#### **Tests for Multivariate Means II**

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STAT 4690-Applied Multivariate Analysis

# Repeated Mesures Design

#### **Contrast matrices**

• A contrast is a linear combination  $\theta$  of variables such that its coefficients sum to zero.

• E.g. 
$$\theta = (1, -1, 0)$$
 or  $\theta = (2, -1, -1)$ .

 A contrast matrix is a matrix C whose rows are contrasts (so the row-sums are zero) and are linearly independent.

• E.g. 
$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

 As their name suggests, contrasts and contrast matrices are used to contrast (or compare) different combinations of variables.

3

#### **Testing Structural Relations**

- Let C be a  $q \times p$  contrast matrix, and let  $\overline{\mathbf{Y}}$  be the (p-dimensional) sample mean and  $S_n$ , the  $(p \times p)$  sample covariance.
- We can test the null hypothesis  $H_0: C\mu = 0$  using Hotelling's  $T^2$ :

$$T^2 = n(C\bar{\mathbf{Y}})^T (CS_n C^T)^{-1} (C\bar{\mathbf{Y}}).$$

• What is the sampling distribution?  $C\bar{\mathbf{Y}}$  is q-dimensional and  $CS_nC^T$  is  $q\times q$ , therefore

$$T^{2} \sim \frac{(n-1)q}{(n-q)}F(q, n-q).$$

#### Repeated Measurements i

- Suppose that our random sample  $\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_n \sim N_p(\mu, \Sigma)$  be such that each component of  $\mathbf{Y}_i$  represent a repeated measurement on the same experimental unit.
  - E.g. Grades on different tests, blood pressure measurements at different doctor visits.
- Question: Is there any evidence that the means differ between the measurements?
  - ullet Or in other words: are all components of  $\mu$  equal?

### Repeated Measurements is

• Consider the following  $(p-1) \times p$  contrast matrix:

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We thus have

$$C\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 - \mu_2 \\ \mu_1 - \mu_3 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_1 - \mu_p \end{pmatrix}.$$

#### Repeated Measurements iii

• To test the null hypothesis  $H_0: C\mu = 0$ , we use  $T^2$  as above:

$$T^2 = n(C\bar{\mathbf{Y}})^T (CS_n C^T)^{-1} (C\bar{\mathbf{Y}}),$$

where

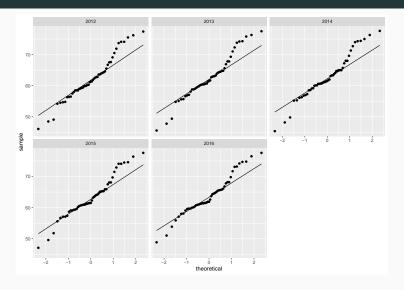
$$T^2 \sim \frac{(n-1)(p-1)}{(n-p+1)} F(p-1, n-p+1).$$

#### Example i

#### Example ii

```
# QQ-plots to assess normality
dataset %>%
   ggplot(aes(sample = life_expectancy)) +
   stat_qq() + stat_qq_line() +
  facet_wrap(~year)
```

## Example iii



#### Example iv

```
1, 0, -1, 0, 0,
          1, 0, 0, -1, 0,
          1, 0, 0, 0, -1),
        ncol = 5, byrow = TRUE)
      [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
##
## [1,] 1 -1 0 0 0
```

## [2,] 1 0 -1 0 0 ## [3,] 1 0 0 -1 0

### Example v

```
## [4,] 1 0 0 0 -1

# Transform data into wide format
dataset <- dataset %>%
    spread(year, life_expectancy)

head(dataset)
```

#### Example vi

```
## 1 Algeria 76.2 76.3 76.3 76.4 76.50
## 2 Angola 58.5 58.8 59.2 59.6 60.00
## 3 Benin 61.4 61.7 62.0 62.3 62.60
## 4 Botswana 56.5 56.9 57.3 58.7 60.13
## 5 Burkina Faso 59.9 60.3 60.6 60.9 61.20
## 6 Burundi 61.1 61.3 61.4 61.4 61.40
```

#### Example vii

```
# Compute test statistic
dataset <- dataset %>%
  select(-country) %>%
  as.matrix()
n <- nrow(dataset); p <- ncol(dataset)</pre>
mu_hat <- colMeans(dataset)</pre>
mu hat
```

```
## 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016
## 62.14314 62.54510 62.77843 63.27843 63.78843
```

#### Example viii

```
Sn <- cov(dataset)
test statistic <- n * t(C %*% mu hat) %*%
  solve(C %*% Sn %*% t(C)) %*% (C %*% mu hat)
const <- (n - 1)*(p - 1)/(n - p + 1)
critical val \leftarrow const * qf(0.95, df1 = p - 1,
                            df2 = n - p + 1
drop(test statistic) > critical val
```

## [1] TRUE

#### Other contrast matrices i

What about other contrast matrices of the same size? For example:

$$\tilde{C} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Do we get the same inference results? YES
- Let  $C, \tilde{C}$  be two  $(p-1) \times p$  contrast matrices.

#### Other contrast matrices ii

• Since their rows are independent, there exists an invertible  $(p-1)\times (p-1)$  matrix B such that  $\tilde{C}=BC$ .

$$(\tilde{C}\bar{\mathbf{Y}})^{T}(\tilde{C}S_{n}\tilde{C}^{T})^{-1}(\tilde{C}\bar{\mathbf{Y}}) = (BC\bar{\mathbf{Y}})^{T}(BCS_{n}C^{T}B^{T})^{-1}(BC\bar{\mathbf{Y}})$$
$$= (C\bar{\mathbf{Y}})^{T}B^{T}(BCS_{n}C^{T}B^{T})^{-1}B(C\bar{\mathbf{Y}})$$
$$= (C\bar{\mathbf{Y}})^{T}(CS_{n}C^{T})^{-1}(C\bar{\mathbf{Y}})$$

• In other words, we get the same test statistic whether we use C or  $\tilde{C}$ .

#### **Confidence regions and Confidence Intervals**

- As discussed earlier, we can use  $T^2$  to create a confidence region around  $C\bar{\mathbf{Y}}$ :

$$T^2 \le \frac{(n-1)(p-1)}{(n-p+1)} F_{\alpha}(p-1, n-p+1).$$

• We can also construct  $T^2$  intervals for any contrast  $\theta$ :

$$\left(\theta \bar{\mathbf{Y}} \pm \sqrt{\frac{n(n-1)(p-1)}{(n-p+1)}} F_{\alpha}(p-1,n-p+1) \sqrt{\theta^T S_n \theta}\right).$$

 Or we can construct Bonferroni-adjusted confidence intervals for each row c<sub>i</sub> of C:

$$\left(c_i \bar{\mathbf{Y}} \pm t_{\alpha/2(p-1)}(n-1)(\sqrt{c_i^T S_n c_i/n})\right).$$

## Example (cont'd) i

```
alpha <- 0.05
mu_contr <- C %*% mu_hat
sample_cov <- diag(C %*% Sn %*% t(C))
mu_contr</pre>
```

```
## [,1]
## [1,] -0.4019608
## [2,] -0.6352941
## [3,] -1.1352941
## [4,] -1.6452941
```

## Example (cont'd) ii

## Example (cont'd) iii

```
simul ci
                 \lceil .1 \rceil \qquad \lceil .2 \rceil
##
## [1,] -0.5902699 -0.2136517
## [2.] -0.9641199 -0.3064684
## [3,] -1.5762989 -0.6942893
## [4,] -2.3083908 -0.9821975
bonf ci
                 \lceil .1 \rceil \qquad \lceil .2 \rceil
##
## [1,] -0.5495288 -0.2543928
## [2,] -0.8929777 -0.3776105
## [3,] -1.4808865 -0.7897017
```

## [4.] -2.1649283 -1.1256599

#### **Comments**

- The test above is best used when we cannot make any assumptions about the covariance structure  $\Sigma$ .
- When we assume  $\Sigma$  has a special structure, it is possible to build more powerful tests.
  - E.g. If the repeated measurements are taken over time, it may be reasonable to assume an autoregressive structure.
- Similarly, if we are interested in a specific relationship between the components of  $\mu$ , it is possible to build more powerful tests.
  - E.g. Linear relationship between the components when measurements are taken over time.

# Comparing two multivariate means

#### Equal covariance case i

- Now let's assume we have two independent multivariate samples of (potentially) different sizes:
  - $\mathbf{Y}_{11}, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_{1n_1} \sim N_n(\mu_1, \Sigma)$
  - $\mathbf{Y}_{21}, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_{2n_2} \sim N_p(\mu_2, \Sigma)$
- We are interested in testing  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ .
  - Note that we assume equal covariance for the time being.
- Let  $\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_1, \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_2$  be their respective sample means, and let  $S_1, S_2$ , their respective sample covariances.

#### Equal covariance case ii

First, note that

$$\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_2 \sim N_p \left( \mu_1 - \mu_2, \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right) \Sigma \right).$$

- Second, we also have that  $(n_i 1)S_i$  is an estimator for  $(n_i 1)\Sigma$ , for i = 1, 2.
  - Therefore, we can *pool* both  $(n_1 1)S_1$  and  $(n_2 1)S_2$  into a single estimator for  $\Sigma$ :

$$S_{pool} = \frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1 + (n_2 - 1)S_2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}.$$

### Equal covariance case iii

• Putting these two observations together, we get a test statistic for  $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ :

$$T^{2} = (\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{1} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{2})^{T} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{n_{1}} + \frac{1}{n_{2}} \right) S_{pool} \right]^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{1} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{2}).$$

Under the null hypothesis, we get

$$T^2 \sim \frac{(n_1 + n_2 - 2)p}{(n_1 + n_2 - p - 1)} F(p, n_1 + n_2 - p - 1).$$

#### Example i

## [1] 51 2

#### Example ii

## [1] 45 2

#### Example iii

```
n1 <- nrow(dataset1); n2 <- nrow(dataset2)</pre>
p <- ncol(dataset1)</pre>
(mu hat1 <- colMeans(dataset1))</pre>
##
    life expectancy infant mortality
            62.14314
                                52.32745
##
(mu hat2 <- colMeans(dataset2))</pre>
```

#### Example iv

(S2 <- cov(dataset2))

```
##
   life expectancy infant mortality
          73.76667 20.84000
##
(S1 <- cov(dataset1))
##
                  life expectancy infant mortality
                          48.7241
                                        -107.1926
## life expectancy
## infant mortality
                   -107.1926
                                         504, 2972
```

#### Example v

```
## life_expectancy infant_mortality
## life_expectancy 26.08727 -65.19568
## infant_mortality -65.19568 256.40655
```

```
# Even though it doesn't look reasonable
# We will assume equal covariance for now
```

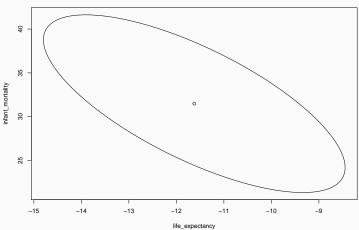
### Example vi

## [1] TRUE

```
mu hat diff <- mu hat1 - mu hat2
S pool <-((n1 - 1)*S1 + (n2 - 1)*S2)/(n1+n2-2)
test statistic <- t(mu hat diff) %*%
  solve((n1^-1 + n2^-1)*S pool) \%*\% mu hat diff
const <- (n1 + n2 - 2)*p/(n1 + n2 - p - 2)
critical val <- const * qf(0.95, df1 = p,
                           df2 = n1 + n2 - p - 2)
drop(test statistic) > critical val
```

33

#### Comparing Africa vs. Asia



#### Unequal covariance case i

- Now let's turn our attention to the case where the covariance matrices are **not** equal:
  - $\mathbf{Y}_{11}, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_{1n_1} \sim N_p(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$
  - $\mathbf{Y}_{21}, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_{2n_2} \sim N_p(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$
- Recall that in the univariate case, the test statistic that is typically used is called Welch's t-statistic.
  - The general idea is to adjust the degrees of freedom of the t-distribution.
  - Note: This is actually the default test used by t.test!
- Unfortunately, there is no single best approximation in the multivariate case.

#### Unequal covariance case ii

First, observe that we have

$$\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_2 \sim N_p \left( \mu_1 - \mu_2, \frac{1}{n_1} \Sigma_1 + \frac{1}{n_2} \Sigma_2 \right).$$

• Therefore, under  $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ , we have

$$(\mathbf{\bar{Y}}_1 - \mathbf{\bar{Y}}_2)^T \left(\frac{1}{n_1}\Sigma_1 + \frac{1}{n_2}\Sigma_2\right)^{-1} (\mathbf{\bar{Y}}_1 - \mathbf{\bar{Y}}_2) \sim \chi^2(p).$$

• Since  $S_i$  converges to  $\Sigma_i$  as  $n_i\to\infty$ , we can use Slutsky's theorem to argue that if both  $n_1-p$  and  $n_2-p$  are "large", then

$$T^2 = (\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_2)^T \left(\frac{1}{n_1}S_1 + \frac{1}{n_2}S_2\right)^{-1} (\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}_2) \approx \chi^2(p).$$

#### Unequal covariance case iii

- Unfortunately, the definition of "large" in this case depends on how different  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  are.
- Alternatives:
  - Use one of the many approximations to the null distribution of  $T^2$  (e.g. see Timm (2002), Section 3.9; Rencher (1998), Section 3.9.2).
  - Use a resampling technique (e.g. bootstrap or permutation test).
  - Use Welch's t-statistic for each component of  $\mu_1 \mu_2$  with a Bonferroni correction for the significance level.

### Nel & van der Merwe Approximation

First, define

$$W_i = \frac{1}{n_i} S_i \left( \frac{1}{n_1} S_1 + \frac{1}{n_2} S_2 \right)^{-1}.$$

Then let

$$\nu = \frac{p + p^2}{\sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{1}{n_i} (\operatorname{tr}(W_i^2) + \operatorname{tr}(W_i)^2)}.$$

- One can show that  $\min(n_1, n_2) \le \nu \le n_1 + n_2$ .
- Under the null hypothesis, we approximately have

$$T^{2} \approx \frac{\nu p}{\nu - p + 1} F(p, \nu - p + 1).$$

## Example (cont'd) i

## [1] TRUE

```
test_statistic <- t(mu_hat_diff) %*%
solve(n1^-1*S1 + n2^-1*S2) %*% mu_hat_diff

critical_val <- qchisq(0.95, df = p)

drop(test_statistic) > critical_val
```

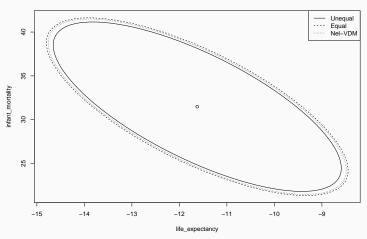
## Example (cont'd) ii

```
W1 \leftarrow S1 \%  solve(n1^-1*S1 + n2^-1*S2)/n1
W2 \leftarrow S2 \% \% solve(n1^-1 * S1 + n2^-1 * S2)/n2
trace square <- sum(diag(W1%*%W1))/n1 +
  sum(diag(W2%*%W2))/n2
square trace <- sum(diag(W1))^2/n1 +
  sum(diag(W2))^2/n2
(nu <- (p + p^2)/(trace square + square trace))
## [1] 88.85241
```

## Example (cont'd) iii

## [1] TRUE

#### Comparing Africa vs. Asia



#### Robustness

- To perform the tests on means, we made two main assumptions (listed in order of importance):
  - 1. Independence of the observations;
  - 2. Normality of the observations.
- Independence is the most important assumption:
  - Departure from independence can introduce significant bias and will impact the coverage probability.
- Normality is not as important:
  - Both tests for one or two means are relatively robust to heavy tail distributions.
  - Test for one mean can be sensitive to skewed distributions; test for two means is more robust.