

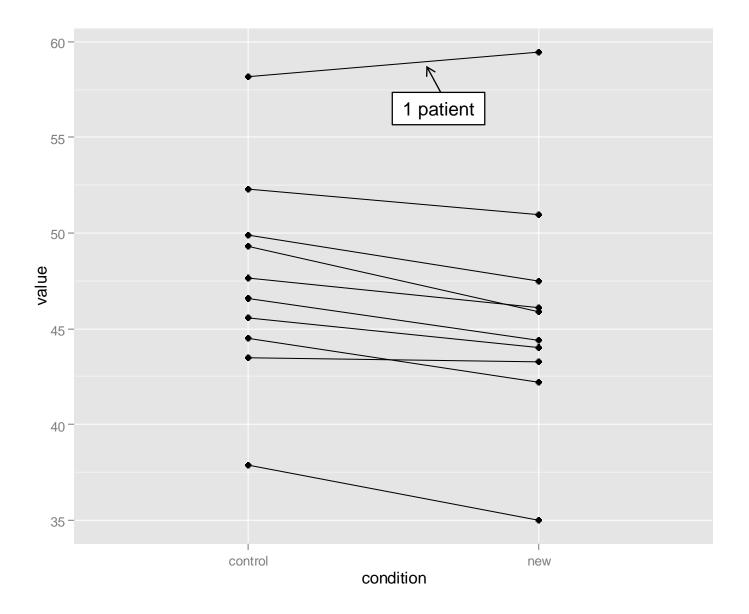
Complete Block Designs

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Remember: Paired *t***-Test** (Example from Elliott, 2006)

- Want to compare two different eye-drops ("new" vs. "control").
- Every subject gets both treatments (meaning: one per eye; at the same time).
- At the end, measure redness on quantitative scale in every eye.
- For every patient, calculate the difference "new control".
- Perform standard one-sample *t*-test with these differences.

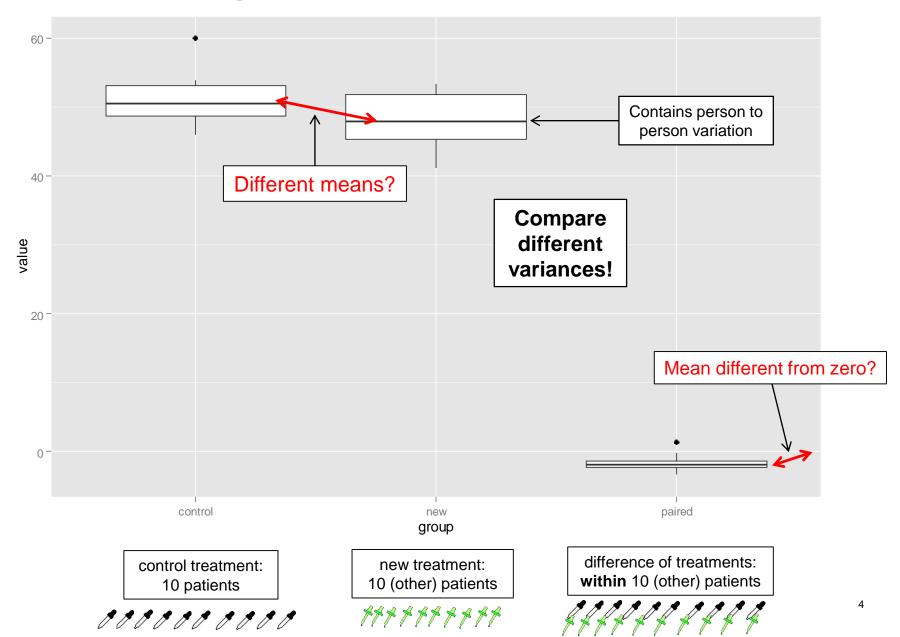
Fictional Data Set of 10 Patients



Paired *t*-Test

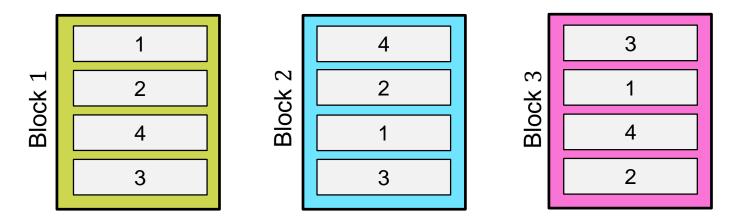
- Instead of using both eyes of 10 patients we could also do a similar experiment with
 - 10 patients getting the control treatment in one eye
 - 10 other patients getting the new treatment in one eye
- See next slide for potential data-sets.
- As mentioned in the first week, we can reduce variance by using homogeneous experimental units.
- A set of units that is homogeneous in some sense is called a **block**.
- In this example, a **block** is given by a **person**.

Paired vs. Unpaired Data



Randomized Complete Block Designs (RCB)

- A Randomized Complete Block Design (RCB) is the most basic blocking design.
- Assume we have r blocks containing g units each.



- Here, r = 3 blocks with g = 4 units.
- In every of the r blocks we randomly assign the g treatments to the g units, independently of the other blocks.

Randomized Complete Block Designs (RCB)

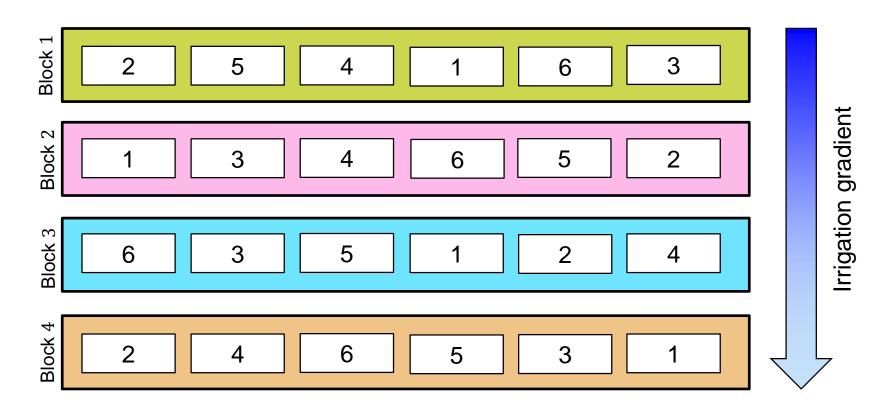
- Hence, a blocking design uses a restricted randomization scheme. Each block gets its "own" randomization.
- Blocking exists at the time of randomization!
- We call a blocking design complete if every treatment is used in every block.
- In the standard setup, we observe every treatment (only)
 once in every block, hence we have a total of r (the number of blocks) observations per treatment.
- Therefore, we have **no replicates** (for treatment and block combinations).

Example (Example 8.1 in Kuehl, 2000)

- Researchers wanted to evaluate the effect of several different fertilization timing schedules on stem tissue nitrate amounts.
- Treatment: Six different nitrogen application timing and rate schedules (including a control treatment of no nitrogen).
- Response: Stem tissue nitrate amount.
- Experiment design: irrigated field with a water gradient along one direction, see next slide.
- We already know:

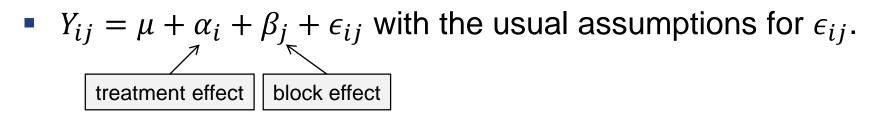
Available moisture will have an influence on the response.

Example: Layout of Experimental Design



- Any differences in plant responses caused by the water gradient will be associated with blocks.
- We also say: we control for the water gradient.

Example: Analysis



- By only using main effects we implicitly assume that the effects are additive.
- Due to the balanced design we can use our standard estimates (one at a time) and sum of squares.

```
> fit <- aov(y ~ block + treatment, data = nitro)</pre>
> summary(fit)
            Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
                        65.67
block
             3
                197.0
                                9.120 0.00112
                201.3
                       40.26
                                5.592 0.00419
             5
treatment
Residuals
            15
               108.0
                       7.20
```

 Typically, we are **not** making inference about blocks (we already know that blocks are different!).

Interaction of Treatment with Block Factor

- The blocking may result in (very) large differences between units from different blocks (which is **ok**).
- In the model we **assumed** that the effects are additive.
- Meaning: the treatment effects are constant from block to block.
- If we only have one observation per treatment and block combination we can potentially only detect interaction effects of the multiplicative form.
- If we want to fit a model with interaction, we would need more than one observation per treatment and block combination. What does interaction mean?

Factorials in Complete Block Designs

- Conceptually it is straightforward to have (e.g.) a twofactor factorial in a randomized complete block design.
- The analysis is straightforward. In R we would just use the model formula Y ~ Block + A * B

Source	df	
Block	r-1	
Α	a-1	
В	b - 1	
AB	$(a-1)\cdot(b-1)$	
Error	$(ab-1) \cdot (r-1) \longleftarrow$	"Leftovers"
Total	$rab-1 \leftarrow$	# observations – 1

 We can test the interaction AB even if we only have one replicate per AB combination per block.

How Much Does Blocking Increase Precision?

- Squared standard errors for treatment means are
 - RCB design (what we've just done): $\frac{\sigma_{RCB}^2}{r}$
 - Completely randomized design: $\frac{\sigma_{CRD}^2}{n}$ Number of observations per treatment
 - If we want to have the same precision, we have to ensure that

$$\frac{\sigma_{RCB}^2}{r} = \frac{\sigma_{CRD}^2}{n}.$$

If we know σ_{RCB}^2 and σ_{CRD}^2 than we have to use a ratio of

$$\frac{n}{r} = \frac{\sigma_{CRD}^2}{\sigma_{RCB}^2}.$$

How Much Does Blocking Increase Precision?

- σ_{RCB}^2 is estimated by MS_E of our RCB.
- What about σ_{CRD}^2 ?
- Can be estimated using a properly weighted average of MS_E and MS_{Block}

$$\hat{\sigma}_{CRD}^2 = w \cdot MS_{Block} + (1 - w) \cdot MS_E$$

where w is some weight (see Oehlert, page 323).

• **Relative efficiency** is then defined as:

$$RE = \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_{CRD}^2}{\widehat{\sigma}_{RCB}^2}$$

(sometimes multiply with correction factor for df's).

• *RE* gives us the ratio $\frac{n}{r}$.

How Much Does Blocking Increase Precision?

- In our example: relative efficiency \approx 2.
- Meaning: A CRD would need twice as many experimental units to achieve the same efficiency (precision).
- Here: 8 replications per treatment (instead of 4).
- Easier for a quick check: Have a look at the ratio $\frac{MS_{Block}}{MS_E}$

$$\frac{MS_{Block}}{MS_E} > 1 \iff \text{Relative Efficiency} > 1$$

More than One Blocking Factor

- Up to now: one blocking factor involved, i.e. we can block on a single source of variation.
- Sometimes: need to block on more than one source.
- We will discuss some special cases.
 - Latin Squares
 - Graeco-Latin Squares

Example: Car Tires (Kuehl, 2000, Example 8.2)

- An experiment tests 4 car tire treatments (A, B, C, D) on 4 cars. Response: Wear of a tire.
- Each treatment appears on one of the 4 positions of each car.
 Block factors
- Experiment set-up was as follows:

Tire position				
	Α	В	С	D
	В	С	D	A
	С	D	Α	В
8 28	D	Α	В	С

Latin Squares

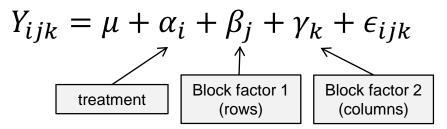
- This design is a so called Latin Square.
- Each treatment (the Latin letters) appears exactly once in each row and exactly once in each column.
- A Latin Square blocks on both rows and columns simultaneously.
- The design is very restrictive. A Latin Square needs to have
 - *g* treatments (the Latin letters)
 - Two block factors each having *g* levels (the rows and the columns)
 - Hence, a total of g^2 experimental units
- We're only seeing g^2 out of g^3 possible combinations (but the subset we see is selected in a smart, balanced way).

Latin Squares

- A Latin Square is nothing else than an assignment of treatments to units with the side constraints
 - each treatment appears exactly once in each row.
 - each treatment appears exactly once in each column.
- Picking a random Latin Square isn't trivial: Fisher-Yates algorithm (see book for details).

Analysis of Latin Squares

 Use main effects model with treatment, row and column effects.



- The design is balanced having the effect that our usual estimators and sums of squares are "working".
- As in an RCB we do **not** test for the block effects.
- Latin Squares can have few degrees of freedom for error if g is small, making detection of treatment effects difficult:

g	df of MS _E
3	2
4	6
5	12

Latin Squares

- Just because the design contains the word "square" doesn't mean that the physical layout of the experiment has to be a square.
- Often, one blocking factor is time: Think of testing 5 different machines (A, B, C, D, E) on 5 days with 5 operators (response: yield of machine):

Operator	Ř	<u>ř</u>			
Mon	Ε	В	С	Α	D
Tue	В	D	Ε	С	Α
Wed	Α	С	D	В	E
Thu	С	Ε	Α	D	В
Fri	D	Α	В	Ε	С

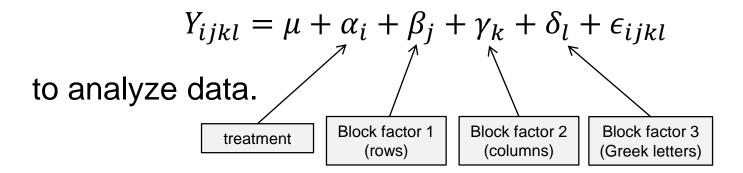
Graeco Latin Squares

- What if we have one more blocking criterion?
- Use so called Graeco Latin Squares (if applicable).
- Take a Latin Square and superimpose it with another block factor, denoted by Greek letters (here: think of driver)

Car				
	Αα	Βγ	Сδ	Dβ
	Ββ	Αδ	Dγ	Cα
	Сү	Dα	Aβ	Βδ
0 0	Dδ	Сβ	Βα	Αγ

Graeco Latin Squares

- The Latin letters occur once in each row and column
- The Greek letters occur once in each row and column
 - In addition: each Latin letter occurs exactly **once** with each Greek letter.
- Use main effects model



Latin squares

More General Situations

- In practice, (Graeco) Latin Squares are often impractical due to the very restrictive assumptions on the number of levels of the involved treatment and block factors.
- E.g., think of the car tire example with 7 instead of 4 tire treatments.
- Or going back to the intro example: What if we wanted to compare three different eye-drops?
- This will lead us to balanced incomplete block designs (BIBD), see later.



General Rules for Analyzing Block Designs

- As we have seen, we treat block factors just as other factors in our model formulas.
- Typically, a block effect is assumed to be additive (i.e., main effects only).
- Block factors are **not** tested but they can be examined with respect to efficiency gain.
- ANOVA table and df's are "as usual".
- A possible interaction between block and treatment factor(s) is difficult to sell.