

Technical Report # KU-EC-09-4:
A Comparison of Analysis of Covariate-Adjusted Residuals and
Analysis of Covariance

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July 27, 2009

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short title: ANOVA on Covariate-Adjusted Residuals and ANCOVA

Abstract

Various methods to control the influence of a covariate on a response variable are compared. In particular, ANOVA with or without homogeneity of variances (HOV) of errors and Kruskal-Wallis (K-W) tests on covariate-adjusted residuals and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) are compared. Covariate-adjusted residuals are obtained from the overall regression line fit to the entire data set ignoring the treatment levels or factors. The underlying assumptions for ANCOVA and methods on covariate-adjusted residuals are determined and the methods are compared only when both methods are appropriate. It is demonstrated that the methods on covariate-adjusted residuals are only appropriate in removing the covariate influence when the treatment-specific lines are parallel and treatment-specific covariate means are equal. Empirical size and power performance of the methods are compared by extensive Monte Carlo simulations. We manipulated the conditions such as assumptions of normality and HOV, sample size, and clustering of the covariates. The parametric methods (i.e., ANOVA with or without HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals and ANCOVA) exhibited similar size and power when error terms have symmetric distributions with variances having the same functional form for each treatment, and covariates have uniform distributions within the same interval for each treatment. For large samples, it is shown that the parametric methods will give similar results if sample covariate means for all treatments are similar. In such cases, parametric tests have higher power compared to the nonparametric K-W test on covariate-adjusted residuals. When error terms have asymmetric distributions or have variances that are heterogeneous with different functional forms for each treatment, ANCOVA and analysis of covariate-adjusted residuals are liberal with K-W test having higher power than the parametric tests. The methods on covariate-adjusted residuals are severely affected by the clustering of the covariates relative to the treatment factors, when covariate means are very different for treatments. For data clusters, ANCOVA method exhibits the appropriate level. However such a clustering might suggest dependence between the covariates and the treatment factors, so makes ANCOVA less reliable as well. Guidelines on which method to use for various cases are also provided.

Keywords: allometry; ANOVA; clustering; homogeneity of variances; isometry; Kruskal-Wallis test; linear models; parallel lines model

1 Introduction

In an experiment, the response variable may depend on the treatment factors and quite often on some external factor that has a strong influence on the response variable. If such external factors are qualitative or discrete, then *blocking* can be performed to remove their influence. However, if the external factors are quantitative and continuous, the effect of the external factor can be accounted for by adopting it as a *covariate* (Kuehl (2000)), which is also called a *concomitant variable* (Ott (1993), Milliken and Johnson (2002)). Throughout this article, a covariate is defined to be a variable that may affect the relationship between the response variable and factors (or treatments) of interest, but is not of primary interest itself. Maxwell et al. (1984) compared methods of incorporating a covariate into an experimental design and showed that it is not correct to consider the correlation between the dependent variable and covariate in choosing the best technique. Instead, they recommend considering whether scores on the covariate are available for all subjects prior to assigning any subject to treatment conditions and whether the relationship of the dependent variable and covariate is linear.

In various disciplines such as ecology, biology, medicine, etc. the goal is comparison of a response variable among several treatments after the influence of the covariate is removed. Different techniques are used or suggested in statistical and biological literature to remove the influence of the covariate(s) on the response variable (Huitema (1980)). For example in ecology, one might want to compare richness-area relationships among regions, shoot ratios of plants among several treatments, and of C:N ratios among sites (Garcia-Berthou (2001)). There are three main statistical techniques for attaining that goal: (i) analysis of the ratio of response to the covariate; (ii) analysis of the residuals from the regression of the response with the covariate; and (iii) analysis of covariance (ANCOVA).

Analysis of the ratios is perhaps the oldest method used to remove the covariate effect (e.g., size effect in biology) (see Albrecht et al. (1993) for a comprehensive review). Although many authors recommend its disuse (Packard and Boardman (1988), Atchley et al. (1976)), it might still appear in literature on occasion (Albrecht et al. (1993)). For instance, in physiological and nutrition research, the data are scaled by taking the ratio of the response variable to the covariate. Using the ratios in removing the influence of the covariate on the response depends on the relationship between the response and the covariate variables (Raubenheimer and Simpson (1992)). Regression analysis of a response variable on the covariate(s) is common to detect such relationships, which are categorized as *isometric* or *allometric* relationships (Small (1996)). *Isometry* occurs when the relationship between a response variable and the covariate is linear with a zero intercept. If the relationship is nonlinear or if there is a non-zero intercept, it is called *allometry*. In allometry, the influence of the covariate cannot be removed by taking the ratio of the response to the covariate. In both of allometry and isometry cases, ANOVA on ratios (i.e., *response/covariate* values) introduces heterogeneity of variances in the error terms which violates an assumption of ANOVA (with homogeneity of variances (HOV)). Hence, ANOVA on ratios may give spurious and invalid results for treatment comparisons, so ANCOVA is recommended over the use of ratios (Raubenheimer and Simpson (1992)). See Ceyhan (2000) for a detailed discussion on the use of ratios to remove the covariate influence.

An alternative method to remove the effect of a covariate on the response variable in biological and ecological research is the use of residuals (Garcia-Berthou (2001)). In this method an overall regression line is fitted to the entire data set and residuals are obtained from this line (Beaupre and Duvall (1998)). These residuals will be referred to as *covariate-adjusted residuals*, henceforth. This method was recommended in ecological literature by Jakob et al. (1996) who called it “residual index” method. Then treatments are compared with ANOVA with HOV on these residuals.

Due to the problems associated with the use of ratios in removing the influence of the covariate from the response, ANOVA (with HOV) on covariate-adjusted residuals and ANCOVA were recommended over the use of ratios (Packard and Boardman (1988) and Atchley et al. (1976)). For example, Beaupre and Duvall (1998) used ANOVA on covariate-adjusted residuals in a zoological study. Ceyhan (2000) compared the ANCOVA and ANOVA (with HOV) on covariate-adjusted residuals. ANCOVA has been widely applied in ecology and it was shown to be a superior alternative to ratios by Garcia-Berthou (2001) who also point out problems with the residual index and recommends ANCOVA as the correct alternative. They also discuss the differences between ANCOVA and ANOVA on the residual index. They argue that the residual analysis is totally misleading as (i) residuals are obtained from an overall regression on the pooled data, (ii) the residual analysis uses the wrong degrees of freedom in inference, and (iii) residuals fail to satisfy the ANOVA

assumptions even if the original data did satisfy them. In fact, Maxwell et al. (1985) also demonstrated the inappropriateness of ANOVA on residuals.

Although ANCOVA is a well-established and highly recommended tool, it also has critics. However, the main problem in literature is not the inappropriateness of ANCOVA, rather its misuse and misinterpretation. For example, Rheinheimer and Penfield (2001) investigated how the empirical size and power performances of ANCOVA are affected when the assumptions of normality and HOV, sample size, number of treatment groups, and strength of the covariate-dependent variable relationship are manipulated. They demonstrated that for balanced designs, the ANCOVA F test was robust and was often the most powerful test through all sample-size designs and distributional configurations. Otherwise it was not the best performer. In fact, the assumptions for ANCOVA are crucial for its use; especially, the independence between the covariate and the treatment factors is an often ignored assumption resulting incorrect inferences (Miller and Chapman (2001)). This violation is very common in fields such as psychology and psychiatry, due to nonrandom group assignment in observational studies, and Miller and Chapman (2001) also suggest some alternatives for such cases. Hence the recommendations in favor on ANCOVA (including ours) are valid only when the underlying assumptions are met.

In this article, we demonstrate that it is not always wrong to use the residuals. We also discuss the differences between ANCOVA and analysis of residuals, provide when and under what conditions the two procedures are appropriate and comparable. Then under such conditions, we not only consider ANOVA (with HOV), but also ANOVA without HOV and Kruskal-Wallis (K-W) test on the covariate-adjusted residuals. We provide the empirical size performance of each method under the null case and the empirical power under various alternatives using extensive Monte Carlo simulations.

The nonparametric analysis by K-W test on the covariate-adjusted residuals is actually not entirely nonparametric, in the sense that, the residuals are obtained from a fully parametric model. However, when the covariate is not continuous but categorical data with ordinal levels, then a nonparametric version of ANCOVA can be performed (see, e.g., Akritas et al. (2000) and Tsangari and Akritas (2004a)). Further, the nonparametric ANCOVA model of Akritas et al. (2000) is extended to longitudinal data for up to three covariates (Tsangari and Akritas (2004b)). Additionally, there are nonparametric methods such as Quade's procedure, Puri and Sen's solution, Burnett and Barr's rank difference scores, Conover and Iman's rank transformation test, Hettmansperger's procedure, and the Puri-Sen-Harwell-Serlin test which can be used as alternatives to ANCOVA (see Rheinheimer and Penfield (2001) for the comparison of the these tests with ANCOVA and relevant references). In fact, Rheinheimer and Penfield (2001) showed that with unbalanced designs, with variance heterogeneity, and when the largest treatment-group variance was matched with the largest group sample size, these nonparametric alternatives generally outperformed the ANCOVA test.

The methods to remove covariate influence on the response are presented in Section 2, where the ANCOVA method, ANOVA with HOV and without HOV on covariate adjusted residuals, and K-W test on covariate-adjusted residuals are described. A detailed comparison of the methods, in terms of the null hypotheses, and conditions under which they are equivalent are provided in Section 3. The Monte Carlo simulation analysis used for the comparison of the methods in terms of empirical size and power is provided in Section 4. A discussion together with a detailed guideline on the use of the discussed methods is provided in Section 5.

2 ANCOVA and Methods on Covariate-Adjusted Residuals

In this section, the models and the corresponding assumptions for ANCOVA and the methods on covariate-adjusted residuals are provided.

2.1 ANCOVA Method

For convenience, only ANCOVA with a one-way treatment structure in a completely randomized design and a single covariate is investigated. A simple linear relationship between the covariate and the response for each treatment level is assumed.

Suppose there are t levels of a treatment factor, with each level having s_i observations; and there are r_{ij}

replicates for each covariate value for treatment level i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$ where n_i is the number of distinct covariate values at treatment level i . Let n be the total number of observations in the entire data set then $s_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij}$ and $n = \sum_{i=1}^t s_i$. ANCOVA fits a straight line to each treatment level. These lines can be modeled as

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu_i + \beta_i X_{ij} + e_{ijk} \quad (1)$$

where X_{ij} is the j^{th} value of the covariate for treatment level i , Y_{ijk} is the k^{th} response at X_{ij} , μ_i is the intercept and β_i is the slope for treatment level i , and e_{ijk} is the random error term for $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$, and $k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{ij}$. The assumptions for the ANCOVA model in Equation (1) are: (a) The X_{ij} (covariate) values are assumed to be fixed as in regression analysis (i.e., X_{ij} is not a random variable). (b) $e_{ijk} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_e^2)$ for all treatments where $\stackrel{iid}{\sim}$ stands for “independently identically distributed as”. This implies Y_{ijk} are independent of each other and $Y_{ijk} \sim N(\mu_i + \beta_i X_{ij}, \sigma_e^2)$. (c) The covariate and the treatment factors are independent. Then the straight line fitted by ANCOVA to each treatment can be written as $\hat{Y}_{ij} = \hat{\mu}_i + \hat{\beta}_i X_{ij}$, where \hat{Y}_{ij} is the predicted response for treatment i at X_{ij} , $\hat{\mu}_i$ is the estimated intercept, and $\hat{\beta}_i$ is the estimated slope for treatment i .

In the analysis, these fitted lines can then be used to test the following null hypotheses:

$$(i) H_o : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_t = 0 \text{ (All slopes are equal to zero).}$$

If H_o is not rejected, then the covariate is not necessary in the model. Then a regular one-way ANOVA can be performed to test the equality of treatment means.

$$(ii) H_o : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_t \text{ (The slopes are equal).}$$

Depending on the conclusion reached here, two types of models are possible for linear ANCOVA models - parallel lines and nonparallel lines models. If H_o in (ii) is not rejected, then the lines are parallel, otherwise they are nonparallel (Milliken and Johnson (2002)). Throughout the article the terms “parallel lines models (case)” and “equal slope models (case)” will be used interchangeably. The same holds for “nonparallel lines models (case)” and “unequal slopes models (case)”.

The parallel lines model is given by

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu_i + \beta X_{ij} + e_{ijk}, \quad (2)$$

where β is the common slope for all treatment levels. With this model, testing the equality of the intercepts, $H_o : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_t$, is equivalent to testing the equality of treatment means at any value of the covariate. For the nonparallel lines case, the model is as in Equation (1) with at least one β_i being different for some $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$. So the comparison of treatments may give different results at different values of the covariate.

2.2 Analysis of Covariate-Adjusted Residuals

First an overall regression line is fitted to the entire data set as:

$$\hat{Y}_{ij} = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta}^* X_{ij}, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, t \text{ and } j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i, \quad (3)$$

where $\hat{\mu}$ is the estimated overall intercept and $\hat{\beta}^*$ is the estimated overall slope. The residuals from this regression line are called *covariate-adjusted residuals* and are calculated as:

$$R_{ijk} = Y_{ijk} - \hat{Y}_{ij} = Y_{ijk} - \hat{\mu} - \hat{\beta}^* X_{ij}, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, t, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i, \text{ and } k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{ij}, \quad (4)$$

where R_{ijk} is the k^{th} residual of treatment level i at X_{ij} .

2.2.1 ANOVA with or without HOV on Covariate-Adjusted Residuals

In ANOVA with or without HOV procedures, the covariate-adjusted residuals in Equation (4) are taken to be the response values, and tests of equal treatment means are performed on residual means.

The means model and assumptions for the one-way ANOVA with HOV on these covariate-adjusted residuals are:

$$R_{ijk} = \rho_i + \varepsilon_{ijk}, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, t, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i, \text{ and } k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{ij}, \quad (5)$$

where ρ_i is the mean residual for treatment i , ε_{ijk} are the (independent) random errors such that $\varepsilon_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$. Notice the common variance σ_ε^2 for all treatment levels. However, R_{ijk} are not independent of each other, since $\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} R_{ijk} = 0$, which also implies that the overall mean of the residuals is zero. Hence the model in Equation (3) and an effects model for residuals are identically parameterized.

For the nonparallel lines model in Equation (1), the residuals in Equation (4) will take the form:

$$R_{ijk} = Y_{ijk} - \hat{Y}_{ij} = \mu_i + \beta_i X_{ij} + e_{ijk} - \left(\hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta}^* X_{ij} \right) = (\mu_i - \hat{\mu}) + \left(\beta_i - \hat{\beta}^* \right) X_{ij} + e_{ijk}.$$

Hence, the influence of the covariate will be removed if and only if

$$\hat{\beta}^* = \beta_i \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, t. \quad (6)$$

Then taking covariate-adjusted residuals can only remove the influence of the covariate when the treatment-specific lines in Equation (1) and the overall regression in Equation (3) are parallel. Notice that the residuals from the treatment-specific models in Equation (1) cannot be used as response values in an ANOVA with HOV, because treatment sums of squares of such residuals are zero (Ceyhan (2000)).

In ANOVA without HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals, the only difference from ANOVA with HOV is that ε_{ijk} are the (independent) random errors such that $\varepsilon_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$. Notice the treatment-specific variance term σ_i^2 ; i.e., the homogeneity of the variances is not necessarily assumed in this model.

Kruskal-Wallis (K-W) test is an extension of the Mann-Whitney U test to three or more groups; and for two groups K-W test and Mann-Whitney U test are equivalent (Siegel and Castellan Jr. (1988)). K-W test on the covariate-adjusted residuals which are obtained as in model (4) tests the equality of the residual distributions for all treatment levels. Notice that contrary to the parametric models and tests in previous sections, only the distributional equality is assumed, neither normality nor HOV.

3 Comparison of the Methods

ANOVA with or without HOV or K-W test on covariate-adjusted residuals and ANCOVA can be compared when the treatment-specific lines and the overall regression line are parallel. The null hypotheses tested by “ANCOVA”, “ANOVA with or without HOV”, and “K-W test” on covariate-adjusted residuals are

$$H_o : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_t \text{ (Intercepts are equal for all treatments.)} \quad (7)$$

$$H_o : \rho_1 = \rho_2 = \dots = \rho_t \text{ (Residual means are equal for all treatments.)} \quad (8)$$

and

$$H_o : F_{R_1} = F_{R_2} = \dots = F_{R_t} \text{ (Residuals have the same distribution for all treatments.)}, \quad (9)$$

respectively.

For more than two treatments the assumption of parallelism is less likely to hold, since only two lines with different slopes are sufficient to violate the condition. With two treatments, the null hypotheses tested by ANCOVA, ANOVA with or without HOV and K-W test on covariate-adjusted residuals will be

$$H_o : \mu_1 = \mu_2 \text{ (or } \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0) \quad (10)$$

$$H_o : \rho_1 = \rho_2 \text{ (or } \rho_1 - \rho_2 = 0) \quad (11)$$

and

$$H_o : F_{R_1} = F_{R_2} \text{ (or } R_1 \stackrel{d}{=} R_2) \quad (12)$$

respectively, where $\stackrel{d}{=}$ stands for ‘‘equal in distribution’’.

In Equation (11), ρ_i can be estimated by the sample residual mean, $\bar{R}_{i..}$. Combining the expressions in (4) and (5), the residuals can be rewritten as

$$R_{ijk} = \rho_i + \varepsilon_{ijk} = Y_{ijk} - \hat{Y}_{ij} = (\mu_i + \beta_i X_{ij} + e_{ijk}) - (\hat{\mu} + \hat{\beta}^* X_{ij}),$$

$i = 1, 2, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$, and $k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{ij}$. Averaging the residuals for treatment i yields

$$\bar{R}_{i..} = \rho_i + \bar{\varepsilon}_{i..} = \mu_i + \beta_i \bar{X}_{i..} + \bar{\varepsilon}_{i..} - \hat{\mu} - \hat{\beta}^* \bar{X}_{i..}, \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (13)$$

where $\bar{X}_{i..}$ is the sample mean of covariate values for treatment i , $\bar{\varepsilon}_{i..} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} e_{ijk}/n_i$ and $\bar{\varepsilon}_{i..} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} \varepsilon_{ijk}/n_i$, $i = 1, 2$. Under the assumptions of ANCOVA and ANOVA (with or without HOV) on covariate-adjusted residuals, taking the expectations in (13) yields

$$\mathbf{E}[\bar{R}_{i..}] = \rho_i = \mu_i + \beta_i \bar{X}_{i..} - \mu - \beta^* \bar{X}_{i..} = \mu_i - \mu + (\beta_i - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{i..}, \quad i = 1, 2, \quad (14)$$

since $\mathbf{E}[\bar{\varepsilon}_{i..}] = 0$ and $\mathbf{E}[\bar{\varepsilon}_{i..}] = 0$, for $i = 1, 2$. Hence H_o in (11) can be rewritten as $H_o : (\mu_1 - \mu_2) + (\beta_1 - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{1..} - (\beta_2 - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{2..} = 0$. Then the hypotheses in Equations (10) and (11) are equivalent iff

$$(\beta_1 - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{1..} = (\beta_2 - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{2..} \quad (15)$$

Using condition (6) and repeating the above argument for all pairs of treatments, the condition in (15) can be extended to more than two treatments.

Notice that the conditions that will imply (15) will also imply the equivalence of the hypotheses in (10) and (11). The overall regression slope can be estimated as

$$\hat{\beta}^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) (Y_{ijk} - \bar{Y}_{...})}{E_{xx}^*} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) Y_{ijk}}{E_{xx}^*} \quad (16)$$

where $\bar{X}_{..}$ is the overall covariate mean, $\bar{Y}_{...}$ is the overall response mean, and

$$E_{xx}^* = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) X_{ij}.$$

Furthermore the treatment-specific slope used in model (1) is estimated as

$$\hat{\beta}_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{i..}) (Y_{ijk} - \bar{Y}_{i..})}{E_{xx,i}}$$

where $E_{xx,i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{i..})^2$, and $\bar{Y}_{i..}$ is the mean response for treatment i . Substituting $Y_{ijk} = \hat{\mu}_i + \hat{\beta}_i X_{ij} + R'_{ijk}$, $i = 1, 2, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$, and $k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{ij}$ in Equation (16) where $\hat{\mu}_i$ is the estimated intercept for treatment level i , and R'_{ijk} is the k^{th} residual at X_{ij} in model (1), the estimated overall slope

becomes $\hat{\beta}^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) (\hat{\mu}_i + \hat{\beta}_i X_{ij} + R'_{ijk})}{E_{xx}^*}$. With some rearrangements, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta}^* &= \hat{\beta}_i + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) \hat{\mu}_i}{E_{xx}^*} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) R'_{ijk}}{E_{xx}^*} \\ &= \hat{\beta}_i + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{..}) \hat{\mu}_i}{E_{xx}^*} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} X_{ij} R'_{ijk}}{E_{xx}^*}, \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

since $\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} \bar{X}_{..} R'_{ijk} = 0$. As $\mathbf{E}[R'_{ijk}] = 0$, taking the expectations of both sides of (17) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \beta^* &= \beta_i + \frac{\mu_1 (\sum_{j=1}^{n_1} r_{ij} (\bar{X}_{1j} - \bar{X}_{..})) + \mu_2 (\sum_{j=1}^{n_2} r_{ij} (\bar{X}_{2j} - \bar{X}_{..}))}{E_{xx}^*} \\ &= \beta_i + \frac{\mu_1 n_1 (\bar{X}_{1..} - \bar{X}_{..}) + \mu_2 n_2 (\bar{X}_{2..} - \bar{X}_{..})}{E_{xx}^*} \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

Under $H_o : \mu_1 = \mu_2$, (18) reduces to $\beta^* = \beta_i$ iff

$$\frac{n_1 (\bar{X}_{1.} - \bar{X}_{..}) + n_2 (\bar{X}_{2.} - \bar{X}_{..})}{E_{xx}^*} = 0 \quad (19)$$

provided that $E_{xx}^* \neq 0$. Indeed, $E_{xx}^* = 0$ will hold if and only if all X_{ij} are equal to a constant for each treatment i , in which case, $\hat{\beta}^*$ and $\hat{\beta}_i$ will both be undefined. The condition in (19) holds if $\bar{X}_{1.} = \bar{X}_{2.}$ ($= \bar{X}_{..}$). Recall that $H_o : \rho_1 = \rho_2$ was shown to be equivalent to $H_o : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ provided that $(\beta_1 - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{1.} = (\beta_2 - \beta^*) \bar{X}_{2.}$, which holds if $\bar{X}_{1.} = \bar{X}_{2.}$ and $\beta_1 = \beta_2$. So the null hypotheses in (10) and (11) are equivalent when the treatment-specific lines are parallel and treatment-specific means are equal which implies the condition stated in (6).

In general for t treatments, the hypotheses in (7) and (8) can be tested using an F test statistics. H_o in (7) can be tested by

$$F = \frac{MSTrt}{MSE}, \quad (20)$$

where $MSTrt$ is the mean square treatment for response values, and MSE is the mean square error for response values. These mean square terms can be calculated as:

$$MSTrt = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} \left[(\bar{Y}_{i..} - \bar{Y}_{...}) - \hat{\beta}_i (\bar{X}_{i.} - \bar{X}_{..}) \right]^2}{(t-1)}$$

and

$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} \left[(Y_{ijk} - \bar{Y}_{i..}) - \hat{\beta}_i (X_{ijk} - \bar{X}_{i.}) \right]^2}{(n - (t+1))}.$$

Note that MSE has $(n - t - 1)$ degrees of freedom (df) since there are $(t+1)$ parameters (μ_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$ and β) to estimate. Therefore the test statistic in (20) is distributed as $F \sim F(t-1, n-t-1)$.

Similarly, H_o in (8) can be tested by

$$F^* = \frac{MSTrt^*}{MSE^*}, \quad (21)$$

where $MSTrt^*$ is the mean square treatment for covariate-adjusted residuals, and MSE^* is the mean square error for covariate-adjusted residuals. These mean square terms can be calculated as $MSTrt^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} (\bar{R}_{i..} - \bar{R}_{...})^2}{(t-1)}$ and $MSE^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} (R_{ijk} - \bar{R}_{i..})^2}{(n-t)}$. Using $\bar{R}_{i..} = \bar{Y}_{i..} - \hat{\mu} - \hat{\beta}^* \bar{X}_{i.}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$, and $\bar{R}_{...} = \bar{Y}_{...} - \hat{\mu} - \hat{\beta}^* \bar{X}_{..}$,

$$MSTrt^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} \left[(\bar{Y}_{i..} - \bar{Y}_{...}) - \hat{\beta}^* (\bar{X}_{i.} - \bar{X}_{..}) \right]^2}{(t-1)}$$

and

$$MSE^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} \left[(Y_{ijk} - \bar{Y}_{i..}) - \hat{\beta}^* (X_{ijk} - \bar{X}_{i.}) \right]^2}{(n-t)}.$$

It might seem that MSE^* has $(n - t)$ degrees of freedom (df), since there are t parameters (ρ_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$) to estimate, so the test statistic in Equation (21) is distributed as $F^* \sim F(t-1, n-t)$. However, there is one more restriction in test (11). Since $\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} R_{ijk} = 0$, then F^* should actually be distributed as $F^* \sim F(t-1, n-t-1)$. Atchley et al. (1976) did not suggest this adjustment in df , and Beaupre and Duvall (1998) used the method without such an adjustment. That is, in both sources $F(t-1, n-t)$ is used for inference. So, in this article df for MSE^* has been set at $(n-t)$ as in literature.

Notice that, the F -statistics in (20) and (21) become

$$F = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} \left[(\bar{Y}_{i..} - \bar{Y}_{...}) - \hat{\beta} (\bar{X}_{i.} - \bar{X}_{..}) \right]^2 / (t-1)}{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} \left[(Y_{ijk} - \bar{Y}_{i..}) - \hat{\beta} (X_{ijk} - \bar{X}_{i.}) \right]^2 / (n - (t+1))}, \quad (22)$$

and

$$F^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} r_{ij} \left[(\bar{Y}_{i..} - \bar{Y}_{...}) - \hat{\beta}^* (\bar{X}_{i.} - \bar{X}_{..}) \right]^2 / (t-1)}{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \sum_{k=1}^{r_{ij}} \left[(Y_{ijk} - \bar{Y}_{i..}) - \hat{\beta}^* (X_{ij} - \bar{X}_{i.}) \right]^2 / (n-t)}, \quad (23)$$

respectively. For two treatments, $t = 2$ will be used in Equations (22) and (23), then the test statistics will be distributed as $F \sim F(1, n-3)$ and $F^* \sim F(1, n-2)$, and they can be used to test the hypotheses in Equations (10) and (11), respectively. Furthermore, with two treatments, note that $F \stackrel{d}{=} \mathcal{F}^2(n-3)$ and $F^* \stackrel{d}{=} \mathcal{F}^2(n-2)$ and $\mathcal{F}(n)$ is the t -distribution with n *df*. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, both F and F^* will converge in distribution to χ_1^2 . So F and F^* will have similar observed significance levels (i.e., p -values) and similar scores for large n . Similar decisions for testing (10) and (11) will be reached if the calculated test statistics are similar; i.e., $F \approx F^*$ for large n . Likewise, F in (20) and F^* in (21) will have similar distributions for large n .

For the case of two treatments, comparing F and F^* , it can be seen that F and F^* are similar if $\hat{\beta}^* \approx \hat{\beta}_i$ for large n . The same argument holds for the test statistics in the general case of more than two treatments for large n . The test statistics will lead to similar decisions, if $\hat{\beta}^* \approx \hat{\beta}_i$ as n increases. That is, the overall regression line fitted to the entire data set should be approximately parallel to the fitted treatment-specific regression lines for the test statistics F and F^* to be similar. If $\hat{\beta}^* \approx \hat{\beta}_i$, then ANOVA with or without HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals and ANCOVA will give similar results. Consequently, it is expected that the ANCOVA and ANOVA with HOV or without HOV methods give similar results as treatment-specific covariate means gets closer for the parallel lines case.

The above discussion is based on normality of error terms with HOV. Without HOV the *df* of the F -tests are calculated with Satterthwaite approximation (Kutner et al. (2004)). On the other hand, K-W test does require neither normality nor HOV, but implies a more general hypothesis $H_o : F_{R_1} = F_{R_2}$, in the sense that H_o would imply $H_o : \rho_1 = \rho_2$ without the normality assumption. However, the null hypothesis in Equation (11) implicitly assumes normality.

4 Monte Carlo Simulation Analysis

Throughout the simulation only two treatments ($t = 2$) are used for the comparison of methods. In the simulation, sixteen different cases are considered for comparison (see Table 1).

4.1 Sample Generation for Null and Alternative Models

Without loss of generality, the slope in model (2) is arbitrarily taken to be 2 and the intercept is chosen to be 1. So the response values for the treatments are generated as

$$(i) Y_{1jk} = 1 + 2X_{1j} + e_{1jk}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_1 \text{ and } k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{1j} \text{ for treatment 1} \quad (24)$$

with $e_{1jk} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F_1$, where F_1 is the error distribution for treatment 1.

$$(ii) Y_{2jk} = (1 + 0.02q) + 2X_{2j} + e_{2jk}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n_2 \text{ and } k = 1, 2, \dots, r_{2j} \text{ for treatment 2} \quad (25)$$

with $e_{2jk} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F_2$, where F_2 is the error distribution for treatment 2 and q is introduced to obtain separation between the parallel lines. In (24) and (25), X_{ij} is the j^{th} generated value of the covariate in treatment i , Y_{ijk} is the response value for treatment level i at X_{ij} for $i = 1, 2$, e_{ijk} is the k^{th} random error term. The covariate ranges, sample sizes (n_1 and n_2), error distributions (F_1 and F_2) for the two treatments, and the number of replicates (reps) at each value of X_{ij} are summarized in Table 1. In the context of model (2) the common slope is $\beta = 2$, and $\mu_1 = 1$ and $\mu_2 = (1 + 0.02q)$ are the intercepts for treatment levels 1 and 2, respectively.

Then as q increases the treatment-specific response means become farther apart at each covariate value and the power of the tests is expected to increase. The choice of 0.02 for the increments is based on time

and efficiency of the simulation process. q is incremented from 1 to m_u in case- u , for $u = 1, 2, \dots, 16$ (Table 1) where m_u is estimated by the standard errors of the intercepts of the treatment-specific regression lines. In the simulation no further values of q are chosen when the power is expected to approach 1.00 that occurs when the intercepts are approximately 2.5 standard errors apart, as determined by equating the intercept difference, $0.02q = 2.5s_{\hat{\mu}_i}$, with q replaced by m_u . A pilot sample of size 6000 is generated ($q = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ with 1000 samples at each q), and maximum of the standard errors of the intercepts is recorded. Then $m_u \cong 2.5 \max_i(s_{\hat{\mu}_i})/0.02$ for $i = 1, 2$ in case u .

All cases labeled with “a” have one replicate and all cases labeled with “b” have two replicates per covariate value, henceforth. For example, in case 1a the most general case is simulated with *iid* $N(0, 1)$ error variances, and 20 uniformly randomly generated covariate values in the interval $(0, 10)$ for both treatments. In case 1b, the data is generated as in case 1a with two replicates per covariate value.

In cases 1, 5-8, 9, and 12-16, error variances are homogeneous; in cases 1, and 5-8 error terms are generated as *iid* $N(0, 1)$. In case 9, error terms are generated as *iid* $\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$; in case 12, error terms are *iid* $DW(0, 1, 3)$, double-Weibull distribution with location parameter 0, scale parameter 1, and shape parameter 3 whose pdf is $f(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^2 \exp(-|x|^3)$ for all x ; in case 13, error terms are *iid* $\sqrt{48}(\beta(6, 2) - 3/4)$ where $\beta(6, 2)$ is the Beta distribution with shape parameters 6 and 2 whose pdf is $f(x) = 42x^5(1-x)\mathbf{I}(0 < x < 1)$ where $\mathbf{I}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function; in case 14, error terms are *iid* $\chi_2^2 - 2$ where χ_2^2 is the chi-square distribution with 2 df ; in case 15, error terms are *iid* $LN(0, 1) - e^{1/2}$ where $LN(0, 1)$ is the log-normal distribution with location parameter 0 and scale parameter 1 whose pdf is $f(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\log x)^2\right) \mathbf{I}(x > 0)$, and in case 16, error terms are *iid* $N(0, 2)$ for treatment 1 and *iid* $\chi_2^2 - 2$ for treatment 2.

In cases 2-4 heterogeneity of variances for normal error terms is introduced either by unequal but constant variances (case 2), unequal but a combination of constant and x -dependent variances (case 3), or equal and x -dependent variances (case 4). In case 10 error terms are *iid* $\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$ for treatment 1 and *iid* $\mathcal{U}(-2\sqrt{3}, 2\sqrt{3})$ for treatment 2; in case 11, error terms are *iid* $\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$ treatment 1 and *iid* $\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{x}, \sqrt{x})$ for treatment 2.

The choice of constant variances is arbitrary, but the error term distributions for constant variance cases are picked so that their variances are roughly between 1 and 6. However, x -dependence of variances is a realistic but not a general case, since any function of x could have been used. For example, Beaupre and Duvall (1998) who explored the differences in metabolism (O_2 consumption) of the Western diamondback rattlesnakes with respect to their sex, the O_2 consumption was measured for males, non-reproductive females, and vitellogenic females. To remove the influence of body mass which was deemed as a covariate on O_2 consumption, ANOVA with HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals was performed. In their study, the variances of O_2 consumption for sexual groups have a positive correlation with body mass. In this study, \sqrt{x} is taken as the variance term to simulate such a case. Heterogeneity of variances conditions violate one of the assumptions for ANCOVA and ANOVA with HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals, and are simulated in order to evaluate the sensitivity of the methods to such violations. The unequal variances in cases 2 and 3 were arbitrarily assigned to the treatments since all the other restrictions are the same for treatments at each of these cases. In case 5, different sample sizes are taken from that of other cases to see the influence of unequal sample sizes.

In cases 1-8, error terms are generated from a normal distribution. In cases 9-15, non-normal distributions for error generation are employed. In cases 9-12, the distribution of the error variances are symmetric around 0, while in cases 13-15 the distributions of the error terms are not symmetric around 0. Notice that cases 13-15 are normalized to have zero mean, and furthermore case 13 is scaled to have unit variance. The influence of non-normality and asymmetry of the distributions are investigated in these cases. In case 16, the influence of distributional differences (normal vs asymmetric non-normal) in the error term is investigated.

In cases 1-5 and 9-16, covariates are uniformly randomly generated, without loss of generality, in $(0, 10)$, hence $\bar{X}_1 \approx \bar{X}_2$ is expected to hold. In these cases the influence of replications (or magnitude of equal sample sizes), heterogeneity of variances, and non-normality of the variances on the methods are investigated. Cases 6-8 address the issue of clustering which might result naturally in a data set. Clustering occurs if the treatments have distinct or partially overlapping ranges of covariates. Extrapolation occurs if the clusters are distinct or the mean of the covariate is not within the covariate clusters for at least one treatment. In case 6 there is a mild overlap of the covariate clusters for treatments 1 and 2, such that covariates are uniformly

randomly generated within (0, 6) for treatment 1, and (4, 10) for treatment 2, so \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 are expected to be different. In fact, this case is expected to contain the largest difference between \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 . See Figure 1 for a realization of case 6. In case 7 treatment 1 has two clusters, such that each treatment 1 covariate is randomly assigned to either (0, 3) or (7, 10) first, then the covariate is uniformly randomly generated in that interval. Treatment 2 covariates are generated uniformly within the interval of (4, 10). Note that \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 are expected to be very different, but not as much as case 6. See Figure 2 for a realization of case 7. Notice that the second cluster of treatment 1 is completely inside the covariate range of treatment 2. These choices of clusters are inspired by the research of Beaupre and Duvall (1998) which dealt with O₂ consumption of rattlesnakes. In case 8 treatment 1 has two clusters, each treatment 1 covariate is uniformly randomly generated in the randomly selected interval of either (0, 4) or (6, 10). Treatment 2 covariates are uniformly randomly generated in the interval (3, 7). Hence \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 are expected to be similar. Notice that treatment 2 cluster is in the middle of the treatment 1 clusters with mild overlaps.

4.2 Monte Carlo Simulation Results

In this section, the empirical size and power comparisons for the methods discussed are presented.

4.2.1 Empirical Size Comparisons

In the simulation process, to estimate the empirical sizes of the methods in question, for each case enumerated in Table 1, $N_{mc} = 10000$ samples are generated with $q = 0$ using the relationships in (24) and (25). Out of these 10000 samples the number of significant treatment differences detected by the methods is recorded. The number of differences detected concurrently by each pair of methods is also recorded. The nominal significance level used in all these tests is $\alpha = 0.05$. Based on these detected differences, empirical sizes are calculated as $\hat{\alpha}_i = \nu_i/N_i$ where ν_i are number of significant treatment differences detected by method i with method 1 being ANCOVA, method 2 being ANOVA with HOV, method 3 being to ANOVA without HOV, and method 4 being K-W test on covariate-adjusted residuals. Furthermore the proportion of differences detected concurrently by each pair of methods is $\hat{\alpha}_{i,j} = \nu_{i,j}/N_{mc}$, where $N_{mc} = 10000$ and $\nu_{i,j}$ is the number of significant treatment differences detected by methods i,j , with $i \neq j$. For large N_{mc} , $\hat{\alpha}_i \sim N(\alpha_i, \sigma_{\alpha_i}^2)$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$, where \sim stands for “approximately distributed as”, α_i is the proportion of treatment differences, $\sigma_{\alpha_i}^2 = \alpha_i(1 - \alpha_i)/N_{mc}$ is the variance of the unknown proportion, α_i whose estimate is $\hat{\alpha}_i$. Using the asymptotic normality of proportions for large N_{mc} , the 95% confidence intervals are constructed for empirical sizes of the methods (not presented) to see whether they contain the nominal significance level, 0.05 and the 95% confidence interval for the difference in the proportions (not presented either) to check whether the sizes are significantly different from each other.

The empirical size estimates in cases 1a-16a and 1b-2b are presented in Table 2. Observe that ANCOVA method is liberal in case 2a and conservative at cases 14a and 15a, and has the desired nominal level 0.05 for the other cases. The liberalness in case 2a weakens as the number of replicates is doubled (see case 2b). ANOVA with or without HOV are liberal in cases 1a, 2a, and 3a, and conservative in cases 6a-8a, and 14a-15a and have the desired nominal level for the other cases. However, the liberalness of the tests weakens in cases 1a-3a, as the number of replicates is doubled (see cases 1b-3b). K-W test is liberal in cases 1a-3a, 10a, 11a and 16a, and conservative in cases 6a, 7a, and 14a, and has the desired nominal level for the other cases. Liberalness of the test in case 1a weakens as the number of replicates is doubled (see case 1b). Notice that the ANCOVA method has the desired size when the error term is normally distributed or has a symmetric distribution, tends to be slightly liberal when HOV is violated, and is conservative when error distribution is non-normal and not symmetric. On the other hand, ANOVA with or without HOV have about the same size for all cases. Both methods have the desired size when error terms are normally distributed, or have symmetric distribution, and the covariates have similar means. When error terms are normal without HOV, both methods are liberal with ANOVA without HOV being less liberal. When error terms are non-normal with asymmetric distributions, both methods tend to be slightly conservative. But, when the covariate means are extremely different, both methods are extremely conservative (see cases 6 and 7). See Figure 3 for the empirical size estimates for ANCOVA and ANOVA with HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals as a function of distance between treatment-specific means. As the distance between treatment-specific means increase the empirical size for the ANOVA with HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals decreases, while the empirical

size for ANCOVA is stable about the desired nominal level 0.05. K-W test has the desired level when error terms have symmetric and identical distributions, is liberal when errors have the same distribution without HOV and different distributions, and is conservative when errors have asymmetric distributions provided the covariates have similar means. But when the covariate means are very different, KW test is also extremely conservative (see cases 6 and 7).

Moreover, observe that when the covariates have similar means, ANCOVA and ANOVA (with or without HOV) methods have similar empirical sizes. These three methods have similar sizes as K-W test when the error distributions have HOV. Without HOV, K-W test has significantly larger empirical size. When the covariate means are considerably different, ANCOVA method has significantly larger size than others. ANOVA with or without HOV methods have similar empirical sizes for all cases.

As seen in Table 3, the proportion of agreement between the empirical size estimates are usually not significantly different from the minimum of each pair of tests for ANCOVA and ANOVA with or without HOV, but the proportion of agreement is usually significantly smaller for the cases in which K-W test is compared with others. Therefore, when covariate means are similar, ANCOVA and ANOVA with or without HOV have the same null hypothesis, with similar acceptance/rejection regions, while K-W test has a different null hypothesis hence different acceptance/rejection regions. When covariate means are different, ANCOVA and ANOVA methods have different acceptance/rejection regions, and K-W test has a different null hypothesis. Both ANOVA methods have the same null hypothesis, and have similar acceptance/rejection regions for this simulation study.

4.2.2 Empirical Power Comparisons

The empirical power curves are plotted in Figures 4, 5, 6, and 7. Empirical power corresponds to $\hat{\beta}_i$, $i = 1, 2$. The value on the horizontal axis is defined to be intercept difference (i.e., $0.02q$) as in (25). Then the empirical power curves are plotted against the simulated intercept difference values. In these figures the empirical power curve for a case labeled with “a” is steeper and approaches to 1.00 faster than that of the case labeled with “b” for the same case number, due to the fact that “b”-labeled cases have two replicates with the rest of the restrictions identical to the preceding “a”-labeled cases. Only cases labeled with “a” and “b” in case 1 are presented in Figure 4. For other cases, plot for only “a”-labeled case is presented.

The first intercept difference value at which the power reaches 1 are denoted as κ and are provided in Table 4 for all cases. Observe also that power curves are steeper when error variances are smaller. The empirical power curves are almost identical for all methods in case 13 which has a scaled Beta distribution for the error term. That is, in this case the conditions balance out the power estimates for the methods. In cases 1, 9-11, and 16 the power estimates for ANCOVA and ANOVA methods are similar but all are larger than the K-W test power estimates. In these cases, except in cases 11 and 16, the error distributions are identical for both treatment levels, and are all symmetric; furthermore, uniform distribution approaching asymptotic normality considerably fast satisfies all the assumptions of the parametric tests. In cases 3, 4, 14, and 15 power estimates for ANCOVA and ANOVA methods are similar but all are smaller than the K-W test power estimates. In these cases, either HOV is violated as in cases 3 and 4, or normality is violated as in cases 14 and 15 with the error distribution being asymmetric. Since K-W test is non-parametric, it is robust to non-normality, and since it tests distributional equality, it is more sensitive to HOV in normal cases. In case 5, power estimates of ANCOVA and ANOVA with HOV are similar, with both being larger than that of ANOVA without HOV whose power estimate is larger than that of K-W test. In this case, the sample sizes for the treatments are different with everything else being same. In cases 6-8, the power estimate of ANCOVA method is significantly larger than those of the ANOVA methods whose empirical sizes are larger than that of K-W test. In these cases, the covariates are clustered with very different treatment-specific means in cases 6 and 7, and similar means in case 8. In cases 2 and 12, for smaller values of intercept difference (i.e., between 0 to 0.5 in case 2 and 0 to 0.8 in case 12), ANCOVA and ANOVA methods have similar power with all having a smaller power than that of K-W test, while for larger values of the intercept difference (i.e., between 0.5 to 4 in case 2 and 0.8 to 2 in case 12), the order is reversed for the power estimates. In case 2, error terms have different but constant variances, and in case 12, error terms are non-normal but symmetric.

5 Discussion and Conclusions

In this article, we discuss various methods to remove the covariate influence on a response variable when testing for differences between treatment levels. The methods considered are the usual ANCOVA method and the analysis of covariate-adjusted residuals using ANOVA with or without homogeneity of variances (HOV) and Kruskal-Wallis (K-W) test. The covariate-adjusted residuals are obtained from the fitted overall regression line to the entire data set (ignoring the treatment levels). For covariate-adjusted residuals to be appropriate for removing the covariate influence, the treatment-specific lines and the overall regression line should be parallel. On the other hand, ANCOVA can be used to test the equality of treatment means at specific values of the covariate. Furthermore, the use of ANCOVA is extended to the nonparallel treatment-specific lines also (Kowalski et al. (1994)).

The Monte Carlo simulations indicate that when the covariates have similar means and have similar distributions (with or without HOV), ANCOVA, ANOVA with or without HOV methods have similar empirical sizes; and K-W test is sensitive to distributional differences, since the null hypotheses for the first three tests are about same while it is more general for K-W test. When the treatment-specific lines are parallel, treatment-specific covariate ranges and covariate distributions are similar. ANCOVA and ANOVA with or without HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals give similar results if error variances have symmetric distributions with or without HOV and sample sizes are similar for treatments; give similar results if error variances are homogeneous and sample sizes are different but large for treatments. In these situations, parametric tests are more powerful than K-W test. The methods give similar results but are liberal if error variances are heterogeneous with different functional forms for treatments. In these cases, usually K-W test has better performance.

When the treatment-specific lines are parallel, but treatment-specific covariate ranges are different; i.e., there exist clustering of the covariate relative to the treatment factors, ANCOVA and ANOVA on covariate-adjusted residuals yield similar results if treatment-specific covariate means are similar, very different results if treatment-specific covariate means are different since overall regression line will not be parallel to the treatment-specific lines. In such a case, methods on covariate-adjusted residuals tend to be extremely conservative whereas the size of ANCOVA F test is about the desired nominal level. Moreover, ANCOVA is much more powerful than ANOVA on covariate-adjusted residuals in these cases. The power of ANOVA on covariate-adjusted residuals gets closer to that of ANCOVA, as the difference between the treatment-specific covariate means gets smaller. However, in the case of clustering of covariates relative to the treatments, one should also exercise extra caution due to the extrapolation problem. Moreover in practice, such clustering is suggestive of an ignored grouping factor as in blocking. The discussed methods are meaningful only within the overlap of the clusters or in the close vicinity of them. However, when there are clusters for the groups in terms of the covariate, it is very likely that covariate and the group factors are dependent, which violates an assumption for ANCOVA. When this dependence is strong then ANCOVA method will not be appropriate. On the other hand, the residual analysis is extremely conservative which might be viewed as an advantage in order not to reach spurious and confounded conclusions in such a case.

The ANCOVA models can be used to estimate the treatment-specific response means at specific values of the covariate. But the ANOVA model on covariate-adjusted residuals should be used together with the fitted overall regression line in such an estimation, as long as condition (7) holds.

Different treatment-specific covariate distributions within the same interval or different intervals might also cause treatment-specific covariate means to be different. In such a case, ANCOVA should be preferred against the methods on covariate-adjusted residuals.

In conclusion, we recommend the following strategy for the use of the above methods: (i) First, one should check the significance of the effect of the covariates for each treatment, i.e., test H_o^i : “all treatment-specific slopes are equal to zero”. If H_o^i is not rejected, then the usual (one-way) ANOVA or K-W test can be used. (ii) If H_o^i is rejected, the covariate effect is significant for at least one treatment factor. Hence one should test H_o^{ii} : “equality of all treatment-specific slopes”. If H_o^{ii} is rejected, then the covariate should be included in the analysis as an important variable and the usual regression tools can be employed. (iii) If H_o^{ii} is not rejected, check the covariate ranges. If they are similar or have a considerable intersection for treatment factors, then ANCOVA and methods on residuals are appropriate. Then one should check the underlying assumptions for the methods and then pick the best method among them. (iv) If covariate ranges are very different, then it

is very likely that treatment and covariate are not independent, hence ANCOVA is not appropriate. On the other hand, the methods on residuals can be used but they are extremely conservative. In this case, one may apply some other method, e.g., MANOVA on (response,covariate) data for treatment differences.

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6 Tables

case	error term		sample sizes		ranges of covariate for	
	$e_{1jk} \overset{ind}{\sim}$	$e_{2jk} \overset{ind}{\sim}$	n_1	n_2	treatment 1	treatment 2
1	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, 1)$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
2	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, 6)$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
3	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, \sqrt{x})$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
4	$N(0, \sqrt{x})$	$N(0, \sqrt{x})$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
5	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, 1)$	28	12	(0,10)	(0,10)
6	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, 1)$	20	20	(0,6)	(4,10)
7	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, 1)$	20	20	$(0,3) \cup (7,10)$	(4,10)
8	$N(0, 1)$	$N(0, 1)$	20	20	$(0,4) \cup (6,10)$	(3,7)
9	$\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$	$\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
10	$\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$	$\mathcal{U}(-2\sqrt{3}, 2\sqrt{3})$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
11	$\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3})$	$\mathcal{U}(-\sqrt{x}, \sqrt{x})$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
12	$DW(0, 1, 3)$	$DW(0, 1, 3)$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
13	$\sqrt{48}(\beta(6, 2) - 3/4)$	$\sqrt{48}(\beta(6, 2) - 3/4)$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
14	$\chi_2^2 - 2$	$\chi_2^2 - 2$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
15	$LN(0, 1) - e^{1/2}$	$LN(0, 1) - e^{1/2}$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)
16	$N(0, 2)$	$\chi_2^2 - 2$	20	20	(0,10)	(0,10)

Table 1: The simulated cases for the comparison of ANCOVA and methods on covariate-adjusted residuals. e_{ijk} : error term; $\overset{ind}{\sim}$: independently distributed as; n_i : sample size for treatment level $i = 1, 2$. $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is the normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 ; $\mathcal{U}(a, b)$ is the uniform distribution with support (a, b) ; $DW(a, b, c)$ is the double Weibull distribution with location parameter a , scale parameter b , and shape parameter c ; $\beta(a, b)$ is the Beta distribution with shape parameters a and b ; χ_2^2 is the chi-square distribution with 2 df; $LN(a, b)$ is the log-normal distribution with location parameter a and scale parameter b .

Case	empirical sizes				size comparison					
	$\hat{\alpha}_1$	$\hat{\alpha}_2$	$\hat{\alpha}_3$	$\hat{\alpha}_4$	(1,2)	(1,3)	(1,4)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)
1a	.0531	.0541 ^ℓ	.0540 ^ℓ	.0532	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
1b	.0507	.0493	.0493	.0510	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
2a	.0581 ^ℓ	.0576 ^ℓ	.0546 ^ℓ	.0612 ^ℓ	≈	≈	<	≈	<	<
2b	.0531	.0515	.0493	.0630 ^ℓ	≈	≈	<	≈	<	<
3a	.0606 ^ℓ	.0602 ^ℓ	.0567 ^ℓ	.0693 ^ℓ	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	<
4a	.0523	.0525	.0519	.0511	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
5a	.0490	.0496	.0499	.0502	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
6a	.0556 ^ℓ	.0024 ^c	.0024 ^c	.0033 ^c	>	>	>	≈	≈	≈
7a	.0465	.0339 ^c	.0337 ^c	.0332 ^c	>	>	>	≈	≈	≈
8a	.0474	.0437 ^c	.0433 ^c	.0440 ^c	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
9a	.0485	.0489	.0484	.0488	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
10a	.0508	.0505	.0490	.0595 ^ℓ	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	<
11a	.0522	.0515	.0511	.0576 ^ℓ	≈	≈	<	≈	<	<
12a	.0490	.0494	.0492	.0491	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
13a	.0486	.0481	.0480	.0473	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
14a	.0442 ^c	.0435 ^c	.0417 ^c	.0451 ^c	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈	≈
15a	.0383 ^c	.0386 ^c	.0357 ^c	.0521	≈	≈	<	≈	<	<
16a	.0510	.0514	.0502	.0701 ^ℓ	≈	≈	<	≈	<	<

Table 2: The empirical sizes and size comparisons of ANCOVA and methods on covariate-adjusted residuals for the 16 cases listed in Table 1 based on 10000 Monte Carlo samples: $\hat{\alpha}_i$: empirical size of method i ; (i, j) : empirical size comparison of method i versus method j for $i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ with $i \neq j$ where method $i = 1$ is for ANCOVA, $i = 2$ and $i = 3$ are for ANOVA with and without HOV on covariate-adjusted residuals, respectively, $i = 4$ is for K-W test covariate-adjusted residuals. ^ℓ(^c): Empirical size is significantly larger (smaller) than 0.05; i.e., method is liberal (conservative). ≈: Empirical sizes are not significantly different from each other; i.e., methods do not differ in size. < (>): Empirical size of the first method is significantly smaller (larger) than the second.

Case	Proportion of agreement					
	$\hat{\alpha}_{1,2}$	$\hat{\alpha}_{1,3}$	$\hat{\alpha}_{1,4}$	$\hat{\alpha}_{2,3}$	$\hat{\alpha}_{2,4}$	$\hat{\alpha}_{3,4}$
1a	.0520 ⁿ	.0519 ⁿ	.0429 ^s	.0540 ⁿ	.0432 ^s	.0431 ^s
1b	.0490 ⁿ	.0490 ⁿ	.0415 ^s	.0493 ⁿ	.0413 ^s	.0413 ^s
2a	.0560 ⁿ	.0545 ⁿ	.0419 ^s	.0546 ⁿ	.0415 ^s	.0405 ^s
2b	.0513 ⁿ	.0493 ⁿ	.0383 ^s	.0493 ⁿ	.0377 ^s	.0369 ^s
3a	.0581 ⁿ	.0565 ⁿ	.0468 ^s	.0567 ⁿ	.0469 ^s	.0453 ^s
4a	.0507 ⁿ	.0505 ⁿ	.0382 ^s	.0519 ⁿ	.0380 ^s	.0378 ^s
5a	.0473 ⁿ	.0389 ^s	.0382 ^s	.0396 ^s	.0392 ^s	.0388 ^s
6a	.0024 ⁿ	.0024 ⁿ	.0033 ⁿ	.0024 ⁿ	.0015 ⁿ	.0015 ⁿ
7a	.0338 ⁿ	.0336 ⁿ	.0286 ^s	.0337 ⁿ	.0260 ^s	.0260 ^s
8a	.0426 ⁿ	.0423 ⁿ	.0346 ^s	.0433 ⁿ	.0340 ^s	.0338 ^s
9a	.0475 ⁿ	.0473 ⁿ	.0417 ^s	.0484 ⁿ	.0422 ^s	.0420 ^s
10a	.0498 ⁿ	.0488 ⁿ	.0420 ^s	.0490 ⁿ	.0421 ^s	.0412 ^s
11a	.0507 ⁿ	.0504 ⁿ	.0456 ^s	.0511 ⁿ	.0457 ^s	.0454 ^s
12a	.0477 ⁿ	.0476 ⁿ	.0378 ^s	.0492 ⁿ	.0383 ^s	.0383 ^s
13a	.0476 ⁿ	.0476 ⁿ	.0369 ^s	.0480 ⁿ	.0371 ^s	.0371 ^s
14a	.0425 ⁿ	.0412 ⁿ	.0274 ^s	.0417 ⁿ	.0275 ^s	.0272 ^s
15a	.0367 ⁿ	.0355 ⁿ	.0253 ^s	.0357 ⁿ	.0252 ^s	.0246 ^s
16a	.0497 ⁿ	.0493 ⁿ	.0394 ^s	.0502 ⁿ	.0392 ^s	.0389 ^s

Table 3: The proportion of agreement values for pairs of methods in rejecting the null hypothesis for the 16 cases listed in Table 1 based on 10000 Monte Carlo samples: $\hat{\alpha}_{i,j}$: proportion of agreement between method i and method j in rejecting the null hypothesis for $i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ with $i \neq j$ where method labeling is as in Table 2. ⁿ: Proportion of agreement, $\hat{\alpha}_{i,j}$, is not significantly different from the minimum of $\hat{\alpha}_i$ and $\hat{\alpha}_j$. ^s: Proportion of agreement, $\hat{\alpha}_{i,j}$, is significantly smaller than the minimum of $\hat{\alpha}_i$ and $\hat{\alpha}_j$.

	cases							
	1a; 1b	2a; 2b	3a; 3b	4a; 4b	5a; 5b	6a; 6b	7a; 7b	8a; 8b
κ_1	1.82; 1.30	3.58; 2.38	3.34; 2.38	4.06; 3.06	1.98; 1.42	2.96; 2.20	2.02; 1.40	1.98; 1.32
κ_2	1.82; 1.34	3.58; 2.50	3.34; 2.38	4.40; 3.06	2.06; 1.42	5.36; 3.30	2.28; 1.58	2.02; 1.40
κ_3	1.82; 1.34	3.58; 2.50	3.34; 2.38	4.40; 3.06	2.06; 1.42	5.36; 3.30	2.28; 1.58	2.02; 1.40
κ_4	1.90; 1.36	3.80; 2.60	3.36; 2.38	4.38; 2.92	2.06; 1.46	7.04; 3.58	2.70; 1.76	2.04; 1.46
	cases							
	9a; 9b	10a; 10b	11a; 11b	12a; 12b	13a; 13b	14a; 14b	15a; 15b	16a; 16b
κ_1	1.80; 1.30	2.74; 1.98	2.06; 1.44	1.74; 1.18	1.86; 1.22	4.46; 2.78	9.86; 5.58	3.38; 2.34
κ_2	1.80; 1.30	2.74; 1.98	2.06; 1.44	1.74; 1.26	1.86; 1.22	4.46; 2.78	9.86; 5.58	3.42; 2.34
κ_3	1.80; 1.30	2.74; 1.98	2.06; 1.44	1.74; 1.26	1.86; 1.22	4.46; 2.78	9.86; 5.58	3.42; 2.34
κ_4	2.02; 1.52	3.20; 2.34	2.34; 1.72	2.02; 1.60	1.98; 1.32	4.10; 2.26	3.66; 1.90	3.62; 2.64

Table 4: The intercept difference values at which the power estimates reach 1 for the 16 cases listed in Table 1 based on 10000 Monte Carlo samples: κ_i = intercept difference value at which power estimate of method i reaches 1 for the first time for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ where method labeling is as in Table 2.

7 Figures

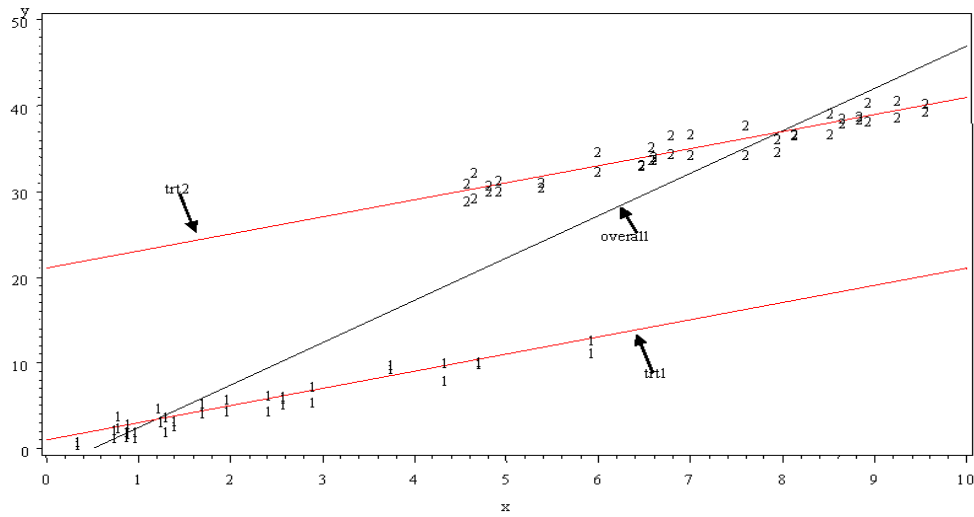


Figure 1: A sample plot for case 6, where observations from treatment i are marked with i , for $i = 1, 2$, $\text{trt } i$ = fitted regression line for treatment i , $i = 1, 2$; overall= overall fitted regression line.

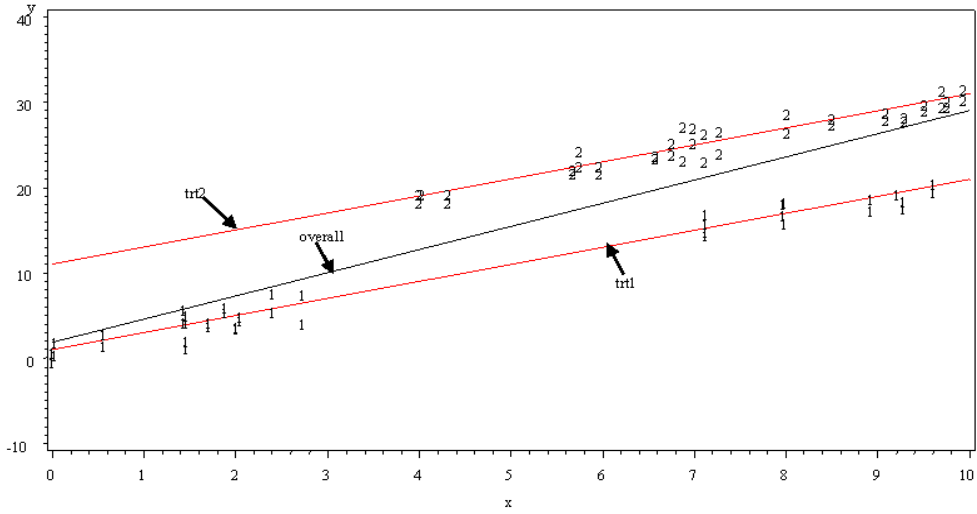


Figure 2: A sample plot for case 7. Labeling is as in Figure 1.

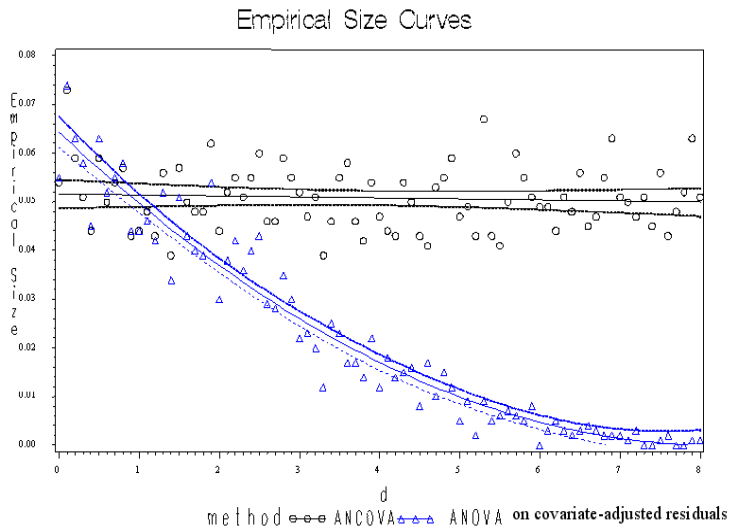


Figure 3: Empirical sizes for ANCOVA and ANOVA on covariate-adjusted residuals versus the distance between the treatment-specific means, $d = \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$, with the corresponding 95% confidence bands.

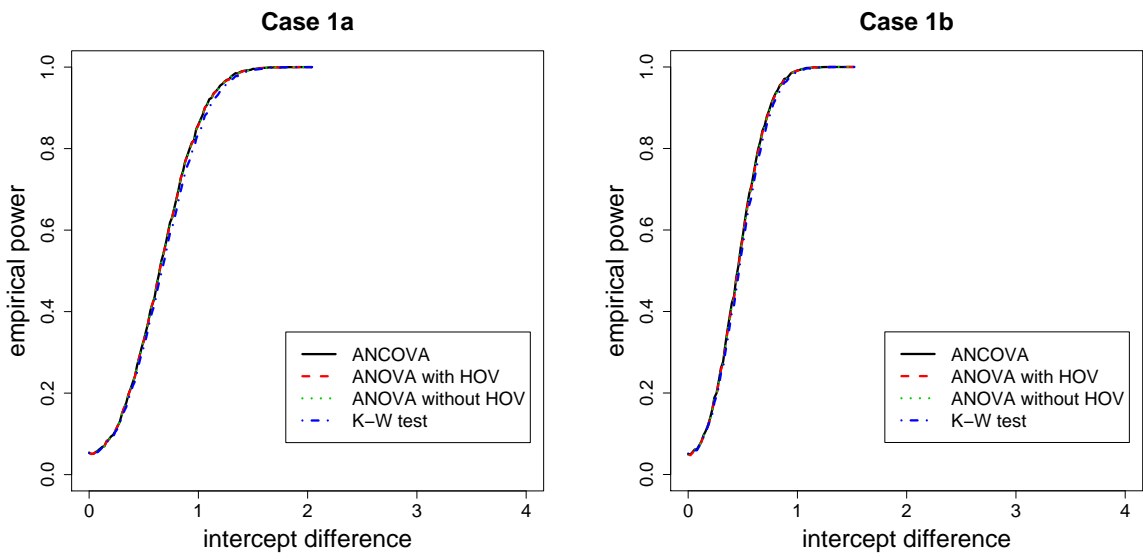


Figure 4: Empirical power estimates versus intercept difference for cases 1a and 1b.

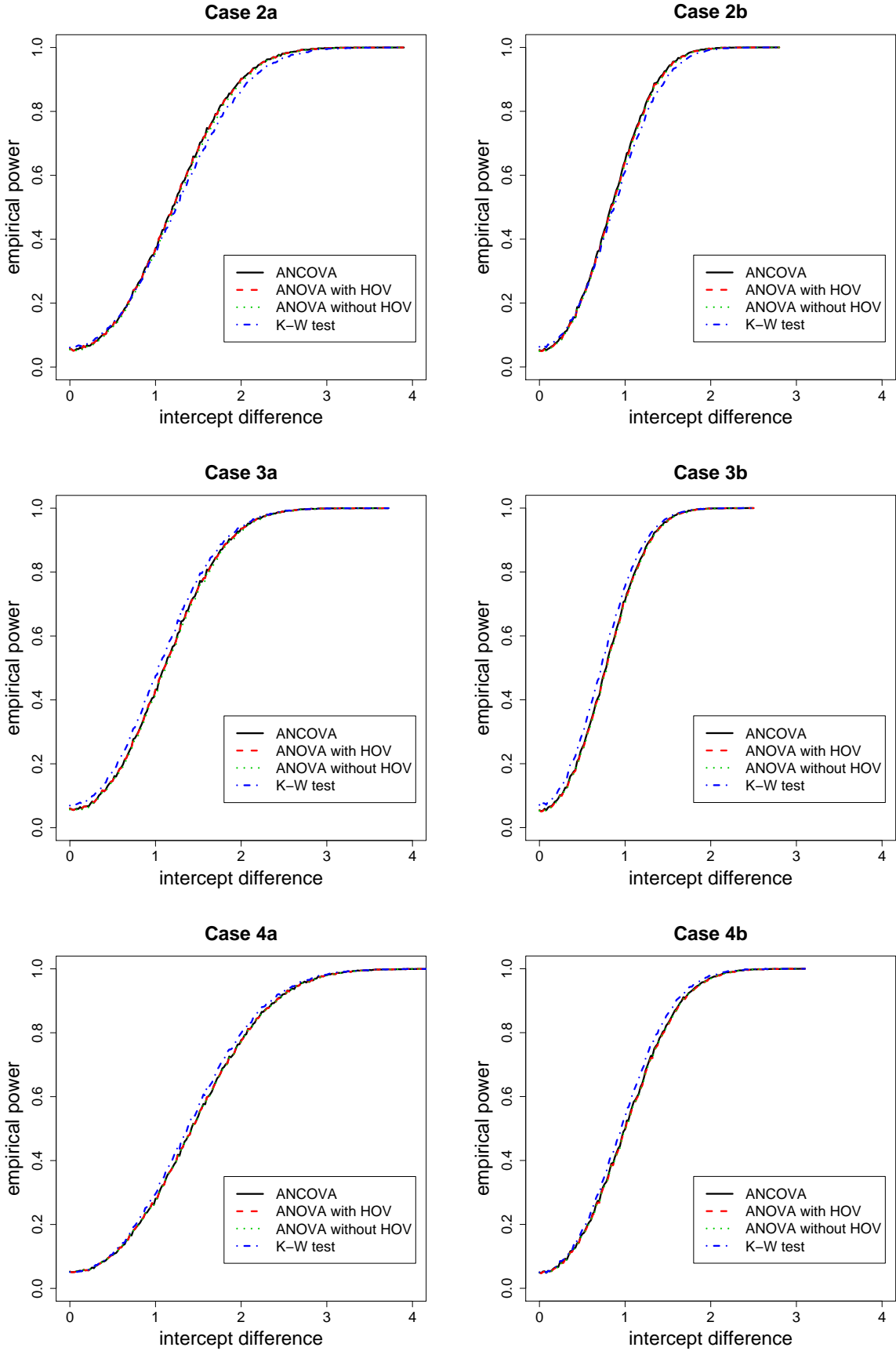


Figure 5: Empirical power estimates versus intercept difference for cases 2a-4a, and 2b-4b.

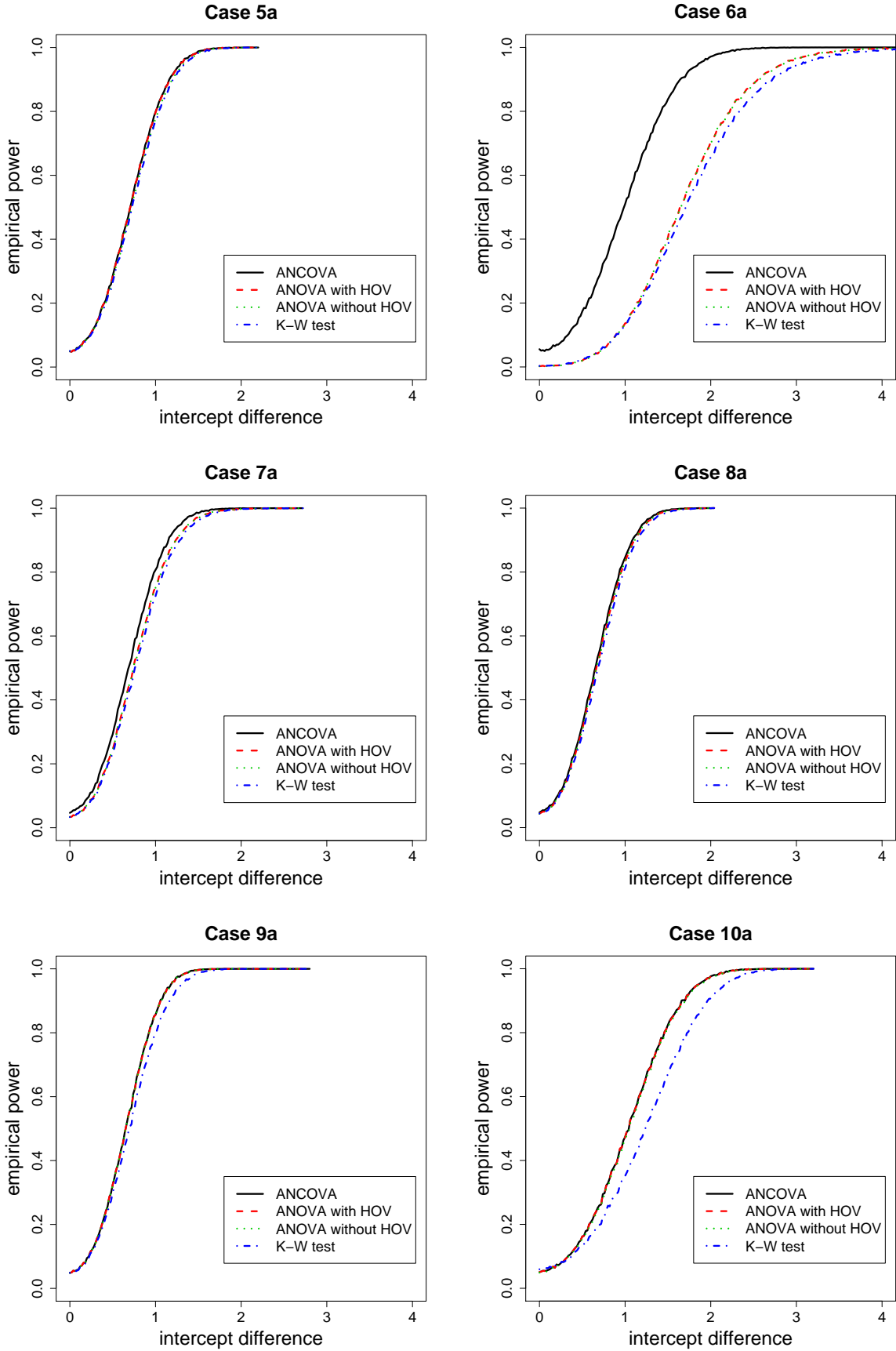


Figure 6: Empirical power estimates versus intercept difference for cases 5a-10a.

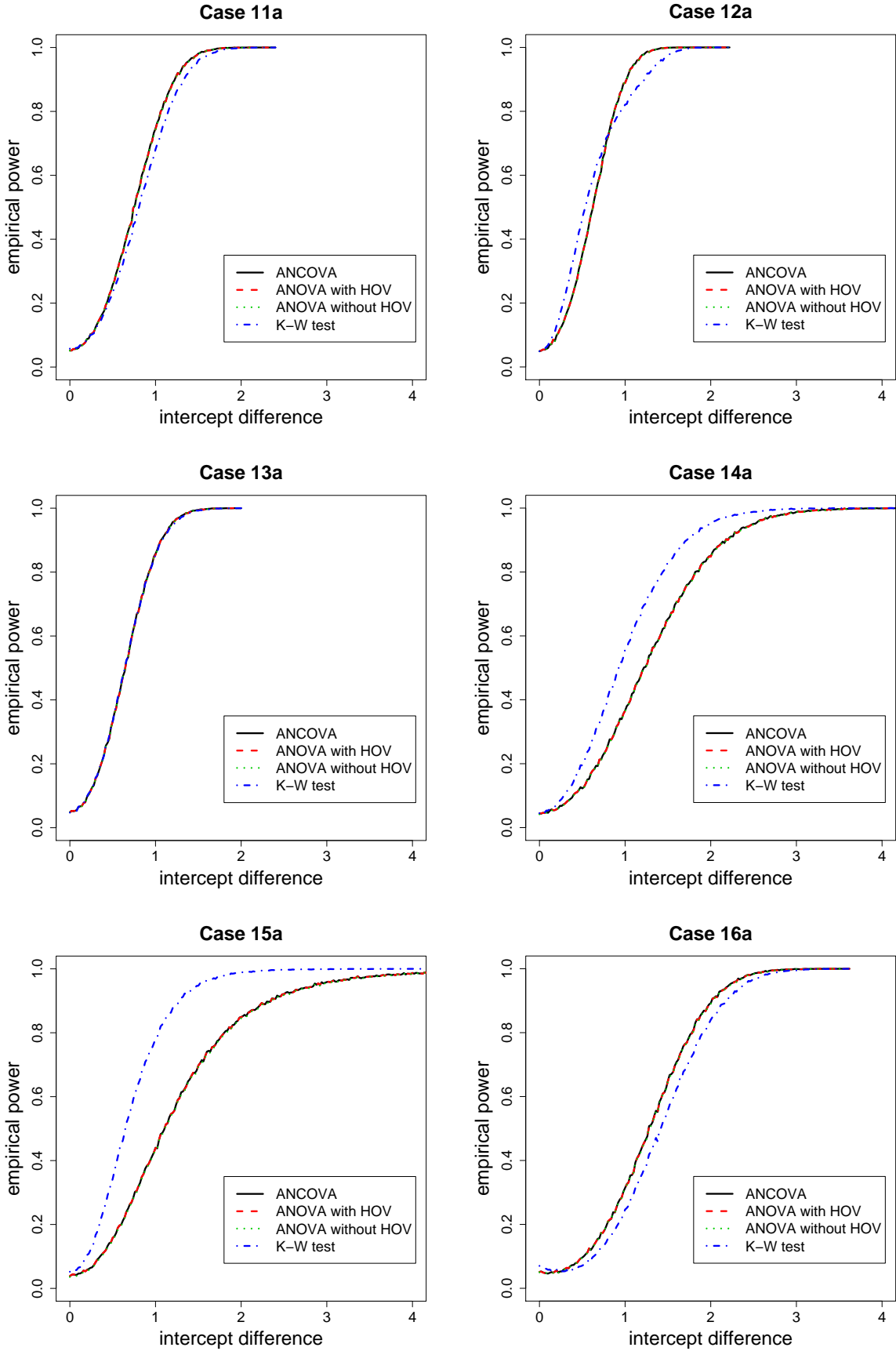


Figure 7: Empirical power estimates versus intercept difference for cases 11a-16a.