

Statistical Science.

Part IV. The General Linear Model. Multiple Explanatory Variables.

Chapter 13.6 Nested Factors (Hierarchical ANOVA)

ReCap.	Part I (Chapters 1,2,3,4), Part II (Ch 5, 6, 7)
ReCap	Part III (Ch 9, 10, 11)
ReCap	Multiple Regression (Ch 12)
13.1	Fixed Effects ANOVA (no interactive effects)
13.2	Fixed Effects ANOVA (interactive effects)
13.3	Fixed×Random Factors (Paired t-test)
13.4	Fixed×Random Factors (Randomized Block)
13.5	Fixed×Random Factors (Repeated Measures)
13.6	Nested Random Factors (Hierarchical ANOVA)
13.7	Random within Fixed (Hierarchical ANOVA)
13.8	More Than Two Factors (to be written)

Fly wing length data Sokal and Rohlf Box 10.1 Ch13.xls
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on chalk board

ReCap Part I (Chapters 1,2,3,4) Quantitative reasoning is based on models.

ReCap Part II (Chapters 5,6,7)

Hypothesis testing uses the logic of the null hypothesis to declare a decision.

Estimation is concerned with the specific value of an unknown population parameter.

ReCap (Ch 9, 10,11) The General Linear Model with a single explanatory variable.

ReCap (Ch 12) GLM with more than one regression variable (multiple regression)

ReCap (Ch 13) GLM with more than one categorical variable (ANOVA).

Two fixed factors (Ch 13.1, Ch13.2)

One fixed and one random factor (Paired t-test, Randomized block),

One random and one or more fixed factors (Repeated measures)

Today: Special case of two factor ANOVA: Hierarchical ANOVA Both factors random.

The logical relation of one factor to another is hierarchical: one factor is <u>nested</u> within another.

This is in contrast to <u>crossed</u> designs, such as two-way ANOVA and randomized blocks.
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Wrap-up. Comparison of hierarchical with two-way ANOVA.

Two-way ANOVA has an interaction term. Testing starts with this term.

In randomized blocks, the interaction term is present logically, but assumed to be zero if blocks are homogeneous.

Hierarchical ANOVA differs from crossed designs. The interaction term $\text{Fly} \times \text{Cage}$ cannot be estimated. It is folded into a new term: $\text{Fly}(\text{Cage}) = \text{Cage} + \text{Fly} \times \text{Cage}$.

Introduction.

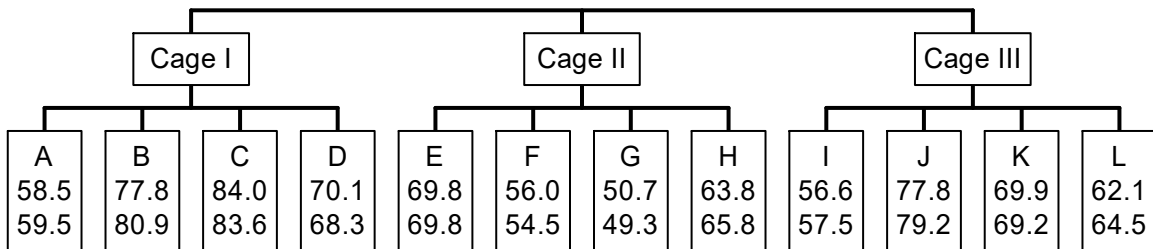
In the examples so far we analyzed variation in the response variable relative to crossed factors. The levels within one explanatory variable (*e.g.* food type) could be matched with levels in a second explanatory variable (*e.g.* sex). Consequently, we can display the data in a two-way table. In such a table the numbers in the table are the response variable. The column labels are one factor. The row labels are the other factor. Here are 4 examples—two with fixed factors and two with a random and a fixed factor.

<u>Response variable</u>	<u>Explanatory variable</u>	<u>Explanatory variable</u>
Limpet respiration	Species (fixed)	Salinity (fixed by experiment)
Rat weight gain	Protein source (fixed)	Protein Level (fixed)
Hours of extra sleep	Subject (random)	Drug (fixed)
Tribolium dry weight	Block (random)	Genotype (fixed)

Here is an example with 2 explanatory variables that are nested, not crossed. Sokal and Rohlf (1995 Box 10.1) report wing lengths of 4 flies in 3 cages.

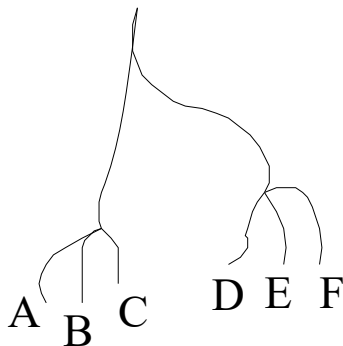
<u>Response variable</u>	<u>Explanatory variable</u>	<u>Explanatory variable</u>
Fly wing length	Cage (random)	Fly (random)

We have no information to match a fly in Cage I (Fly A, B, C, D) to a fly in Cage II (Fly E, F, G, H). Fly is nested within cage. Here is a diagram.



We have two wing measurements but no way to match these across flies. Wing length is nested within fly.

Tree. A graphical expression of hierarchical ANOVA is a tree. For example we draw a few branches representing genera, then for each branch draw twigs representing species. The twigs cannot be aligned across branches, so the design is hierarchical.



Mobile. Another visualization is a hanging mobile. Near the top of the mobile are branches that rotate around a balance point. Beneath each branch there are sub-branches, which rotate around a balance point below the branch. The sub-branches beneath one branch rotate independently of those beneath another branch. They cannot be aligned. The design is hierarchical.

Crossed versus nested factors.

Two crossed factors can also be shown as a branching diagram. However a branching diagram does not always show a nested design. To distinguish crossed from nested, we inspect a two way table.

		Fly within Cage														
		I	A	B	C	D					E	F	G	H		
Cage	II															
	III												I <td>J<td>K<td>L</td> </td></td>	J <td>K<td>L</td> </td>	K <td>L</td>	L

The table has more empty than occupied cells. The interactive effect cannot be estimated. The interactive variability becomes part of the lower level term as follows:

$$\text{Fly} + \text{Cage} \times \text{Fly} \rightarrow \text{Fly}(\text{Cage})$$

More generally: $B + A \times B \rightarrow B(A)$

The symbol B(A) reads naturally from left to right as “B within A.” Set notation also reads left to right: $B \subset A$. This notation is readily used in reading, thinking, and writing about nested designs. Most statistical packages use this notation. R does not. It uses Cage/Fly or more generally A/B where B is nested within A.

Here is an accounting of degrees of freedom showing how joining an interaction term with the lower level term produces the df for the nested term.

<u>Crossed</u>		<u>Nested</u>			
Source	df	Source	df	Source	df
Factor A	3-1 = 2	Factor A	3-1 = 2	Factor A	3-1 = 2
Factor B	4-1 = 3	Factor B(A)	3 + 6 = 9	Factor B(A)	(4-1)3 = 9
A x B	2 x 3 = 6				
		$B + A \times B \rightarrow B(A)$ $3 + 6 = 9$			

A nested factor ANOVA can have mixed terms—random within fixed. It can also have all random terms—random within random.

<u>Both Random</u>		<u>Mixed</u>					
<u>B crossed with A</u>		<u>B nested in A</u>		<u>B crossed with A</u>		<u>B nested in A</u>	
A	Random	A	Random	A	Fixed	A	Fixed
B	Random	B(A)	Random	B	Random	B(A)	Random
A x B	Random			A x B	Mixed		

Not all random factors are nested. For example, a latin square design has two random factors that are crossed.

Example Data from Sokal and Rohlf (1995) Box 10.1

Two measurements made on the left wings of 4 mosquitos in each of 3 cages.
 This is a nested design. We cannot match flies across cages.
 At a lower level, we cannot match wing measurements across flies.

1. Construct model

Verbal model.

Does mosquito wing length vary among cages as well as among mosquitoes?

Graphical model. Plot of the means of the measurements for each fly in each cage.

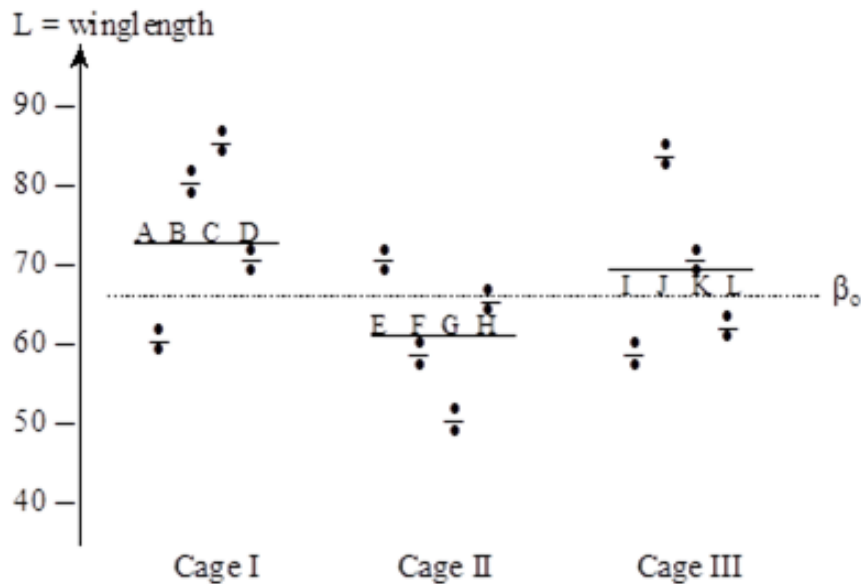


Fig L17b

Response variable is winglength L
 It is a ratio scale variable.

First explanatory variable is cage X_{cage} (categorical variable)
 Second explanatory variable is fly within cage or equivalently $X_{\text{fly} \subset \text{cage}}$ (categorical variable)
 $X_{\text{fly}(\text{cage})}$

Each fly gets a different label. We avoid using the label “Fly A” in cage II or III because flies cannot be matched across cages.

- $X_{\text{fly}(\text{cage})}$ = Fly A Fly B Fly C Fly D in Cage I
- $X_{\text{fly}(\text{cage})}$ = Fly E Fly F Fly G Fly H in Cage II
- $X_{\text{fly}(\text{cage})}$ = Fly J Fly K Fly L Fly M in Cage III

Write GLM: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{\text{cage}}X_{\text{cage}} + \beta_{\text{fly}(\text{cage})}X_{\text{fly}(\text{cage})} + \text{res}$

Component $Y_{ijk} = \mu + A_i + B_{ij} + \epsilon_{ijk}$

GLM notation shows parameters. Component notation distinguishes random factors (roman letters) from fixed factors (greek letters).

2. Execute analysis.

Place data in model format:

Column labelled L, with response variable fly wing length

Column labelled X_{cage}, with explanatory variable X_{cage} = I, II, or III

Column labelled X_{fly(cage)} with label (number) for each fly

Code model statement in statistical package according to the GLM

$$L = \beta_o + \beta_{cage} \cdot X_{cage} + \beta_{fly(cage)} \cdot X_{fly(cage)} + \varepsilon$$

```
MTB > anova 'L' = 'cage' 'fly'('cage');
SUBC> random 'cage' 'fly'('cage').
```

Minitab

```
FlyMod<-aov(L ~ Cage + Error(Cage/Fly),
SRBx10 1)
```

R-code

The code estimates the overall mean ($\hat{\beta}_o$).

It estimates the mean for each cage ($\hat{\beta}_o + \hat{\beta}_{cage} \cdot X_{cage}$).

The fitted values are the means for each fly ($\hat{\beta}_o + \hat{\beta}_{cage} \cdot X_{cage} + \hat{\beta}_{fly(cage)} X_{fly(cage)}$).

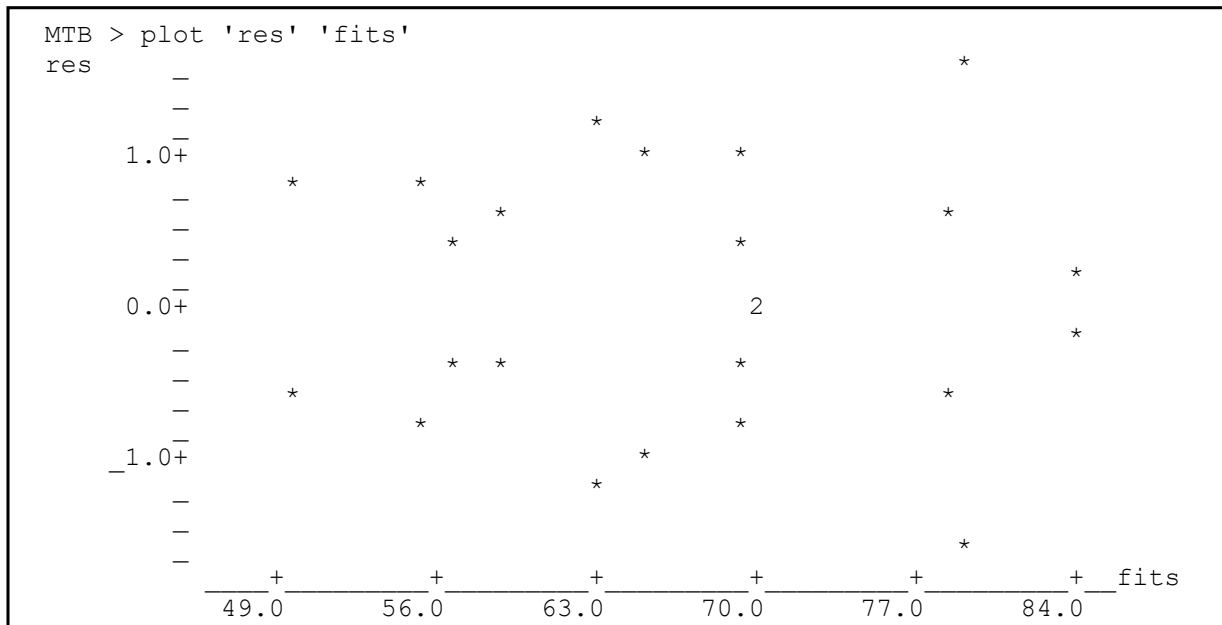
$$\hat{\beta}_o = \text{Mean}(L) = 24^{-1} 1599.2 = 66.633$$

$$\text{Mean}(L_{cageI}) = 8^{-1} 582.7 = 72.84$$

$$\hat{\beta}_o + \hat{\beta}_{cage} \cdot X_{cage} = \text{Mean}(L_{cageII}) = 8^{-1} 479.7 = 59.96$$

$$\text{Mean}(L_{cageIII}) = 8^{-1} 536.8 = 67.10$$

3. Evaluate the model Plot residuals versus fitted values.



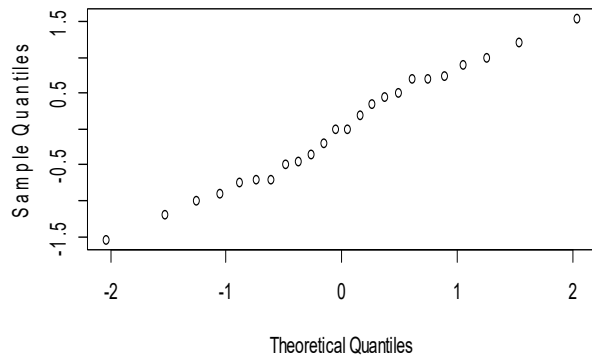
A. No line was fitted in the model, so skip evaluation of straight line assumption.

B1. Residuals homogeneous? Yes.

No systematic change in residuals with increase in fitted values (*i.e.* no fans).

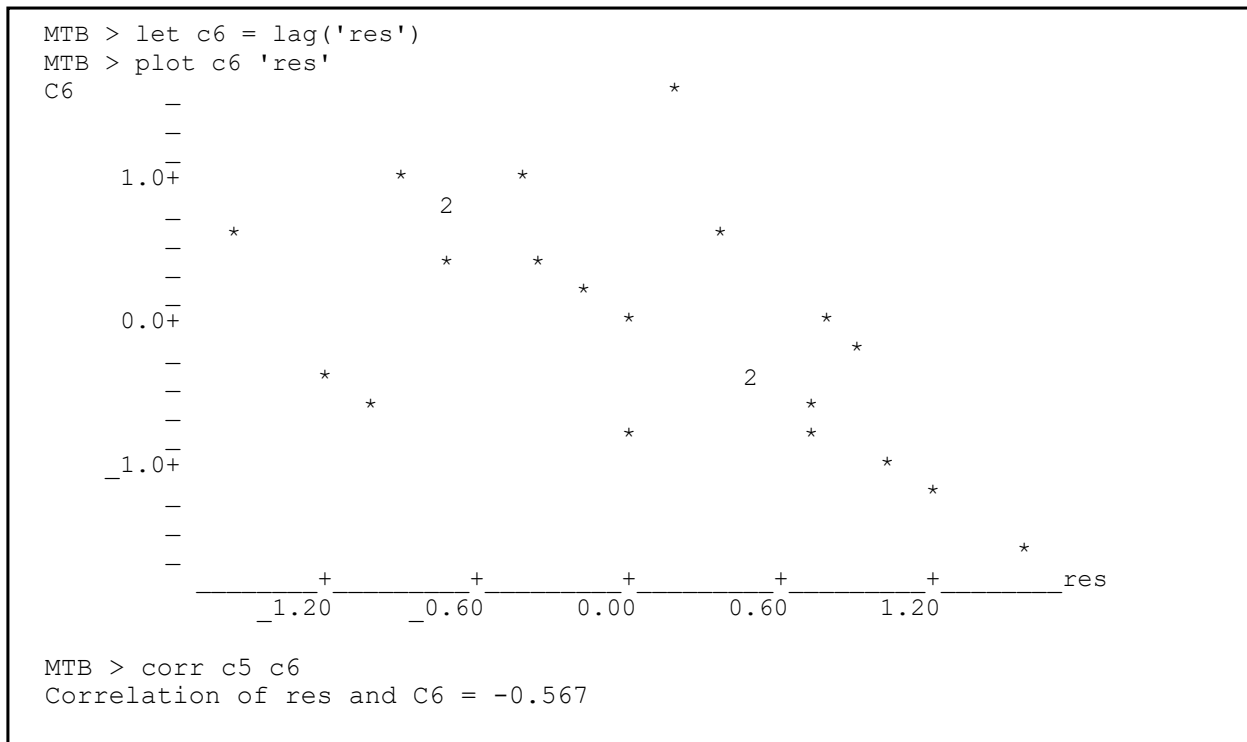
3. Evaluate the model

B2. Residuals normal? Yes.



Histogram of res		N = 24
Midpoint	Count	
1.5	1	*
1.0	3	***
0.5	6	*****
0.0	4	****
0.5	5	*****
1.0	4	****
1.5	1	*

B3. Residuals independent? Apparently not. The correlation at lag 1 is high.



The lag plot shows a downward trend because the data are organized according to cage and fly. As a result, the two residuals in each fly are mirror images (+ and -) with the same magnitude. The correlation of these pairs is by definition $r = -0.5$.

(Anscombe, F.J. Tukey J.W. 1963. The examination and analysis of residuals. *Technometrics* 5: 141-160)

This induced correlation is evident in the downward trend in the plot of adjacent values. Lag plots are misleading when replication is less than 4 at the lowest level in the analysis (at the level of fly in this analysis). In this example the correlation vanishes when these pairs are removed.

The errors are acceptably homogeneous, normal, and independent.

4. Partition df and SS according to model. Calculate LR

Compute total df: $n-1 = 24 - 1 = 23$

Partition df according to the model

Cage term: 3 cages hence $3-1 = 2$ df.

Fly term: 4 flies per cage hence $4-1 = 3$ df per cage.

$3 \cdot (4-1) = 9$ df for the fly within cage term.

Calculate $SS_{\text{total}} = 23 \text{ Var}(L) = 23 \cdot 104.43 = 2401.98$

By hand: $SS_{\text{total}} = \sum L^2 - n^{-1}(\sum L)^2 = 108962 - 24^{-1} \cdot 1599.2^2 = 2401.98$

In Minitab:

```
MTB > let k1 = ssq('Len')
MTB> print k1
k1 2401.98
```

In a spreadsheet

```
=DevSQ(A1:A24)
```

In R

```
> sum( (x - mean(x) )^2 )
[1] 2401.98
```

Use statistical software to partition the SS_{total} and produce the ANOVA table.

Note that the default in any package is all terms fixed and F-ratios formed relative to the residual. These will often be incorrect for the fixed terms in a mixed model. The correct F-ratios are formed by specifying which terms are random.

In Minitab we use a subcommand.

```
SUBC> random 'cage' 'fly'('cage').
```

In R, we use one of several ways.

```
FlyMod<-aov(L ~ Cage + Error(Cage/Fly), )
```

```
FlyMod<-aov(L ~ 1 + 1|Cage + 1|(Cage:Fly), )
```

Here is the partitioning of the SS_{total} .

GLM:	$Y - \beta_0$	=	$\beta_{\text{cage}}X_{\text{cage}}$	+	$\beta_{\text{fly(cage)}}X_{\text{fly(cage)}}$	+	res
Source:	total	=	cage		fly(cage)		res
df	$24-1$	=	$3-1$	+	$3(4-1)$	+	12
SS	2402	=	665.68	+	1720.68	+	15.62

$$1 - R^2 = (15.62/2401.97) = 0.65 \%$$

$$LR = (1-R^2)^{-24/2} = 1.7 \times 10^{26}$$

The evidence for the overall model is strong so we proceed to a calculation of the likelihood for each component of variation. In a model with random factors the likelihood ratio and the F-ratio are formed relative to the correctly nested ratio of expected mean squares, as described in texts in experimental design (*e.g.* Cochran and Cox 1957, Quinn and Keough, 2002).

4. Calculate LR

Forming the likelihood ratios (and F-ratios) relative to the residual SS is not always correct. A ratio is formed relative to a random term below it in the ANOVA table. Here is a step by step procedure to write out the correct LRs and F-ratios.

List the terms in the model, as in the ANOVA table

List the same terms horizontally. In each row, show the row term.

		<u>Cage</u>	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Cage	Cage		
EMS	Fly%in% Cage		Fly%in% Cage	
EMS	Error			Error

Each EMS includes itself

		<u>Cage</u>	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Cage	Cage		Error
EMS	Fly%in% Cage		Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Error			Error

Each EMS includes the fixed error term

		<u>Cage</u>	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Cage	Cage	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Fly%in% Cage		Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Error			Error

Each EMS includes crossed (or nested) random terms

		<u>Cage</u>	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Cage	Cage	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Fly%in% Cage		Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Error			Error

Correct

Denominator MS
Fly%in% Cage
Error

Identify the denominator MS for the F-ratio
The denominator MS cancels all but the term of interest

		<u>Cage</u>	Fly%in% Cage	Error
EMS	Cage	Cage	Fly%in% Cage	Error
	Fly%in% Cage			
EMS	Error			Error

Incorrect

Denominator MS
Error

Cage MS / Error results in *two* uncanceled terms.
The F-test is confounded.

In this example each ratio is formed relative to the term below it in the ANOVA table. This will not always be true in more complex analyses. In these, the EMS table must be written out to identify the correct ratio.

Here are the calculations for the LRs in this example.

df	SS	1+ SSratio				
2	665.68	1.39	= (665.68 + 1720.68)/1720.68	LR = (1.39) ^{-24/2}	LR = 51	
9	1720.68	111.16	= (1720.68 + 15.62) /15.62	LR = (111.16) ^{-24/2}	LR = 10 ²⁴	
12	15.62					
23	2401.98					

The evidence for the fly within cage term is far stronger than the evidence for the cage term.

5. State population and whether sample is representative.

This is a laboratory study with a well established measurement protocol that generates data that meets Hacking’s (1965) requirement for likelihood inference (Hacking. I. 1965 *The Logic of Statistical Inference*). Inference requires a procedural statement that generates data under reproducible conditions. As sample size increases a better and better estimate of the value of a parameter emerges from the law of large numbers.

Inference is to a population of wing measurements according to a measurement protocol. Inference is to a population of cages similar to those in this study.

5. Choose mode of inference. Is hypothesis testing appropriate?

The goal of the analysis is an estimate of variance at different levels. Estimates such as these are central to statistical design. A judgement relative to Type I error is not required. A decision at a fixed Type I error is not needed. We will calculate and report likelihood ratios as a measure of evidence.

10. Report and interpret variances.

The parameters in this analysis were not of interest. The variance due to each factor is of interest. The interest is in the amount of variation, not the contrasts in means. The amount of variability due to each factor is used to design efficient experiments.

Source	df	SS	%
Cage	2	665.68	27.7
Fly□Cage)	9	1720.68	71.6
<u>Error</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>15.62</u>	0.7
Total	23	2401.97	

Most of the variability (72%) is among flies. As a result, in designing an experiment we would want to use many flies to reduce the mean square at this level. The percent variability is less at the level of cages, so we would not need to use many cages to reduce the mean square at the cage level. The variability due to measurement error is negligible, so we do not need to devote effort to repeating measurements on a single fly.