

# VARIANCE ESTIMATES AND THE F RATIO

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# Today's Class

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- Completing the analysis (the ANOVA table).
- Evaluating the F ratio.
- Errors in hypothesis testing.
- A complete numerical example.

# Completing the Analysis

## The ANOVA Table

# Completing the Analysis

- Table 3-1 presents a summary table of the analysis of variance that contains entries of the source, the basic ratio, the sum of squares, the degree of freedom, the mean squares, and the F value.
- Note that variance is  $SS/df$ .

*Table 3.1: Summary of the analysis of variance*

Source	Bracket Term	$SS$	$df$	$MS$	$F$
$A$	$[A] = \frac{\sum A_j^2}{n}$	$[A] - [T]$	$a - 1$	$\frac{SS_A}{df_A}$	$\frac{MS_A}{MS_{S/A}}$
$S/A$	$[Y] = \sum Y_{ij}^2$	$[Y] - [A]$	$a(n - 1)$	$\frac{SS_{S/A}}{df_{S/A}}$	
Total	$[T] = \frac{T^2}{an}$	$[Y] - [T]$	$an - 1$		

# Degrees of Freedom

- The degree of freedom,  $df$ , associated with a sum of squares corresponds to the number of scores with independent information that enter into the calculation of the sum of squares.
- The general rule for computing the  $df$  of any sum of square is
  - ▣  $df = (\text{number of independent observations}) - (\text{number of restraints})$
  - or
  - ▣  $df = (\text{number of independent observation}) - (\text{number of population estimates})$ .

# Degrees of Freedom

- Note that  $df_T = df_A + df_{S/A}$  and  $(a)(n)-1 = (a-1)+a(n-1)$ .
- For example, for data in Table 2-2,  $SS_T$  has  $df_T = df_A + df_{S/A} = (3-1)+3(5-1) = 14$  given the estimate of the population mean is  $[Y] = 10$  and, consequently, there is one constraint.

# Mean Squares

- The mean squares are given by:  $MS = SS/df$ .
- So far, we have two mean squares:

$$MS_A = \frac{SS_A}{df_A} \quad MS_{S/A} = \frac{SS_{S/A}}{df_{S/A}}$$

# Confidence Intervals for Treatment Means

- The confidence interval for a population mean is given by the formula:

$$\bar{Y}_j - t \times s_{M_j} \leq \mu \leq \bar{Y}_j + t \times s_{M_j}$$

- Where  $\bar{Y}_j$  is the mean of the treatment group
- $t$  is a critical value with the degrees of freedom of  $n_i - 1$
- $s_{M_j}$  is the estimated standard error of the mean or  $s_i / \sqrt{n_i}$ .
- For the pooled estimate, the degrees of freedom will be  $a(n-1)$  and  $s_M$  will be  $\sqrt{\{MS_{S/A}/n_i\}}$ .



# The F Ratio

- The formula of the F ratio is  $F = MS_A / MS_{S/A}$
- The degrees of freedom are:
  - ▣  $df_A = df_1 = a - 1$
  - ▣  $df_{S/A} = df_2 = a(n - 1)$ .
- The F ratio is approximately 1.0 when the null hypothesis is true and is greater than 1.0 when the null hypothesis is false.



# Evaluating the F Ratio

# The Sampling Distribution of F

- A frequency distribution of a statistic (e.g., F) is called a sampling distribution of the statistic.
- Suppose that for an experiment  $a = 3$ ,  $n = 5$  (or  $N = 15$ ), and the null hypothesis is true so that  $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ .
- Assume that we draw a very large number of such experiments each consisting of three groups of 5 scores, and that we compute the value of F for each case.
- We can construct a graph relating F and frequency of occurrence [see Figure 3-1 for  $F(2, 12)$ ].

# The F Table

- The exact shape of the F distribution is determined by the number of df's associated with the numerator and denominator mean squares in the F ratio.
- We will use  $F(df_{\text{num.}}, df_{\text{denom.}})$  or  $F_{df1, df2}$ .
- An F table is found in Appendix A.1 (see pp. 571-575).

# Using the F Table

- A particular value of  $F$  in this table is specified by three factors:
  - ▣ (1) the numerator  $df$
  - ▣ (2) the denominator  $df$
  - ▣ (3) the value of  $\alpha$ 
    - Where  $\alpha$  refers to the proportion of area to the right of an ordinate drawn at  $F_\alpha$ .
    - The  $\alpha$  levels,  $\alpha = .10, .05, .025, .01$ , and  $.001$ , are ones most commonly encountered, and these are listed in the table.

# The Distribution of F When the Null Hypothesis Is False

- The theoretical distribution when  $H_0$  is false is called the noncentral F (i.e.,  $F'$ ) distribution.

# Testing the Null Hypothesis

- The two hypotheses are:

$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3.$

$H_1: \text{not all } \mu\text{'s are equal.}$

- Assume that we have conducted an experiment and that we have computed the value of  $F$ .
- Suppose we could agree on a dividing line for any  $F$  distribution, where values of  $F$  falling above the line are considered to be unlikely (i.e., incompatible with  $H_0$ ) and values of  $F$  falling below the line as considered to be likely (i.e., compatible with  $H_0$ ).

# Decision Rules

- One decision rule is to reject the null hypothesis when the observed  $F$  falls within the region of incompatibility.
- In practice, there is fairly common agreement on a probability of  $\alpha = .05$  to define the region of incompatibility for the  $F$  distribution.



# Decision Rules

- This probability may be called the significance level. The rejection rule is:
- Reject  $H_0$  when  $F_{\text{observed}} \geq F_{(\alpha)}(df_{\text{num.}}, df_{\text{denom.}})$ ;  
retain  $H_0$  otherwise.
- A researcher sometimes reports that an F is significant at the one percent level of significance.
- Occasionally a researcher reports the exact probability of  $F_{\text{observed}}$ , a value that is provided automatically by most statistical computer programs.
- The exact probability refers to the proportion of the sampling distribution of the F statistic fall at or above (i.e., more extreme) the F found in an experiment.
- We do not need to consult an F table to determine significance, but instead we simply compare the exact probability with the chosen significance level and reject  $H_0$  if the exact probability is smaller than the chosen significance level.
- For example, provided that  $\alpha = .05$ , reject  $H_0$  if  $p \leq .05$  and retain  $H_0$  otherwise.

# Avoiding Common Misuses of Hypothesis Testing (p. 45-46)

- Never lose site of your data.
- Remember that not all null hypotheses represent interesting or plausible outcomes of the experiment and that their rejection is not inevitably informative.
- Remember that the null-hypothesis test only gives information about how likely the sampling operations are to have produced your effect.
- When you find a significant effect, ask what it means.
- Always interpret your results in the context of other studies in the field.



# Errors in Hypothesis Testing

# Errors in Hypothesis Testing

- If we reject  $H_0$  when it is true, then we make the type I error.
- If we retain  $H_0$  when it is false, then we make the type II error.
- Note that  $\alpha$  is the probability of type I error, and that  $\beta$  is the probability of type II error (see Table 3-3 on page 47).
- Power refers to the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when an alternative hypothesis is true (i.e.,  $\text{power} = 1 - \beta$ ).



# A Complete Numerical Example

# Vigilance Task While Sleep Deprived

- There are  $a = 4$  conditions, namely, 4, 12, 20, and 28 hours without sleep.
- There are  $n = 4$  subjects randomly assigned to each of the different treatment conditions.
- The vigilance task score represents the number of failures to spot objects on a radar screen during a 30-minute test period.



# Data (computation p. 51)

Hours without sleep			
4 hr	12 hr	20 hr	28 hr
$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$A_4$
37	36	43	76
22	45	75	66
22	47	66	43
25	23	46	62

# Final Thought

- The F-Ratio is the vehicle to test the null hypothesis (es) of the experiment.
- The F-Ratio is composed of two variances: between groups and within groups.
- The ratio follows the idea of variance partitioning that will be present throughout the class.
- Don't get too wrapped up into the formulae presented today: most every calculation will be done using a computer.





# Next Class

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- SPSS Introduction