# Chapter 4 – Statistical Testing and Modelling

Sampling

### Sampling

- One of the great benefits of statistical models is that a reasonably sized (>30) random sample will almost always reflect the population.
- The challenge becomes, how do we select members randomly, and avoid bias?

### Sampling Bias

 There are several forms of bias: Selection Bias

> Perhaps the most common, this type of bias favors those members of a population who are more inclined and able to answer polls.



Selection Bias Undercoverage Bias: making too few observations or omitting entire segments of a population

#### Sampling Bias

Selection Bias Self-selection Bias: people who volunteer may differ significantly from those in the population who don't

#### Sampling Bias

**Selection Bias** 

 Healthy-user Bias: the sample may come from a healthier segment of the overall
population – people who walk/jog, work
outside, follow healthier behaviors, etc.

#### Undercoverage Bias

- A hospital survey of employees conducted during daytime hours
- Neglects to poll people who work the night shift.



#### Self-Selection Bias

- An online survey about a sports team
- Only people who feel strongly about the team will answer the survey.



### Sampling Bias

Survivorship Bias

► If a population improves over time,

 it may be due to lesser members leaving the population due to death, expulsion, relocation, etc.

### A Classic Puzzle

• At the start of World War I, British soldiers wore cloth caps. • The war office became alarmed at the high number of head injuries, so they issued metal helmets to all soldiers.

### A Classic Puzzle

- They were surprised to find that the number of head injuries *increased* with the use of metal helmets.
- If the intensity of fighting was the same before and after the change, why should the number of head injuries increase?

### A Classic Puzzle

- Answer: You have to consider all of the data
- Before the switch, many things that gave head injuries to soldiers wearing metal helmets would have caused fatalities for those wearing cloth caps!



 In World War II, statistician Abraham Wald worked for America's Statistical Research Group (SRG)



Adapted from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abraham\_Wald

 One problem the SRG worked on was to examine the distribution of damage to

aircraft by enemy fire and to advise the best placement of additional armor.



 Common logic was to provide greater protection to parts that received more damage.



 Wald saw it differently – he felt that damage must be more uniformly distributed and that aircraft that could return had been hit in less vulnerable parts.



 Wald proposed that the Navy reinforce the areas where returning aircraft were undamaged, since those were areas that, if hit, would cause the plane to be lost!

## Sampling Distribution

### **Sampling Distribution**

- There are three distinct types of distribution of data which are -
- 1.Population Distribution, characterizes the distribution of elements of a population
- 2.Sample Distribution, characterizes the distribution of elements of a sample drawn from a population
- **3.Sampling Distribution**, describes the expected behavior of a large number of simple random samples drawn from the same population.
- Sampling distributions constitute the theoretical basis of statistical inference and are of considerable importance in business decision-making. **Sampling distributions** are important in statistics because they provide a major simplification on the route to statistical inference.



A sampling distribution is a theoretical probability distribution of a statistic obtained through a large number of samples drawn from a specific population

A sampling distribution is a graph of a statistics(i.e. mean, mean absolute value of the deviation from the mean,range,standard deviation of the sample, unbiased estimate of variance, variance of the sample) for sample data. Usually a univariate distribution.

Closely approximate a normal distribution.

#### Sample statistic is a random variable – sample mean , sample & proportion A theoretical probability distribution

The form of a sampling distribution refers to the shape of the particular curve that describes the distribution.

#### **CHARACTERISTICS**

#### **Functions of sampling distribution**

SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION IS A GRAPH WHICH PERFORM SEVERAL DUTIES TO SHOW DATA GRAPHICALLY.

SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION WORKS FOR :

- 🗂 MEAN
- MEAN ABSOLUTE VALUE OF THE DEVIATION FROM THE MEAN

🗇 RANGE

- STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE SAMPLE
- UNBIASED ESTIMATE OF THE SAMPLE
- VARIANCE OF THE SAMPLE

#### WHY SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION IS IMPORTANT????



**STATISTICS** 

SELECTION OF DISTRIBUTIO TYPE TO MODEL SCORE



i)Properties of Statistic : Statistic have different properties as estimators of a population parameters. The sampling distribution of a statistic provides a window into some of the important properties. For example if the expected value of a statistic is equal to the expected value of the corresponding population parameter, the statistic is said to be unbiased

Consistency is another valuable property to have in the estimation of a population parameter, as the statistic with the smallest standard error is preferred as an estimator estimator A statistic used to estimate a model parameter.of the corresponding population parameter, everything else being equa.l

#### ii) Selection of distribution type to model scores :

The sampling distribution provides the theoretical foundation to select a distribution for many useful measures. For example, the central limit theorem describes why a measure, such as intelligence, that may be considered a summation of a number of independent quantities would necessarily be distributed as a normal (Gaussian) curve.

#### iii) Hypothesis Testing :

The sampling distribution is integral to the hypothesis testing procedure. The sampling distribution is used in hypothesis testing to create a model of what the world would look like given the null hypothesis was true and a statistic was collected an infinite number of times. A single sample is taken, the sample statistic is calculated, and then it is compared to the model created by the sampling distribution of that statistic when the null hypothesis is true. If the sample statistic is unlikely given the model, then the model is rejected and a model with real effects is more likely.

#### Types of sampling distribution

The types of sampling distribution are as follows:

#### 1) Sampling Distribution of the Mean:

Sampling distribution of means of a population data is defined as the theoretical probability distribution of the sample means which are obtained by extracting all the possible samples having the same size from the given population.

Given a finite population with mean (m) and variance (s<sup>2</sup>). When sampling from a normally distributed population, it can be shown that the distribution of the sample mean will have the following properties -

#### Properties of the sampling distribution

- 1. The distribution of  $\overline{x}$  will be normal.
- 2. The mean  $\mu_{\overline{x}}$  of the distribution of the values of  $\overline{\overline{x}}$  will be the same as the mean of the population from which the samples were drawn;  $\mu_{\overline{x}} = \mu$ .
- 3. The variance,  $\sigma_{\pi}^2$ , of the distribution of  $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$  will be equal to the variance of the population divided by the sample size;  $\sigma_{\pi}^2 = \sigma^2/n$

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**2) Sampling Distribution of the Proportion :** 

SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION OF THE PROPORTION IS FOUND WHEN THE SAMPLE PROPORTION AND PROPORTION OF SUCCESSES ARE GIVEN.

#### **PROPERTIES :**

SAMPLE PROPORTION TEND TO TARGET THE VALUE OF PROPORTION. UNDER CERTAIN CONDITIONS, THE DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE PROPORTION CAN BE APPROXIMATED BY A NORMAL DISTRIBUTION.

#### Example:

Sample distribution of the proportion of the girls from sample space for two randomly selected births:bb,bg,gb,gg All four outcomes are equally likely:

#### **Probabilities:**

P(0 girls)=0.25 P(1 girl)=0.50 P(2girls)=0.75

#### Probability distribution for the *proportion* of girls:



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- What makes sampling such a good statistical tool is the Central Limit Theorem
- Recall that a sample mean often varies from the population mean.
- The CLT considers a large number of random sample tests.

- The CLT states that the mean values from a group of samples will be *normally distributed* about the population mean, even if the population itself is not normally distributed.
- That is, 95% of all sample means should fall within  $2\sigma$  of the population mean







Standard Error
## Standard Error

- Let's quickly review terminology
- Let's say we have a population of voters
- It is unrealistic to poll the entire population, so we poll a sample
- We calculate a statistic from that sample that lets us estimate a parameter of the population

# Standard Error

POPULATION = 10,000



N = # population members P = population parameter  $\sigma =$  pop. standard deviation

n = # sample membersp̂ = sample statistic

SE<sub>p</sub> = standard error of the sample

# Standard Error

- If for the population of Australia, the mean height is 5'9", and for our 100-person sample the mean height is 5'10", then
  - P = 5'9''
  - $\hat{p} = 5'10''$
  - $SE_{\hat{p}} = Standard \ Error \ of \ the \ Mean$





# Standard Error of the Mean

 Where the population standard deviation describes how wide individual values stray from the population mean, the Standard Error of the Mean describes how far a sample mean may stray from the population mean.

# Standard Error of the Mean

 If the population standard deviation σ is known, then the sample standard error of the mean can be calculated as:



#### Standard Error Exercise

- An IQ Test is designed to have a mean score of 100 with a standard deviation of 15 points.
  If a sample of 10 scores has a mean of 104, can we
  - assume they come from the general population?



**Standard Error Exercise** 

- Sample of 10 IQ Test scores: n = 10  $\overline{x} = 104$   $\sigma = 15$  $SE = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{15}{\sqrt{10}} = 4.743$
- 68% of 10-item sample means are expected to fall between 95.257 and 104.743

- Hypothesis Testing is the application of statistical methods to real-world questions.
- We start with an assumption, called the null hypothesis
- We run an experiment to test this null hypothesis

- Based on the results of the experiment, we either reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis
- If the null hypothesis is rejected, then we say the data supports another, mutually exclusive alternate hypothesis
- We never "PROVE" a hypothesis!

- How do we frame the question that forms our null hypothesis?
- At the start of the experiment, the null hypothesis is assumed to be true.
  If the data fails to support the null hypothesis, only then can we look to an alternative hypothesis

If testing something assumed to be true, the null hypothesis can reflect the assumption: Claim: "Our product has an average shipping weight of 3.5kg." average weight = 3.5kg Null hypothesis: Alternate hypothesis: average weight  $\neq$  3.5kg

If testing a claim we *want* to be true, but can't assume, we test its opposite: Claim: "This prep course improves test scores."

Null hypothesis:old scores ≥ new scoresAlternate hypothesis:old scores < new scores</td>

# The null hypothesis should contain an equality $(=, \leq, \geq)$ :

average shipping weight = 3.5kg  $H_0$ :  $\mu$  = 3.5 The alternate hypothesis should not have an equality ( $\neq$ ,<,>): average shipping weight  $\neq$  3.5kg  $H_1$ :  $\mu \neq$  3.5

# The null hypothesis should contain an equality $(=, \leq, \geq)$ :

old scores  $\geq$  new scores $H_0: \mu_0 \geq \mu_1$ The alternate hypothesis should not havean equality ( $\neq$ ,<,>):

old scores < new scores

*H*<sub>1</sub>: 
$$\mu_0 < \mu_1$$

 So what lets us reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis?

- We run an experiment and record the result.
- Assuming our null hypothesis is valid, if the probability of observing these results is very small (inside of 0.05) then we reject the null hypothesis.
- Here 0.05 is our level of significance  $\alpha = 0.05$

- The level of significance  $\alpha$  is the area inside the *tail(s)* of our null hypothesis.
- If  $\alpha = 0.05$  and the alternative hypothesis is *less than* the null, then the left-tail of our probability curve has an area of 0.05

- The level of significance  $\alpha$  is the area inside the *tail(s)* of our null hypothesis.
- If  $\alpha = 0.05$  and the alternative hypothesis is more than the null, then the right-tail of our probability curve has an area of 0.05

- The level of significance *α* is the area inside the *tail(s)* of our null hypothesis.
- If  $\alpha = 0.05$  and the alternative hypothesis is *not equal to* the null, then the two tails of our probability *curve share* an area of 0.05

 These areas establish our critical values or Z-scores:



# Tests of Mean vs. Proportion

- we'll work through full examples of Hypothesis Testing.
- There are two main types of tests:
- Test of Means
- Test of Proportions

#### Tests of Mean vs. Proportion

- Each of these two types of tests has their own test statistic to calculate.
- Let's review the situation for each test before we work through some examples in the upcoming lectures.

#### Tests of Mean vs. Proportion

#### Mean

when we look to find an average, or specific value in a population we are dealing with means

#### Proportion

whenever we say something like "35%" or "most" we are dealing with proportions

#### **Test Statistics**

• When working with means:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$
 assumes we know  
the population  
standard deviation

When working with proportions:

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{p \cdot q}{n}}} = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{p \cdot (1 - p)}{n}}}$$

# Hypothesis Testing – P-value Test

# In a traditional test:

- take the level of significance  $\alpha$
- use it to determine the critical value
- compare the test statistic to the critical value

# In a P-value test:

- take the test statistic
- use it to determine the P-value
- compare the P-value to the level of significance  $\alpha$

Hypothesis Testing – P-value Test

"If the P-value is low, the null must go!" reject H<sub>0</sub>

"If the P-value is high, the null must fly!" fail to reject H<sub>0</sub> Testing Example Exercise #1

#### Testing Exercise #1- Mean

 For this next example we'll work in the left-hand side of the probability distribution, with negative z-scores We'll show how to run the hypothesis test using the traditional method, and then with the P-value method

#### Testing Exercise #1- Mean

- A company is looking to improve  $\mu = 3.125$ their website performance.  $\sigma = 0.700$
- Currently pages have a mean load time of 3.125 seconds, with a standard deviation of 0.700 seconds.
- They hire a consulting firm to improve load times.

#### Testing Exercise #1- Mean

- Management wants a 99% confidence level
- A sample run of 40 of the new pages has a mean load time of 2.875 seconds.

$$\mu = 3.125$$
  
 $\sigma = 0.700$   
 $\alpha = 0.01$   
 $n = 40$   
 $\bar{x} = 2.875$ 

Are these results statistically faster than before?

1. State the null hypothesis:  $H_0: \mu \ge 3.125$  2. State the alternative hypothesis:  $H_1$ :  $\mu < 3.125$ 

3. Set a level of significance:  $\alpha = 0.01$ 



TRADITIONAL METHOD: 5. Test Statistic:

 $Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{2.875 - 3.125}{0.7/\sqrt{40}} = -2.259$ 

6. Critical Value: *z-table lookup on 0.01* z = -2.325

 $\mu = 3.125$  $\sigma = 0.700$  $\alpha = 0.01$ n = 40 $\bar{x} = 2.875$ Z = -2.259z = -2.325

**TRADITIONAL METHOD:** 7. Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis Since -2.259 > -2.325, the test statistic falls outside the rejection region We can't say that the new web pages are statistically faster.

 $\mu = 3.125$  $\sigma = 0.700$  $\alpha = 0.01$ n = 40 $\bar{x} = 2.875$ Z = -2.259z = -2.325

#### Testing Solution #1- Mean $\begin{array}{l} \mu = 3.125 \\ \sigma = 0.700 \end{array}$ **P-VALUE METHOD:** 5. Test Statistic: $\alpha = 0.01$ 2.875 - 3.125 $x \Pi_{y} \mu$ n = 40 $Z = \frac{1}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = -\frac{1}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ = -2.259 $0.7/\sqrt{40}$ $\bar{x} = 2.875$ 6. P-Value: Z = -2.259*z*-table lookup on -2.26 P = 0.0119P = 0.0119

**P-VALUE METHOD:** 7. Fail to Reject the Null Hypothesis Since 0.0119 > 0.01, the P-value is greater than the level of significance  $\alpha$ We can't say that the new web pages are statistically faster.

 $\mu = 3.125$  $\sigma = 0.700$  $\alpha = 0.01$ n = 40 $\bar{x} = 2.875$ Z = -2.259P = 0.0119
Testing Example Exercise #2

#### Testing Exercise #2 - Proportion

- A video game company surveys 400 of their customers and finds that 58% of the sample are teenagers.
- Is it fair to say that most of the company's customers are teenagers?

1. Set the null hypothesis:  $H_0: P \le 0.50$ 2. Set the alternative hypothesis:  $H_1: P > 0.50$ 3. Calculate the test statistic: 0.58 - 0.500.08  $\frac{0.50(1-0.50)}{400} = \frac{0.00}{0.025} = 3.2$ Z = p

4. Set a significance level:  $\alpha = 0.05$ 5. Decide what type of tail is involved:  $H_1: P > 0.50$  means a right-tail test 6. Look up the critical value: Z = 1.645

Critical Value = 1.645

7. Based on the sample, we reject the null hypothesis, and support the claim that most customers are teenagers.

> Critical Value = 1.645Test Statistic = 3.2



**NOTE:** The size of the sample matters! If we had started with a sample size of 40 instead of 400, our test statistic would have been only 1.01, and we would fail to reject Critical Value = 1.645 the null hypothesis.

Test Statistic = 3.2

Type 1and Type 2 Errors

#### Type land Type || Errors

- Often in medical fields (and other scientific fields) hypothesis testing is used to test against results where the "truth" is already known.
- For example, testing a new diagnostic test for cancer for patients you have already succesfully diagnosed by other means.

#### Type land Type II Errors

- In this situation, you already know if the Null Hypothesis is True or False.
- In these situations where you already know the "truth", then you would know its possible to commit an error with your results.

#### Type land Type || Errors

- This type of analysis is common enough that these errors already have specific names:
- Type I Error
- Type II Error

#### Type land Type I Errors

 If we reject a null hypothesis that should have been supported, we've committed a Type I Error

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no fire

Pull the fire alarm, only to find out there really was no fire.



#### Type land Type II Errors

 If we fail to reject a null hypothesis that should have been rejected we've committed a Type II Error

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no fire

Don't pull the fire alarm, only to find there really is a fire.



H<sub>0</sub>: Not pregnant H<sub>1</sub>: Are pregnant **Type I error** (false positive)



**Type II error** (false negative)



# ANOVA Analysis of Variance

- In the previous section we tested two samples to see if they likely came from the same parent population.
- What if we had three (or more) samples?
- Could we do the same thing?



• Our null hypothesis would look like:  $H_0: \mu_A = \mu_B = \mu_C$ 



• We could test each pair:  $H_0: \mu_A = \mu_B \quad \alpha = 0.05$   $H_0: \mu_A = \mu_C \quad \alpha = 0.05$  $H_0: \mu_B = \mu_C \quad \alpha = 0.05$ 



- The problem is, our overall confidence drops:  $H_0: \mu_A = \mu_B \ \alpha = 0.05$ 
  - *H*<sub>0</sub>:  $\mu_A = \mu_C \ \alpha = 0.05$
  - *H*<sub>0</sub>:  $\mu_B = \mu_C \ \alpha = 0.05$

### .95 × .95 × .95 = .857 85.7% confidence level



- This is where ANOVA comes in!
- We compute an F value, and compare it to a critical value determined by our degrees of freedom (the number of groups, and the number of items in each group)





#### Let's work with some data:

GroupA	GroupB	GroupC
37	62	50
60	27	63
52	69	58
43	64	54
40	43	49
52	54	52
55	44	53
39	31	43
39	49	65
23	57	43



#### First calculate the sample means

#### Next calculate the overall mean

	GroupA	GroupB	GroupC
	37	62	50
	60	27	63
C	52	69	58
3	43	64	54
	40	43	49
	52	54	52
	55	44	53
	39	31	43
	39	49	65
	23	57	43
,B,C	44	50	53
от	49		

μ,



ANOVA considers two types of variance: **Between Groups** how far group means stray from the total mean Within Groups how far individual values stray from their respective group mean



The F value we're trying to calculate is simply the ratio between these two variances!

 $F = \frac{Variance Between Groups}{Variance Within Groups}$ 



#### Recall the equation for variance:

$$s^{2} = \frac{\Sigma(x - \bar{x})^{2}}{n - 1} = \frac{SS}{df}$$

Here  $\sum (x - \overline{x})^2$  is the "sum of squares" *SS* and n - 1 is the "degrees of freedom" *df* 



#### So the formula for the F value becomes:



SSG = Sum of Squares Groups SSE = Sum of Squares Error df groups = degrees of freedom (groups)
df error= degrees of freedom (error)

	SSG = 420	GroupA	GroupB	GroupC
ANOVA		37	62	50
		60	27	63
Sum of Squares Group	C	52	69	58
Sum of Squares Group	5	43	64	54
$(\mu_A - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (44 - 49)^2$	= 25	40	43	49
$(110 - 1100)^2 = (50 - 49)^2$	= 1	52	54	52
$(\mu B \ \mu I 0 I) = (30 \ I ) =$		55	44	53
$(\mu_C - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (53 - 49)^2 =$	= 16	39	31	43
	4.2	39	49	65
Multiply by the pumber of	TL	23	57	43
itoms in each group.	<mark>µ<sub>А,В,С</sub></mark>	44	50	53
$42 \times 10 =$	= 420 <sup>µтот</sup>	49		

	SSG = 420	GroupA	GroupB	GroupC
ANOVA	$df_{amounts} = 2$	37	62	50
	- groups -	60	27	63
Dearees of Freedom G	roups	52	69	58
		43	64	54
$df_{groups} = n_{groups} - 1$		40	43	49
= 3 - 1		52	54	52
2		55	44	53
= Z		39	31	43
		39	49	65
		23	57	43
	μ <sub>А,В,С</sub>	44	50	53
	μ <sub>тот</sub>	49		



	SSG = 420	GroupA	GroupB	GroupC
ANOVA	$df_{around} = 2$	37	62	50
	correction = 2200	60	27	63
	33E - 3300	52	69	58
	$aJ_{error} = 27$	43	64	54
Degrees of Freedom Error		40	43	49
			54	52
$df_{error} = (n_{rows} - 1) * n_{groups}$			44	53
=(10-1)*3			31	43
= 27 <sup>µ</sup> а,в,с		39	49	65
		23	57	43
		44	50	53
	μтот	49		

SSG = 420	GroupA	GroupB	GroupC
ANOVA $df_{around} = 2$	37	62	50
SF = 2200	60	27	63
35L - 3500	52	69	58
$a_{ferror} = 27$	43	64	54
Plug these into our formula:	40	43	49
	52	54	52
$\frac{SS}{d}$ $\frac{420}{210}$	55	44	53
$F = \frac{a \ group}{ss} = \frac{2}{3300} = \frac{210}{1000} = 1.718$	39	31	43
$\frac{df_{error}}{df_{error}} = \frac{3300}{27} = 122.22$	39	49	65
	23	57	43
<mark>µ<sub>A,B,C</sub></mark>	44	50	53
μ <sub>τοτ</sub>	49		

## **F** Distribution

#### **F**-Distribution



#### **F**-Distribution

#### Look up our critical value from an F-table

use a table set for 95% confidence find numerator df find denominator df critical value = 3.35



Recall our null hypothesis:  $H_0: \mu_A = \mu_B = \mu_C$ Since F is less than F<sub>critical</sub> 1.718 < 3.354we fail to reject the null hypothesis!



#### ANOVA Exercise #1



- In an effort to receive faster payment of invoices, a company introduces two discount plans
- One set of customers is given a 2%discount if they pay their invoice early
- Another set is offered a 1% discount
- A third set is not offered any incentive

#### ANOVA Exercise #1

The results are as follows:
Using ANOVA, can we say that the offers result in faster payments?



2% disc	1% disc	no disc
11	21	14
16	15	11
9	23	18
14	10	16
10	16	21
#### 1 Calculate the means



	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
	11	21	14
	16	15	11
	9	23	18
	14	10	16
	10	16	21
u <sub>2,1,0</sub>	12	17	16
ц <sub>тот</sub>	15		

SSG = 70

#### 2. Find Sum of Squares Groups $(\mu_2 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (12 - 15)^2 = 9$ $(\mu_1 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (17 - 15)^2 = 4$ $(\mu_0 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (16 - 15)^2 = 1$ 14 $\mu_2$ Multiply by the number of $\mu_{T}$

items in each group:

 $14 \times 5 = 70$ 



	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
	11	21	14
	16	15	11
	9	23	18
	14	10	16
	10	16	21
1,0	12	17	16
от	15		

$$SSG = 70$$
$$df_{groups} = 2$$

S	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
5	11	21	14
	16	15	11
	9	23	18
	14	10	16
	10	16	21
μ <sub>2,1,0</sub>	12	17	16
µ <sub>тот</sub>	15		

Ship To

### 3. Degrees of Freedom Group $df_{groups} = n_{groups} - 1$ = 3 - 1= 2

SSG = 70 $df_{groups} = 2$ SSE = 198

#### 2% disc 1% disc no disc $\mu_{2,1,0}$ μ<sub>тот</sub>

HP-PAHASmp TO

#### 4. Sum of Squares Error

<b>(x<sub>2</sub>-μ<sub>2</sub>)</b> <sup>2</sup>	<b>(x<sub>1</sub>-μ<sub>1</sub>)</b> ²	<b>(x<sub>0</sub>-μ<sub>0</sub>)</b> <sup>2</sup>
1	16	4
16	4	25
9	36	4
4	49	0
4	1	25
34	106	58

TOTAL

$$SSG = 70$$
  

$$df_{groups} = 2$$
  

$$SSE = 198$$
  

$$df_{error} = 12$$



5. Degrees of Freedom Error
$df_{error} = (n_{rows} - 1) * n_{groups}$
= (5 - 1) * 3
= 12

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
	11	21	14
	16	15	11
	9	23	18
	14	10	16
	10	16	21
μ <sub>2,1,0</sub>	12	17	16
μ <sub>τοτ</sub>	15		

ANOVA Exercise #1	$SG = 70$ $f_{groups}$ $SE = 19$ $f_{error} = 10$	) = 2 98 : 12	P Bano To	
6. Calculate F value:		2% disc	1% disc	no disc
		11	21	14
<u> </u>		16	15	11
$F = \frac{df groups}{100} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{35}{100} = 2.12$	1	9	23	18
$\frac{SS}{df} = \frac{198}{12} = 16.5$		14	10	16
ujerror 12		10	16	21
7. Look up F <sub>critical</sub> : 3.885		12	17	16
		15		



Ship To

 $\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{critical}}$ 

=3.885

34

 $\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{calculated}}$ 

=2.121

Since F falls to the left of  $F_{critical}$ 2.121 < 3.885 we fail to reject the null hypothesis!

We don't have enough to support the idea that our offers changed the average number of days that customers took to pay their invoices!



# Two-WayANOVA

- In the previous examples we used one-way ANOVA to test one independent variable.
- For the invoice problem, the independent variable was the incentive offered.
- The dependent variable was the time it took to receive payment.

- Two-Way ANOVA lets us test two independent variables at the same time
   For the invoice example, we might place
- For the invoice example, we might also consider the amount due
- We would have 3 invoices for \$50, 3 for \$100, etc. and offer different incentives at each dollar amount.

- The resulting data might look like this:
- Here, each row or dollar amount is called a block.

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
\$50	16	23	21
\$100	14	21	16
\$150	11	16	18
\$200	10	15	14
\$250	9	10	11

 Essentially, we want to isolate and remove any variance contributed by the blocks, to better understand the variance in the groups.

So how do we do that?

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
\$50	16	23	21
\$100	14	21	16
\$150	11	16	18
\$200	10	15	14
\$250	9	10	11

#### Two-WayANOVA

- The goal of ANOVA is to separate different aspects of the total variance.
- In the previous examples
   we had only
   Sum of Squares Groups (SSG)
  - and Sum of Squares Error (SSE) » within groups



» between groups

#### Two-WayANOVA

 These two variances
 SSG and SSE add up to our total variance
 Sum of Squares Total (SST)



Sum of Squares Groups (SSG) » between groups and Sum of Squares Error (SSE) » within groups

Two-WayANOVA

Now we'll look at variance	
non men look de valiance	Bloc
between rows, or blocks	Bloc
	Bloc

20		Group 1	Group 2	
LE	<b>Block A</b>	8	11	
5	Block B	10	12	
	Block C	12	13	μ <sub>тот</sub>
	μ <sub>1,2</sub>	10	12	

Sum of Squares Groups (SSG) » between groups and Sum of Squares Error (SSE) » within groups



 First calculate the block means

 Then calculate the Sum of Squares Blocks (SSB) » between blocks
 Sum of Squares Groups (SSG) » between groups
 and Sum of Squares Error (SSE) » within groups







ANOVA still considers the relationship between the SSG and the SSE



Sum of Squares Blocks (SSB)» between blocksSum of Squares Groups (SSG)» between groupsand Sum of Squares Error (SSE)» within groups

Two-WayANOVA



 By calculating the SSB, we remove some of the variance in SSE



Sum of Squares Blocks (SSB)» between blocksSum of Squares Groups (SSG)» between groupsand Sum of Squares Error (SSE)» within groups



Sum of Squares Groups (SSG)



12

SSG = 6



13

11

**Block A**  $(\mu_1 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (10 - 11)^2 = 1$ **Block B Block C**  $(\mu_2 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (12 - 11)^2 = 1$  $\mu_{1.2}$ 2 multiply by the number of items in each group:  $2 \times 3 = 6$ 

#### Two-WayANOVA



Sum of Squares Blocks (SSB)  

$$(\mu_A - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (9.5 - 11)^2 = 2.25$$
  
 $(\mu_B - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (11 - 11)^2 = 0$   
 $(\mu_C - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (12.5 - 11)^2 = 2.25$   
4.5



roups

$$SSG = 6$$
$$SSB = 9$$

multiply by the number of items in each block:  $4.5 \times 2 = 9$ 

Two-WayANOVA



Sum of Squares Total (SST)  $(8 - 11)^2 + (11 - 11)^2 +$   $(10 - 11)^2 + (12 - 11)^2 +$  $(12 - 11)^2 + (13 - 11)^2 = 16$ 

no need to multiply since every item is represented



SSG = 6SSB = 9SST = 16



no need to multiply since we're working with totals already SSG = 6 SSB = 9 SST = 16 SSE = 1

SSG df<sub>groups</sub> <u>SSE</u> df<sub>errer</sub>

11

Group 2 µ<sub>A,B,C</sub>

13

11

12

Two-WayANOVA



So how do we calculate F?

Degrees of Freedom Groups is unchanged:

$$df_{groups} = n_{groups} - 1$$
$$= 2 - 1$$
$$= 1$$

	Group 1	Group 2	μ <sub>Α,Β,C</sub>
Block A	8	11	
Block B	10	12	
Block C	12	13	
μ <sub>1,2</sub>			11

$$SSG = 6$$
  

$$SSB = 9$$
  

$$SST = 16$$
  

$$SSE = 1$$
  

$$df_{groups} = 1$$

Two-WayANOVA

 $F = \frac{Var.Between\ Groups}{Var.Within\ Groups} = \frac{\frac{SSG}{df_{groups}}}{\frac{SSE}{df_{groups}}}$ 

So how do we calculate F?

Degrees of Freedom Error has changed:

∽j error

$$df_{error} = (n_{blocks} - 1)(n_{groups} - 1) = (3 - 1)(2 - 1) = 2 SSG = 6 SSB = 9 SST = 16 SSE = 1 df_{groups} = 2 \\df_{groups} = 2$$

Two-WayANOVA



So how do we calculate F?



	Group 1	Group 2	μ <sub>A,B,C</sub>
Block A	8	11	
Block B	10	12	
Block C	12	13	
μ <sub>1,2</sub>			11

$$SSG = 6$$
  

$$SSB = 9$$
  

$$SST = 16$$
  

$$SSE = 1$$
  

$$df_{groups} = 1$$
  

$$df_{error} = 2$$

Two-WayANOVA	$F = \frac{Var.Be}{Var.W}$	etween Gro Vithin Grou	$\frac{ups}{ups} = \frac{\overline{d}}{\overline{d}}$	SSG groups <u>SSE</u> ferror
$F_{groups} = 12$ feels like a high value.	Block A Block B	Group 1 8 10	Group 2 11 12	μ <sub>А,В,С</sub>
However, in a two-way ANOVA <i>F</i> <sub>critical</sub> is found for groups and blocks separately!	Δ, <sup>μ</sup> 1,2	$SSG = 0$ $SSB = 0$ $SST = 1$ $SSE = 1$ $df_{group}$ $df_{error}$	$     \begin{array}{l}       6 \\       9 \\       16 \\       1 \\       s = 1 \\       = 2     \end{array} $	11

#### Two-WayANOVA

 $F_{groups} = 12$  feels like a high value.

For groups, with 1df in the numerator and 2 df in the denominator,

$$F_{critical} = 18.5$$





$$SSG = 6$$
  

$$SSB = 9$$
  

$$SST = 16$$
  

$$SSE = 1$$
  

$$df_{groups} = 1$$
  

$$df_{error} = 2$$

- Let's go back to the invoice problem, and add a new independent variable
- Here each block represents an invoice amount
- The dependent variable is still days elapsed until payment

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc
\$50	16	23	21
\$100	14	21	16
\$150	11	16	18
\$200	10	15	14
\$250	9	10	11

 Calculate the group means, the block means, and the total mean

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{ extbf{block}}$
\$50	16	23	21	
\$100	14	21	16	
\$150	11	16	18	
\$200	10	15	14	
\$250	9	10	11	
μ <sub>col</sub>				15

2. Sum of Squares Groups  

$$(\mu_2 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (12 - 15)^2 = 9$$
  
 $(\mu_1 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (17 - 15)^2 = 4$   
 $(\mu_0 - \mu_{TOT})^2 = (16 - 15)^2 = 1$   
14  
Multiply by the number of  
items in each group:

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{ extbf{block}}$
\$50	16	23	21	
\$100	14	21	16	
\$150	11	16	18	
\$200	10	15	14	
\$250	9	10	11	
μ <sub>col</sub>				15

GN

SSG = 70

 $14 \times 5 = 70$ 

3. Degrees of Freedom Groups  

$$df_{groups} = n_{groups} - 1$$
  
 $= 3 - 1$   
 $= 2$ 

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{ extbf{block}}$
\$50	16	23	21	
\$100	14	21	16	
\$150	11	16	18	
\$200	10	15	14	
\$250	9	10	11	
μ <sub>col</sub>				15
			-	

3

SIN

SSG = 70  $df_{groups} = 2$ 

4. Sum of Squares Blocks  $(\mu_{50} - \mu_{T0T})^2 = (20 - 15)^2 = 25$  $(\mu_{100} - \mu_{T0T})^2 = (17 - 15)^2 = 4$  $(\mu_{200} - \mu_{T0T})^2 = (15 - 15)^2 = 0$  $(\mu_{200} - \mu_{T0T})^2 = (13 - 15)^2 = 4$  $(\mu_{250} - \mu_{T0T})^2 = (10 - 15)^2 = 25$ 58  $58 \times 3 = 174$ 

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{ extbf{block}}$	
\$50	16	23	21		
\$100	14	21	16		
\$150	11	16	18		
\$200	10	15	14		
\$250	9	10	11		
μ <sub>col</sub> 15					
$\frac{SSG = 70}{SSB = 174}  df_{groups} = 2$					

### 5. Sum of Squares Total

<b>(x<sub>2</sub>-μ<sub>tot</sub>)</b> ²	(X <sub>1</sub> -μ <sub>tot</sub> )²	(x <sub>0</sub> -μ <sub>tot</sub> )²
1	64	36
1	36	1
16	1	9
25	0	1
36	25	16
79	126	63
	TOTAL	

2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{\text{block}}$		
16	23	21			
14	21	16			
11	16	18			
10	15	14			
9	10	11			
			15		
$SSG = 70 \qquad df_{groups} = 2$ $SSB = 174 \qquad SST = 268$					
	2% disc 16 14 11 10 9 = 70 = 174	2%       1%         disc       disc         16       23         14       21         11       16         10       15         9       10         = 70       dj         = 174       dj	2%       1%       no         disc       disc       disc         16       23       21         16       23       21         14       21       16         11       16       18         10       15       14         9       10       11         = 70 $df_{groups}$ = 174 $df_{groups}$		

3

## ANOVA Exercise #2 6. Sum of Squares Error SSE = SST - SSG - SSB= 268 - 70 - 174 = 24

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{\text{block}}$	
\$50	16	23	21		
\$100	14	21	16		
\$150	11	16	18		
\$200	10	15	14		
\$250	9	10	11		
μ <sub>col</sub>				15	
$SSG = 70$ $SSB = 174$ $SST = 268$ $SSF = 24$ $df_{groups} = 2$					

7. Degrees of Freedom Error  

$$df_{error} = (n_{blocks} - 1)(n_{groups} - 1)$$
  
 $= (5 - 1)(3 - 1)$   
 $= 8$ 

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{\text{block}}$	
\$50	16	23	21		
\$100	14	21	16		
\$150	11	16	18		
\$200	10	15	14		
\$250	9	10	11		
μ <sub>col</sub>				15	
$SSG = 70   df_{groups} = 2 SSB = 174   df_{error} = 8 SST = 268$					

SSE = 24

-
## **ANOVA** Exercise #2 2% 1% no $\mu_{\text{block}}$ 8. Calculate F disc disc disc \$50 16 23 21 \$100 14 21 16 SSG <u>70</u> \$150 df<sub>groups</sub> 11 16 18 $\frac{35}{3} = 11.67$ 2 24 \$200 10 15 14 SSE \$250 9 11 10 df<sub>error</sub> 8 15 $\mu_{col}$ SSG = 70 $df_{groups} = 2$ $df_{error} = 8$ SSB = 174SST = 268F = 11.67SSE = 24

## ANOVA Exercise #2

9. Find F<sub>critical</sub>  $\alpha = 0.05$  $df_{numerator} = 2$  $df_{denominator} = 8$  $F_{critical} = 4.$ **46** 

	2% disc	1% disc	no disc	$\mu_{ extbf{block}}$
\$50	16	23	21	
\$100	14	21	16	
\$150	11	16	18	
\$200	10	15	14	
\$250	9	10	11	
μ <sub>col</sub>				15
$\begin{array}{ll} SSG = 70 \\ SSB = 174 \\ SST = 268 \\ SSE = 24 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} df_{grouupps} \\ = 2 \\ df_{error} = 8 \\ F = 11.67 \\ F_{critical} = 4.46 \end{array}$				

## ANOVA Exercise #2



## Since F falls to the right of $F_{critical}$ 4.46 < 11.67 we reject the null hypothesis!



SSG = 70 SSB = 174 SST = 268SSE = 24  $df_{groups} = 2$  $df_{error} = 8$ F = 11.67 $F_{critical} = 4.46$