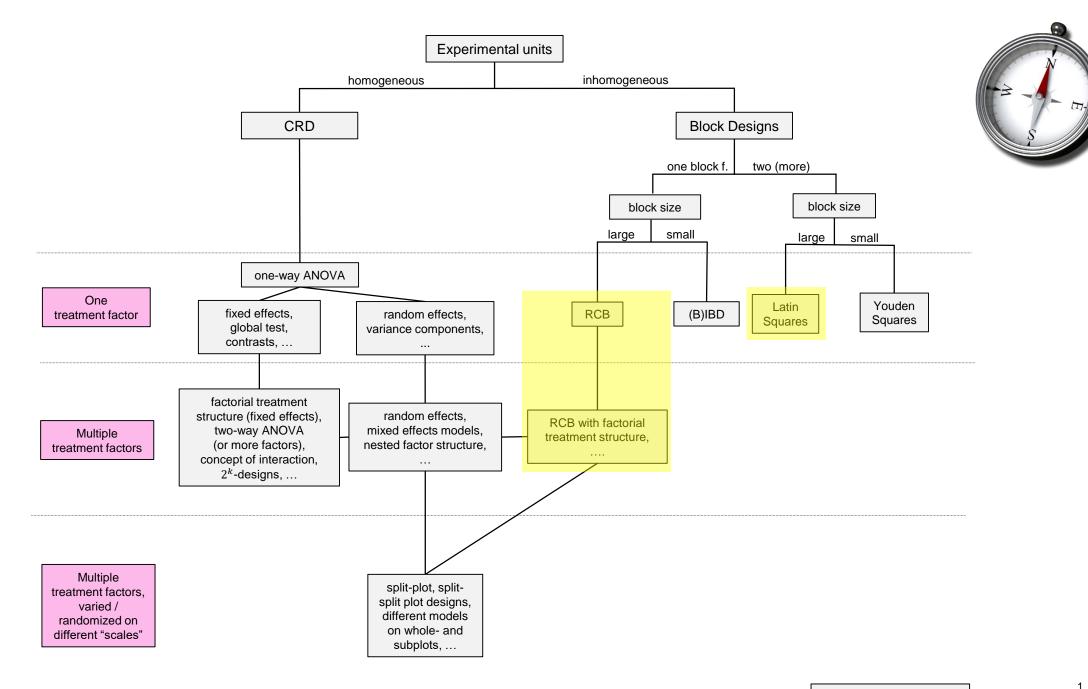


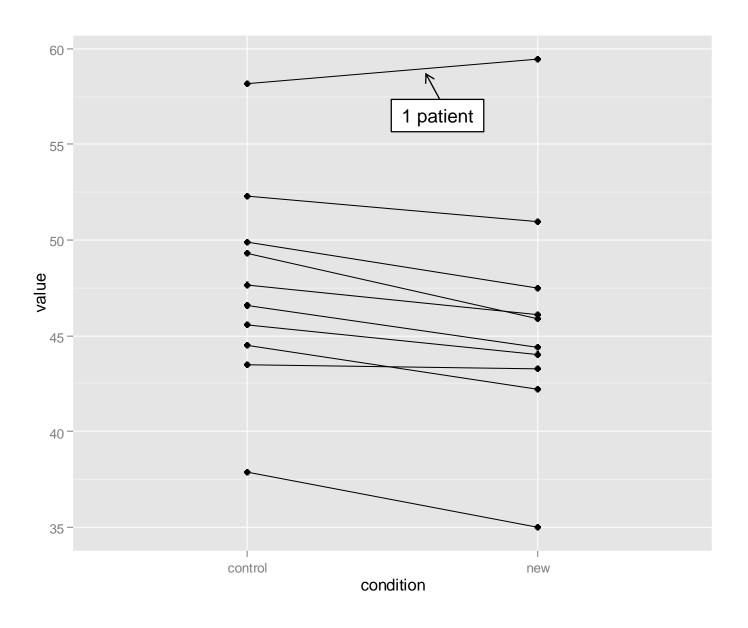
Complete Block Designs



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.

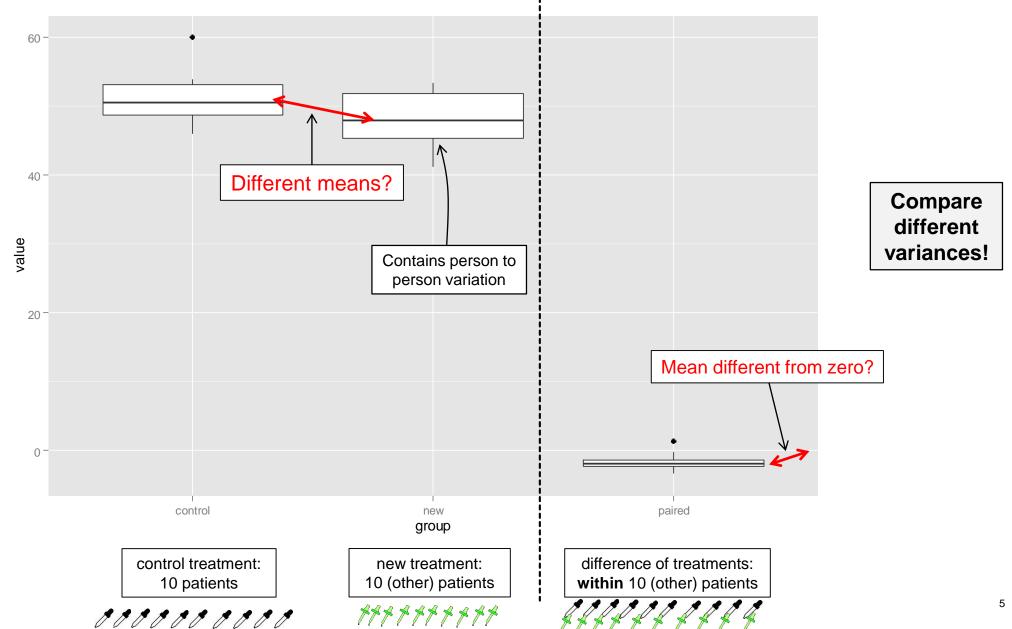
Fictional Data Set of 10 Patients



Paired *t*-Test

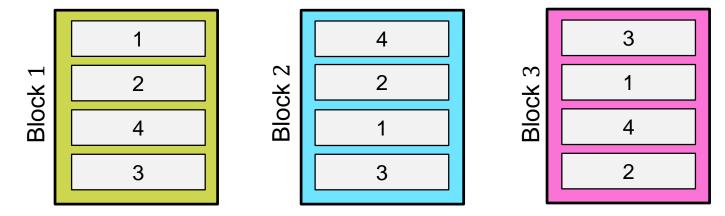
- Instead of using both eyes of 10 patients, we could also do a similar experiment with
 - 10 patients getting the control treatment in one (randomized) eye
 - 10 other patients getting the new treatment in one (randomized) eye
- See next slide for potential data sets.
- As mentioned in the first week, 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.

Unpaired Data vs. Paired 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 experimental units each.



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

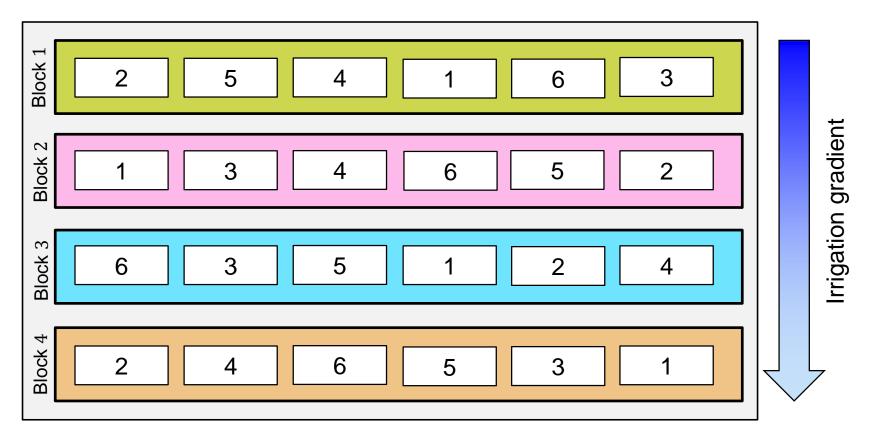
Randomized Complete Block Designs (RCB)

- 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 (every block contains all treatments).
- 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 (every combination of treatment and block is only observed once).
- Extensions to multiple replicates are straightforward.

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.
- Experimental design: Irrigated field with a water gradient along one direction, see next slide.
- We already know before doing the experiment:
 Available moisture (water) 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

• $Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \epsilon_{ij}$ with the usual assumptions for ϵ_{ij} .

treatment effect block effect

- 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 sums of squares.

 Typically, we are **not** making inference about blocks (we already knew beforehand that blocks will be different!).

Interaction of Treatment with Block Factor

- The blocking may result in (very) large differences between units from different blocks (this is OK because we used blocking for this reason!).
- 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 could 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 would an interaction mean?

Factorials in Complete Block Designs

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

Source	df		
Block	r-1		
A	a-1		
В	b-1		
AB	$(a-1)\cdot(b-1)$		
Error	$(ab-1)\cdot(r-1)$	<	"Leftovers"
Total	rab-1		# observations -1

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

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 knew σ_{RCB}^2 and σ_{CRD}^2 , we would 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 (with our current data).
- What about σ_{CRD}^2 ? We actually didn't do the CRD!
- 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 for details).

• Relative efficiency is then defined as:

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

$$\widehat{\sigma}_{crd}^2 = \frac{(r-1)MS_{\text{Blocks}} + ((g-1) + (r-1)(g-1))MS_E}{(r-1) + (g-1) + (r-1)(g-1)}$$

(sometimes multiply with correction factor for df's, only relevant for small samples).

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

How Much Does Blocking Increase Precision?

- In our example: Relative efficiency ≈ 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 $\frac{MS_{Block}}{MS_E}$

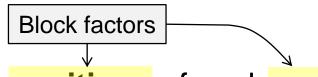
$$\frac{MS_{Block}}{MS_E} > 1 \iff \text{Relative Efficiency} > 1$$

More than One Blocking Factor

- Up to now: One block 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.
- Experiment set up was as follows:

Tire position				
	A	В	С	D
	В	С	D	A
	С	D	A	В
0 0	D	\boldsymbol{A}	В	С

Latin Squares

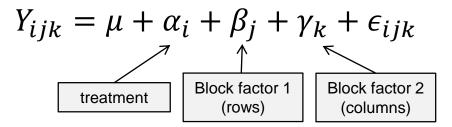
- This design is a so called Latin Square.
- Each treatment (the Latin letters) appears exactly once in each row and exactly once in each column.
- A Latin Square blocks on both rows and columns simultaneously.
- The design is very restrictive. A Latin Square needs to have
 - g treatments (the Latin letters)
 - two block factors having g levels each (the rows and the columns)
 - (hence) a total of g^2 experimental units.
- We're seeing only 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 design, we do not test for the block effects.
- Latin Squares can have few degrees of freedom for the 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					
Mon	Ε	В	С	A	D
Tue	В	D	Ε	С	\boldsymbol{A}
Wed	A	С	D	В	Ε
Thu	С	E	\boldsymbol{A}	D	В
Fri	D	A	В	Ε	С

Graeco-Latin Squares

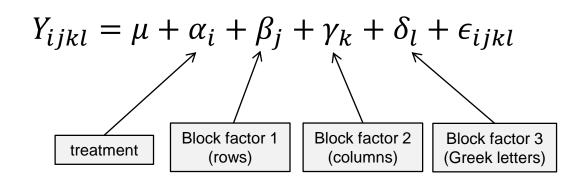
- What if we have one more blocking criterion?
- Use so called Graeco-Latin Squares (if applicable).
- Take a Latin Square and superimpose it with another block factor, denoted by Greek letters (here: think of driver).

Car				
	Αα	Βγ	Сδ	$D\beta$
	$B\beta$	$A\delta$	$D\gamma$	$C\alpha$
	Сү	$D\alpha$	$A\beta$	Вδ
8 8	$D\delta$	Сβ	Βα	$A\gamma$

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

to analyze data.



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
 3 different eye-drops?
- This will lead us to so called 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.
- Because we have used restricted randomization, the block factor must be included in the model ("the analysis must follow the randomization used in the experiment").
- ANOVA table and df's are "as usual".