

Exercise 6.4

Treatment is choice of one of four overnight delivery services, A, B, C or D. The response is breakage rate (percent).

Displays for Statistics 5303

Lecture 13

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Christopher Bingham, Instructor

612-625-7023 (St. Paul)

612-625-1024 (Minneapolis)

Class Web Page

<http://www.stat.umn.edu/~kjb/classes/5303>

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```
Cmd> readdata("", treat, breakage)
Read from file "TPl:Stat5303:Data:ch06:ex6-4.dat"
Column 1 saved as REAL vector treat
Column 2 saved as REAL vector y
```

```
Cmd> treat[run(5)] # check I got columns correctly
(1) 1 1 1 1 1
```

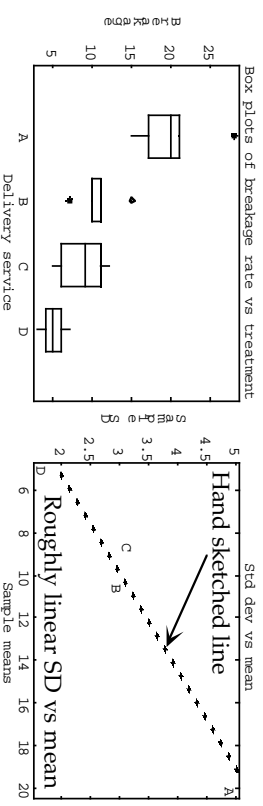
```
Cmd> treat <- factor(treat) # turn into factor
```

```
Cmd> list(treat, breakage) # see what we have
breakage REAL 20
treat REAL 20 FACTOR with 4 levels
```

```
Cmd> strats <- tabs(breakage, treat, mean=T, stdev=T)
```

```
Cmd> vboxplot(split(breakage, treat), ylab:"Breakage", \
xlab:"Delivery service", xticklab:vector("A", "B", "C", "D"), \
title:"Box plots of breakage rate vs treatment")
```

```
Cmd> plot(stats$mean, stats$stdev, \
symbols:vector("A", "B", "C", "D"), \
xlab:"Sample means", ylab:"Sample SD", \
title:"Std dev vs mean" ) # plot SD vs mean
```

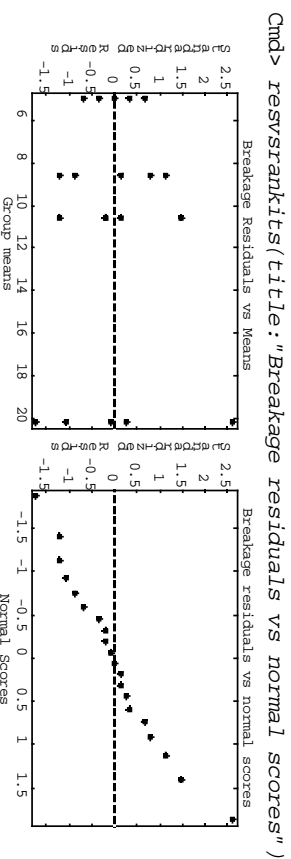


Clearly σ differs among groups, possibly related linearly to the mean.

The Linearity of the plot of SD vs mean suggests a log transform may be useful. Make a couple of residual plots.

```
Cmd> anova("breakage=creat") # must precede resvsxxxx()
Model used is breakage=creat
          SS      MS
CONSTANT  1  2464.2
treat     3  632.6
ERROR1   16  179.2
```

```
Cmd> resvsyhat(title:"Breakage Residuals vs Means", \
xlab:"Group means")
```



The left plot of residuals vs \bar{y}_i shows the same pattern as the boxplots: When μ is high, σ is bigger than when μ is low. This is more evidence of heteroskedasticity.

The right normal scores plot is pretty straight, not putting normality in doubt.

There is an objective way to judge whether the plot is curved enough to be evidence against normality.

Compute the Pearson correlation r of the normal scores and the ordered values of residuals or standardized residuals.

For a perfect straight line $r = 1$, and the less straight the smaller r is.

An objective test is to reject

$$H_0: \text{residuals are normal}$$

if r is "too small", that is if $r \leq r_\alpha$,

where r_α is a lower tail probability point of the distribution of r : $P(r \leq r_\alpha) = \alpha$.

There are few if any tables available, but you can find an approximate value by simulation. Still better, you can estimate a p-value by simulation. You generate many sets of data with normal residuals so that H_0 is true. For each set you find residuals and computer r .

Here is how you might do it with these data. I work with the standardized residuals because that is what was plotted.

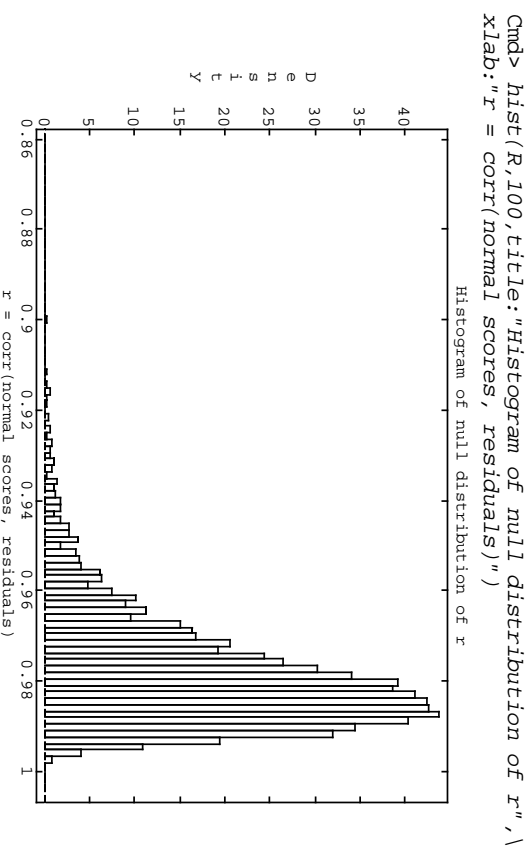
```

Cmd> M <- 5000;R <- rep(0,M) # simulate M samples
Cmd> normal_scrs <- rnorm(n:20) # normal scores
Cmd> for(i,1,M){
  anova({rnorm(20)}) = treat", silent:T)
  mse <- SS[3]/DF[3]
  R[i] <- cor(normal_scrs,
             sort(RESIDUALS/(sqrt(1 - HII)*mse)))[1,2];}
RESIDUALS/(sqrt(1 - HII)*mse) is the
vector of internally standardized resid-
uals. Now compute the observed r.

Cmd> anova("breakage=creat", silent:T)
Cmd> mse <- SS[3]/DF[3]
Cmd> r_observed <-\
  cor(normal_scrs,sort(RESIDUALS/(sqrt(1 - HII)*mse)))[1,2]
Cmd> r_observed # Could this be significantly low?
(1,1) 0.97966

```

Here is the simulated distribution of r for truly normal data.



The observed value $r_{obs} = 0.97966$ is clearly not unusual. Here is a estimated lower-tail P-value

```

Cmd> sum(R <= r_observed)/M # p-value
(1,1) 0.4496
Cmd> J <- round(vector(.10,.05,.01,.001)*M); J
(1) 500 250 50 5
Cmd> sort(R)[J] # approx 10%, 5%, 1%, and 0.1% critical values
(1) 0.96147 0.95295 0.93035 0.89905

```

A little more on the Box-Cox transformation. On Monday I defined the Box-Cox transformation for power p to be

$$y \rightarrow (y^p - 1)/p \quad \text{when } p \neq 0$$

$$y \rightarrow \log(y) \quad \text{when } p = 0$$

The *geometric mean* GM of y_1, \dots, y_N is

$$GM \equiv e^{\frac{\log y}{N}} = e^{(\sum \log y_i)/N}.$$

Oehlert defines the Box-Cox transformation similarly, except the transformed value is divided by GM^{p-1} :

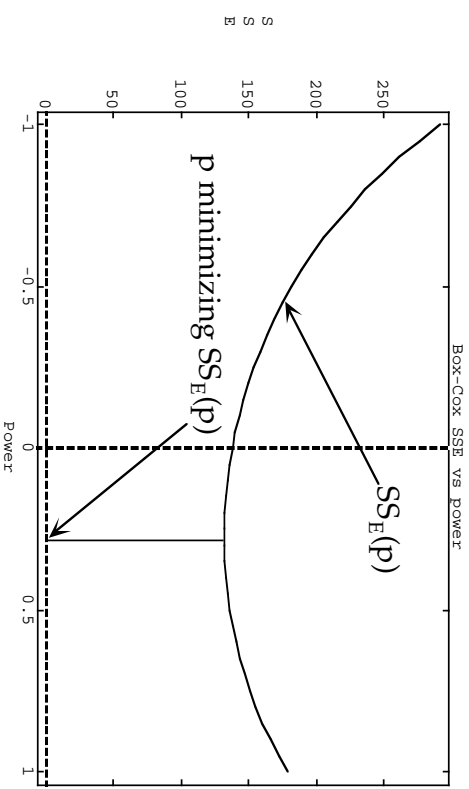
$$y \rightarrow y^{(p)} \equiv \{(y^p - 1)/p\}/GM^{p-1} \quad p \neq 0$$

$$y \rightarrow y^{(0)} \equiv GM \times \log(y) \quad p = 0$$

This has the result that no matter what p is, the scale of the transformed values is comparable and indeed is in the same units as y . This means that all $SS_E(p)$ computed from $y^{(p)}$ are comparable. The value of p that minimizes $SS_E(p)$ is often a good transformation.

I'm going to use `boxcoxvec()` to try to select a transformation. This runs `anova()` using $y^{(p)}$ and returns a vector containing $SS_E(p)$ for several powers p .

```
Cmd> stuff <- boxcoxvec("treat", breakage, power:run(-1,1,.05))
WARNING: searching for unrecognized macro boxcoxvec near
stuff <- boxcoxvec(
Cmd> comparenames(stuff)
(1) "power"
(2) "SS"
Cmd> llineplot(Power:stuff$power, SSE:stuff$SS, \
              title:"Box-Cox SSE vs power", ymin:0)
```



Where is the minimum?

```
Cmd> jmin <- grade(stuff$SS)[run(3)]; jmin
(1) 27 26 28
```

These are the indices of the three smallest values of stuff\$SS.

```
Cmd> hconcat(stuff$power,stuff$SS)[vector(26,27,28),]
(1,1) 0.25 132.09
(2,1) 0.3 132.06
(3,1) 0.35 132.42
```

The minimum of the compute values of $SS_E(p)$ was for $p = .3$. This might suggest a cube root ($p=1/3 = .3333$). Or, since $.3$ is not very far from 0 or from $.5$, it might suggest a log or square root transformation.

What values of p are consistent with the data?

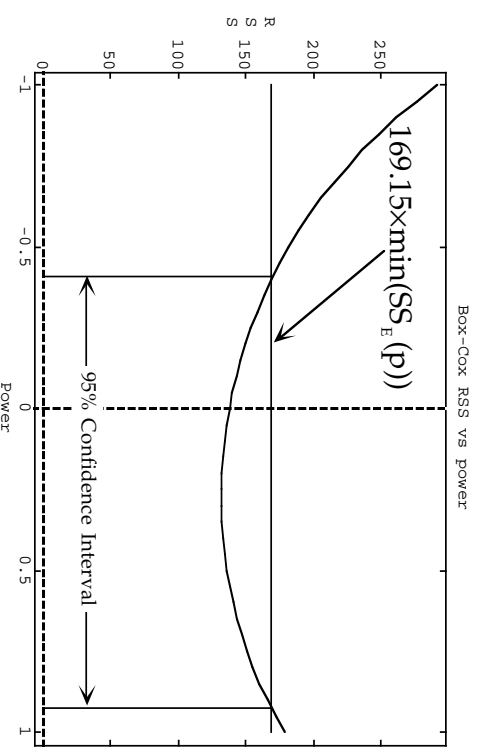
An approximate $1-\alpha$ confidence interval for the "correct" p is the set of all powers p such that

$$SS_E(p) \leq \min_p SS_E(p) \times (1 + F_{\alpha, 1, df_{error}} / df_{error})$$

```
Cmd> const <- 1 + invF(1 - .05, 1, DF[3])/DF[3]; const
(1) 1.2809
Cmd> const*min(stuff$SS)
(1) 169.15
```

You can't exclude any p for which $SS_E(p) \leq 1.2809 \times 132.06 = 169.15$.

```
Cmd> addlines(vector(-1,1),rep(const*min(stuff$SS),2))
```

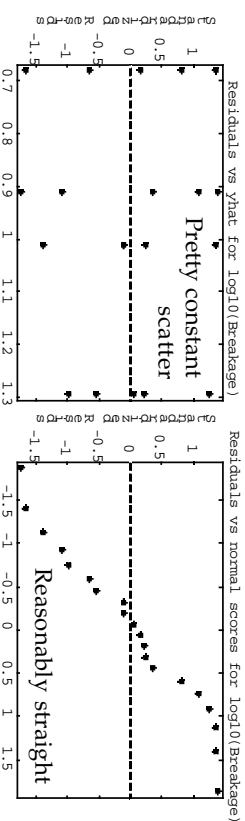


Arrows and annotations added by hand. $p = 0, 1/3, 1/2$ are in interval but not 1.

Look at residuals of transformed data:

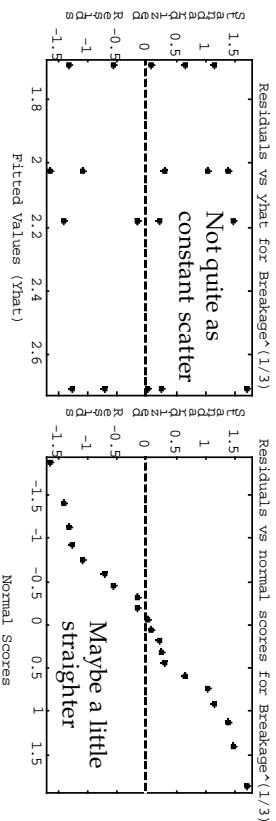
```
Cmd> anova({log10(breakage)}) = treat", fstat:T) # for log(Y)
Model used is {log10(breakage)} = treat
          DF      SS      MS      F      P-value
CONSTANT 1 18.999 18.999 1039.54802 0
treat    3  0.97545  0.32515  17.79136  2.3827e-05
ERROR1   16  0.29241  0.018276
```

```
Cmd> resvsyhat(title:"Residuals vs yhat for log10(Breakage)")
Cmd> resvsrankits(title:"Residuals vs normal scores for
log10(Breakage)")
```



```
Cmd> anova("{breakage^(1/3)}=treat", fstat:T) # cube root
Model used is cuberoot=treat
          DF      SS      MS      F      P-value
CONSTANT 1 92.664 92.664 2010.90670 0
treat    3  2.6894  0.89648  19.45466  1.3787e-05
ERROR1   16  0.73729  0.046081
```

```
Cmd> resvsyhat(title:"Residuals vs yhat for Breakage^(1/3)")
Cmd> resvsrankits(title:"Residuals vs normal scores for
Breakage^(1/3)")
```



There are other ways to choose transformations:
Regression of log(SD) on log(mean):
 $p = 1 - \hat{\beta}$ is a guess at a good power to stabilize σ .

```
Cmd> regress("{log(stats$stddev)} = {log(stats$mean)}")
Model used is {log(stats$stddev)} = {log(stats$mean)}
          Coef      StdErr      t
CONSTANT -0.74709  0.30833  -2.423
{log(stats$mean)}  0.79133  0.13199  5.9954

N: 4, MSE: 0.017408, DF: 2, R^2: 0.94729
Regression F(1,2): 35.945, Durbin-Watson: 2.9443
To see the ANOVA table type 'anova()'

Cmd> COEF # automatically created by regress()
CONSTANT {log(stats$mean)}
-0.74709  0.79133  Intercept and slope

Cmd> slope <- COEF[2] # slope is second coefficient
Cmd> 1 - slope # guess of power
(1) 0.20867
```

$p = 0.209$ is in the same ballpark as was found using `boxcoxvec()`.

Note: You seldom, if ever, use the exact value found by `boxcoxvec()` or this regression method. You usually pick a "neat" value such as $p = -1, 0, 1/3$ or $1/2$.

In some cases, some math can suggest a transformation which will stabilize σ .

Suppose you are trying to find a transformation $y \rightarrow \tilde{y} \equiv f(y)$.

If $f(y)$ is a smooth monotonic (always increasing or decreasing) function, it is not hard to show using the δ -method that

$$\sigma_y^2 \approx \tilde{\sigma} (f'(\mu))^2 \sigma_\mu^2$$

where $f'(\mu)$ is the derivative of $f(\mu)$.

Now suppose σ_y^2 depends on $\mu = \mu_y$, say

$$\sigma_y^2 = \sigma(\mu)^2 = g(\mu)$$

Then

$$\tilde{\sigma}_y^2 \approx (f'(\mu))^2 g(\mu)$$

If you want this to be constant, K^2 , then use $f(y)$ such that

$$f'(y) = K / \sqrt{g(y)}$$

This is a differential equation that can be solved for $f(y)$ in some cases.

Examples

- $\sigma(\mu)^2 = g(\mu) = C\mu$

$f(\mu) = k\sqrt{\mu}$, i.e., square root

When y is Poisson, $\sigma(\mu)^2 = \mu$

The Poisson distribution is a distribution for counts with $P(y=k) = e^{-\mu} \mu^k / k!$

- $\sigma(\mu)^2 = g(\mu) = C\mu^2$

$f(\mu) = k \times \log \mu$,

This applies when y is Gamma or χ^2

- $\sigma(\mu)^2 = g(\mu) = C\mu(1 - \mu)$

$f(\mu) = \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{\mu})$

This applies when $y = \hat{p} = X/n$, where X is binomial.

Even with non-binomial data, $\sin^{-1}(\sqrt{y})$ is often tried when y is a proportion or percent ($\sin^{-1}(\sqrt{\{\text{percent}/100\}}$)

Note: $\sin^{-1}(x)$ satisfies $\sin(\sin^{-1}(x)) = x$.

The MacAnova function `asin(x)` computes $\sin^{-1}(x)$.

```

Cmd> sin(asin(.123)) # sin(asin(x)) is x for -1 ≤ x ≤ 1
(1)
    0.123

Cmd> y1 <- asin(sqrt(breakage/100))

Cmd> anova("y1=treat", fstat:T)
Model used is y1=treat

```

	DF	SS	MS	F	P-value
CONSTANT	1	2.1469	2.1469	829.11074	0
treat	3	0.15317	0.051057	19.71791	1.2686e-05
ERROR1	16	0.04143	0.0025894		

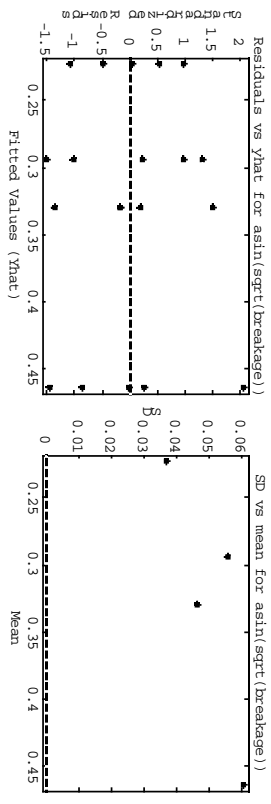
```

Cmd> stats <- tabs(y1,treat,mean:T,stderr:T)

Cmd> resvshat(title:"Residuals vs yhat for
asin(sqrt(breakage))")

Cmd> plot(Mean:stats$mean,SD:stats$sddev,ymin:0,\
title:"SD vs mean for asin(sqrt(breakage))")

```



The plots show some remaining hetero-skedasticity.

Comment. For small p , $\sin^{-1} \sqrt{p} \approx \sqrt{p}$, so the transformation is like a square root.

- Sometimes when the variances differ between groups you don't want to work with a transformation because
- the original scale has some special importance

OR

- you can't find a good transformation
- There are approximate ANOVA or t-test methods available, which don't work with single pooled estimate of variance

The variance of a contrast $\sum_i w_i \bar{y}_i$ is

$$V[\sum_i w_i \bar{y}_i] = \sum_i w_i^2 \sigma_i^2 / n_i$$

So an estimate of the standard error is

$$\hat{SE}[\sum_i w_i \bar{y}_i] = \sqrt{\{\sum_i w_i^2 s_i^2 / n_i\}}$$

The "t-statistic" to test $H_0: \sum_i w_i \alpha_i = 0$

$$t_w = \sum_i w_i \bar{y}_i / \sqrt{\{\sum_i w_i^2 s_i^2 / n_i\}}$$

does not have Student's t-distribution, but t_w is a good approximation when

$$n = \{\sum_i w_i^2 s_i^2 / n_i\}^2 / \{\sum_i w_i^4 s_i^4 / ((n_i - 1)n_i^2)\}$$

Here I illustrate it comparing the first delivery services A and B with C and D:

```

Cmd> stats <- tabs(breakage, treat)
Cmd> vars <- stats$var; vars # sample variances s_i^2
(1) 24.7 8.3 9.3 2.5
Cmd> n <- stats$count; n # sample sizes
(1) 5 5 5 5
Cmd> ybars <- stats$mean; ybars # sample means
(1) 20.2 10.6 8.6 5
Cmd> w <- vector(1,1,-1,-1) # contrast weights
Cmd> estimate <- sum(w*ybars); estimate # of contrast
(1) 17.2
Cmd> se <- sqrt(sum(w^2*vars/n)); se # std error of contrast
(1) 2.9933
Cmd> tstat <- estimate/se; tstat # test statistic
(1) 5.7461
Cmd> df <- sum(w^2*vars/n)^2/sum(w^4*vars^2/((n-1)*n^2)); df
(1) 10.403 Approximate d.f.
Cmd> twotailt(tstat,df) # Approximate P-value
(1) 0.00016003 Reject H_0.

```

The Brown-Forsythe test is a modification of the ANOVA F-test.

Define

$$d_i = s_i^2(1 - n_i/N) = s_i^2((N - n_i)/N)$$

Then the statistic is

$$BF \equiv SS_{\text{trt}} / \sum_i d_i$$

$SS_{\text{trt}} = \sum_i n_i(\bar{y}_i - \bar{y}_{..})^2$ is the usual ANOVA treatment SS.

When $H_0: \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_g$ is true, BF is distributed approximately as F on $g-1$ and ν d.f., where

$$\nu = (\sum d_i)^2 / \sum (d_i^2 / (n_i - 1))$$

When $n_1 = n_2 = \dots = n_g = n$,

$$\sum_i d_i = ((g-1)/g) \sum s_i^2 = (g-1)MS_E \text{ so } BF = F.$$

This puts a premium on having equal sample sizes, since F is also BF, but with smaller denominator degrees of freedom.

Here I found SS_{trt} , the numerator of BF, by a “white box” method:

```
Cmd> grandmean <- describe(breakage, mean:T)
Cmd> top <- sum(n*(ybars-grandmean)^2); top
(1) 632.6
Cmd> bottom <- sum(vars*(1-n/sum(n))); bottom
(1) 18.827
Cmd> d <- vars*(1 - n/sum(n))
Cmd> df <- sum(d)^2/sum(d^2/(n-1)); df
(1) 10.403
Cmd> 1 - cumF(df, 3, df)
(1) 0.00016065
```

Here is the ordinary ANOVA.

```
Cmd> anova("breakage=creat", Fstat:T)
Model used is breakage=treat
```

	DF	SS	MS	F	P-value
CONSTANT	1	2464.2	2464.2	220.01786	< 1e-08
treat	3	632.6	210.87	18.82738	1.6873e-05
ERROR1	16	179.2	11.2		

F is the same as BF, but has 16 denominator d.f. instead of 10.4. The P-value is smaller but the conclusion is the same.