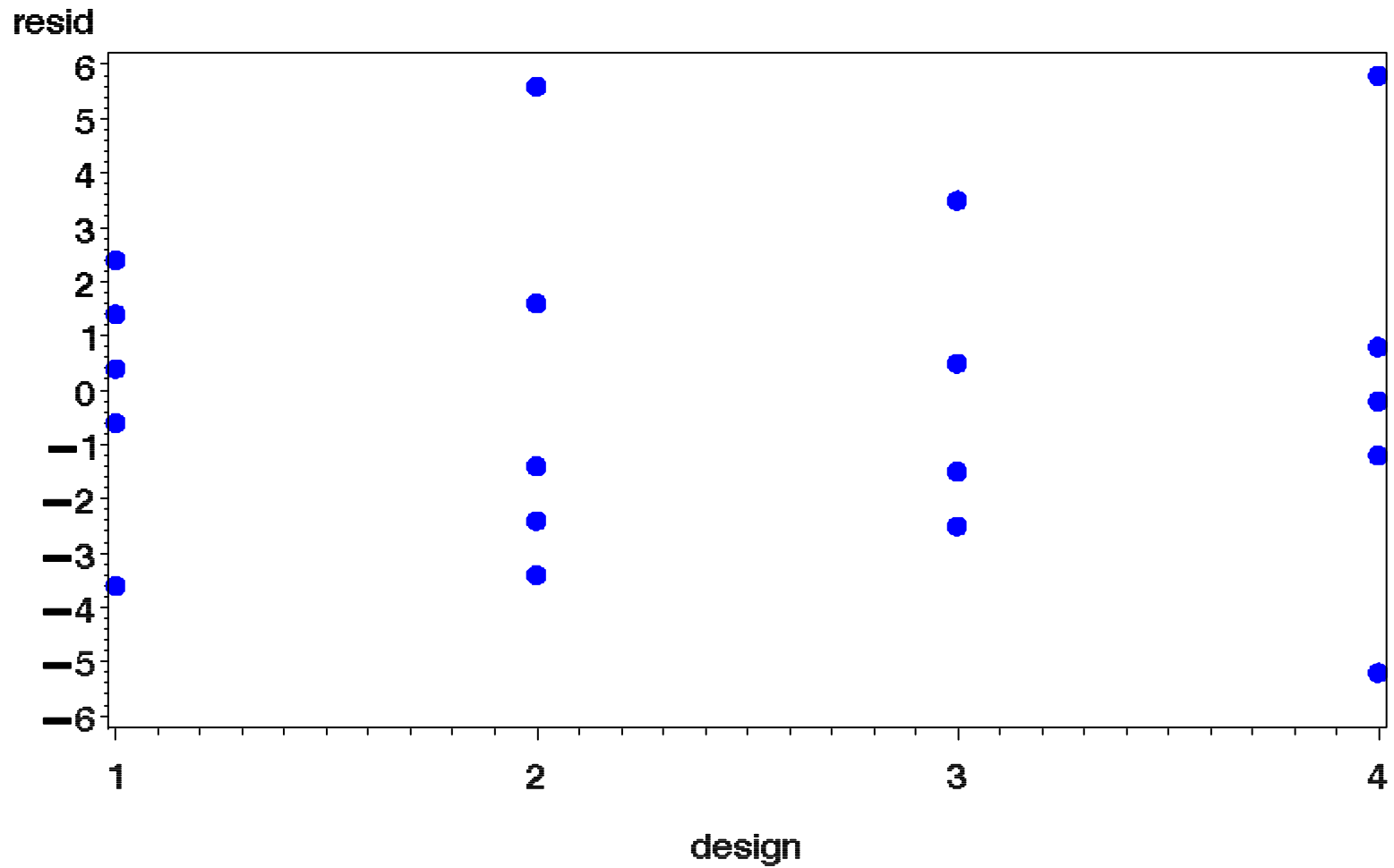
# Output (4)

Group	Mean	N	design
A	27.200	5	4
B	19.500	4	3
B			
B	14.600	5	1
B			
B	13.400	5	2

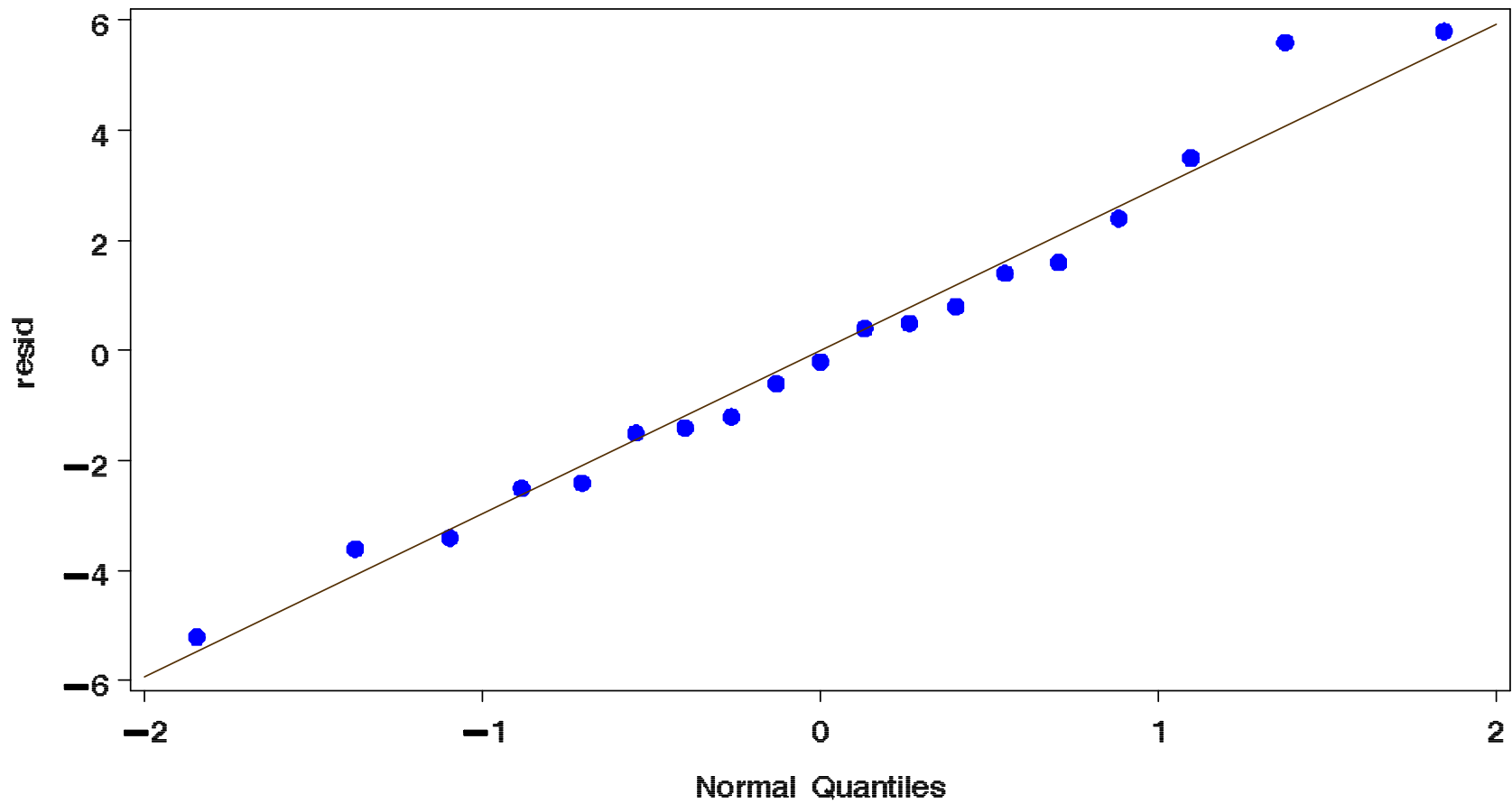
# Assumptions

- Should always check normality, constancy of variance assumptions
- Plots to check these are as before
- No obvious problems for this dataset

# Residual Plot



# Normal QQ Plot





# Upcoming in Lecture 20...

- ANOVA Model I (Cell Means)
- Sections 16.3 – 16.6