

1 **Analysis of Variance with Unbalanced Data: An Update for Ecology & Evolution**

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12

1 **Abstract**

2 Factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with unbalanced (non-orthogonal) data is a  
3 commonplace but controversial and poorly understood topic in applied statistics. We explain  
4 that ANOVA calculates the sum of squares for each term in the model formula sequentially  
5 (type I sums of squares) and show how ANOVA tables of *adjusted* sums of squares are  
6 composite tables assembled from multiple sequential analyses. A different ANOVA is  
7 performed for each explanatory variable or interaction so that each term is placed last in the  
8 model formula in turn and adjusted for the others. The sum of squares for each term in the  
9 analysis can be calculated after adjusting only for the main effects of other explanatory  
10 variables (type II sums of squares) or, controversially, for both main effects and interactions  
11 (type III sums of squares). We summarize the main recent developments and emphasize the  
12 shift away from the search for the ‘right’ ANOVA table in favour of presenting one or more  
13 models that best suit the objectives of the analysis.

14

15 **Keywords:** Adjusted sums of squares; Type III sums of squares; ANOVA; Orthogonality;  
16 Linear models; R.

17

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) continues to be one of the most widely used forms of  
3 statistical analysis in many areas of science (Gelman, 2005, Gelman and Hill, 2007).  
4 Nevertheless, factorial ANOVA with unbalanced (non-orthogonal – supplement S1) data is a  
5 controversial topic in applied statistics and one of the areas of ANOVA that is most poorly  
6 understood in ecology, evolution and environmental science. This is partly because bio-  
7 statistics textbooks appear to avoid the topic, perhaps because it is controversial. The last  
8 coverage of the topic in the ecology and evolution journals revealed disagreement on how to  
9 best approach ANOVA of unbalanced data (Shaw and Mitchell-Olds, 1993, Stewart-Oaten,  
10 1995). There still appears to be no consensus within the statistical community, but there has  
11 been further discussion that has yet to make its way into the ecology and evolution literature.  
12 There has also been a move away from finding the ‘right’ ANOVA table towards presenting  
13 the one or more models that best match the objectives of the analysis.

14 In this paper, we give non-technical explanations of the issues involved in ANOVA of  
15 unbalanced data, particularly the different types of adjusted sums of squares. We also provide  
16 (as supplementary material) code for the analysis of worked examples of unbalanced  
17 ANOVA designs using the open-source R language for statistical computing and graphics that  
18 is fast becoming the *lingua franca* for analysis in ecology and evolution (R Development  
19 Core Team, 2009).

## 20 **The Problem**

21 With balanced designs one factor can be held constant while the other is varied  
22 independently. However, this desirable property of orthogonality is usually lost for  
23 unbalanced designs (supplement S1). When explanatory variables are correlated with each  
24 other due to imbalance in the number of replicates for different treatment combinations the  
25 values of the sums of squares depend on the position of the factors in the ANOVA model

1 formula. Because ANOVA and regression are special cases of general linear models there is  
2 much overlap between this topic and multiple regression. In non-orthogonal designs, some of  
3 the explanatory variables (and, if present, their interactions) are positively or negatively  
4 correlated with each other; that is they are partially collinear or confounded. Using a Venn  
5 diagram (Figure 1), positive correlations can be illustrated as causing over-lapping and  
6 negative correlations under-lapping sums of squares. The desire to find a technological fix  
7 that provides a single outcome to the analysis of orthogonal and non-orthogonal data is clear.  
8 In response, some statistical software companies have developed several types of adjusted  
9 sums of squares.

#### 10 **Sequential and Adjusted Sums of Squares**

11 The sums of squares used in ANOVA as originally proposed by Fisher (1925) are calculated  
12 sequentially for each main effect and each two-way or higher-order interaction following the  
13 sequence of terms at each level in the model formula. One desirable feature of sequential  
14 sums of squares is that they are additive; that is the total sum of squares is decomposed into a  
15 series of additive parts. The total sum of squares for a sequential ANOVA is the same for all  
16 orderings of the explanatory variables in the model formula even though the values for the  
17 individual variables change with their position in the sequence.

18 The alternative to sequential sums of squares is to use one of a variety of adjusted  
19 (also known as partial, unique, marginal, conditional or unweighted) sums of squares. These  
20 adjusted sums of squares are sometimes linked to early work by Yates (1933, 1934) as  
21 discussed by Nelder & Lane (1995) and summarized in the supplement (S2). Adjusted sums  
22 of squares can be divided into two categories (Herr, 1986, Macnaughton, 1998). As the name  
23 implies, adjusted sums of squares are calculated for a given explanatory variable after  
24 adjusting for the other variables in the statistical model formula. The different systems of  
25 adjusted sums of squares can then be categorized as to whether they adjust a given variable

1 for the other variables at the same level (e.g. adjusting each main effect for the other main  
2 effects) or whether the adjustment also includes interactions at higher levels. Macnaughton  
3 (1998) has termed these 'higher-level terms omitted (HTO)' and 'higher-level terms included  
4 (HTI)', while Herr (1986) termed them 'each adjusted for other (EAD)' and 'standard  
5 parametric (STP)'. Other terminologies exist (supplement S2) but we find Macnaughton's the  
6 most transparent.

7 In the following section we express these two general classes more formally and  
8 illustrate them using a simple worked example of a two-way factorial ANOVA (this is the  
9 design used in most discussion of this topic in the statistical literature). To build on earlier  
10 literature on this topic we use the hypothetical dataset from Shaw & Mitchell-Olds (1993).  
11 The dataset (Table 1) comprises height of experimental target organisms as the response  
12 variable, the experimental removal (or not) of neighbours as a first explanatory factor and the  
13 initial size of the target organisms as a second factor. Both factors have two levels since initial  
14 sizes are recorded only as two classes (small or large). The design is therefore a fully-factorial  
15  $2^2$  design: that is two factors - each with two levels - crossed so that all four possible  
16 combinations (or 'cells' in a tabular representation of the design) are present. The design is  
17 unbalanced because the different combinations have different numbers of replicates but no  
18 cells are empty (a more extreme form of imbalance). Because the proportional number of  
19 replicates are not the same across treatments the design is non-orthogonal, that is the two  
20 explanatory variables are not independent of each other.

### 21 **Sequential Sums of Squares**

22 The design can be analysed with a two-way factorial ANOVA that considers the main effects  
23 of the neighbour removal treatment, the initial size class, and their interaction. Due to the  
24 imbalance, the sums of squares for the main effects of the two variables change with the two  
25 alternative sequential model formulas, which can be written using the effects notation as:

1  $y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ink}$  (1)

2  $y_{ijk} = \mu + \beta_j + \alpha_i + \gamma_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$  (2)

3 where  $y_{ijk}$  is the response (final height) of the  $k^{\text{th}}$  organism ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n_{ij}$ ), in the  $i^{\text{th}}$   
4 level of factor  $\alpha$  (the neighbour removal treatment), and the  $j^{\text{th}}$  level of factor  $\beta$  (initial size),  $\gamma$   
5 is the interaction of the two treatments,  $\mu$  indicates the intercept (here the grand mean;  
6 supplement S3), and  $\varepsilon$  the within-group error. These two models can be written in the widely  
7 used statistical model formula notation of Wilkinson & Rogers (1973) as follows:

8 T + S + T.S (3)

9 S + T + T.S (4)

10 where T is neighbour removal treatment, S is initial plant size and T.S the interaction  
11 (which could be equivalently written as S.T). The intercept is taken as implicit in this  
12 notation. The model with treatment fitted first produces the sequential ANOVA shown in  
13 Table 2a and the model with initial size fitted first produces Table 2b.

14 Note that in the two sequential models the values for the interaction, residual error and  
15 total sum of squares are the same, despite differences for the main effects. These differences  
16 in the main effect sums of squares arise because treatment and initial size are not orthogonal.  
17 When treatment is fitted before size, treatment is not significant and initial size is highly  
18 significant. But when the order is reversed and initial size is put first its sum of squares is  
19 reduced (although it remains highly significant) and the sum of squares for treatment is  
20 increased so that it borders on being significant too (Table 2). The change of the treatment  
21 effect from convincingly non-significant to marginal makes clear the dangers of sequential  
22 sums of squares: fitting only one of these models could give an incomplete and potentially  
23 misleading impression. The complexity of sequential sums of squares is also clear: we have  
24 had to fit two models instead of one (for more complex models the numbers of alternatives

1 increases dramatically)? Is one correct and the other wrong? Or, are both correct but one  
2 preferred over the other?

### 3 **Adjusted Sums of Squares With Higher-Level Terms Omitted**

4 The higher-level terms omitted adjusted sum of squares for the interaction can be written in  
5 either of the two following ways:

$$6 \text{ SS}(T.S | \mu + T + S) \quad (5)$$

$$7 \text{ SS}(T.S | \mu + S + T) \quad (6)$$

8 that is, the sum of squares for the interaction conditional on (or adjusted for) all the  
9 lower-order terms: the grand mean, the main effects of both neighbour removal treatment and  
10 initial size. The order of the main effects does not matter since their combined value is the  
11 same and therefore the sums of squares for the interaction is also the same with either  
12 formulation. Similarly, the higher-level terms omitted adjusted sum of squares for treatment  
13 (T) and for initial size (S) can be written, respectively, as:

$$14 \text{ SS}(T | \mu + S) \quad (7)$$

$$15 \text{ SS}(S | \mu + T) \quad (8)$$

16 The different models considered above (we require only 5 or 6, not both) can be  
17 written in the Wilkinson & Rogers notation, respectively, as:

$$18 T + S + T.S \quad (9)$$

$$19 S + T \quad (10)$$

$$20 T + S \quad (11)$$

21 Model 9, for example, can be said to fit the effect of T *ignoring* S and then the effect  
22 of S *eliminating* T (McCullagh and Nelder, 1989). That is, for every variable in a sequential  
23 model formula preceding variables are said to be eliminated and subsequent variables  
24 ignored. The ANOVA tables for these three sequential analyses are shown in Table 3a-c. A  
25 composite ANOVA table summarising these adjusted sums of squares can be assembled from

1 these three separate sequential models as follows. Equations 6 - 8 each specify adjusted sum  
 2 of squares for a single term (T.S, T and S respectively). To get these adjusted sums of squares  
 3 we fit models 9 – 11 (Table 3a - c). In each case we take only the sum of squares for the final  
 4 term (excluding the residual error, which is the same in all cases) and use these to build the  
 5 composite ANOVA table of adjusted sums of squares (3d). Note that the residual sum of  
 6 squares are the same in both cases and that if we add up the adjusted sums of squares in the  
 7 composite table the value is different from the total of the sums of squares given by the  
 8 equivalent sequential ANOVA shown in Table 3a. For this example, the total sum of squares  
 9 of the adjusted analysis is larger than that of the sequential analysis (some double counting  
 10 has occurred). The opposite also frequently occurs when sums of squares are missing due to  
 11 the correlation between variables. In the terminology of the SAS software package (SAS  
 12 Institute Inc. 1985), this composite ANOVA table uses type II sums of squares (supplement  
 13 S4). That is, SAS type II sums of squares are adjusted sums of squares that omit higher-level  
 14 terms when making the adjustments.

### 15 **Adjusted Sums of Squares With Higher-Level Terms Included**

16 For sums of squares that adjust for higher-level terms, the equations given above can be  
 17 amended by including the interaction:

$$18 \quad SS(T.S \mid \mu + T + S) \quad (14)$$

$$19 \quad SS(T \mid \mu + S + T.S) \quad (15)$$

$$20 \quad SS(S \mid \mu + T + T.S) \quad (16)$$

21 Because the highest-level term is not affected, model 14 is the same as the earlier  
 22 model 5. These models can be written in the Wilkinson & Rogers notation, respectively, as:

$$23 \quad T + S + T.S \quad (17)$$

$$24 \quad T.S + S + T \quad (18)$$

$$25 \quad T.S + T + S \quad (19)$$

1           Note also that model 17 is the same as the earlier model 5. The last two models, where  
2 a main effect is adjusted for the other main effect *and the interaction*, may look strange to the  
3 users of software that only use sequential sums of squares. In such packages (e.g. GenStat,  
4 GLIM and the base distribution of R used here), attempts to fit models like 18 and 19 will not  
5 produce adjusted sums of squares and we must mimic the adjustments that are made behind  
6 the scenes by other packages (supplement S5). Once models 17 - 19 have be fitted to produce  
7 the sequential ANOVAs shown in Table 4a-c, the final term (again excluding the residual  
8 error, which is the same in all cases) from each sequential model is taken to form the  
9 composite table of adjusted sums of squares (Table 4d). Note that the higher-terms included  
10 adjusted sums of squares for the main effects differ from the higher-terms omitted adjusted  
11 sums of squares because each main effect is now adjusted for the other *and the interaction*.  
12 Adjusting for the interaction changes the pattern of correlations. In the SAS terminology,  
13 these higher-terms included sums of squares are type III sums of squares. That is, SAS type  
14 III sums of squares are adjusted sums of squares that include higher-level terms when making  
15 adjustments.

16           Having seen how the four alternatives are obtained we next look at their advantages  
17 and disadvantages. First, the good news: in all four cases (Tables 2a, 2b, 3d, 4d) the sum of  
18 squares for the residual error and for the interaction term are the same. This means that when  
19 the result of an analysis is an interaction that is clearly significant (both statistically and  
20 biologically) the type of sum of squares used becomes of little relevance because the  
21 interaction is the central result and it is unaffected by the type of sum of squares. Once an  
22 interaction is significant, the main effects of the variables involved are usually of little interest  
23 (unless the sums of squares for the main effects are much greater than the interaction sum of  
24 squares). This is because a clear interaction tells you that both variables are important but that  
25 the effect of each depends on the other. To look at the main effect of a factor is to look at its

1 effect averaged over the levels of the other factor, something that would normally be  
2 misleading when there is an appreciable interactive effect.

3         The bad news is that the values for the main effects differ for the two alternative  
4 sequential analyses and for the two different types of adjusted sums of squares. The sums of  
5 squares for the two main effects in the pair of sequential ANOVAs differ because of their  
6 non-orthogonality. The sums of squares for the main effects for the two types of adjusted  
7 sums of squares differ because in one case they are adjusted for the other main effect only and  
8 in the other case they are adjusted for the other main effect and the interaction term. The next  
9 section reviews the heated debate over sequential and adjusted sums of squares and the  
10 arguments for and against the different types.

### 11 **The Case for Higher-Level Terms Included Adjusted Sums of Squares**

12 What led so many software packages to adopt higher-terms included adjusted sums of squares  
13 as the default option? Part of the reason is probably a hang over from the early days of  
14 computing when analyses had to be programmed using punch cards and were usually done in  
15 batch mode because interactive analyses that compare multiple sequential models were too  
16 laborious (Nelder, 1994, Nelder and Lane, 1995). When computer power was limiting, the  
17 desire for software that produced the (single) answer is understandable (see the quote from  
18 Herr given in supplement S2). However, the arguments in favour of adjusted sums of squares  
19 go beyond this. Based on some of the statistical literature, Shaw & Mitchell-Olds (1993)  
20 recommended them because, *"The Type III sum of squares for each main effect is the sum of*  
21 *the squared differences of unweighted marginal means...[that] do not, therefore, depend on*  
22 *the details of the sampling structure in the data at hand...[and] Type III tests of the various*  
23 *factors in the model do not depend on the particular order in the model"*. Quinn & Keough  
24 (2002) recommend them for similar reasons because, *"most biologists would probably prefer*  
25 *their hypotheses to be independent of the cell sample sizes"*. In a sense, higher-terms included

1 adjusted sums of squares can be thought of as testing variables in unbalanced datasets as if  
2 those datasets were actually balanced and orthogonal (see supplement S6). The  
3 recommendations from bio-statistics sources given above are based on similar  
4 recommendations in some of the statistical literature (albeit with important caveats). For  
5 example, Searle (1995) comments that, *"for all-cells-filled data, when wanting to use*  
6 *hypothesis testing with models that include interactions, the careful use of Type III sums of*  
7 *squares is the best we can do. True, hypothesis testing may not be the best thing to do, and*  
8 *true, also, is the fact that hypotheses...[may]...have interactions secreted within them."* The  
9 question then becomes whether or not it makes sense to test hypotheses about main effects in  
10 the presence of interactions.

11 Another potential argument in favour of ANOVA using type III sums of squares is  
12 that, for single degree of freedom tests (i.e. continuous variables and factors with two levels),  
13 the results of the (adjusted) F tests are consistent with the results of the t tests of the estimates  
14 given in the table of coefficients (because parameter estimates are always adjusted for all  
15 other terms in the model too). Again, the question is whether it makes sense to test main  
16 effects adjusted for interactions.

### 17 **The case against higher-level terms included adjusted sums of squares**

#### 18 ***Missing and double-counted sums of squares***

19 One of the main arguments against adjusted sums of squares is that they result in missing or  
20 double-counted variation. Recall (see above) that ANOVA tables of adjusted sums of squares  
21 do not sum to the total model sum of squares (as sequential sums of squares do). Depending  
22 on the nature of the correlations between explanatory variables, the sum of the adjusted sums  
23 of squares can be less than the total model sum of squares or more than it: the greater the  
24 imbalance the greater the discrepancy. It is easiest to think about the case where the total of  
25 the adjusted sums of squares is less than the total sum of squares for the sequential model.

1 Consider the simplest example with two main effects, A and B, and *no interaction*. If  
2 explanatory variables A and B are positively correlated then they can be thought of as  
3 'sharing' sums of squares. In a Venn diagram (Figure 1) the sums of squares for A and B  
4 would be partially overlapping circles (for a similar graphical approach see Schmid et al.,  
5 2002). In this case, adjusting both main effects (each for the other) results in the shared or  
6 overlapping sums of squares not being counted. It is these missing sums of squares which  
7 account for the difference between the sum of the adjusted sums of squares and the total sum  
8 of squares for the whole model (e.g. the total of the adjusted sums of squares in tables 3 and 4  
9 vs the total of the sequential squares in table 2). The alternative situation is where the  
10 correlation leads to 'underlapping' sums of squares. These are much harder to illustrate  
11 graphically but the situation is the reverse of what we have just described: instead of the total  
12 of the adjusted sums of squares being less than the total model sum of squares it is greater  
13 because of the 'double-counted' variation. Our example here omits the interaction purely  
14 because it was beyond our abilities to graphically illustrate it, but the basic principles  
15 concerning overlapping and underlapping sums of squares extend to examples involving  
16 interactions (as demonstrated in supplement S7 using an example from Aitkin (1977)).

### 17 ***Marginality of main effects and interactions***

18 One of the key criticisms of sums of squares that adjust for higher terms is that they do not  
19 respect marginality (Nelder, 1977, Nelder and Lane, 1995). In the context of unbalanced  
20 ANOVA, marginality refers to the relationship between higher- and lower-order (or level)  
21 terms. Respecting the marginality relations of variables in a model formula means taking  
22 account of their position in the hierarchy of main effects and interactions. The principle can  
23 be simply illustrated using the two-way factorial analysis example. To respect marginality,  
24 models including the interaction term should also include both main effects. More generally,  
25 when a higher-level interaction is included in a model, all lower-level interactions and main

1 effects should be included too. For our example, this means a model that includes the  
2 interaction should also include the main effects of size and removal treatment. The main  
3 effects are said to be marginal to the interaction. Furthermore, marginality implies that when  
4 interpreting an ANOVA with interactions we should start at the bottom of the table, looking  
5 at the highest-order terms first. If an interaction is significant, then the null hypothesis of  
6 additive main effects can be rejected, and we know that the effect of one variable depends on  
7 the other. The significant interaction already tells us that the main effects are also important,  
8 but that they do not have simple independent effects that can be expressed by averaging over  
9 the levels of the other factors. Therefore, it normally makes little sense to interpret a main  
10 effect in the presence of a significant interaction (supplement S8). Venables (2000) and  
11 Venables & Ripley (2002) make essentially the same argument against adjusting for higher-  
12 level terms, as do Aitkin (1978, 1995) and colleagues (Aitkin et al., 2009) and Stewart-Oaten  
13 (1995), who says in this context that higher-terms included adjusted sums of squares are,  
14 *"best for a test of main effects only when it makes little sense to test main effects at all."*

#### 15 ***The null hypothesis of no main effect in the presence of an interaction***

16 The null hypothesis tested for the main effects when using higher-terms omitted sums of  
17 squares is unlikely to be true (although to be fair this is a criticism of null hypothesis testing  
18 generally). McCullagh (2005) reviews the situation as follows: *"Nelder (1977) and Cox  
19 (1984) argue that statistical models having a zero average main effect in the presence of  
20 interaction are seldom of scientific interest. McCullagh (2000) reaches a similar  
21 conclusion...By definition, non-zero interaction implies a non-constant treatment effect, so a  
22 zero treatment effect in the presence of non-zero interaction is a logical contradiction."*

23 For the null hypothesis of no main effect (for either factor) to be true in the presence  
24 of a significant interaction the effect of one factor would have to differ depending on the level  
25 of the other (the non-additivity that defines an interaction) but in such a way that the

1 differences cancel exactly such that the effect of one factor averaged across the levels of the  
2 other factor is zero. Many statisticians (above) see this as extremely unlikely, although  
3 Stewart-Oaten (1995) considers some hypothetical situations where this might occur and we  
4 provide some further possibilities (supplement S8).

### 5 *Marginality - special cases*

6 Most statisticians seem to consider respecting marginality to be the sensible thing to do in  
7 general, even those who support the use of higher-terms included sums of squares in some  
8 situations (Fox, 2002, Quinn and Keough, 2002, Searle, 1995). What are these special  
9 situations? An obvious one is when the degree of imbalance is minor and sequential and  
10 higher-terms included adjusted sums of squares produce qualitatively similar answers and the  
11 adjusted sums of squares avoid the complexity of presenting the alternative (but similar)  
12 sequential analyses. Another situation may be in the case of large complex datasets where  
13 there is a desire to test main effects despite interactions. Searle (1995) gives an example of a  
14 large and complex dataset, *"involving 9 factors having a total of 56 levels, more than 5*  
15 *million cells and 8577 data points. Assessing interactions from the whole data set was out of*  
16 *the question."* As discussed below, other statisticians do not agree with this approach to  
17 complex unbalanced datasets.

18         There are also some special cases where the usual marginality relations do not apply.  
19 Nelder (1994) gives an example of a special case of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) where  
20 it might make sense to remove the intercept even in the presence of an interaction (differences  
21 in slopes) on theoretical grounds (supplement S9). Nelder's (1977) criticisms of higher-terms  
22 included adjusted sums of squares also prompted other suggestions where it might make sense  
23 to look at main effects in the presence of an interaction, including one from Tukey (1977)  
24 which is summarized in supplement S10.

### 25 **Summary of the sequential versus adjusted sums of squares debate**

1 We can summarize the debate over unbalanced ANOVA as follows, based on our reading of  
2 the literature and earlier reviews (Herr 1986; Macnaughton 1998). The main motivation for  
3 higher-terms included sums of squares appears to have been the desire for a single outcome to  
4 unbalanced ANOVA where the values for the sums of squares are not dependent on the order  
5 of the variables in the model formula and where hypothesis tests are not affected by  
6 differences in sample sizes for the treatment combinations. This desire seems to have led  
7 many statistical software packages to use higher-terms included adjusted sums of squares as  
8 the default type.

9         On the other hand, many statisticians are critical of the use of higher-terms included  
10 adjusted sums of squares. The arguments against these type III sums of squares centre on a  
11 group of criticisms that relate to their disregard for marginality. While there may be special  
12 cases where the usual marginality relations do not apply, most statisticians seem to  
13 recommend respecting marginality as a good general principle. Statistical software packages  
14 remain divided in their approaches, with some using higher-terms adjusted sums of squares as  
15 the default type and others providing only sequential sums of squares. Some recent papers  
16 have recommended that higher-terms omitted (SAS type II) sums of squares would be a better  
17 choice for software that wants to use a type of adjusted sums of squares as the default setting  
18 (Macnaughton 1998; Langsrud 2003) while others recommend comparing a nested series of  
19 sequential (type I) models in an approach similar to backwards-deletion multiple regression  
20 (e.g. Nelder & Lane 1995; Venables & Ripley 2002; Aitkin et al. 2005).

## 21 **Recent developments**

22 The last decade has seen a continued shift in emphasis away from hypothesis tests and  
23 probability values in favour of parameter estimation. In this context, it is worth pointing out  
24 that tests performed on the parameter estimates from unbalanced ANOVA (using t-tests or  
25 confidence intervals based on the relevant standard errors) will not always match the results

1 of the F tests from the sequential ANOVA. For single degree of freedom tests of variables in  
2 balanced datasets the results of F and t tests do match:  $F = t^2$  (Venables & Ripley 2002).  
3 However, for unbalanced datasets, there will be a mismatch between some of the F and t tests.  
4 This is because, as explained above, the sums of squares used to perform the F tests are  
5 calculated sequentially whereas the point estimates and standard errors of each variable are  
6 assessed after controlling for all others (supplement). This causes a problem in assessing  
7 variables in non-orthogonal analyses with positively correlated explanatory variables that are  
8 significant when placed first in the sequential model but non-significant when placed later.  
9 The results of these analyses are ambiguous because, as we have explained, the parameter  
10 estimates and intervals from the different sequential models will be the same and will support  
11 the adjusted (non-significant) F tests.

12 Another important development is the increase in the popularity of multi-model  
13 inference. Model selection approaches like backward-deletion multiple regression using P  
14 values tend to result in selection of a single model, despite recommendations to consider more  
15 than one model when appropriate (McCullagh and Nelder, 1989). Inferences based on a set of  
16 models are now becoming more popular due to the wider recognition of the problem of model  
17 selection uncertainty and the increasing use of information criteria (Anderson, 2008, Burnham  
18 and Anderson, 2002).

### 19 **The Example Dataset Revisited: Objective-Led Modelling**

20 To illustrate the shift from searching for the ‘right’ ANOVA table towards presenting one or  
21 more models that best match the objectives of the analysis we revisit the two-way factorial  
22 ANOVA of the hypothetical data in Shaw & Mitchell-Olds (1993) on the effects of neighbour  
23 removal treatment (T), initial size (S) and the interaction (T.S). They presented three  
24 alternative analyses summarised in ANOVA tables: the sequential (type I) model  $T + S + T.S$ ,  
25 the higher-terms omitted (SAS type II) and the higher-term included (SAS type III) adjusted

1 sums of squares. They recommend the SAS type III sum of squares analysis as it uses  
2 unweighted marginal means rather than taking into account the differing sample sizes per  
3 treatment combinations. However, we argue that consideration of the objectives of the  
4 analysis leads to a different solution. If the goal of the ANOVA is to test for significant  
5 differences between treatments after accounting for differences in initial size, then we propose  
6 an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) type approach where we want to control for differences  
7 in initial size before assessing the effects of the neighbour removal treatment (in a typical  
8 ANCOVA initial size would be a continuous covariate). This consideration of the objectives  
9 suggests, *a priori*, a sequential model with initial size fitted before neighbour removal  
10 treatment:  $S + T + T.S$ . The null hypothesis tested is of no effect of neighbour removal after  
11 controlling for differences in initial target organism size. This model was discussed in the  
12 Shaw & Mitchell-Olds paper but not presented in their table 2. In this analysis, adjusting for  
13 initial size causes treatment to become marginally significant. This is a simple example, but it  
14 illustrates the shift away from the search for the single 'right' ANOVA table, to fitting the  
15 model (or models) that best match the objectives of the analysis.

## 16 **Conclusions**

17 Our aim is not to assert that we have solved the debate over the best approach to unbalanced  
18 ANOVA. Far from it, there is still much debate amongst statisticians and, as we have shown  
19 above, authoritative backing can be marshalled for all of the approaches reviewed here. This  
20 ongoing debate amongst statisticians argues for open-mindedness. By this we do not mean  
21 that anything goes! Rather we mean that we (as teachers, analysts, reviewers, editors *etc.*)  
22 ought to be open to sensible arguments for a given approach. However, this still calls for good  
23 arguments in support of a chosen analysis rather than falling back on a 'cook-book' approach  
24 using whatever recipe is known or close to hand. We finish by making some  
25 recommendations that we hope will be of general use:

- 1 1. Consider whether the objectives and design imply one (or a few) sequential models.
- 2 2. Perform tests where you can specify the corresponding biological hypotheses.
- 3 3. Investigate imbalance: why has it occurred (was it accident or is it a property the biology  
4 of the situation: ‘biological colinearity’?). What correlations has it caused and what  
5 patterns in the sums of squares for the different sequential analyses (cf. Figure 1)?
- 6 4. Test the interactions that are of interest first. If an interaction is significant (biologically  
7 and statistically) you have your main answer and one which is independent of the choice  
8 of sums of squares (sequential and adjusted sums of squares give the same value for the  
9 highest-order interaction). An interaction tells you that all factors involved are important  
10 but that their effects depend on each other. Appropriate graphs are a useful way of  
11 investigating the nature and strength of interactions.
- 12 5. When the imbalance is small, the difference between sequential and adjusted sums of  
13 squares may be minor with no difference in the qualitative outcome of the analysis (but  
14 remember the examples cited here that show cases where the differences are larger and do  
15 matter).
- 16 6. Comparing the results of different sequential analyses (including the adjusted sums of  
17 squares values contained within them) often leads to a deeper understanding than a single  
18 analysis. Focus on the model, or models, that best match the objectives of the analysis  
19 rather than searching for the single ‘right’ ANOVA table.

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- 15
- 16

1

<b>Treatment:</b>	<b>Control (no removal)</b>	<b>Removal (of neighbours)</b>	
<b>Initial size class</b>			Marginal means
Small	50	57	
Small	57	71	[62.25]
Small	-	85	
Small	-	-	
<b>Cell means:</b>	<b>[53.5]</b>	<b>[71.0]</b>	
Large	91	105	
Large	94	120	[108.87]
Large	102	-	
Large	110	-	
<b>Cell means:</b>	<b>[99.25]</b>	<b>[112.5]</b>	
Marginal means:	[76.37]	[91.75]	

2

3 **Table 1:** Hypothetical example data (n = 11) reproduced from Shaw & Mitchell-Olds (1993).

4 The response variable, study organism height, is cross-classified by experimental treatment

5 (experimental removal or not of neighbours) and initial target organism size (small or large).

6 Marginal means and cell means are given in square brackets. Note that to make the degree of

7 imbalance clearer we have indicated missing values (-) for all treatment combinations with

8 less than four values (the maximum observed for any combination in the original dataset). In

9 the supplement we discuss the analysis of an artificial balanced (4 x 4) dataset that could be

10 formed by replacing the missing values in each treatment combination with the relevant cell

11 mean.

12

1

	<b>Source</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
a)	Treatment	1	35.3	35.3	0.33	0.58315
	Size	1	4846.0	4846.0	45.37	0.00027
	Interaction	1	11.4	11.4	0.11	0.75338
	Residual	7	747.8	106.8		
	Total	10	5640.5	564.1		
b)	Size	1	4291.2	4291.2	40.17	0.00039
	Treatment	1	590.2	590.2	5.52	0.05105
	Interaction	1	11.4	11.4	0.11	0.75338
	Residual	7	747.8	106.8		
	Total	10	5640.5	564.1		

2

3 **Table 2:** The two alternative sequential ANOVAs for the example data.

4

1

	<b>Source</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
a)	Treatment	1	35.3	35.3	0.33	0.5831
	Size	1	4846.0	4846.0	45.37	0.0003
	Interaction	1	11.4	11.4	0.11	0.7534
	Residual	7	747.8	106.8		
	Total	10	5640.5	564.1		
b)	Size	1	4291.2	4291.2	45.22	0.0001
	Treatment	1	590.2	590.2	6.22	0.0373
	Residual	8	759.2	94.9		
	Total	10	5640.5	564.1		
c)	Treatment	1	35.3	35.3	0.37	0.5586
	Size	1	4846.0	4846.0	51.07	0.0001
	Residual	8	759.2	94.9		
	Total	10	5640.5	564.1		
d)	Treatment	1	590.2	590.2	6.2	0.0373
	Size	1	4846.0	4846.0	51.1	0.0001
	Interaction	1	11.4	11.4	0.1	0.7534
	Residual	7	747.8	94.9		
	Adjusted total	10	6195.4			

2

3

**Table 3:** Higher-terms omitted adjusted sums of squares (SAS type II). Sequential models

4

that produce adjusted sums of squares for the (a) interaction, (b) main effect of treatment, and

5

(c) main effect of initial size are shown with (d) the composite table of adjusted sums of

6

squares.

7

1

	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
a)	Treatment	1	35.3	35.3	0.33	0.58318
	Size	1	4846.0	4846.0	45.37	0.00027
	Interaction (=TS)	1	11.4	11.4	0.11	0.75338
	Residual	7	747.8	106.8		
	Total	10	5640.5			
b)	TS	1	43.7	43.7	0.41	0.54284
	Size	1	4251.9	4251.9	39.80	0.00040
	Treatment	1	597.2	597.2	5.59	0.05001
	Residual	7	747.8	106.8		
	Total	10	5640.5			
c)	TS	1	43.7	43.7	0.41	0.54284
	Treatment	1	41.2	41.2	0.39	0.55438
	Size	1	4807.9	4807.9	45.01	0.00028
	Residual	7	747.8	106.8		
	Total	10	5640.5			
d)	Treatment	1	597.2	597.2	5.59	0.05001
	Size	1	4807.9	4807.9	45.01	0.00027
	Interaction	1	11.4	11.4	0.11	0.75338
	Residual	7	747.8	94.9		
	Adjusted total	10	6164.3			

2

3

**Table 4:** Higher-terms included adjusted sums of squares (SAS type III). Sequential models

4

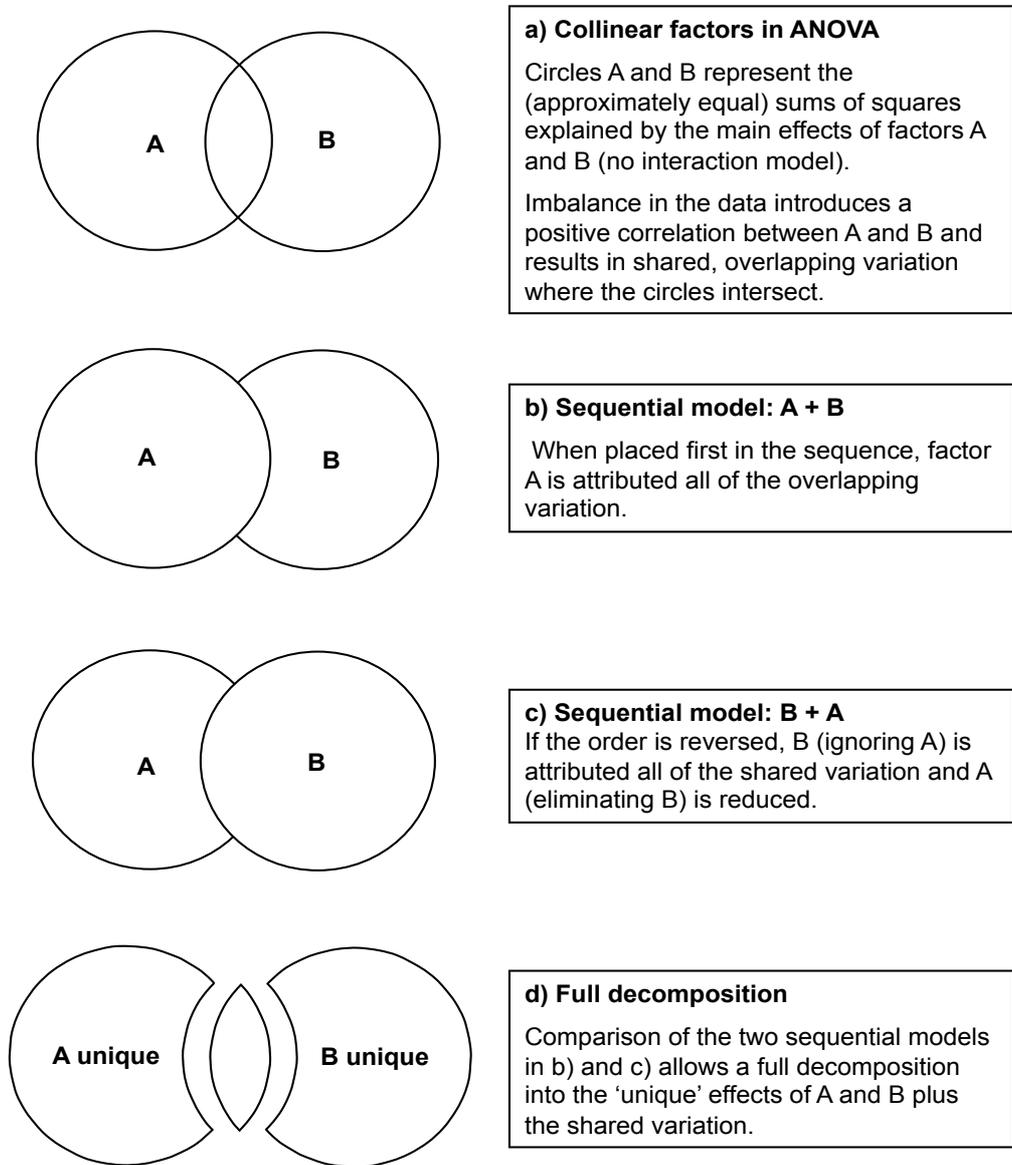
that produce adjusted sums of squares for the (a) interaction, (b) main effect of treatment, and

5

(c) main effect of initial size are shown with (d) the composite ANOVA table of these

6

adjusted sums of squares.



1

2 **Figure 1** Venn diagram illustration of sums of squares partitioning for non-orthogonal factors  
 3 A and B (without interaction) using different sequential ANOVA models (a – d). Only the  
 4 sums of squares for the main effects of A and B are illustrated (the total and error sums of  
 5 squares are not shown).