# Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Ryan Miller



## Introduction

- The "halo effect" is a hypothesized cognitive bias where a positive impression of one aspect of a person/brand leads to other aspects of that same person/brand being viewed more favorably than they should
- Today we'll look at data from the article: "Beauty is Talent: Task Evaluation as a Function of the Performer's Physical Attraction" published in *The Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* in 1974
  - 60 undergraduate males scored (from 0 to 25) an essay supposedly written by a female undergraduate
  - Attached to each essay was a photo of the supposed author that was randomly assigned from one of the following conditions: "attractive", "unattractive", or "none"



There are two types of hypotheses we might consider for this experiment:

- 1. A "global" hypothesis Is an essay's rating associated with the type of photo attached to it?
- 2. "pairwise" hypotheses Do the scores of essays with "attractive" photos differ from those with "unattractive" photos?
  - There are 3 possible pairwise hypotheses in this example
- Pairwise hypotheses can be evaluated using two-sample t-tests
  - However, type I errors due to multiple tests are a concern
  - Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) allows us to evaluate the global hypothesis with a single test



# The Null Hypothesis for ANOVA

If the type of assigned photo makes no difference, we'd expect the data in each group to follow the same distribution. Below is the overall distribution of scores:



Table 1: Average essay score regardless of group

mean	sd	n
14.7	5.3	60



# The Null Hypothesis for ANOVA

Under the null hypothesis of no association, we'd expect the ratings in each of the 3 groups to come from this overall distribution. Below we simulate this by randomly giving each of our data-points a group label (unrelated to its actual group):



Even when using randomization to force there to be no association we don't see exactly the same mean for every group.



Below are the actual data observed in our study:



ANOVA is based upon measuring how different the observed data are from what we'd expect under a null hypothesis of no association.



## Predictions

Let's suppose you want to predict how a subject will rate the essay

- If you believe there's no association (ie: the type of photo doesn't matter), a logical prediction is the overall mean of 14.7
- You'd expect this prediction to be closest to the score because the sample mean is the center of the score distribution





## Predictions

But what if you knew the new subject received an *unattractive* picture with the essay? Could you make a better prediction?





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  - ▶ For example, we might use a model to predict an essay's score
- A statistical model is one that involves a probability distribution



## Null Models

- A model that doesn't rely on any explanatory variables is often used as a null model
  - This model can be expressed in plain English as "predict the overall mean for every observation"
- This model can be expressed statistically as:

$$y_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$$

 c<sub>i</sub> is an unexplained deviation from the mean (we assume these are *normally distributed* with a mean of zero)



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- *c<sub>i</sub>* is an unexplained deviation from the mean (we assume these
   are *normally distributed* with a mean of zero)
- ► This model suggests  $\hat{y}_i$  (the model's prediction for person *i*) should be  $\overline{y}$  (the sample mean)
  - In our example, each essay's predicted score would be 14.7 under this model



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- *c<sub>i</sub>* is an unexplained deviation *from the group mean* (we assume these are normally distributed with a mean of zero)
- This model suggests predictions:  $\hat{y}_i = \overline{y}_i$ 
  - In our example, an essay with an unattractive photo would receive a predicted score of 12.1, but one with an attractive photo would receive a predicted score of 16.4



# ANOVA

- Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical approach that allows us to compare these null model and alternative models
- One-way ANOVA refers specifically to the scenario where the alternative model involves a single categorical explanatory variable (as has been the case in our current example)
- As the name indicates, the method analyzes the variance of each model's predictions to determine if the alternative model is superior to the null model



# Summarizing a Model

Under the any model each subject deviates from their prediction by a residual:

 $r_i = \hat{y}_i - y_i \text{ (Definition of a residual)}$  $= \overline{y} - y_i \text{ (Residuals for the null model)}$ 

We can summarize the total variability of the null model's predictions using a sum of squares:

$$SST = \sum_{i} r_i^2$$
 for the null model

We call this SST (sum of squares total) because it is the largest possible sum of squares (of any justifiable model)



The alternative model can also be summarized using a sum of squares:

$$SSE = \sum_{i} r_i^2$$
 for the alternative model

- We call this SSE because it summarizes variability that remains in the errors of the model which uses "group"
  - This is the model want to establish as statistically superior in order to claim an association between "group" and the outcome variable



# **Comparing Models**

If an alternative model is *superior* to the null model (ie: the group means really are *different* at the *population level*), *SSE* will be *much smaller* than *SST* 



Note: SSE is the total of each group's SS (ie: 27.9 + 20.2 + 21.9), SST is the SS for all of the data (ie: 623.7)



# **Comparing Models**

However, if "group" isn't associated with Y (ie: the group means are identical at the population level), SSE will still be slightly smaller than SST





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- The F statistic can be interpreted as the standardized drop in the sum of squares per additional parameter included in the alternative model



- We started off by considering what the data might look like if we randomly assigned group labels (slide 5)
  - If we did this many times, we could get an idea of how the F statistic is distributed under the null hypothesis
  - This StatKey menu allows us to randomize the data and track the distribution of the F statistic

Here is a link to the data

https://remiller1450.github.io/data/halo\_effect.csv



- Under the null hypothesis (ie: presuming the null model is true), this *F*-statistic follows an *F*-distribution that depends upon two different degrees of freedom (*df*) parameters
  - The numerator df is  $d_1 d_0$
  - The denominator df is  $n d_1$

We can use StatKey to view various F-distribution curves



## What is the Standard Error?

- We've seen that standard errors tend to look like a measure of variability divided by the sample size
- In the ANOVA setting:

Std. Error = 
$$\frac{SSE}{n-d_1}$$

- ► This is the sum of squares of the alternative model divided by its *degrees of freedom*,  $df = n d_1$
- Using this standard error, the F statistic can be expressed:

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



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#### The F-test and Variability

- ►  $SST = \sum_i r_i^2$  where  $r_i = y_i \overline{y}$  is the sum of squares for the null model, this model predicts each  $y_i$  using the overall mean  $\overline{y}$ 
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- ►  $SSE = \sum_{i} r_i^2$  where  $r_i = y_i \overline{y}_i$  is the sum of squares for the alternative model, this model predicts each  $y_i$  using a group-specific mean  $\overline{y}_i$ 
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  - SSE describes the variability that remains after accounting for which group a data points belongs to
- By subtraction, we can determine how much variability is being explained by the parameters included in the alternative model:

$$SST = SSE + SSG$$

 SSG, the sum of squares groups, denotes the amount of variability explained by using the "group" variable



# Simplifying the *F*-statistic

▶ Using *SSG*, we can express the *F*-statistic as:

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



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▶ Using SSG, we can express the F-statistic as:

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Sums of squares divided by their degrees of freedom are often called mean squares, they allow for a simpler looking F statistic:

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

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



# The ANOVA Table

- Calculating sums of squares and mean squares by hand is extremely tedious and something we won't spend any time doing in this class
- Instead you will be expected to understand a common piece of software output known as an ANOVA table
- The general form of these tables is shown below:

Source	df	Sum Sq.	Mean Sq.	<i>F</i> -statistic	<i>p</i> -value
"Group"	$d_1 - d_0$	SSG	MSG	MSG/MSE	Use $F_{d_1-d_0,n-d_1}$
Error	$n-d_1$	SSE	MSE		
Total	$n-d_0$	SST			

- For *one-way ANOVA*:
  - ▶  $d_0 = 1$ , the null model has one parameter, a single overall mean
  - d<sub>1</sub> = k, the alternative model has k parameters, a different mean for each group



Practice completing the following ANOVA table (assuming this is one-way ANOVA, where  $d_0 = 1$ ):

Source	df	Sum Sq.	Mean Sq.	F-statistic	<i>p</i> -value
"Group"	4	200	?	?	?
Error	?	440	?		
Total	59	?			



# The ANOVA Table - Practice (solution)

In this example  $d_1 = k = 5$  and n = 60, so:

Source	df	Sum Sq.	Mean Sq.	F-statistic	<i>p</i> -value
"Group"	4	200	50	6.25	0.0003
Error	55	440	8		
Total	59	640			

The p-value is found using the right-tail area beyond 6.25 of an F distribution with (4, 55) degrees of freedom



The results of one-way ANOVA only tell us whether a difference in group means exists, not which groups are different



# Inference after ANOVA

- The results of one-way ANOVA only tell us whether a difference in group means exists, not which groups are different
- After a statistically significant ANOVA test we should further investigate which groups differ
- In R, we'll use Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test (sometimes called Tukey's range test)
  - Tukey's HSD naturally controls the Type I error rate for all possible pairwise comparisons (so we avoid the problem of doing multiple tests)
  - This week's lab will cover how to use this test



#### ANOVA compares:

The null model:  $y_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$  suggesting predictions:  $\hat{y}_i = \overline{y}$ The alternative model:  $y_i = \mu_k + \epsilon_i$  suggesting predictions:  $\hat{y}_i = \overline{y}_k$ 

- We haven't talked much about the *unexplainable deviations* (the ε<sub>i</sub>'s)
  - ANOVA was derived under the assumption that they are normally distributed with a mean of zero
- We'll never actually know  $\varepsilon_i$ , but we can *estimate* it via  $r_i$ 
  - This suggests we should check the distribution of the residuals to assess whether the ANOVA test was valid



# Normality of Y?

ANOVA doesn't require normality of the outcome variable



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# What if the residuals aren't Normally distributed?

- If the residuals are not normally distributed some options include:
  - Apply a log-transformation to the outcome variable
  - Use a randomization testing approach to ANOVA (such as the one implemented in StatKey)
  - Report your ANOVA results with caution



The models compared by ANOVA correspond to the following hypotheses:

 $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \ldots = \mu_k, H_A:$  At least one mean differs

- When, k = 2 these are the same hypotheses as the two-sample t-test
- Many textbooks choose to describe ANOVA as an extension of the *t*-test (rather than a statistical modeling approach)

