

**STATISTICAL INFERENCE ON  
VARIANCE COMPONENTS**

CENTRALE LANDBOUWCATALOGUS



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**STATISTICAL INFERENCE ON  
VARIANCE COMPONENTS**

**Proefschrift**

ter verkrijging van de graad van  
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**Aan Pieneke**

**Voor Moes**

# STELLINGEN

1. In de schattingstheorie moet van een schatter geëist worden dat deze behoort tot de klasse van toegelaten (Eng.: "permissible") schatters.

(Dit proefschrift.)

2. Bij het rassenonderzoek van cultuurgewassen zijn voorspellingen van rascontrasten van meer nut dan de schattingen ervan.

(Dit proefschrift.)

3. Het gebruik van Satterthwaite's benadering bij het bepalen van de kans op negatieve schattingen van genetische varianties, zoals dat gebeurt in Bridges en Knapp (1987), is af te raden.

(Bridges Jr., W.C. and Knapp, S.J. (1987). Probabilities of negative estimates of genetic variances. Theor. Appl. Genet. 74, 269-274.)

4. Bij de benadering van de variantie van de schatters voor de erfelijkheidsgraad  $h^2$ , wordt in vele handboeken, o.a. Becker (1975), de covariantie van gemiddelde kwadraatsommen (Eng."Mean Squares") gelijk aan nul gesteld. Voor ongebalanceerde schema's is dit niet juist.

(Becker, W.A. (1975). Manual of quantitative genetics, 3rd ed. Washington State University, Washington.)

5. Het klakkeloos gebruiken van een schatter voor de genetische correlatie tussen identieke kenmerken, die gemeten zijn in verschillende milieus binnen eenzelfde niveau van een fokprogramma, kan leiden tot uitkomsten die groter zijn dan 1.

(Merks, J.W.M. (1986). Genotype x Environment interactions in pig breeding programmes. I. Central test. Livestock Production Science 14, 365-381.)

6. Bij het streven naar hogere gewasopbrengsten in ontwikkelingslanden liggen de beperkingen heden ten dage niet zozeer bij de mogelijkheden tot toelevering van verbeterde cultivars, doch vooral in de noodzaak om bij grote

aantallen kleine producenten verbeteringen van teelttechnieken en van bodemvruchtbaarheid te realiseren.

7. In de plantenveredeling kan men bij het selecteren uit een aantal lijnen in het algemeen beter de procedure van Gupta gebruiken dan de tot nu toe gebruikelijke "multiple comparisons" procedures.

(Gupta, S.S.(1965). On some multiple decision (selection and ranking) rules. Technometrics 7, 225-245.)

8. In het buitenland, en vooral in kustvlaktegebieden, neemt als gevolg van intensieve irrigatie de noodzaak tot drainage toe. Nu in Nederland het drainage uitvoeringsprogramma nagenoeg voltooid is, kunnen Nederlandse experts met hun uitrusting in dergelijke gebieden worden ingezet, dit tot voordeel van beide partijen.
9. Bij vele Nederlandse projecten in het kader van ontwikkelingssamenwerking vindt toegepast onderzoek plaats. Het is dan ook uiterst wenselijk dat statistische begeleiding een vast onderdeel wordt van dergelijke projecten, zoals dat al gebruikelijk is bij de projecten van de Britse "Overseas Development Administration".
10. Om de herkenbaarheid in het buitenland van afgestudeerden van de Landbouwniversiteit te verbeteren, zou het gewenst zijn na het eerste trimester doctoraal B een meetpunt in te stellen. Een succesvolle afsluiting van dit gedeelte van de studie kan dan gehonoreerd worden met een "B.Sc."-diploma. De daarop volgende vijf trimesters van de studie leiden dan tot een "M.Sc."-diploma. Bovendien kunnen abituriënten van het Hoger Agrarisch Onderwijs dan instromen in verwante "M.Sc."-opleidingen.
11. De emancipatie van de vrouw kan wellicht bevorderd worden door in de vee fokkerij de kruisingen niet als  $\sigma \times \phi$  te noteren maar, zoals in de plantenveredeling gebruikelijk is, als  $\phi \times \sigma$ .

## VOORWOORD

Bij de publicatie van dit proefschrift wil ik mijn diepe erkentelijkheid uitspreken aan mijn promotor Professor dr. P. van der Laan. Uw grote belangstelling voor mijn onderzoek en de vriendschappelijke drang om dit onderzoek af te ronden, heeft geleid tot dit proefschrift. Ik wil U nogmaals bedanken voor alle aandacht die U steeds voor mij heeft gehad.

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Uw heldere en stimulerende colleges in de Wiskunde en Wiskundige Statistiek hebben mij tot de liefde voor de Statistiek gebracht. De tijd waarin ik op Uw afdeling Wiskunde mocht werken is beslissend geweest voor mijn vorming.

(ii) Professor dr.ir. F. Hellinga.

Uw meesterlijke aanpak hoe theorie toegepast moet worden in de praktijk probeer ik nog steeds na te volgen. U heeft mij, toen ik nog student in de Cultuurtechniek was, in contact gebracht met het wetenschappelijk onderzoek, waarin ik nog altijd verkeer.

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**Ontwerp omslag: Annette van der Laan**

# CONTENTS

	Page
1. Outline of author's research on the inference of variance components	1
2. Historical development of variance component estimation	5
2.1. Introduction	5
2.2. The first period from 1861 to 1947	5
2.3. The second period from 1947 to 1987	10
3. Representation of variance component models	20
3.1. Introduction	20
3.2. Representation of ANOVA models with vectors and vector spaces	21
4. Exact tests and confidence intervals for variance ratios in nested designs	
Part I: Onset	35
4.1. Introduction	35
4.2. Exact tests about variance ratios in unbalanced two- and three-stage nested designs	40
4.3. Exact confidence interval for the variance ratio in nested designs	58
5. Estimation of variance components	
Part I: Onset	67
5.1. Introduction	67
5.2. On estimation of variance components	69
6. How large is the probability for the estimate of a variance component to be negative?	94
7. Exact tests and confidence intervals for variance ratios in nested designs	
Part II: Continuation	117
7.1. Introduction	117
7.2. Exact tests and confidence intervals for ratio of variance components in unbalanced two- and three-stage nested designs	118
7.3. An example of the performance of the new exact test	154

	Page
8. Estimation of variance components	
Part II: Continuation	160
8.1. Introduction	160
8.2. Least squares estimators and non-negative estimators of variance components	161
8.3. Which estimation procedure to be used?	188
9. Prediction of random effects	196
9.1. Introduction	196
9.2. The best estimation of varietal contrasts according to the model from combined varietal trials	199
Summary	215
Samenvatting	218
Curriculum vitae	221

## CHAPTER 1

### 1. OUTLINE OF AUTHOR'S RESEARCH ON THE INFERENCE OF VARIANCE COMPONENTS

The historical development of variance components estimation is described in chapter 2.

Just as with the fixed effects model, the description of the models for variance components (random models and mixed models) was from 1947 onwards in terms of equations with subscripts. Sometimes the whole set of observations was described with matrices. The derivation of the interesting quantities, such as Sum of Squares (SS) in the Analysis of Variance Table (ANOVA-table), Expected Mean Squares (EMS) and distribution of ratio of Sums of Squares, was often done by manipulating expressions with sums and squares of sums, where several summation symbols ( $\Sigma$ 's) with different indices were needed. These clumsy notations obscured the insight into the derivation of the results.

For the fixed effects model there were already some persons who made systematic use of vectors and vector spaces to describe it, see Kuiper (1952), Corsten (1958) and Scheffé (1959). In chapter 3 the representation of variance components models with vectors and vector spaces is described. This approach for random and mixed models has been adopted also in the lectures on Applied Statistics at the Agricultural University in Wageningen, since 1972.

For the balanced nested designs exact tests about ratio of variance components and the calculation of their power, are well-known. For the unbalanced nested designs an exact test sometimes exists, but the calculation of the power was troublesome, or an exact test was unknown.

In a seemingly unrelated problem field, that of economics, there is the problem to determine serial correlations in series

of data. The often used test statistic is that of Durbin and Watson. Another procedure is the use of the residuals with the best linear unbiased estimators with a scalar covariance matrix (BLUS). For the distribution function of these test statistics, the distribution function of a ratio of quadratic forms in normally distributed random variables is needed. For the calculation of this distribution function a computer program was available since 1969. Statisticians not working in economics were unaware of this. The author encountered this problem also in his investigation on exact tests for variance ratios in unbalanced three-stage nested designs. He recognized the similarity and used the program to calculate the distribution function of such a ratio of quadratic forms. These results of determining exact tests about ratio of variance components in unbalanced nested two and three-stage nested designs have been presented at the "8th International Biometric Conference" at Constanta, Romania, in 1974 (see section 4.2).

The related problem of an exact confidence interval for the ratio of variance components has also been tackled (see section 4.2). Because this confidence interval was very useful in practice, this part has again been presented at the second International Symposium of "Computational Statistics (COMPSTAT)" at West-Berlin in 1976 (see section 4.3).

In the meantime many approximate and incorrect tests about ratio of variance components have been published. An overview and an extension of the work about exact tests and confidence intervals for ratio of variance components have been presented at the International Conference on the "Analysis of the Unbalanced Mixed Model" at Gainesville, Florida, U.S.A., in 1987 (see section 7.2).

Using the possibility to compute the exact distribution of ratios of quadratic forms in normally distributed variables, the probability

of negative outcomes of the ANOVA estimator for the balanced one-way classification has been computed (see chapter 6).

The development of estimators of variance components was concentrated more and more on best quadratic unbiased estimators (Best = Minimum Variance). The author introduced the concept of a permissible estimator to find another and "better" estimator at the "VI-th International Conference on Mathematical Statistics" at Wisla, Poland, in 1978. The unified least squares procedure has been used to find a non-negative, closest to unbiased, estimator for variance components (see section 5.2).

These ideas about the unified least squares procedure for estimating variance components and an overview over permissible estimators for variance components were also presented at the International Conference on the "Analysis of the Unbalanced Mixed Model" at Gainesville, Florida, U.S.A., in 1987 (see section 8.2).

The use of variance components has extensively been applied in Animal Breeding, especially using the BLUP-procedure. In Plant Breeding no use has yet been made of variance components to get the best linear unbiased estimator for varietal contrasts and the best linear unbiased predictor for varietal contrasts. At the second International Seminar on "Statistical Methods in Variety Testing" at Slupia Wielka, Poland, in 1985, the author presented this application (see section 9.2).

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## CHAPTER 2

### 2. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF VARIANCE COMPONENTS ESTIMATION

#### 2.1. Introduction

For the history of models with random effects we rely on Scheffé (1956), Anderson (1979), Khuri and Sahai (1985) and Searle (1987). The historical development reflects the recognition of the importance of variance component models in practice.

The struggle for good estimators of variance components is sketched. Our personal choice of a good estimator for a variance component will be given in chapter 5.

#### 2.2. The first period from 1861 to 1947

Estimation of fixed effects in linear models, in which the covariance matrix of the errors is known up to a scalar factor, essentially began with Legendre (1806) and Gauss (1809). Independently from each other they invented the theory of least squares in books on astronomical problems, so that it is with these problems that we must associate the origin of the fixed-effects models (see also Plackett (1972) and Stigler (1981)).

What is even more interesting is that the first appearance of variance components is also in astronomy books by Airy (1861) and by Chauvenet (1863). A one-way random model was formulated by Airy (1861, especially part IV) and there is also a provision for unbalanced data, unequal numbers of telescopic observations from night to night on the same phenomenon of interest. Suppose that on  $I$  nights [Airy uses days (!)] observations are made with a telescope on the same phenomenon,  $J_i$  observations on the  $i$ -th night. Airy assumes the following structure for the  $j$ -th observation on the  $i$ -th night:



$$y_{ij} = \mu + c_i + e_{ij} \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\mu$  is the general mean or "true" value, and the  $\{c_i\}$  and  $\{e_{ij}\}$  are random effects with the following meanings: He calls  $c_i$  the "constant error", meaning it is constant on the  $i$ -th night; (we would call it the  $i$ -th night effect); it is caused by the "atmospheric and personal circumstances" peculiar to the  $i$ -th night. The  $\{e_{ij}\}$  for fixed  $i$  we would call the errors about the (conditional) mean  $\mu + c_i$  on the  $i$ -th night. It is implied by Airy's discussion that he assumes all the  $e_{ij}$  independently and identically distributed, similarly for the  $c_i$ , that the  $\{e_{ij}\}$  are independent of the  $\{c_i\}$ , and that all have zero means. Let us denote the variances of the  $\{e_{ij}\}$  and the  $\{c_i\}$  by  $\sigma_e^2$  and  $\sigma_c^2$ . To decide about his equivalent of the hypothesis  $\sigma_c^2 = 0$ , Airy compares, as we would, a between-nights measure of variability with a within-nights measure, but he uses different measures than we would.

The second use of a random effects model appears to be Chauvenet (1863, Vol. II, Articles 163 and 164). Although he did not write model equations like (2.1) with all the subscripts, nevertheless he implied a one-way classification random model in which, using today's notation, he derived the variance of  $\bar{y}_{..} = \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J y_{ij} / (IJ)$  as  $\text{var}(\bar{y}_{..}) = (\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_e^2 / J) / I$  from (2.1). Chauvenet suggests that there is in his example little practical advantage in having  $J$  greater than 5, and refers to Bessel (1820, p. 166) for this idea. Chauvenet's reference to Bessel on this specific point ( $J = 5$ ) is incorrect, but the page he cites does contain a formula for the probable error of a sum of independent random variables which could be the basis for such a conclusion. Probably Bessel made the remark elsewhere. (Probable error is an older measure of sampling variability and is equal to  $0.6745\sigma$ . The reason for this measure is that for a random variable  $\underline{x}$ , which is normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ ,  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $P(-0.6745\sigma < \underline{x} - \mu < +0.6745\sigma) = 0.5$ )

Chauvenet's contribution was not so much in his implicit use of a linear model, but was rather his demonstration of the utility of an a priori knowledge of the relative magnitudes of components of variance in the design of experiments.

The more modern beginning of variance components is Fisher's (1918) paper on quantitative genetics in which he initiated (i) the use of the terms "variance" and "analysis of the variance"; (ii) an implicit employment of variance components models; and (iii) definitive ascription of percentages of a total variance to constituent causes, e.g. that dominance deviations accounted for 21 percent of the total variance in human stature whereas, prior to the study, dominance deviations were ascribed to be environmental effects. (The other two basic papers on quantitative genetics are from Wright (1921) and Haldane (1932)).

In his book: Statistical Methods for Research Workers, section 40, Fisher (1925) made yet another major contribution to variance component models. He initiated there what has come to be known as the analysis of variance (ANOVA) method of estimation: equate sums of squares from an analysis of variance to their expected values and thereby obtain a set of equations that are linear in the variance components to be estimated. This idea arose from using an analysis of variance to estimate an intra-class correlation from balanced data pertaining to a one-way random model. In to-day's notation for the one-way classification random model like (2.1), with balanced data, Fisher used

$$E(SSE) = E \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_{i.})^2 = I(J-1)\sigma_e^2$$

$$\text{and} \quad E(SSA) = E \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J (\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_{..})^2 = E \sum_{i=1}^I J(\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_{..})^2 = (I-1)(J\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_e^2).$$

From these the estimation equations are taken as  $SSE = I(J-1)\hat{\sigma}_e^2$  and

$SSA = (I-1)(J\hat{\sigma}_C^2 + \hat{\sigma}_e^2)$  and so  $\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = SSE/[I(J-1)] = MSE$  and  
 $\hat{\sigma}_C^2 = (MSA - MSE)/J$  where  $MSA = SSA/(I-1)$ .

Although Fisher's book extended the analysis of variance to the one-way model with unbalanced data (different  $J_i$ 's) and to the two-way crossed classification model with interaction, his book did not treat the estimation of variance components.

The analysis of variance method for unbiased estimation of variance components from balanced as well as unbalanced one-way random models was later elucidated by Tippett (1931, Table XXIV) who also, for the first time, extended the method to handle the two-way crossed classification random model without interaction, and displayed in the second edition of his book (in 1937) some explicit estimators. Tippett (1931) also considered the problem of selecting the optimal sampling designs for particular experimental situations for a one-way random model, as Chauvenet (1863) had done, and perhaps Besse (1820).

Yates and Zaccopani (1935) later dealt comprehensively with higher order sampling designs in several experiments. Neyman, Iwaszkiewicz and Kolodziejczyk (1935) considered the efficiency of randomized blocks and Latin Square designs, and in doing so made extensive use of linear models (including mixed models).

Although Fisher (1935) used the term "components of variation" in an acrimonious review of Neyman et al. (1935), and they themselves had used the phrase "error components", the first apparent use of "components of variance" is by Daniels (1939). He also derived the sampling variances of the variance component estimators for complex models, such as three-way crossed classification random models containing two-factor and three-factor interaction effects.

The analysis of unbalanced data is much more complex. Cochran (1939) used the analysis of variance in selecting an optimal design in which the need for a method for estimating variance components arose. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) method for unbiased estimating of variance components in the one-way random model with unbalanced data has been given by Winsor and Clarke (1940). Yet, although Fisher (1925) has the idea of taking expected values, he had not there specifically formulated it using the E Operator ( $E$  = Expected value) as do Daniels (1939), and Winsor and Clarke (1940). The method was subsequently extended to k-stage nested classifications ( $k > 2$ ) by Ganguli (1941), and to the two-way crossed classification random model with interaction by Crump (1946, 1947).

Both Ganguli and Crump noted that the ANOVA method sometimes produced negative estimates and they suggested that such estimates be replaced by zero.

While a mixed model is implied by Fisher's (1935, Sec. 65) discussion of varietal trials in a randomly selected set of locations, and by Yates' (1935) analysis of the split-plot design, the first explicit clear description of a mixed model is in a paper on mental tests by Jackson (1939), where the score  $y_{ij}$  of the  $j$ -th individual on the  $i$ -th trial of a test is assumed to have the structure

$y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + b_j + e_{ij}$ , where the trial effects  $\{\alpha_i\}$  are treated as fixed and the "individual" effects  $\{b_j\}$  are treated as random. The  $\{b_j\}$  have to be independently and identically distributed with zero means. The errors  $\{e_{ij}\}$  are assumed to be independently distributed with zero means and equal variances and also independent of the  $\{b_j\}$ .

The systematic description of fixed effects models as "Model I", random effects models as "Model II" and mixed effects models as "Model III" is due to Eisenhart (1947). This is a landmark paper.

Finally it can be remarked that the use of variance components in

animal breeding has been applied from 1923 onwards by J.L. Lush who in 1937 wrote his well-known book "Animal breeding plans". The theory of the selection index was developed by Smith (1936) and Hazel (1943). Estimating variance components is an integral aspect of animal and plant breeding for two reasons: (i) to identify sources of variation, principally genetic variation; and (ii) as an adjunct to the prediction of breeding values of candidates for selection.

Use of components of variance in animal breeding probably started with simple between SS and within SS in one-way ANOVA, to get estimates of between-group variation and as a way to compute correlations and regressions when the same attributes were not measured on each individual. An example of the latter is when an estimate of repeatability is wanted. Lush and Jones (1923) published the concept of repeatability. Dickerson (1942) estimated components of variance in order to design experiments for testing inbred lines of swine. For further interesting historical facts in animal breeding, we refer to Freeman (1973, 1979).

Some early applications are contained in the papers of Lush, Hetzer and Culbertson (1934), Bywaters (1937), Stonaker and Lush (1942), Hetzer, Dickerson and Zeller (1944), Knapp and Nordskog (1946) and Anderson (1947), to name just a few.

### 2.3. The second period from 1947 to 1987

Impetus for the fledgling method of variance component estimation came from a wide variety of practical problems, especially genetics. We already mentioned in animal breeding Lush (1937); another pioneer there is Lerner (1950). In plant breeding pioneers were Comstock and Robinson (1948), Mather (1949), Hayman (1954a, b), Jinks (1954), Griffing (1956), Finlay and Wilkinson (1963).

The first comprehensive discussion in book form was presented by Anderson and Bancroft (1952), with its four chapters on variance components.

The above mentioned papers dealt with balanced data or with unbalanced data in nested designs with random effects. Because it directed attention to the need for alternative methods of estimating, which would facilitate the handling of mixed models with unbalanced data, the study of Henderson (1948) represented a major contribution to variance component theory. For estimating variance components from unbalanced data the landmark paper is undoubtedly Henderson (1953). This contains three methods 1, 2 and 3 for unbiased estimation of variance components. In that paper the ANOVA method of estimation, based on equating analysis of variance sums of squares to their expected values, was extended for unbalanced data, to equating a wide variety of quadratic forms (not all of them sums of squares) to their expected values.

Henderson's Method 1 may only be applied to random effects models. For each effect an "analogous sum of squares" of the effect is calculated, with the same recipe as for the balanced case. (For a crossed classification the "analogous sums of squares" for interactions are not always non-negative definite!).

The expected values of these "analogous sum of squares" are determined. The unbiased estimator for the variance components follows from equating the expected values of the "analogous sum of squares" to their outcomes. Notice that Henderson's Method 1 gives the correct unbiased estimators for nested designs.

Henderson's Method 2 may only be applied to mixed effects models, which do not include either interaction effects between fixed and random factors or nesting of fixed and random factors within each other. The basic strategy of Henderson's Method 2 is to estimate the

fixed effects in the model using least squares (computing as though the random effects were fixed), correct the data vector in accordance with these estimates, and then apply Henderson's Method 1 to the adjusted data vector. Accordingly, the computational simplicity of Method 1 is retained.

Henderson's Method 3 utilizes reductions in sums of squares resulting from fitting the linear model and sub-models thereof using the least squares procedures of fitting constants. The random effects are considered as constant effects for the least squares fitting procedure. For mixed models the reductions start with fitting the fixed effects and then the random effects. Equations leading to unbiased estimators of the variance components are then obtained by equating each such reduction to its expected value under the full model.

The difficulty with Henderson's Method 3 was that even for the easiest crossed classification with two random factors A and B and unbalanced data, there was no unique estimator! The estimator depends on whether the reduction in sums of squares was calculated in the order of A and then B corrected for A, or in the order of B and then A corrected for B. Nevertheless this Method 3 has been used extensively in practice, because there soon were computer programs to handle it (e.g. Harvey's program (1960)).

Then followed a period (from 1953 to 1970) of trying to evaluate those methods mostly through deriving expressions, under normality assumptions, for sampling variances of the resulting estimators. These results are compiled in Searle's (1971) book. In every case the results are, of course, quadratic functions of the unknown variance components; but the coefficients of the squares and products of those components are such hopelessly intractable functions of the numbers of observations in the cells of the data that it is impossible to make analytic comparisons

either between different estimation methods, or between the effects of different degrees of data unbalancedness on any one method of estimation. This absence of tractable criteria, on which judgement can be based as to which application of the ANOVA method has optimal features, thus became very frustrating.

For balanced data an optimal criterion exists. Graybill (1954), Graybill and Wortham (1956) and Graybill and Hultquist (1961) had established the properties of minimum variance for the unbiased quadratic ANOVA estimators.

But for unbalanced data the frustration of "no optimality criterion" persisted. In contrast to the optimal properties of the ANOVA estimators for balanced data, the best estimators in the unbalanced cases of random models and mixed models are not known. Read (1961) showed that unbiased quadratic estimators with uniformly minimum variance do not exist if the design for the random model is not balanced.

For unbalanced data Henderson's Method 3 was used, and among the several pieces of work which have dealt with this method only that of Harville (1967) seems to have been concerned with consistency of the equations leading to the estimators and to the existence of unbiased (quadratic) estimators under various conditions. Harville (1967), however, only treats a completely random two-way classification model with interaction. One other result which deals with existence of unbiased quadratic estimators in a completely random model is given by Graybill and Hultquist (1961).

Seely (1970a, b; 1971; 1972; 1977) and Seely and Zyskind (1971) introduced a least squares approach for estimating variance components. Seely's method has the advantage of giving necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of unbiased quadratic estimators,



which Henderson's Method 3 does not always supply. For a description of Seely's method we refer to chapter 5, section 5.2 and chapter 8, section 8.2.

In the meantime Rao (1970; 1971a, b; 1972) introduced a method equivalent to Seely's method for deriving estimators for variance components. Rao's minimum norm quadratic unbiased estimator (MINQUE) has become well-known.

For joint normally distributed data LaMotte (1973) derived the minimum variance quadratic unbiased estimator (MIVQUE). This estimator is the same as Rao's MINQUE in the case of joint normally distributed data. For a description of Rao's MINQUE see chapter 5, section 5.2 and chapter 8, section 8.2.

When we restrict ourselves to joint normally distributed data, the method of maximum likelihood to get estimators for the parameters has been applied for the unbalanced mixed model by Hartley and Rao (1967). Another modification of this method was the restricted maximum likelihood (REML) estimation, initiated for balanced data by Anderson and Bancroft (1952) and Thompson (1962), and extended by Patterson and Thompson (1971, 1975) to block designs and thence to unbalanced data generally. For a description of this REML method see chapter 5, section 5.2.

Further desirable developments and recommendations in variance components estimation will be made in section 8.3.

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## CHAPTER 3

### 3. REPRESENTATION OF VARIANCE COMPONENT MODELS

#### 3.1. Introduction

For the balanced scheme the representation with vectors and vector spaces is described in the following article, given in section 3.2.

In this article it was stated in the Introduction that for the more complicated mixed models with correlated random effects, the theory presented there was to be extended in a subsequent publication. The author later used the ideas developed here, together with the general mixed model equation  $\underline{y} = X\underline{\beta} + Z\underline{u} + \underline{e}$ , where the stochastically independent random vectors  $\underline{u}$  and  $\underline{e}$  have zero mean vectors ( $E\underline{u} = 0$  and  $E\underline{e} = 0$ ), and dispersion matrices  $D(\underline{u}) = E(\underline{u}\underline{u}')$  and  $D(\underline{e}) = E(\underline{e}\underline{e}')$ , respectively. The correlated effects have been included in  $D(\underline{u})$  and  $D(\underline{e})$ . Hence the expectation vector  $E\underline{y} = X\underline{\beta}$ , and the dispersion matrix of  $\underline{y}$  is  $D(\underline{y}) = ZD(\underline{u})Z' + D(\underline{e})$ .

This representation has been used throughout in the following chapters and, especially for correlated random effects, in section 9.2.

The projection of the observation vector  $\underline{y}$  on a vector space  $A$  is denoted as  $P_A\underline{y}$  rather than  $\underline{y}_A$ . Here  $P_A$  stands for the matrix of orthogonal projection on the vector space  $A$ .

### 3.2. Representation of ANOVA models with vectors and vector spaces

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# Representation of ANOVA models with vectors and vector spaces

by L. R. VERDOOREN \*

**Summary** The use of vectors and vector spaces for the representation of the fixed-effects models for the analysis of variance (ANOVA) is well-known. This representation gives a clear understanding of the estimation and hypothesis testing problems.

A similar representation can be used for the random-effects models and some mixed models. As a result the distribution and the expectation of the mean squares in the ANOVA table can easily be derived.

## 1 Introduction

The representation of the fixed-effects models for the analysis of variance (ANOVA) with vectors and vector spaces was developed in a systematic manner by KUIPER (1952) and CORSTEN (1958). Furthermore the distribution of the sums of squares in the ANOVA table can easily be found by interpreting such a sum of squares as the square of the orthogonal projection of a normal random vector on a subspace, compare KUIPER (1959, 1960). To recall the procedure a few examples are given in section 2.

The vector representation can also be applied to the random-effects ANOVA models to elucidate their consequences. This was pointed out by KUIPER in his 1962 lectures on mathematical statistics at the Landbouwhogeschool (Agricultural University) of Wageningen. A few examples are given to illustrate this technique in section 3.

For some mixed-effects ANOVA models the theory can readily be applied as shown in section 4. For the more complicated mixed models with correlated random-effects the theory presented here should be extended, and this will be done in a subsequent publication.

## 2 Fixed-effects ANOVA models

### 2.1 The one-way classification

The one-way layout refers to the comparison of the means  $\beta_i$  of the populations  $i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, I$ ) which are normal, each with the same variance  $\sigma^2$ . From each population there are  $n_i$  independent random samples  $y_{ij}$  ( $j = 1, \dots, n_i$ ). The sample scheme is then:

Populations or Classification A:	
1	$y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}$
2	
.	
.	
$I$	$y_{I1}, \dots, y_{In_I}$

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The model is:

$$y_{ij} = \beta_i + e_{ij}$$

whereby  $\{e_{ij} \approx \sigma \chi\}$  are mutually stochastically independent ( $i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, n_i$ ).

Note that the standard normal random variable  $\chi$  is defined by

$$P(\chi < x) = \int_{-\infty}^x (2\pi)^{-1/2} e^{-t^2/2} dt;$$

two random variables  $x$  and  $y$  are called isomorphic ( $x \approx y$ ) when they have the same distribution function.

The sample scheme is looked upon as a vector  $y$  in a real vector space  $R^n$  of dimension  $n$  with  $n = \sum_{i=1}^I n_i$ . Corresponding to the one-way classification  $A$  we define a vector subspace  $A \subset R^n$ , consisting of vectors with equal coordinates within each class of  $A$ . A basis of this vector subspace of dimension  $I$  is given by the class-characteristic vectors  $s_1, \dots, s_I$ , whereby  $s_i$  has coordinates equal to one merely in the class  $i$  of  $A$  and zeros elsewhere. Hence the expectation vector  $\mathcal{E}y \in A$ . Under the null hypothesis  $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_I$ , the vector  $\mathcal{E}y \in L$ , the subspace of levels with the basisvector  $s_0$  consisting merely of ones. Obviously:  $s_0 = s_1 + \dots + s_I$ ,  $L \subset A$ .

Let the orthogonal complement of  $L$  in  $A$  be  $A^*$ , then under  $H_0$   $\mathcal{E}y \in L$  and the orthogonal projection of  $\mathcal{E}y$  on  $A^*$ ,  $(\mathcal{E}y)_{A^*}$ , is the null vector. Let the orthogonal complement of  $A$  in  $R^n$  be  $R$ , the space of residuals or the error space, then the dimension of  $R$ ,  $\dim R = r = n - I$ . Also  $(\mathcal{E}y)_R = 0$  whether  $H_0$  is true or not.

The vector representation of this model is then  $y = \mathcal{E}y + \sigma u$ ;  $\mathcal{E}y \in A$ , with  $u \approx \chi_n$ , the normal random vector with mutually independent coordinates  $u_i \approx \chi$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ).

Note that sometimes the model is given in the form  $y_{ij} = \lambda + \alpha_i + e_{ij}$  with the side condition  $\sum_{i=1}^I n_i \alpha_i = 0$ . The vector  $\mathcal{E}y = \mu \in A$  can be written as  $\mu = \mu_L + \mu_{A^*}$  with  $\mu_L = \lambda s_0$  and  $\mu_{A^*} = \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i s_i$ .

For the ANOVA table we decompose  $y$  into orthogonal components  $y = y_L + y_{A^*} + y_R$  and thus  $y^2 = y_L^2 + y_{A^*}^2 + y_R^2$  with the corresponding dimension splitting  $n = 1 + (I - 1) + (n - I)$ .

The Gauss-Markov estimator of  $\mathcal{E}y = \mu$  is  $y_{A^*}$ .

The expectation of  $y_{A^*}^2$  is found as follows:

$$y_{A^*} = \mu_{A^*} + \sigma u_{A^*},$$

$$(y_{A^*} - \mu_{A^*})^2 = \sigma^2 u_{A^*}^2 \approx \sigma^2 \chi_p^2$$

with  $p = \dim A^* = I - 1$ .

Therefore

$$\mathcal{E}(\underline{y}_{A^*} - \mu_{A^*})^2 = \mathcal{E}\sigma^2 \chi_p^2 = p\sigma^2$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E} \underline{y}_{A^*}^2 &= \mathcal{E}[(\underline{y}_{A^*} - \mu_{A^*}) + \mu_{A^*}]^2 = \\ &= \mathcal{E}(\underline{y}_{A^*} - \mu_{A^*})^2 + 2\mathcal{E}(\underline{y}_{A^*} - \mu_{A^*})\mu_{A^*} + \mathcal{E}\mu_{A^*}^2 \\ &= \mu_{A^*}^2 + p\sigma^2.\end{aligned}$$

The distribution of  $\underline{y}_{A^*}^2$  is derived as

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{y}_{A^*} &= \mu_{A^*} + \sigma \underline{u}_{A^*}, \\ \underline{y}_{A^*}^2 &= (\mu_{A^*} + \sigma \underline{u}_{A^*})^2 = \sigma^2(\sigma^{-1}\mu_{A^*} + \underline{u}_{A^*})^2 \simeq \\ &\simeq \sigma^2[(\sigma^{-2}\mu_{A^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \chi]^2 + \sigma^2 \chi_{p-1}^2 \simeq \sigma^2 \chi_{p,\gamma}^2\end{aligned}$$

a non-central chi-square variable with non-centrality parameter

$$\gamma = (\sigma^{-2}\mu_{A^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sigma^{-1}(\mu_{A^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

and  $p$  degrees of freedom.

Furthermore  $\underline{y}_R = \sigma \underline{u}_R$  and  $\underline{y}_R^2 \simeq \sigma^2 \chi_r^2$  with  $r = \dim R = n - I$ . Since  $A^*$  is orthogonal to  $R$ ,  $\underline{y}_{A^*}^2$  is stochastically independent of  $\underline{y}_R^2$  and thus the well-known test statistic for  $H_0: \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_I$  or " $\mu_{A^*}$  equals the null vector" is:

$$\frac{\underline{y}_{A^*}^2/p}{\underline{y}_R^2/r} \simeq \frac{\sigma^2 \chi_{p,\gamma}^2/p}{\sigma^2 \chi_r^2/r} \simeq F_{r,p,\gamma},$$

a non-central  $F$  variable with  $p$  and  $r$  degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter  $\gamma = \sigma^{-1}(\mu_{A^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ . Under  $H_0$  is  $\gamma = 0$  and the test-statistic is a central  $F_r^p$  variable.

## 2.2 The two-way classification (additive model)

The additive model for the connected two-way layout with a classification  $A$  of  $I$  classes and a classification  $B$  with  $J$  classes and  $n_{ij}$  observations per subclass  $A_i \cap B_j$  is:

$$y_{ijk} = \alpha'_i + \beta'_j + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

or

$$y_{ijk} = \lambda + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

with the arbitrary side conditions

$$\sum_i n_{ij} \alpha_i = 0, \quad \sum_j n_{ij} \beta_j = 0 \quad (i = 1, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, \dots, J; \quad k = 1, \dots, n_{ij})$$

whereby  $\{\varepsilon_{ijk} \simeq \sigma \chi\}$  are mutually stochastically independent.

Let the vector spaces  $A$  and  $B$  correspond to the classifications  $A$  and  $B$  respectively. The space  $L$  is the intersection of  $A$  and  $B$  and for any connected two-way layout the dimension of  $L$  is 1. The residual space  $R$  is the orthogonal complement of  $D = A + B$  in  $R^n$ ,  $n = \sum_i \sum_j n_{ij}$ .

The vector representation is:  $y = \mathcal{E}y + \sigma u$  with  $\mathcal{E}y \in D = A + B$  and  $u \approx \chi_n$ . The Gauss-Markov estimator of  $\mathcal{E}y$  is  $y_D = y_{A+B}$ .

Under e.g.  $H_{01}: \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_I = 0$  the vector  $\mathcal{E}y \in D_0 = B$ . Let  $D^*$  be the orthogonal complement of  $D_0$  in  $D$ . The test statistic for  $H_{01}$  is then

$$\frac{y_{D^*}^2/d^*}{y_R^2/r} \approx F_{r, d^*, \gamma}$$

with  $d^* = \dim D^*$ ,  $\gamma = \sigma^{-1}(\mu_{D^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $r = \dim R$ .

Because  $y$  can be decomposed as  $y = y_D + y_R$  with  $D$  and  $R$  orthogonal,  $y^2 = y_D^2 + y_R^2 = y_{A+B}^2 + y_R^2$ .

For an orthogonal design  $A^*$  is orthogonal to  $B^*$  (this is the case if and only if  $n_{ij} = (\sum_i n_{ij})(\sum_j n_{ij})/n$ ), thus  $y_{A+B}^2 = y_L^2 + y_{A^*}^2 + y_{B^*}^2$  and  $y_{D^*}^2 = y_D^2 - y_{D_0}^2 = y_{A^*}^2$ .

For a non-orthogonal design let  $y_{A \perp B}$  be the component of  $y$  in  $A + B$  orthogonal to  $B$ , then  $y_{A+B}^2 = y_{A \perp B}^2 + y_B^2 = y_L^2 + y_{A \perp B}^2 + y_{B^*}^2$  and  $y_{D^*}^2 = y_{A \perp B}^2$ .

The vector  $y_{A \perp B}$  can be found by an iterative procedure see CORSTEN (1958).

In the ANOVA table the various sums of squares are given according to the decomposition  $y^2 = y_L^2 + y_{A \perp B}^2 + y_{B^*}^2 + y_R^2$  with the corresponding dimension splitting  $n = 1 + (I-1) + (J-1) + (n+1-I-J)$ .

Analogously one can test  $H_{02}: \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_J = 0$ .

### 2.3 The two-way classification (interaction model)

The model is in this case

$$y_{ijk} = \lambda + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij} + e_{ijk}$$

with the arbitrary side conditions

$$\sum_i n_{ij} \alpha_i = 0, \sum_j n_{ij} \beta_j = 0, \sum_i n_{ij} \gamma_{ij} = 0, \sum_j n_{ij} \gamma_{ij} = 0$$

$$(i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J; k = 1, \dots, n_{ij})$$

whereby  $\{e_{ijk} \approx \sigma \chi\}$  are mutually stochastically independent.

We define the product-classification  $A \times B$  as the classification according to the non-empty subclasses  $A_i \cap B_j$ . A vector in the corresponding vector space  $A \times B$  has equal coordinates in each subclass  $A_i \cap B_j$ .

The vector representation for the interaction model is then:

$$y = \mathcal{E}y + \sigma u$$

with

$$\mathcal{E}y \in D = A \times B, \quad u \simeq \sigma\chi_n \quad \left( n = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J n_{ij} \right)$$

Under  $H_0$ : " $\gamma_{ij} = 0, i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J$ " the vector  $\mathcal{E}y \in D_0 = A + B$ . The same procedure for testing  $H_0$  can be applied as described in section 2.2. For details see VERDOOREN (1967).

### 3 Random-effects ANOVA models

#### 3.1 The one-way classification

Let the classification  $A$  consist of  $I$  rows, with  $J$  experimental units per row. In the random-effects models we assume that there is a joint action of two random influences. Firstly there is a random variable  $g_i$  which attains a value in each row  $i$ . These  $g_i$  are isomorous and mutually stochastically independent with  $g_i \simeq \sigma_a\chi$ . Secondly there is another random variable  $e_{ij}$  which attains a value on each experimental unit in a row. These  $e_{ij}$  are isomorous and mutually stochastically independent with  $e_{ij} \simeq \lambda + \sigma\chi$  and moreover independent of  $g_i$ . The model is thus

$$y_{ij} = \lambda + g_i + \sigma u_{ij}$$

with the  $\{g_i \simeq \sigma_a\chi\}$  and  $\{u_{ij} \simeq \chi\}$  completely stochastically independent, ( $i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J$ ).

With the same notations as in section 2.1 the first vector representation is

$$y = \lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I g_i s_i + \sigma u$$

with  $u \simeq \chi_n, n = IJ$ .

Let  $v \simeq \chi_n$  and independent of  $u$ . Observe now on the one side that the orthogonal projection of  $v$  on  $A$  is

$$v_A = \sum_{i=1}^I v_i s_i \text{ with } v_i = \sum_{j=1}^J v_{ij}/J \text{ and } v_i \simeq J^{-1/2}\chi.$$

On the other hand  $g_i \simeq \sigma_a\chi$  and we can write therefore  $g_i \simeq \sqrt{J}\sigma_a v_i$ , hence

$$\sum_{i=1}^I g_i s_i \simeq \sigma_a \sqrt{J} v_A.$$

The vector representation of the random model is then

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sigma_a \sqrt{J} v_A + \sigma u$$

or

$$y \simeq \mathcal{E}y + \sigma_a \sqrt{J} v_A + \sigma u$$

with  $\mathcal{E}y \in L$ .

Because  $R^n = A + R$  with  $A$  and  $R$  orthogonal we can write  $\underline{u} = \underline{u}_A + \underline{u}_R$  with  $\underline{u}_A$  independent of  $\underline{u}_R$  and

$$\gamma \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sigma_a \sqrt{J} \underline{v}_A + \sigma \underline{u}_A + \sigma \underline{u}_R.$$

Since for each component of the vectors  $\underline{u}$  and  $\underline{v}$  we have

$$\sigma_a \sqrt{J} \underline{v}_{ij} + \sigma \underline{u}_{ij} \simeq (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \chi,$$

because  $\underline{v}_{ij} \simeq \chi$ ,  $\underline{u}_{ij} \simeq \chi$  and  $\underline{v}_{ij}$  independent of  $\underline{u}_{ij}$ , is

$$\sigma_a \sqrt{J} \underline{v}_A + \sigma \underline{u}_A = (\sigma_a \sqrt{J} \underline{v} + \sigma \underline{u})_A \simeq (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} [\chi_n]_A \simeq (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{v}_A$$

while  $\underline{v} \simeq \chi_n$ .

Hence

$$\gamma \simeq \lambda s_0 + (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{v}_A + \sigma \underline{u}_R.$$

Furthermore  $A = L + A^*$  with  $L$  orthogonal to  $A^*$ , hence  $\underline{v}_A = \underline{v}_L + \underline{v}_{A^*}$  with

$$\underline{v}_L \simeq n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \chi s_0.$$

Finally we obtain

$$\gamma \simeq [\lambda + n^{-\frac{1}{2}} (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \chi] s_0 + (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{v}_{A^*} + \sigma \underline{u}_R.$$

We can thus decompose  $\gamma$  into the following independent components  $\gamma = \gamma_L + \gamma_{A^*} + \gamma_R$  with

$$\gamma_L = \bar{\gamma} s_0 \simeq [\lambda + n^{-\frac{1}{2}} (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \chi] s_0, \quad \bar{\gamma} = \sum_i \sum_j \gamma_{ij} / n;$$

$$\gamma_{A^*} \simeq (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{v}_{A^*}$$

and

$$\gamma_R \simeq \sigma \underline{u}_R.$$

In the ANOVA table we calculate the sums of squares  $\gamma_L^2$ ,  $\gamma_{A^*}^2$  and  $\gamma_R^2$  with the dimensions 1,  $(I-1)$  and  $(n-I)$  respectively.

The distribution of  $\gamma_{A^*}^2$  is

$$(\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2) \gamma_{A^*}^2 \simeq (\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2) \chi_p^2$$

with  $p = \dim A^* = I-1$ . The expectation of the mean square  $\gamma_{A^*}^2/p$  is thus  $\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2$ .

Stochastically independent of  $\gamma_{A^*}^2$  is  $\gamma_R^2 \simeq \sigma^2 \chi_r^2$  with  $r = \dim R = n-I$ . To test the hypothesis  $H_0: \sigma_a = 0$  we use the test statistic

$$\frac{y_{A^*}^2/p}{y_R^2/r} \simeq \frac{\sigma_a^2 J + \sigma^2}{\sigma^2} F_r^p$$

and under  $H_0$  this is isomorous with  $F_r^p$ .

### 3.2 The two-way classification

For the two-way layout with a classification  $A$  of  $I$  classes and a classification  $B$  with  $J$  classes and an equal number  $m$  of observations per subclass  $A_i \cap B_j$ , the random-effects model is

$$y_{ijk} = \lambda + a_i + b_j + e_{ijk},$$

whereby all random variables

$$\{a_i \simeq \sigma_a \chi_i\}, \{b_j \simeq \sigma_b \chi_j\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{e_{ijk} \simeq \sigma \chi_{ijk}\}$$

are mutually stochastically independent, ( $i = 1, \dots, I$ ;  $j = 1, \dots, J$ ;  $k = 1, \dots, m$ ).

With the same notations as in section 2.2 we can write

$$y = \lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I a_i s_i + \sum_{j=1}^J b_j t_j + \sigma u$$

whereby the class-characteristic vectors  $s_1, \dots, s_I$  and  $t_1, \dots, t_J$  form a basis of  $A$  and  $B$  respectively.

Let  $u, v$  and  $w$  be independent normal random vectors  $\chi_n$  ( $n = IJm$ ), then

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sigma_a \sqrt{mJ} v_A + \sigma_b \sqrt{mI} w_B + \sigma u,$$

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sigma_a \sqrt{mJ} (v_L + v_{A^*}) + \sigma_b \sqrt{mI} (w_L + w_{B^*}) + \sigma (u_L + u_{A^*} + u_{B^*} + u_R)$$

and

$$y \simeq [\lambda + n^{-1}(\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma_b^2 mI + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \chi_L] s_0 + (\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A^*} + (\sigma_b^2 mI + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} w_{B^*} + \sigma u_R.$$

Hence

$$y_{A^*} = (\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A^*} \quad \text{and}$$

$$y_{A^*}^2 \simeq (\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma^2) \chi_p^2 \quad \text{with} \quad p = \dim A^* = I - 1,$$

$$y_{B^*}^2 \simeq (\sigma_b^2 mI + \sigma^2) \chi_q^2 \quad \text{with} \quad q = \dim B^* = J - 1,$$

$$y_R^2 \simeq \sigma^2 \chi_r^2 \quad \text{with} \quad r = \dim R = IJm + 1 - I - J,$$

whereby  $y_{A^*}^2$ ,  $y_{B^*}^2$  and  $y_R^2$  are mutually stochastically independent since  $A^*$ ,  $B^*$  and  $R$  are mutually orthogonal.

### 3.3 Hierarchal classifications

A twofold nested classification with  $m$  observations per class has the following random model:

$$y_{ijk} = \lambda + a_i + b_{ij} + e_{ijk}$$

whereby all random variables

$$\{a_i \simeq \sigma_a \chi\}, \quad \{b_{ij} \simeq \sigma_b \chi\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{e_{ijk} \simeq \sigma \chi\}$$

are mutually stochastically independent, ( $i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J; k = 1, \dots, m$ ).

Let  $\underline{u}$ ,  $\underline{v}$  and  $\underline{w}$  be independent normal random vectors  $\chi_n$  with  $n = IJm$ . If the vector space  $B$  corresponds to the classification  $B$  and the vector space  $A$  to the classification  $A$  then  $A \subset B$ . Decompose  $B$  into mutually orthogonal subspaces as  $B = L + A^* + B^*$ , whereby  $B^*$  is the orthogonal complement of  $A$  in  $B$ . Furthermore let the vector space  $R$  be the orthogonal complement of  $B$  in  $R^n$ .

The vector representation of this model is then:

$$\underline{y} \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sigma_a \sqrt{mJ} \underline{v}_A + \sigma_b \sqrt{m} \underline{w}_B + \sigma \underline{u}$$

or

$$\underline{y} \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sigma_a \sqrt{mJ} (\underline{v}_L + \underline{v}_{A^*}) + \sigma_b \sqrt{m} (\underline{w}_L + \underline{w}_{A^*} + \underline{w}_{B^*}) + \sigma (\underline{u}_L + \underline{u}_{A^*} + \underline{u}_{B^*} + \underline{u}_R)$$

and

$$\underline{y} \simeq [\lambda + n^{-1}(\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}] s_0 + (\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{v}_{A^*} + (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \underline{w}_{B^*} + \sigma \underline{u}_R.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} y_{A^*}^2 &\simeq (\sigma_a^2 mJ + \sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2) \chi_p^2 & \text{with } p = \dim A^* = I-1, \\ y_{B^*}^2 &\simeq (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2) \chi_q^2 & \text{with } q = \dim B^* = I(J-1), \\ y_R^2 &\simeq \sigma^2 \chi_r^2 & \text{with } r = \dim R = IJ(m-1), \end{aligned}$$

whereby  $y_{A^*}^2$ ,  $y_{B^*}^2$  and  $y_R^2$  are mutually stochastically independent.

### 4 Mixed-effects ANOVA models

For mixed-effects models with uncorrelated random-effects the exposed theory can readily be applied. A few examples of hierarchal classifications will be presented here. In the more complicated mixed models there appear correlated random-effects. The theory presented here should then be extended and this will be done in a subsequent publication.



#### 4.1 Mixed-effects hierarchal classifications

Suppose a firm produces a material in different plants. If  $\alpha_i$  denotes the effect of the  $i$ -th plant, then this is a fixed effect since the plants do not change in a replication of the experiment. The material is processed in batches and let  $b_{ij}$  be the batch effect. Suppose that a sample of size  $m$  is taken from each of  $J$  batches and let  $e_{ijk}$  be the effect of the  $k$ -th unit taken from the  $ij$ -th batch. The observations  $y_{ijk}$  on these units have the structure

$$y_{ijk} = \lambda + \alpha_i + b_{ij} + e_{ijk}, \quad \sum_i \alpha_i = 0, \quad \{b_{ij} \simeq \sigma_b \chi\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{e_{ijk} \simeq \sigma \chi\}$$

are mutually stochastically independent ( $i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J; k = 1, \dots, m$ ).

With the same notations as in section 3.3 the vector representation is

$$y \simeq \mathcal{E}y + \sigma_b \sqrt{m} v_B + \sigma u$$

with  $\mathcal{E}y \in A$  or

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i s_i + \sigma_b \sqrt{m} (v_L + v_{A^*} + v_{B^*}) + \sigma (u_L + u_{A^*} + u_{B^*} + u_R).$$

Thus

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_L + \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i s_i + (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A^*} + (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{B^*} + \sigma u_R.$$

We find

$$y_{A^*} \simeq \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i s_i + (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A^*}$$

since  $s_0, L, B^*$  and  $R$  are orthogonal to  $A^*$  and these vector components vanish by projection on  $A^*$ .

Hence

$$y_{A^*}^2 \simeq (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2) \chi_p^2, \quad \text{with } p = \dim A^* = I - 1$$

and

$$\gamma = (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} [(\sum_i \alpha_i s_i)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}} = (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} (mJ \sum_i \alpha_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}};$$

$$y_{B^*} \simeq (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{B^*}$$

and

$$y_{B^*}^2 \simeq (\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2) \chi_q^2$$

with  $q = \dim B^* = I(J-1)$ ;

$y_R \simeq \sigma u_R$  and  $y_R^2 \simeq \sigma^2 \chi_r^2$  with  $r = \dim R = IJ(m-1)$ , whereby  $y_{A^*}^2, y_{B^*}^2$  and  $y_R^2$  are mutually stochastically independent.

The test on  $H_{01}: \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_I = 0$  is equivalent to  $H_{01}: \gamma = 0$ . The test statistic is thus

$$\frac{y_{A^*}^2/p}{y_{B^*}^2/q} \simeq F_q^{p,\gamma},$$

and under  $H_{0_1}$  this is a central  $F_q^p$  variable. For the test on  $H_{0_2}: \sigma_b = 0$  we must use

$$\frac{y_{B^*}^2/q}{y_R^2/r} \simeq \frac{(\sigma_b^2 m + \sigma^2)}{\sigma^2} F_r^q.$$

#### 4.2 A split-plot design

In many agricultural or industrial experiments treatments of a factor  $A$  on  $I$  levels are given to whole plots in  $m$  blocks or replications. Other treatments of a factor  $B$  on  $J$  levels are given to the split-plots in the whole plots. The model for such an experiment is:

$$y_{ijk} = \lambda + \alpha_i + \varrho_k + \sigma_1 u_{ik} + \beta_j + \gamma_{ij} + \sigma_2 v_{ijk}$$

with

$$\sum_i \alpha_i = 0, \sum_k \varrho_k = 0, \sum_j \beta_j = 0, \sum_i \gamma_{ij} = 0, \sum_j \gamma_{ij} = 0,$$

$$\{u_{ik} \simeq \chi\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{v_{ijk} \simeq \chi\}$$

are mutually stochastically independent ( $i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J; k = 1, \dots, m$ ).

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be the vector spaces corresponding to the classifications of treatments  $A$  and  $B$  respectively,  $A \times B$  be the vector space corresponding to the product-classification of  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $C$  be the vector space corresponding to the replications and  $P$  be the vector space corresponding to the subdivision of whole plots. The vector representation is then:

$$y \simeq \mathcal{E}y + \sigma_1 \sqrt{J} u + \sigma_2 v$$

with  $\mathcal{E}y = \mu \in A \times B + C$ ;  $u$  and  $v$  are independent normal random vectors  $\chi_n$  ( $n = IJm$ ).

Proceeding as before we derive

$$(y_{A^*} - \mu_{A^*})^2 \simeq (\sigma_1^2 J + \sigma_2^2) \chi_p^2$$

with  $p = \dim A^* = I - 1$  or

$$y_{A^*}^2 \simeq (\sigma_1^2 J + \sigma_2^2) \chi_p^{2,\gamma}$$

with  $\gamma = (\sigma_1^2 J + \sigma_2^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} (\mu_{A^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

Let  $R_1$  be the orthogonal complement of  $A + C$  in  $P$  then

$$y_{R_1}^2 \simeq (\sigma_1^2 J + \sigma_2^2) \chi_{r_1}^2$$

with  $r_1 = \dim R_1 = (I - 1)(m - 1)$ .

Further

$$(\gamma_{B^*} - \mu_{B^*})^2 \simeq \sigma_2^2 \chi_q^2$$

with  $q = \dim B^*$ .

Let  $(A \times B)^*$  be the orthogonal complement of  $A + B$  in  $A \times B$  and  $R_2$  be the orthogonal complement of  $A \times B + C$  in  $R^n$ . Then

$$(\gamma_{(A \times B)^*} - \mu_{(A \times B)^*})^2 \simeq \sigma_2^2 \chi_s^2$$

with  $s = \dim (A \times B)^* = (I-1)(J-1)$ , and

$$\gamma_{R_2}^2 \simeq \sigma_2^2 \chi_{r_2}^2$$

with  $r_2 = \dim R_2 = (m-1)I(J-1)$ .

To test  $H_{01}: \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_I = 0$  we use the test statistic

$$\frac{\gamma_{A^*}^2/p}{\gamma_{R_1}^2/r_1} \simeq F_{r_1}^{p, \gamma}$$

with  $\gamma = (\sigma_1^2 J + \sigma_2^2)^{-1} (\mu_{A^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

and to test  $H_{02}$ : "There is no interaction" we use the test statistic

$$\frac{\gamma_{(A \times B)^*}^2/s}{\gamma_{R_2}^2/r_2} \simeq F_{r_2}^{s, \delta}$$

with  $\delta = \sigma_2^{-1} (\mu_{(A \times B)^*}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

## 5 Final remarks

(i) For unbalanced designs the random-effects models give difficulties in hypotheses testing. The vector representation however gives an easy derivation for the expectation of the mean squares. Also the fact that the mean square of effects is not distributed as chi-square can easily be derived.

As an example we take the one-way classification with unequal observations per row. The random model is

$$\gamma_{ij} = \lambda + a_i + e_{ij}$$

with  $\{a_i \simeq \sigma_a \chi_i\}$  and  $\{e_{ij} \simeq \sigma_e \chi_{ij}\}$  mutually stochastically independent ( $i = 1, \dots, I$ ;  $j = 1, \dots, n_i$ ).

The vector model is

$$\underline{\gamma} = \lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I a_i s_i + \sigma \underline{u}$$

with  $\underline{u} \simeq \chi_n$  ( $n = \sum_i n_i$ ).

Let  $A_i$  be the space of dimension one with basis  $s_i$ , then  $A$  can be decomposed in mutual orthogonal subspaces as  $A = A_1 + \dots + A_I$ .

Hence

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I \sigma_a \sqrt{n_i} v_{A_i} + \sigma \left( \sum_{i=1}^I u_{A_i} + u_R \right)$$

or

$$y \simeq \lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I (\sigma_a^2 n_i + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A_i} + \sigma u_R.$$

When we want to calculate  $\mathcal{E} y_{A^*}^2$ , we need  $\mathcal{E} y_A^2$  and  $\mathcal{E} y_L^2$  since  $\mathcal{E} y_{A^*}^2 = \mathcal{E} (y_A^2 - y_L^2)$ .

But  $y_L^2$  is equal to

$$(y_{s_0})^2 / (s_0 s_0) = (y_{s_0})^2 / n \text{ and } y_A^2 = [\lambda s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^I (\sigma_a^2 n_i + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A_i}]^2.$$

Since

$$y_{s_0} \simeq \lambda n + \sum_{i=1}^I (\sigma_a^2 n_i + \sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} v_{A_i} s_0$$

and

$$v_{A_i} s_0 = v_i s_i (s_1 + \dots + s_I) = s_i^2 v_i \simeq n_i (n_i)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \chi \simeq n_i^{\frac{1}{2}} \chi$$

we find

$$y_{s_0} \simeq \lambda n + \left[ \sum_{i=1}^I n_i (\sigma_a^2 n_i + \sigma^2) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \chi.$$

Hence

$$\mathcal{E} y_L^2 = n \lambda^2 + n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^I n_i (\sigma_a^2 n_i + \sigma^2).$$

Since

$$v_{A_i} \simeq n_i^{-\frac{1}{2}} \chi s_i, \quad \mathcal{E} v_{A_i}^2 = 1$$

is

$$\mathcal{E} y_A^2 = n \lambda^2 + \sum_{i=1}^I (\sigma_a^2 n_i + \sigma^2).$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{E} y_{A^*}^2 = \mathcal{E} y_A^2 - \mathcal{E} y_L^2 = (I-1) \sigma^2 + (n - \sum_i n_i^2 / n) \sigma_a^2$$

and

$$\mathcal{E} y_{A^*}^2 / (I-1) = \sigma^2 + (n^2 - \sum_i n_i^2) [n(I-1)]^{-1} \sigma_a^2.$$

The distribution of  $y_A^2$  is a linear combination of independant non-central  $\chi_1^2$  - variables with unequal coefficients and thus  $y_{A^*}^2$  is not distributed as a constant times a chi-square variable.

(ii) The vector representation can be used to calculate the expectation of mean squares in the ANOVA tables even when we have not normal random vectors but only random vectors with uncorrelated components, each with the same variance. The crucial point is that if  $u_{ij} \simeq v_{ij}$  and  $u_{ij}$  is uncorrelated with  $v_{ij}$ , then the variance

of a linear combination of  $\underline{u}_{ij}$  and  $\underline{v}_{ij}$  equals the sum of the square of the coefficients times the variance of the components. For the expectation of mean squares only this fact is necessary.

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## 6 References

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## CHAPTER 4

### 4. EXACT TESTS AND CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR VARIANCE-RATIOS IN NESTED DESIGNS

#### PART I: ONSET

##### 4.1. Introduction

Let us consider a three-stage nested design. From a population  $I$  samples are taken at random. From the  $i$ -th sample,  $J_i$  subsamples are taken at random. From the  $j$ -th subsample, drawn from the  $i$ -th sample,  $n_{ij}$  subsubsamples are drawn at random. Let  $x_{k(ij)}$  be the observation made on the  $k$ -th such subsubsample (drawn from the  $j$ -th subsample, which has been drawn from the  $i$ -th sample).

A model with random effects is the following:

$$x_{k(ij)} = \lambda + a_i + b_{j(i)} + e_{k(ji)} \quad (4.1)$$

where  $\lambda$  is a general mean; the random variables  $\{a_i\}$  are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.), where  $a_i$  are  $N(0, \sigma_a^2)$ ; the random variables  $b_{j(i)}$  are i.i.d. and  $N(0, \sigma_b^2)$ ; the random variables  $e_{k(ji)}$  are i.i.d. and  $N(0, \sigma_e^2)$ . The random variables  $\{a_i\}$ ,  $\{b_{j(i)}\}$  and  $\{e_{k(ji)}\}$  are mutually stochastically independent.

For a rigorous derivation of a two-stage nested design (e.g. half-sib design), see chapter 6. This derivation can easily be extended to a three-stage nested design (e.g. full-sib design).

In animal breeding such a full-sib design has already been used before 1945 by Lush and his coworkers. In the first stage  $I$  sires have been drawn at random from a population, in the second stage dams are drawn at random and each sire has been mated to a different group of  $J_i$  dams. From the offspring  $n_{ij}$  animals are drawn at random. Interest lies in estimating variance components and heritabilities.

In plant breeding propaganda has been made by Comstock and

Robinson (1948; 1952). From then on this design was called North Carolina mating design 1.

The ANOVA-table reads (where  $J_0 = \sum_{i=1}^I J_i$ ):

Source of variation	df	SS	MS	E(MS)
Correction term	1	SSL		
Between samples	I-1	SSA	MSA	$\sigma_e^2 + K_2\sigma_b^2 + K_1\sigma_a^2$
Within samples, between subsamples	$J_0 - I$	SSB	MSB	$\sigma_e^2 + K_3\sigma_b^2$
Within subsamples = Residual, or Error	$n_{..} - J_0$	SSR	MSR	$\sigma_e^2$
Uncorrected total	$n_{..}$	SST		

$$SSL = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k(ij)} \right]^2 / n_{..},$$

$$\text{where } n_{..} = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} n_{ij};$$

$$SSA = \sum_{i=1}^I \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k(ij)} \right]^2 / n_{i.} - SSL,$$

$$\text{where } n_{i.} = \sum_{k=1}^{J_i} n_{ij};$$

$$SSB = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k(ij)} \right]^2 / n_{ij} - SSA - SSL;$$

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k(ij)}^2;$$

$$SSR = SST - SSL - SSA - SSB.$$

The column of the expected values of the Mean Squares, E(MS), in the ANOVA-table is such that  $E(\underline{MSR}) = \sigma_e^2$ ;  $E(\underline{MSB}) = \sigma_e^2 + K_3\sigma_b^2$  with

$$K_3 = (J_0 - I)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} n_{ij}^2 (n_{ij}^{-1} - n_{i.}^{-1}); \quad E(\underline{MSA}) = \sigma_e^2 + K_2\sigma_b^2 + K_1\sigma_a^2,$$

where  $K_2 = (I-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} n_{ij}^2 (n_{i.}^{-1} - n_{..}^{-1})$  and

$$K_1 = (I-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^I n_{i.}^2 (n_{i.}^{-1} - n_{..}^{-1}).$$

For the (totally) balanced case:  $J_i = J$  for all  $i$  and  $n_{ij} = m$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ , the  $E(MS)$  column reads:

$$E(\underline{MSB}) = \sigma_e^2 + m\sigma_b^2 \text{ and}$$

$$E(\underline{MSA}) = \sigma_e^2 + m\sigma_b^2 + Jm\sigma_a^2.$$

Furthermore in the balanced case,  $\underline{MSR}$ ,  $\underline{MSB}$  and  $\underline{MSA}$  are mutually stochastically independent;  $\underline{MSB}$  is distributed as  $(\sigma_e^2 + m\sigma_b^2)[I(J-1)]^{-1}$  times a chi-square variable with  $I(J-1)$  degrees of freedom,  $\chi^2(I(J-1))$ ;  $\underline{MSA}$  is distributed as  $(\sigma_e^2 + m\sigma_b^2 + Jm\sigma_a^2)(I-1)^{-1}$  times a chi-square variable with  $(I-1)$  degrees of freedom,  $\chi^2(I-1)$ , and  $\underline{MSR}$  is distributed as  $\sigma_e^2[IJ(m-1)]^{-1}$  times a  $\chi^2(IJ(m-1))$  variable.

To test the null-hypothesis  $H_{02}: \sigma_b^2 = 0$  against the alternative hypothesis  $H_{12}: \sigma_b^2 > 0$ , or equivalently  $H_{02}: \sigma_b^2/\sigma_e^2 = 0$  against  $H_{12}: \sigma_b^2/\sigma_e^2 > 0$ ; the test statistic is  $\underline{MSB}/\underline{MSR}$ , which has, under  $H_{02}$ , an  $F$ -distribution with  $I(J-1)$  and  $IJ(m-1)$  degrees of freedom.

To test the null-hypothesis  $H_{01}: \sigma_a^2 = 0$  against the alternative hypothesis  $H_{11}: \sigma_a^2 > 0$ , or equivalently  $H_{01}: \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2 = 0$  against  $H_{11}: \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2 > 0$ , the test statistic is  $\underline{MSA}/\underline{MSB}$ , which has, under  $H_{01}$ , an  $F$ -distribution with  $(I-1)$  and  $I(J-1)$  degrees of freedom.

For a derivation of the above mentioned facts, see section 7.2.

For the unbalanced case we have  $E(\underline{MSR}) = \sigma_e^2$ ;  $E(\underline{MSB}) = \sigma_e^2 + K_3\sigma_b^2$  and  $E(\underline{MSA}) = \sigma_e^2 + K_2\sigma_b^2 + K_1\sigma_a^2$ , where  $K_3$  is seldom equal to  $K_2$ . Under  $H_{02}: \sigma_b^2 = 0$  we see that  $E(\underline{MSB}) = E(\underline{MSR})$ . Hence as the test statistic  $\underline{MSB}/\underline{MSR}$  should be taken, which indeed under  $H_{02}$  has an  $F$ -distribution with  $(J_0-I)$  and  $(n_{..}-J_0)$  degrees of freedom.

Under  $H_{01}: \sigma_a^2 = 0$  we see that  $E(\underline{MSA}) = \sigma_e^2 + K_2\sigma_b^2$  and



$$E(\underline{MSB}) = \sigma_e^2 + K_3 \sigma_b^2.$$

To find a test statistic, an approximation of Satterthwaite (1946) is often used. Let  $\underline{MS}_h$ ,  $h = 1, \dots, H$ , be mutually stochastically independent Mean Squares from an ANOVA table; each  $\underline{MS}_h$  has  $E(\underline{MS}_h) = \tau_h^2$  and is distributed as  $\tau_h^2(\nu_h)^{-1}$  times a chi-square variable with  $\nu_h$  degrees of freedom,  $\chi^2(\nu_h)$ .

A linear combination  $\sum_{h=1}^H c_h(\underline{MS}_h)$  will be approximated by  $C\nu^{-1}\chi^2(\nu)$  such that the expectation and variance are equal, hence

$$E\left[\sum_{h=1}^H c_h(\underline{MS}_h)\right] = E[C\nu^{-1}\chi^2(\nu)] \quad (4.2)$$

and

$$\text{var}\left[\sum_{h=1}^H c_h(\underline{MS}_h)\right] = \text{var}[C\nu^{-1}\chi^2(\nu)] \quad (4.3)$$

From (4.1) it follows that

$$\sum_{h=1}^H c_h \tau_h^2 = C \quad (4.4)$$

and from (4.2) that

$$\sum_{h=1}^H c_h^2 \tau_h^4 \nu_h^{-1} = C^2 \nu^{-1} \quad (4.5)$$

From (4.4) and (4.5) Satterthwaite found

$$\nu = \left[ \sum_{h=1}^H c_h \tau_h^2 \right]^2 / \left[ \sum_{h=1}^H c_h^2 \tau_h^4 / \nu_h \right] \quad (4.6)$$

As an estimate for  $\tau_h^2$  he used  $\underline{MS}_h$ , hence the degrees of freedom  $\nu$  will be estimated as

$$\hat{\nu} = \left[ \sum_{h=1}^H c_h(\underline{MS}_h) \right]^2 / \left[ \sum_{h=1}^H c_h^2(\underline{MS}_h) / \nu_h \right] \quad (4.7)$$

Tietjen and Moore (1968) used Satterthwaite's procedure to construct an approximate F-test to test  $H_{01}: \sigma_a^2 = 0$  against  $H_{11}: \sigma_a^2 > 0$ .

They used as test statistic  $\underline{MSA}/\underline{MSC}$  where

$\underline{MSC} = (K_2/K_3)\underline{MSB} + (1-K_2/K_3)\underline{MSR}$ , hence under  $H_{01}: \sigma_a^2 = 0$ ,  $E(\underline{MSA}) = E(\underline{MSC})$ .

They then approximated the distribution of  $\underline{MSC}$  as  $E(\underline{MSC}) \cdot \nu^{-1}$  times a chi-square variable with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom, where  $\nu$  is estimated by (4.7). They also provided, upon request, a computer program to perform this approximate F-test for all unbalanced nested designs!

But Kruskal (1968) pointed out that, for the unbalanced case of a completely nested design,  $\underline{MSA}$  and  $\underline{MSB}$  are not independent.

How to find an exact test for  $H_{01}: \sigma_a^2 = 0$  against  $H_1: \sigma_a^2 > 0$  is described in section 4.2.

An extended version is given in section 7.2.

Also an exact confidence interval for the ratio of variance components is derived in sections 4.2 and 4.3.

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4.2. Exact tests about variance ratios in unbalanced two- and three-  
stage nested designs

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Exact tests about variance ratios in unbalanced  
two- and three-stage nested designs.

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Summary

The first part deals with the problem of testing the hypothesis  $\Delta = 0$  against  $\Delta > 0$  for nested designs, where  $\Delta$  is the ratio of variance components. Even for the simplest random models, such as those for nested designs, exact tests of variance ratios and their power function are troublesome in the unbalanced case. For testing one needs the distribution of a linear combination of independent chi-square variables (with positive and negative coefficients). Such distributions are not tabulated. However, with an algorithm, suggested by Imhof (1961), the exact distribution can easily be calculated by means of a computer. Our numerical results with this procedure agree with that of Spjøtvoll (1968) for the case he was able to handle, viz. the unbalanced one-way lay-out with three classes.

It is shown that for partially balanced three-stage nested designs (balanced per second stage), the sum of squares "Between" and "Within Samples" of the second stage are stochastically independent under the normality assumption.

The second part deals with the construction of an exact confidence interval for  $\Delta$ , concerning the last two stages of an unbalanced nested design. Wald (1940) indicated an iterative procedure to obtain an exact confidence interval for  $\Delta$  in the case of the unbalanced one-way lay-out (two-stage nested design), but his procedure was never used in practice. With a computer this procedure can be applied easily. A similar problem for unbalanced three-stage nested designs can be handled by a generalization of Wald's procedure.

Some examples are presented.

## 1. Notation

### 1.1. Two-stage nested designs

The model reads:

$$x_{j(i)} = \lambda + a_i + e_{j(i)}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n_i \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, \dots, I,$$

where  $\lambda$  is a general mean, and independently and identically distributed

(i.i.d.)  $a_i \sim N(0, \sigma_a^2)$ , i.i.d.  $e_{j(i)} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$ . The random variables  $\{a_i\}$  and  $\{e_{j(i)}\}$  are mutually statistically independent.

The design is said to be balanced if all  $n_i$  are the same; otherwise it is unbalanced. The ANOVA-table reads:

Source	df	SS	MS	Variance ratio
Correction term (level)	1	$x' L x$		
Between samples	$I - 1$	$x' A x$	MSA	$f = \text{MSA/MSR}$
Within samples = Residual	$n_{\cdot} - I$	$x' R x$	MSR	
Uncorrected total	$n_{\cdot}$	$x' x$		

Remark that a sum of squares (SS) is a quadratic form in the observations.

To test the null-hypothesis  $H_0: \Delta = 0$  against the alternative  $H_1: \Delta > 0$  ( $\Delta = \sigma_a^2 / \sigma_e^2$ ) the usual test statistic is the variance ratio  $f = \text{MSA/MSR}$ .

### 1.2. Three-stage nested designs

The model reads:

$$x_{k(ij)} = \lambda + a_i + b_{j(i)} + e_{k(ji)}, \quad k = 1, \dots, n_{ij} \text{ for} \\ j = 1, \dots, J_i \text{ and} \\ i = 1, \dots, I$$

where  $\lambda$  is a general mean, and i.i.d.  $a_i \sim N(0, \sigma_a^2)$ ,  $b_{j(i)} \sim N(0, \sigma_b^2)$ ,  $e_{k(ij)} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$  respectively. The random variables  $\{a_i\}$ ,  $\{b_{j(i)}\}$  and  $\{e_{k(ij)}\}$  are mutually independent.

The design is called (totally) balanced if  $J_i = J$  for all  $i$  and  $n_{ij} = m$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ . In the case where  $n_{ij} = m_i$  for all  $j$ , the design is called partially balanced. In the case where for at least one  $i$ ,  $n_{ij} \neq n_{ij'}$ , the design is called unbalanced.

The ANOVA-table reads (where  $J_0 = \sum_{i=1}^I J_i$ ):

Source	df	SS	MS	Variance ratio
Correction term (level)	1	$x'Lx$		
Between samples	$I-1$	$x'Ax$	MSA	$f_1 = \text{MSA/MSB}$
Within samples, between subsamples	$J_0-I$	$x'Bx$	MSB	$f_2 = \text{MSB/MSR}$
Within subsamples = Residual	$n_{..}-J_0$	$x'Rx$	MSR	
Uncorrected total	$n_{..}$	$x'x$		

To test the null-hypothesis  $H_{02}: \Delta_2 = 0$  against  $H_{12}: \Delta_2 > 0$  ( $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b/\sigma_e$ ) the usual test statistic is the variance ratio  $f_2 = \text{MSB}/\text{MSR}$  and for the test of  $H_{01}: \Delta_1 = 0$  against  $H_{11}: \Delta_1 > 0$  ( $\Delta_1 = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$ ) the usual test statistic is the variance ratio:  $f_1 = \text{MSA}/\text{MSB}$ .

## 2. Distribution of a variance ratio (normal variables)

### 2.1. General theory

A variance ratio is the ratio of two sums of squares. This is a special case of the ratio of two quadratic forms  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Bx$  in normal variables,  $A$  and  $B$  being symmetric. Knowing the distribution of a quadratic form in normal variables we can derive the distribution of a ratio of two such quadratic forms.

Let  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)'$  be a normal random vector with mean vector  $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)'$ , non-singular covariance matrix  $V = E(x-\mu)(x-\mu)'$ , and consider the quadratic form  $Q = x'Ax$ , with rank  $A = k$ . It can be shown that  $Q$  is distri-

buted as  $\sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j x_{h_j}^2(\delta_j^2)$  where  $\lambda_j$  are the distinct non-zero characteristic roots of

$AV$ , the  $h_j$  the respective multiplicities with  $\sum_{j=1}^m h_j = k$ , the  $\delta_j$  certain

linear combinations of  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n$  and the  $x_{h_j}^2(\delta_j^2)$  are independent  $\chi^2$ -variables

with  $h_j$  degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter  $\delta_j^2$ .

Imhof (1961) discovered that the distribution function of  $Q$  can be obtained quite easily by straightforward numerical integration of the characteristic function of  $Q$ .

A computer program in FORTRAN IV was given by Koerts and Abrahamse (1969), pp.159-160. On a CDC-3200 computer we applied this program to the examples given by Imhof (1961) and our results agreed with his results. With this program fast numerical calculation of the distribution function of a linear combination of independent (non-) central chi-square variables with positive and negative coefficients is possible.

For the case of an ANOVA variance ratio  $f = \text{MSA}/\text{MSB} = cx'Ax/x'Bx$ , with

$c = p/k$ , where  $k = \text{rank } A$  and  $p = \text{rank } B$ , the sum of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Bx$  are independent and such that  $A\mu = B\mu = 0$  while the eigenvalues of  $AV$  and  $BV$  are

non-negative. Hence the distribution of  $x'Ax$  is  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i S_i^2$  where  $S_i^2$  is a  $\chi^2_1$ -variable

and the  $S_i^2$  are independent, and  $\lambda_i$  are the positive eigenvalues of  $AV$ ,

$i = 1, \dots, k = \text{rank } A$ . Analogously the distribution of  $x'Bx$  is  $\sum_{j=1}^p \lambda'_j S_j^2$  with

$p = \text{rank } B$ . Because  $\Pr(x'Bx = 0) = \Pr(\sum_{j=1}^p \lambda'_j S_j^2 = 0) = 0$ , the distribution of

$f$  is as follows:

$$\Pr(f \leq t') = \Pr\left(\frac{x'Ax}{x'Bx} \leq t\right) = \Pr\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i S_i^2 - \sum_{j=1}^p t \lambda'_j S_j^2 \leq 0\right) \text{ and with Imhof's}$$

algorithm we can calculate the distribution for each  $t > 0$ ,  $t = kt'/p$ .

## 2.2. Application to nested designs

Let  $V$  be the variance-covariance matrix of the vector of observations. For the unbalanced two-stage nested designs, the sum of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Rx$  are stochastically independent, because  $AVR = 0$ . For the test on  $\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2 = 0$

the distribution of  $f = \text{MSA}/\text{MSR}$  is needed. Now  $\Pr(f \leq t') = \Pr(x'Ax/x'Rx \leq t) =$

$$\Pr\left(\sum_{i=1}^{I-1} \lambda_i S_i^2 - t \chi_{n-I}^2 \leq 0\right), \text{ where the random part consists of a linear combination}$$

of independent chi-square variables,  $S_i^2$  is a  $\chi^2_1$ -variable,  $t = (I-1)t'/(n-I)$  and  $\lambda_i$  are the positive eigenvalues of  $AV/\sigma_e^2$ . Under  $H_0: \Delta = 0$  the distribution of  $f$

is an F-distribution with  $I-1$  and  $n-I$  degrees of freedom.

For the balanced three-stage nested designs the sums of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Rx$  are stochastically independent and also  $x'Bx$  and  $x'Rx$  are independent.



We have proved the theorem: In a three-stage nested design the sums of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Bx$  are stochastically independent if and only if for each  $i = 1, \dots, I$ :  $n_{ij} = n_{ij'}$  ( $j, j' = 1, \dots, J_i$ ). Thus only for the partially balanced designs these sums of squares are independent. For the unbalanced designs  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Bx$  are dependent.

For the test on  $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b^2/\sigma_e^2 = 0$  the distribution of  $f_2 = \text{MSB}/\text{MSR}$  is needed.

Now  $\Pr(f_2 \leq t'_2) = \Pr(x'Bx/x'Rx \leq t_2) = \Pr(\sum_{i=1}^{J_0-I} \lambda_i S_i^2 - t_2 x_{n_{..}-J_0}^2 \leq 0)$ , where the

random part consists of a linear combination of independent chi-square variables

with  $S_i^2$  a  $\chi_{n_i}^2$ -variable,  $t_2 = (J_0 - I)t'_2/(n_{..} - J_0)$ , and  $\lambda_i$  are the positive eigenvalues of  $BV/\sigma_e^2$ .

For the test on  $\Delta_1 = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2 = 0$  the distribution of  $f_1 = \text{MSA}/\text{MSB}$  is found as

$\Pr(f_1 \leq t'_1) = \Pr(x'Ax/x'Bx \leq t_1) = \Pr(x'(A-t_1B)x \leq 0) = \Pr(\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i S_i^2 \leq 0)$  where

$t_1 = (I-1)t'_1 / (J_0-I)$ ,  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi_{n_i}^2$ -variables and  $\lambda_i$  are the non-zero

eigenvalues of  $(A-t_1B)V/\sigma_e^2$ . However, even under  $H_0$ :  $\Delta_1 = 0$  the distribution of  $f_1$  depends on the value of  $\Delta_2$ .

Remark 1: The procedure of Satterthwaite (1946) to approximate the distribution of the variance ratio by an F-distribution, can not be used when the numerator and denominator are dependent. Also for the unbalanced three-stage nested design the distribution of  $f_1$  can not be approximated with Satterthwaite's procedure. This has been overlooked by Tietjen and Moore (1968).

Remark 2: The problem of testing the hypothesis  $\Delta \leq \Delta_0$  against  $\Delta > \Delta_0$ , where

$\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$ , for the unbalanced two-stage nested design has been treated by Spjøtvoll (1967). Spjøtvoll derives the most powerful invariant test for  $H_0$ :

$\Delta = \Delta_0$  against an alternative  $\Delta = \Delta_1 > \Delta_0$ .

His test statistic reads:

$$W(\Delta_0, \Delta_1) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^I g_{i0}(\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_0)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^I g_{i1}(\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^I g_{i0}(\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_0)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{j(i)} - \bar{x}_i)^2}$$

where  $g_{ik} = n_i / (\Delta_k n_i + 1)$ ,  $\bar{x}_k = \sum_{i=1}^I g_{ik} \bar{x}_i / \sum_{i=1}^I g_{ik}$  for  $k = 0, 1$  and

$$\bar{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} x_{j(i)} / n_i.$$

For the case  $\Delta \rightarrow \infty$  (test against large alternatives  $\Delta_1$ ) he used the test statistic:

$$T(\Delta_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^I g_{i0}(\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_0)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{j(i)} - \bar{x}_i)^2}$$

which is the one used by Scheffé (1959) to test the hypothesis  $\Delta_0 = 0$ .

The distributions of  $W$  and  $T$  consist of linear combinations of independent  $\chi^2$ -variables with positive and negative coefficients.

Spjøtvoll (1968) gives several examples of the exact power function calculations of the test statistics  $W$  and  $T$  for the hypothesis  $\Delta = 0$  against  $\Delta = 0.1$  at the 1% level for the special case he was able to handle, viz. the unbalanced one-way lay-out with three classes. We have checked these examples and our results agree with his results. However, we are now able to calculate the exact power function of unbalanced one-way lay-out with more than three classes.

Conclusion: The problem of exact tests concerning variance ratios and their power functions, for the unbalanced two- and three-stage nested designs, has been solved in practice. Copies of the program are available from the author upon request.

### 3. An exact confidence interval for $\Delta$

#### 3.1. Two-stage nested designs

Wald (1940) and also Spjøtvoll (1967) indicated a procedure for an exact confidence interval for  $\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$  with confidence coefficient  $1 - \alpha$ .

For the computation we need the expression of  $T(\Delta_0)$ , see remark 2 in section 2.2. The lower confidence limit  $\Delta_L$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$ ,  $(n_{..}-1)T/(I-1) = f_2$ , where  $f_2$  is the upper  $\alpha/2$ -point of the F-distribution with  $I-1$  and  $n_{..}-I$  degrees of freedom. The upper confidence coefficient  $\Delta_U$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$ :  $(n_{..}-1)T/(I-1) = f_1$ , where  $f_1$  is the lower  $\alpha/2$ -point of the F-distribution with  $I-1$  and  $n_{..}-I$  degrees of freedom.

The construction of this exact confidence interval for  $\Delta$  can be solved only iteratively, and perhaps for that reason it was not used in practice. With a computer, however, this procedure can readily be applied as we did with a FORTRAN IV program.

#### 3.2. Three-stage nested designs

A generalization to the unbalanced three-stage nested design will be given here. Again Wald's procedure can be used for an exact confidence interval of the variance ratio  $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b^2/\sigma_e^2$  for the last two stages.

Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be the lower and upper  $\alpha/2$ -point of the F-distribution with  $J_0 - I$  and  $n_{..} - J_0$  degrees of freedom.

$$\text{Define } T(\Delta_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} g_{ij} (\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{\bar{x}}_{i.})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} (x_{k(ij)} - \bar{x}_{ij})^2} \quad \text{with } g_{ij} = n_{ij}/(\Delta_0 n_{ij} + 1);$$

$$\bar{x}_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k(ij)} / n_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\bar{x}}_{i.} = \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} g_{ij} \bar{x}_{ij} / \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} g_{ij}. \quad \text{The lower confidence limit}$$

$\Delta_L$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$ :  $(n_{..} - J_0)T/(J_0 - I) = f_2$  and the upper confidence limit  $\Delta_U$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$ :  $(n_{..} - J_0)T/(J_0 - I) = f_1$ .

The generalization to the unbalanced  $k$ -stage nested design in order to obtain an exact confidence interval for the variance ratio  $\Delta$  of the last two stages, is straightforward.

Conclusion: The problem of exact confidence intervals for  $\Delta$ , concerning the last two stages of an unbalanced nested design, has been solved in practice. Copies of the program are available from the author upon request.

#### 4. Numerical examples

##### 4.1. A two-stage nested design

The first sample has been taken from Snedecor and Cochran (1967), example 10.18.1, p. 290. In research on artificial insemination of cows, a series of semen samples from bulls is sent out and tested for its ability to produce conception. The percentages of conceptions from samples for six bulls are shown below.

Bull (i)	$x_{j(i)}$	$n_i$	$\bar{x}_i$
1	46, 31, 37, 62, 30	5	41.20
2	70, 59	2	64.50
3	52, 44, 57, 40, 67, 64, 70	7	56.29
4	47, 21, 70, 46, 14	5	39.60
5	42, 64, 50, 69, 77, 81, 87	7	67.14
6	35, 68, 59, 38, 57, 76, 57, 29, 60	9	53.22
Total	1876	35	

ANOVA-table

Source	df	SS	MS	E(MS)	Variance ratio
Correction term	1	100553.60			
Between bulls	5	3322.06	664.41	$\sigma_e^2 + 5.669\sigma_a^2$	2.68
Within bulls	29	7200.34	248.29	$\sigma_e^2$	
Uncorrected total	35	111076.00			

$$\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = 248.29; \hat{\sigma}_a^2 = 73.40.$$

Test the hypothesis  $H_0: \Delta = 0$  against  $\Delta = \Delta_1 > 0$  with  $\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$ .

Let  $\gamma_1$  be the critical level for the W test statistic,  $\gamma_1 = \Pr(W(0, \Delta_1) > W)$ , and  $\beta_1$  be the corresponding power when  $\gamma_1$  is taken as the significance level of the test. Let  $\gamma_0$  be the critical level for the T test statistic,  $\gamma_0 = \Pr(T(0) > T)$ , and  $\beta_0$  be the corresponding power when  $\gamma_0$  is taken as the significance level of the test. Because for this example  $\Pr(F(5, 29) > 2.68) = 0.042$ ,  $\gamma_0$  is taken as 0.042 throughout the calculation of  $\beta_0$ .

$\Delta_1$	$\gamma_1$	$\beta_1$	$\beta_0$
0	.042	.042	.042 = $\gamma_0$
.02	.052	.078	.061
.04	.050	.102	.084
.06	.048	.129	.109
.08	.047	.156	.136
.1	.045	.184	.165
.2	.042	.324	.309
.4	.040	.545	.539
.6	.040	.685	.684
.8	.040	.775	.775
1.0	.040	.833	.834
1.2	.040	.872	.873
1.4	.040	.900	.901
1.6	.040	.920	.921
1.8	.040	.935	.936
2	.040	.946	.947
3	.041	.976	.976
4	.041	.987	.987
5	.041	.992	.992

The exact confidence interval

$\Delta_L < \Delta < \Delta_U$ , for  $\Delta$  with confidence coefficient  $1-\alpha$  is:

$1-\alpha$	$\Delta_L$	$\Delta_U$
.70	.09	1.13
.80	.05	1.46
.90	.01	2.16
.95	0*)	3.08
.99	0*)	5.00

\*) On the interval  $0 \leq \Delta < \infty$  there is no solution for the equation in  $\Delta$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^I g_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{I-1}{n-I} f_2 \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{j(i)} - \bar{x}_i)^2$$

When we allow negative values of  $\Delta$  with the restriction that the weights

$g_i = n_i / (\Delta n_i + 1)$  remain positive, we find for  $\Delta_L$ : -0.02 for  $\alpha = 0.05$  and -0.06 for  $\alpha = 0.01$ .

#### 4.2. A three-stage nested design

The second example consists of fictitious data for a three-stage nested design.

	A <sub>1</sub>		A <sub>2</sub>		A <sub>3</sub>		
	B <sub>1</sub> (1)	B <sub>2</sub> (1)	B <sub>1</sub> (2)	B <sub>2</sub> (2)	B <sub>1</sub> (3)	B <sub>2</sub> (3)	B <sub>3</sub> (3)
	7	7	4	6	4	5	4
	5	6	4	5	6	3	4
	7	6		7	5	5	3
		7		6	5		
Total	19	26	8	24	20	13	11
n <sub>ij</sub>	3	4	2	4	4	3	3
$\bar{x}_{ij}$	6.33	6.5	4.0	6.0	5.0	4.33	3.67
n <sub>i</sub>	7		6		10		
$\bar{x}_{i.}$	6.43		5.33		4.4		



ANOVA-table

Source	df	SS	MS	E(MS)
Correction term	1	636.565		
Between $A_i$	2	16.987	8.494	$\sigma_e^2 + 3.435\sigma_b^2 + 7.478\sigma_a^2$
Between $B_{j(i)}$	4	8.448	2.112	$\sigma_e^2 + 3.174\sigma_b^2$
Within $B_{j(i)}$ = Residual	16	11.000	0.688	$\sigma_e^2$
Uncorrected total	23	673		

$$\sigma_e^2 = 0.688; \sigma_b^2 = 0.449; \sigma_a^2 = 0.838.$$

Test on  $H_{02}: \Delta_2 = 0$  against  $H_{12}: \Delta_2 > 0$  with  $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b^2/\sigma_e^2$ ,  $f_2 = \text{MSB}/\text{MSR} =$

$2.112/0.688 = 3.072$ ; the critical level  $\gamma_2 = \Pr(f_2 > 3.072 \mid \Delta_2 = 0) = 0.047$ .

The power of this test for  $\Delta_2$  with significance level  $\gamma_2 = 0.047$  is

$\beta_2(\Delta_2) = \Pr(f_2 > 3.072 \mid \Delta_2)$ . Some values for  $\beta_2(\Delta_2)$  are given below.

$\Delta_2$	$\beta_2(\Delta_2)$
0	.047 = $\gamma_2$
0.1	.100
0.5	.353
1	.580
1.5	.712
2	.792
5	.944
10	.983
1000	1.000

Test on  $H_{01}: \Delta_1 = 0$  against  $H_{11}: \Delta_1 > 0$  with  $\Delta_1 = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$ , given the value of  $\Delta_2$ ,

requires  $f_1 = MSA/MSB = 8.494/2.112 = 4.022$ . The critical level  $\gamma_1(\Delta_2) = \Pr(f_1 > 4.022 \mid \Delta_1 = 0, \Delta_2)$ , and the power of this test for a certain value  $\Delta_2$  with significance level  $\gamma_1(\Delta_2)$  is  $\beta_1(\Delta_1 \mid \Delta_2) = \Pr(f_1 > 4.022 \mid \Delta_1, \Delta_2)$ . Some values for  $\gamma_1(\Delta_2) = \beta_1(\Delta_1 = 0, \Delta_2)$  and  $\beta_1(\Delta_1, \Delta_2)$  are given below.

$\Delta_1$	$\Delta_2$								
	0	.1	.5	1	1.5	2	5	10	1000
0	.111	.114	.117	.119	.119	.119	.120	.120	.120
.1	.217	.195	.160	.145	.138	.135	.127	.124	.120
.5	.439	.432	.307	.244	.212	.193	.153	.137	.121
1	.653	.591	.439	.345	.293	.260	.185	.154	.121
1.5	.737	.681	.530	.424	.360	.318	.215	.171	.121
2	.788	.739	.597	.487	.417	.369	.244	.187	.121
5	.903	.876	.783	.693	.624	.569	.386	.276	.122

Using Satterthwaite's procedure (which is incorrect, because MSA and MSB are dependent and MSA and MSB are not a multiple of a  $\chi^2$ -variable, in this example), we need a linear combination MSC with  $E(MSC) = E(MSA)$ . From the  $E(MS)$  column in the ANOVA-table we find  $MSC = (1-3.435/3.174)MSR + (3.435/3.174)MSB =$

$-0.057 + 2.286 = 2.229$ , with corresponding

$df = \{2.229\}^2 / \{(-0.057)^2/16 + \{2.286\}^2/4\} = 3.80$ . Now  $\Pr(MSA/MSB > 8.494/2.229) \approx \Pr(F(2,3.8) > 3.81) = 0.124$ ;  $\Pr(F(2,4) > 3.81) = 0.118$ .

An exact confidence interval  $\Delta_L < \Delta_2 < \Delta_U$  for  $\Delta_2$  with confidence coefficient  $1-\alpha$  is:

$1-\alpha$	$\Delta_L$	$\Delta_U$
.70	.194	2.80
.80	.107	3.73
.90	.007	5.82
.95	0*)	8.76
.99	0*)	21.15

\*) On the interval  $0 \leq \Delta_2 < \infty$  there is no solution for the equation in  $\Delta$ :

$$\sum_{i,j} \sum_{k} g_{ij} (\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_{i.})^2 = \frac{J_0 - I}{n_{..} - J_0} f_2 \sum_{i,j,k} \Sigma (x_{k(ij)} - \bar{x}_{ij})^2.$$

When we allow negative values of  $\Delta_2$ , with the restriction that the weights  $g_{ij} = n_{ij}/(\Delta_2 n_{ij} + 1)$  remain positive, we find for  $\Delta_L$ : -0.059 for  $\alpha = 0.05$  and -0.151 for  $\alpha = 0.01$  respectively.

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#### 4.3. Exact confidence interval for the variance ratio in nested designs

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# Exact Confidence Interval for the Variance Ratio in Nested Designs

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## Summary

This paper deals with the construction of an exact confidence interval for the ratio  $\Delta$  of variance components, concerning the last two stages of an unbalanced nested design. Wald (1940) indicated an iterative procedure to obtain an exact confidence interval for  $\Delta$  in the case of the unbalanced one-way lay-out (two stage nested design), but the application of his procedure had to wait for computing facilities. With a computer this procedure can be applied easily. A similar problem for unbalanced three stage nested designs can be handled by a generalization of Wald's procedure.

Some examples are presented.

KEYWORDS: Variance components; variance ratio; nested designs

## 1. Two stage nested designs

We are concerned with data which are sampled from a population in two stages. In the first stage random samples  $A_i$  ( $i=1, \dots, I$ ) are drawn from the population. In the second stage we draw from each sample  $A_i$  a random subsample of size  $n_i$  ( $i=1, \dots, I$ ). The observation on each element  $j$  of the subsample taken from sample  $A_i$  will be denoted as  $x_{j,i}$ .

The model reads:

$$x_{j,i} = \lambda + a_i + e_{j,i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, I, \quad j = 1, \dots, n_i$$

where  $\lambda$  is a general mean, identically and independently distributed (i.i.d.)  $a_i = N(0, \sigma_a^2)$ , i.i.d.  $e_{j,i} = N(0, \sigma_e^2)$ . The random variables  $\{a_i\}$  and  $\{e_{j,i}\}$  are mutually stochastically independent. A design is said to be balanced if all  $n_i$  are the same; otherwise it is unbalanced. The ANOVA-table reads (where  $n = \sum_{i=1}^I n_i$ ):

Source	df	SS	MS	
Correction term (level)	1	$x'Lx$		$\mathcal{F} = MSA/MSR$
Between samples	$I - 1$	$x'Ax$	MSA	
Within samples				
= Residual	$n - I$	$x'Rx$	MSR	
Total	$n$	$x'x$		

Note that the sum of squares (SS) is a quadratic form in the vector  $x$  of observations. Often the interest of inference lies in the ratio of the variance components  $\sigma_a^2$  and  $\sigma_e^2$ ;  $\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$ . To test the null-hypothesis  $H_0: \Delta = 0$  against the alternative  $H_1: \Delta > 0$ , the usual test statistic is  $\mathcal{F} = MSA/MSR$ .

Let  $V$  be the variance-covariance matrix of the vector  $x$  of observations.

For the unbalanced two stage nested designs, the sum of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Rx$  are stochastically independent, while  $AVR = 0$ . At  $H_0$   $\mathcal{F}$  has an  $F$  distribution with  $I - 1$  and  $n - I$  degrees of freedom.

The problem of testing the hypothesis  $\Delta \leq \Delta_0$  against  $\Delta > \Delta_0$  for the unbalanced two stage nested design has been treated by Spjøtvoll (1967). Spjøtvoll derives the most powerful invariant test for  $H_0: \Delta = \Delta_0$  against an alternative  $\Delta = \Delta_1 > \Delta_0$ .

His test statistic reads:

$$W(\Delta_0, \Delta_1) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^I g_{i0} (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_0)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^I g_{i1} (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^I g_{i0} (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_0)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{j.i} - \bar{x}_i)^2}$$

where  $g_{ik} = n_i / (\Delta_k n_i + 1)$ ,  $\bar{x}_k = \sum_{i=1}^I g_{ik} \bar{x}_i / \sum_{i=1}^I g_{ik}$  for  $k = 0, 1$  and  $\bar{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} x_{j.i} / n_i$ .

For the case  $\Delta_1 \rightarrow \infty$  (test against large alternatives  $\Delta$ ) the limiting form of the test statistic  $W$  becomes, say,  $W'$ . Rejecting  $H_0$  when  $W' > \text{constant}$  is equivalent with rejecting  $H_0$  when  $T(\Delta_0) > \text{constant}$ , where

$$T(\Delta_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^I g_{i0} (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_0)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{j.i} - \bar{x}_i)^2}. \text{ This statistic } T(\Delta_0) \text{ was also used by Scheffé}$$

(1959) to test the hypothesis  $\Delta_0 = 0$ . When  $\Delta$  is the true variance ratio,  $(n - I)T(\Delta)/(I - 1)$  has an  $F$ -distribution with  $(I - 1)$  and  $(n - I)$  degrees of freedom.

Spjøtvoll (1968) gives several examples of the exact power function of the tests based on  $W$  and  $T$  when testing the hypothesis  $\Delta = 0$  against  $\Delta = 0.1$  at the 1% level for the special case of the unbalanced one-way lay-out with three classes. For the calculation of the exact power function of unbalanced one-way lay-out with other values of  $\Delta$  and with more than three classes see Verdooren (1974).

Wald (1940) and also Spjøtvoll (1967) indicated a procedure for an exact confidence interval for  $\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$  with prescribed confidence. For the computation we need the expression  $T(\Delta)$ . An exact  $(1 - \alpha)$ -confidence interval for the variance ratio consists of all the values of  $\Delta$  which are not rejected with the test statistic  $T$  at the significance level  $\alpha$ .

The lower confidence limit  $\Delta_L$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$ ,  $(n - I)T(\Delta)/(I - 1) = f_2$ , where  $f_2$  is the upper  $\alpha/2$ -point of the F-distribution with  $I - 1$  and  $n - I$  degrees of freedom. The upper confidence limit  $\Delta_U$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$ :  $(n - I)T(\Delta)/(I - 1) = f_1$ , where  $f_1$  is the lower  $\alpha/2$ -point of the F-distribution with  $I - 1$  and  $n - I$  degrees of freedom.

The calculation of this exact confidence interval for  $\Delta$  can be done only iteratively, and perhaps therefore it was not used in practice. With a computer, however, this procedure can readily be applied. Copies of the FORTRAN IV program list are available from the author upon request.

## 2. Three stage nested designs.

Now we are concerned with data which are sampled from a population in three stages. In the first stage random samples  $A_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, I$ ) are drawn. In the second stage from a sample  $A_i$  are drawn subsamples  $B_{j,i}$  ( $j = 1, \dots, J_i$ ). In the third stage from  $B_{j,i}$  a sub-subsamples of  $n_{ij}$  elements is drawn. Let the observation made on the element  $k$  of the subsample  $B_{j,i}$  from  $A_i$  be denoted by  $x_{k,ij}$ .

The model reads:

$$x_{k,ij} = \lambda + a_i + b_{j,i} + e_{k,ij} \quad \begin{array}{l} i = 1, \dots, I \\ j = 1, \dots, J_i \\ k = 1, \dots, n_{ij} \end{array}$$

where  $\lambda$  is a general mean, and i.i.d.

$a_i \sim N(0, \sigma_a^2)$ , i.i.d.  $b_{j,i} \sim N(0, \sigma_b^2)$ , i.i.d.  $e_{k,ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$  respectively.

The random variables  $\{a_i\}$ ,  $\{b_{j,i}\}$  and  $\{e_{k,ij}\}$  are mutually independent. The design is called balanced if  $J_i = J$  for all  $i$  and  $n_{ij} = m$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ . In the case where  $n_{ij} = m_i$  for all  $i$ , a design is called partially balanced. In the case where  $n_{ij} \neq n_{ij'}$ , for at least one  $i$ , the design is called unbalanced.



The ANOVA-table reads (where  $J_0 = \sum_{i=1}^I J_i$  and  $n = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} n_{ij}$ ):

Source	df	SS	MS	
Correction term (level)	1	$x'Lx$		
Between samples	$I - 1$	$x'Ax$	MSA	$\tilde{F} = MSB/MSR$
Within samples, between subsamples	$J_0 - I$	$x'Bx$	MSB	
Within subsamples = Residual	$n - J_0$	$x'Rx$	MSR	
Total	$n$	$x'x$		

Often the interest of inference lies in the ratio of the variance components  $\sigma_b^2$  and  $\sigma_e^2$ :  $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b^2 / \sigma_e^2$ .

In order to test the null hypothesis  $H_{02} : \Delta_2 = 0$  against  $H_{12} : \Delta_2 > 0$ , the usual test statistic is  $\tilde{F} = MSB/MSR$ .

Note that for the unbalanced three stage nested designs the sum of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Rx$  and also  $x'Bx$  and  $x'Rx$  are stochastically independent. For exact tests about the variance ratio  $\sigma_a^2 / \sigma_e^2$  see Verdooren (1974). The complication arises from the theorem: In a three stage nested design the sum of squares  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Bx$  are stochastically independent if and only if for each  $i = 1, \dots, I$ :  $n_{ij} = n_{ij'}$ , ( $j, j' = 1, \dots, J_i$ ). Thus only for the partially balanced designs these sums of squares are independent. For the unbalanced designs  $x'Ax$  and  $x'Bx$  are dependent, hence  $MSA/MSB$  cannot be approximated by an F-distribution.

At  $H_{02} : \Delta_2 = 0$   $\tilde{F}$  has an F-distribution with  $J_0 - I$  and  $n - J_0$  degrees of freedom.

A generalization of Wald's procedure can be used for the construction of an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval of the variance ratio  $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b^2 / \sigma_e^2$  for the last two stages.

$$\text{Define } T(\Delta) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} g_{ij} (\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} (x_{k,ij} - \bar{x}_{ij})^2} \quad \text{with } g_{ij} = n_{ij} / (\Delta n_{ij} + 1);$$

$\bar{x}_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k,ij} / n_{ij}$  and  $\bar{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} g_{ij} \bar{x}_{ij} / \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} g_{ij}$ . When  $\Delta$  is the true variance

ratio,  $(n - J_0)T(\Delta) / (J_0 - I)$  has an F-distribution with  $J_0 - I$  and  $n - J_0$  degrees of freedom. Let  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  be the lower and upper  $\alpha/2$ -point of the F-distribution with  $J_0 - I$  and  $n - J_0$  degrees of freedom.

The lower confidence limit  $\Delta_L$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$  :  $(n-J_0)T(\Delta)/(J_0-1) = f_2$  and the upper confidence limit  $\Delta_U$  of  $\Delta$  is given by the root of the equation in  $\Delta$  :  $(n-J_0)T(\Delta)/(J_0-1) = f_1$ .

The generalization to the unbalanced k-stage nested design in order to obtain an exact confidence interval for the variance ratio  $\Delta$  of the last two stages, is straightforward.

Copies of the program are available from the author upon request.

### 3. Numerical examples

#### 3.1. A two stage nested design

The first example has been taken from Snedecor and Cochran (1967), example 10.18.1, p. 290. In research on artificial insemination of cows, series of semen samples from bulls are sent out and tested for their ability to produce conceptions. The percentages of conceptions from samples for six bulls are shown below.

Bull (i)	$x_{j.i}$	$n_i$	$\bar{x}_i$
1	46, 31, 37, 62, 30	5	41.20
2	70, 59	2	64.50
3	52, 44, 57, 40, 67, 64, 70	7	56.29
4	47, 21, 70, 46, 14	5	39.60
5	42, 64, 50, 69, 77, 81, 67	7	67.14
6	35, 68, 59, 38, 57, 76, 57, 29, 60	9	53.22
Total		1876	35

ANOVA-table

Source	df	SS	MS	E(MS)
Correction term	1	100553.60		
Between bulls	5	3322.06	664.41	$\sigma_e^2 + 5.869\sigma_a^2$
Within bulls	29	7200.34	248.29	$\sigma_e^2$
Total	35	111076.00		

$$\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = 248.29; \hat{\sigma}_a^2 = 73.40.$$

Test on  $H_0: \Delta = 0$  against  $\Delta = \Delta_1 > 0$  with  $\Delta = \sigma_a^2/\sigma_e^2$ ,  $\sqrt{F} = MSA/MSR = 2.68$ .

Because  $\Pr(F_{29}^5 > 2.68) = 0.042$ ,  $H_0$  is rejected at significance level  $\alpha=0.05$ .

The exact confidence interval  $\Delta_L < \Delta < \Delta_U$  for  $\Delta$  for some confidence coefficient  $1 - \alpha$  is:

$1-\alpha$	$\Delta_L$	$\Delta_U$
.70	.093	1.13
.80	.055	1.46
.90	.010	2.16
.95	0*	3.08
.99	0*	6.50
.995	0*	8.79
.999	0*	17.36

\* On the interval  $0 \leq \Delta < \infty$  there was no solution for the equation in  $\Delta$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^I g_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{I-1}{n-I} f_2 \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{j,i} - \bar{x}_i)^2, \text{ namely } \frac{n-I}{I-1} T(\Delta) = f_2.$$

When we allow negative values of  $\Delta$  with the restriction that the weights

$g_i = n_i / (\Delta n_i + 1)$  remain positive, we find for  $\Delta_L$  : -0.021 for  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,

-0.065 for  $\alpha = 0.01$ , -0.077 for  $\alpha = 0.005$  and -0.096 for  $\alpha = 0.001$  respectively.

### 3.2. A three stage nested design

The second example consists of fictitious data for a three stage nested design.

	$A_1$		$A_2$		$A_3$		
	$B_{1.1}$	$B_{2.1}$	$B_{1.2}$	$B_{2.2}$	$B_{1.3}$	$B_{2.3}$	$B_{3.3}$
	7	7	4	6	4	5	4
	5	6	4	5	6	3	4
	7	6		7	5	5	3
		7		6	5		
Total	19	26	8	24	20	13	11
$n_{ij}$	3	4	2	4	4	3	3
$\bar{x}_{ij}$	6.33	6.5	4.0	6.0	5.0	4.33	3.67
$n_i$		7		6		10	
$\bar{x}_i$		6.43		5.33		4.4	

$$n_i = \sum_{j=1}^J n_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{x}_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ij}} x_{k,ij}}{n_i}.$$

ANOVA-table

Source	df	SS	MS	E(MS)
Correction term	1	636.565		
Between $A_i$	2	16.987	8.494	$\sigma_e^2 + 3.435\sigma_b^2 + 7.478\sigma_a^2$
Between $B_{j,i}$	4	8.448	2.112	$\sigma_e^2 + 3.174\sigma_b^2$
Within $B_{j,i}$ =				
Residual	15	11.000	0.688	$\sigma_e^2$
Total	23	673		

$$\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = 0.688; \hat{\sigma}_b^2 = 0.449; \hat{\sigma}_a^2 = 0.838.$$

Test on  $H_{02}: \Delta_2 = 0$  against  $H_{12}: \Delta_2 > 0$  with  $\Delta_2 = \sigma_b^2/\sigma_e^2$ ,  $\hat{F} = \text{MSB}/\text{MSR} = 2.112/0.688 = 3.072$ . Because  $\Pr(F_{16}^4 > 3.072) = 0.047$ ,  $H_0$  is rejected at significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

An exact confidence interval  $\Delta_L < \Delta_2 < \Delta_U$  for  $\Delta_2$  for some confidence coefficient  $1-\alpha$  is:

$1-\alpha$	$\Delta_L$	$\Delta_U$
.70	.194	2.80
.80	.107	3.73
.90	.007	5.82
.95	0*)	8.76
.99	0*)	21.15

\*) On the interval  $0 \leq \Delta_2 < \infty$  there was no solution for the equation in  $\Delta$ :

$$\sum_i \sum_j g_{ij} (\bar{x}_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 = \frac{J_0 - I}{n - J_0} f_2 \sum_i \sum_j \sum_k (x_{k,ij} - \bar{x}_{ij})^2, \text{ namely } \frac{n - J_0}{J_0 - I} T(\Delta) = f_2.$$

When we allow negative values of  $\Delta_2$ , with the restriction that the weights  $g_{ij} = n_{ij}/(\Delta_2 n_{ij} + 1)$  remain positive, we find for  $\Delta_L$ : -0.059 for  $\alpha = 0.05$ , -0.151 for  $\alpha = 0.01$  respectively.

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## CHAPTER 5

### 5. ESTIMATION OF VARIANCE COMPONENTS

#### PART I: ONSET

##### 5.1. Introduction

As described in chapter 2, the search for estimators of variance components till 1975 was concentrated on unbiased estimators with some optimality criterion. For several designs (nested or crossed) quadratic forms in the observations,  $\underline{y}' Q \underline{y}$ , were sought to get an unbiased estimator of variance components. A nice feature of unbiased estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2 = \underline{y}' Q_i \underline{y}$  for the variance components  $\sigma_i^2$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k$ ) respectively, is that a linear combination of variance components  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  will be unbiasedly estimated by  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \hat{\sigma}_i^2$ .

As optimality criterion for an estimator of a variance component  $\sigma_i^2$ , which consists of a quadratic form in the observations, an unbiased estimator was used which has minimum variance, the so called Best Quadratic Unbiased Estimator (BQUE) or Minimum Variance Unbiased Estimator (MIVQUE).

A critique could however be made. Only the error variance component  $\sigma_k^2$  would be unbiasedly estimated by a quadratic form  $\underline{y}' Q_k \underline{y}$ , such that the estimates were always non-negative; otherwise stated  $Q_k$  is a non-negative definite matrix. The other variance components  $\sigma_i^2$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ ) were unbiasedly estimated by quadratic functions  $\underline{y}' Q_i \underline{y}$  such that the outcomes were not always non-negative; otherwise stated  $Q_i$  is not a non-negative definite matrix. Because a variance component  $\sigma_i^2$  is by definition non-negative, it is amazing to see how much research has been done to find yet another type of unbiased estimator. It is the very requirement of unbiasedness that leads to

variance component estimators which give (some quite often) negative estimates, which makes no sense. Of course an unbiased non-negative estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is a desirable one, if such an estimator exists.

To focus attention on estimators which do make sense, the author introduced the concept of a permissible estimator. The necessary condition for an estimator must be that it is a permissible estimator, meaning an estimator which gives estimates that, with probability one, lie in the parameter space. Hence a permissible variance component estimator is a non-negative estimator.

In section 5.2 this basic idea of estimation is elucidated. (In chapter 6 the probabilities are given that the Best Quadratic Unbiased Estimator for the one-way balanced random model gives negative outcomes).

Furthermore, the several types of estimators of variance components in use around 1980 are described in section 5.2. Also a modification of a least squares estimator for a variance component is derived which is non-negative. Such a closest-to-unbiased non-negative estimator can be found by solving a quadratic programming problem.

## 5.2. On estimation of variance components

Paper presented at the VI-th International Conference on Mathematical Statistics at Wisla, Poland, in 1978.

The content of this paper was also delivered as an invited lecture at the Fourth International Summer School on Problems of Model Choice and Parameter Estimation in Regression Analysis at Mühlhausen/Thuringia (GDR), in 1979.

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# On estimation of variance components\*

by L.R. VERDOOREN\*\*

**Summary** In this survey paper the estimation of variance components is given. The least squares approach in variance component estimation is a unifying principle which includes the analysis of variance estimators and the MINQUE. When normality is assumed the maximum likelihood estimators can be used. Many variance component estimators are not permissible because they are not non-negative. The development of non-negative variance component estimators is indicated.

## 1 Introduction

Let us first recall some basic ideas of estimation theory in section 1.1. Some criticism can be made on the usual estimation procedures. In section 1.2 we will focus our attention on the minimum variance unbiased estimation of a variance and variance components.

### 1.1 BASIC IDEAS OF ESTIMATION

The probabilistic model implies that the outcome  $y$  is observed of a random variable  $\underline{y}$  which assumes values in the "sample space"  $\mathcal{Y}$  according to a probability distribution  $P$  which is known to belong to a given class  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$  of probability distributions. If  $P = P_\theta$  then  $\theta$  is the true value of the underlying unknown parameter. We shall be interested in the estimation of a real valued parameter  $g: \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , or equivalently of the corresponding true value  $\gamma = g(\theta)$ . We need an estimator  $d: \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with the interpretation that  $d(y)$  will be used as an estimate for  $\gamma = g(\theta)$  if the outcome  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  of  $\underline{y}$  is obtained.

Estimators will be compared by means of their mean squared error (or risk function if squared error loss is introduced):

$$\text{MSE}_\theta(d) = E_\theta (d(\underline{y}) - g(\theta))^2 = \text{var}_\theta d(\underline{y}) + (\text{bias}_\theta(d))^2$$

where

$$\text{bias}_\theta(d) = E_\theta d(\underline{y}) - g(\theta).$$

An estimator is said to be admissible if no estimator exists with uniformly (in  $\theta$ ) smaller MSE. Or, more precisely,  $d$  is admissible if no  $d'$  exist with  $\text{MSE}_\theta(d') \leq \text{MSE}_\theta(d)$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$  and  $\text{MSE}_\theta(d') < \text{MSE}_\theta(d)$  for at least one  $\theta$ .

In practice estimators are often constructed by requiring unbiasedness: the estimator  $d$  for  $\gamma = g(\theta)$  is said to be unbiased if  $\text{bias}_\theta(d) = 0$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ . Since estimators with uniformly minimum mean squared error rarely exist, a reasonable procedure is to restrict the class of estimators and to look for estimators with uniformly minimum MSE within that class. One such class which is used (too) often, is that of unbiased estimators.

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An estimator within that class with minimum MSE is also an estimator with uniformly minimum variance among unbiased estimators (UMVUE).

Sometimes there is a sufficient statistic  $t(y)$  for  $g(\theta)$ , i.e. if the partition of the sample space generated by  $t$  is sufficient. (A partition  $\mathcal{A}$  of the sample space is said to be sufficient for  $\theta$  (more precisely, for the family  $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$ ) if for any  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  holds that  $P_\theta(y \in B | y \in A)$  does not depend on  $\theta$ ). Hence for the sufficient statistic  $t(y)$  the conditional distribution  $P_\theta(y \in B | t(y) = t)$  on the sample space, for given  $t$ , does not depend on  $\theta$ . The relevance of sufficiency to the question of minimum variance unbiased estimators is given by the RAO-BLACKWELL theorem:

Let  $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$  be a family of distributions on a sample space  $\mathcal{Y}$  and suppose that  $\bar{g}(y)$  is an unbiased estimator of a real-valued function  $g$  of  $\theta$ . Then if  $t(y)$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ ,  $E_\theta \{\bar{g}(y) | t\}$  is also an unbiased estimator of  $g(\theta)$  and it has variance uniformly no larger than that of  $\bar{g}(y)$ .

Before this theorem can be used to establish the existence of MVUE's we have to demand the existence of a sufficient statistic  $t$  with an additional property. Suppose that we are estimating  $g(\theta)$  and that there exists a sufficient statistic  $t$  with the property that there is a unique function of  $t$ ,  $\bar{g}(t)$ -say, which is an unbiased estimator of  $g(\theta)$ . Then  $\bar{g}(t)$  is an MVUE of  $g(\theta)$ . So another question arises. How can we ascertain whether a sufficient statistic has this additional property? Sometimes we can do so by using the notion of completeness of a family of distributions. Let  $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$  be a family of distributions on the sample space  $\mathcal{Y}$ . This family is said to be complete if  $E_\theta \{f(y)\} = 0$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$  implies  $f(y) = 0$  almost everywhere.

We can express now the usefulness of these notions in the following special case of the general LEHMANN-SCHEFFÉ theorem:

Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  be a random sample from a distribution that has a probability density function  $f(y, \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Theta$ ; let  $t(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  be a sufficient statistic for  $g(\theta)$ , and let the family  $\{h(t, \theta); \theta \in \Theta\}$  of probability density functions be complete. If there is a continuous function of  $t$  which is an unbiased statistic for  $g(\theta)$ , then this function of  $t$  is the unique MVUE for  $g(\theta)$ .

Or loosely formulated: if a complete sufficient statistic exists, then every function of it is a uniformly MVUE of its expected value.

A well known example to illustrate these ideas is the following.

Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  be a random sample from the normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . A complete sufficient statistic for  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  is  $\left( \bar{y}, \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \right)$  where  $\bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i / n$ . The reason for using  $\underline{s}^2 = (n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$  as an estimator for  $\sigma^2$  is that it is UMVUE by the Lehmann-Scheffé theorem. However the above-mentioned estimator  $\underline{s}^2$  for  $\sigma^2$  can be improved in the class of quadratic functions of the observations by using the (biased) estimator  $(n+1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ . So in the class of "quadratic estimators" (quadratic functions of the observations), the estimator  $\underline{s}^2$  is inadmissible, but in the class of unbiased quadratic estimators it is admissible.

In our view it is also worthwhile to introduce the concept of permissible estimation. Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  be a random sample of a random variable  $y$  with probability distribution  $P \in \mathcal{P} = \{P_\theta: \theta \in \mathbb{H}\}$ . An estimator  $\underline{t} = t(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  for  $\theta$  is said to be permissible if  $\underline{t} \in \mathbb{H}$  holds with probability one.

In some situations  $\Gamma = g(\mathbb{H}) = \{\gamma; \gamma = g(\theta) \text{ for some } \theta \in \mathbb{H}\}$  is an interval of the form  $[a, b]$  or  $[a, \infty)$  or  $(-\infty, b]$  or some other bounded set. If the estimator  $d: \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  assumes values outside  $\Gamma$  with positive probability, (hence  $d$  is impermissible), then it can obviously be improved by truncating. This is seen immediately as follows.

Let  $d: \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be any estimator for  $\gamma = g(\theta)$  (it needs not be unbiased) such that  $\Gamma = g(\mathbb{H}) = [a, b]$  and  $P_\theta\{d(y) \notin \Gamma\} > 0$  for at least one  $\theta \in \mathbb{H}$ . Let  $d'$  be the corresponding truncated estimator:

$$d'(y) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } d(y) < a \\ d(y) & \text{if } a \leq d(y) \leq b \\ b & \text{if } d(y) > b \end{cases}$$

then for any  $\theta \in \mathbb{H}$  we have  $g(\theta) \in \Gamma$  and hence  $(d(y) - g(\theta))^2 \geq (d'(y) - g(\theta))^2$  for all  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ . Hence  $\text{MSE}_\theta(d) \geq \text{MSE}_\theta(d')$  for all  $\theta \in \mathbb{H}$ . For  $\theta$  with  $P_\theta\{d(y) \notin \Gamma\} > 0$  we obviously have strict inequality and hence  $d$  is inadmissible.

#### Remark

The theorem can be extended to the case where  $y$  is a random vector and  $\mathbb{H}$  is a closed convex set. Truncation here means that an estimate which falls outside this set  $\mathbb{H}$  is replaced by the boundary point of  $\mathbb{H}$  nearest to it.

We conclude this section by mentioning some textbooks examples. Note that uncritical use of the restriction of unbiasedness may lead to anomalies.

*Example (i)* KENDALL and STUART [19]. If the zero frequency of a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\theta$  cannot be observed, the distribution is called a Truncated Poisson distribution. From a single observation  $x$  the only unbiased estimator of the probability of non-zero observations  $1 - e^{-\theta}$  takes the values 0 when  $x$  is odd and 2 when  $x$  is even.

*Example (ii)* FERGUSON [7, page 135]. Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from the normal distribution  $N(\theta, 1)$ . The statistic  $\underline{t} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j$  is a complete sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ . Furthermore  $\bar{x} = \underline{t}/n$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ . Hence  $\bar{x}$  is a minimum variance unbiased estimator (MVUE) of  $\theta$ . On the other hand  $E\bar{x}^2 = \theta^2 + 1/n$ , so that  $\bar{x}^2 - 1/n$  is MVUE of  $\theta^2$ . But unbiasedness itself is not an optimum property. The MVUE of  $\theta^2$  is impermissible for it occasionally gives negative values for a parameter known to be positive. The (biased) estimator  $\max(0, \bar{x}^2 - 1/n)$  has smaller mean squared error for all values of  $\theta$  hence the MVUE is inadmissible.

*Example (iii)* FERGUSON [7, pag. 136]. From a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\theta$ , we wish to estimate  $e^{-2\theta}$  as a function of  $x$ . The only unbiased estimator of  $e^{-2\theta}$  is

$t(\underline{x}) = (-1)^{\underline{x}}$ . This ridiculous estimator is a MVUE, as the class of unbiased estimators has only one element. WASAN [49] looks for an unbiased estimator of  $e^{-3\theta}$ . The MVUE  $(-2)^{\underline{x}}$  is impermissible.

## 1.2 MVUE OF A VARIANCE AND VARIANCE COMPONENTS

Let us consider the usual linear regression model  $\underline{y} = X\beta + \underline{e}$ , where  $X$  is an  $n \times p$ -matrix of rank  $p$ ;  $\underline{y}$  and  $\underline{e} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the parameter vector  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ;  $E(\underline{e}) = 0$ ,  $\text{var } \underline{e} = \sigma^2 I$  and  $\underline{e}$  has a multinormal distribution  $N(0, \sigma^2 I)$ . The MVUE for  $\sigma^2$  is given by the customary unbiased estimator  $\underline{s}^2$  of  $\sigma^2$  with  $n-p$  degrees of freedom.

$$\underline{s}^2 = \{\underline{y}'\underline{y} - \underline{y}'X(X'X)^{-1}X'\underline{y}\} / (n - p)$$

The minimum mean squared error estimator for  $\sigma^2$  is the biased estimator  $(n - p) \times \underline{s}^2 / (n - p + 2)$ . For a proof along the lines of section 1.1 see CORSTEN [6].

Another example to show that unbiased estimation is inadequate follows now. Consider the balanced one-way random effects model: Let  $\underline{y}_{ij} = \mu + \underline{a}_i + \underline{e}_{ij}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_1$ ;  $j = 1, \dots, n_2$ . The random variables  $\underline{a}_i$  are  $N(0, \sigma_1^2)$  and are identically and independently distributed (i.i.d.); the random variables  $\underline{e}_{ij}$  are  $N(0, \sigma_2^2)$  and also i.i.d.; the  $\underline{a}_i$  and  $\underline{e}_{ij}$  are independent. From the model it follows that  $\text{var}(\underline{y}_{ij}) = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$  and these variances  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$  are called the variance components.

The analysis of variance table reads:

Source of variation	df	SS	MS	E(MS)
General mean level	1	SSL	MSL	$\sigma_2^2 + n_2 \sigma_1^2 + n_1 n_2 \mu^2$
Between groups	$n_1 - 1$	SSA	MSA	$\sigma_1^2 + n_2 \sigma_2^2$
Within groups, or error	$n_1(n_2 - 1)$	SSE	MSE	$\sigma_2^2$
Total	$n_1 n_2$	SST		

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \underline{y}_{ij}^2, \quad SSL = (\sum_i \sum_j \underline{y}_{ij})^2 / (n_1 n_2),$$

$$SSA = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (\sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \underline{y}_{ij})^2 / n_2 - SSL; \quad SSE = SST - SSL - SSA.$$

An unbiased estimator for  $\mu$  is  $\bar{\underline{y}} = \sum_i \sum_j \underline{y}_{ij} / (n_1 n_2)$ ; an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_2^2$  is  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2 = \underline{MSE}$ , and an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_1^2$  is  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = (\underline{MSA} - \underline{MSE}) / n_2$ . The estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  are called the analysis of variance estimators. The statistics  $\bar{\underline{y}}$ ,  $\underline{SSA}$  and  $\underline{SSE}$  are a set of independent minimal sufficient statistics and it can be shown that they are complete. Hence  $\bar{\underline{y}}$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  are uniformly minimum variance unbiased estimators for  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma_2^2$  and  $\sigma_1^2$  respectively. (GRAYBILL and WORTHAM [9] and GRAYBILL [10, page 342].

Remark that  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$  is a permissible estimator for  $\sigma_2^2$ . A minimum MSE estimator for  $\sigma_2^2$  is given by  $SSE/(n_1(n_2 - 1) + 2)$ .

However  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  is an impermissible estimator since there is a positive probability that  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  takes negative values under the model assumed:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 \leq 0) &= P((MSA - MSE)/n_2 \leq 0) = P(MSA/MSE \leq 1) = \\ &= P(F_q^p \leq (1 + n_2\gamma)^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\gamma = \sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$ ,  $p = n_1 - 1$  and  $q = n_1(n_2 - 1)$ . In the following table, values of  $100 P(F_q^p \leq (1 + n_2\gamma)^{-1})$  are given for several values of  $n_2\gamma$ .

q	p						p						p						q
	1	5	10	30	50	100	1	5	10	30	50	100	1	5	10	30	50	100	
1	50	36	34	33	32	32	44	28	25	23	23	23	33	14	11	09	09	09	1
5	64	50	47	43	43	42	55	33	27	22	21	20	41	13	07	03	02	01	5
10	66	53	50	47	46	45	57	34	27	19	17	15	42	12	05	01	00	00	10
30	67	57	53	50	49	48	58	35	25	14	10	07	43	11	04	00	00	00	30
50	68	57	54	51	50	49	58	35	25	12	08	04	43	11	03	00	00	00	50
100	68	58	55	52	51	50	58	35	25	10	05	02	43	11	03	00	00	00	100
$n_2\gamma = 0$						$n_2\gamma = 0.5$						$n_2\gamma = 2$							

The biased estimator  $\max(0, \hat{\sigma}_1^2)$  has smaller MSE than  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  for all values of  $\sigma_1^2$ .

In reading the literature on the estimation of variance components, one often gets the impression that unbiasedness is a desirable property. We have already seen that concept of unbiasedness is only a mathematical tool. Perhaps one of the reasons for the many publications concerning unbiased estimators of variance components is that, in the restricted class of quadratic functions of the observations, one often gets one solution for the uniformly minimum variance quadratic unbiased estimator (UMVQUE) or for the best quadratic unbiased estimator (BQUE). Some statisticians seem to argue that a sequence of averages of estimators is consistent if and only if the individual estimators are unbiased. But a research worker mostly does not lean on an average of several estimates; he is more interested in individually permissible estimators and he will be happy if these estimators are admissible too.

It is not true that a negative estimate of a variance component gives strong evidence that the model does not apply. Under validity of the assumptions of the model there may be a positive (and sometimes considerable) probability that such unbiased estimators attain negative values, see VERDOOREN [48].

If the frequency of negative values of unbiased variance components estimators is much larger than expected under the model we may ask ourselves whether the model is correct. Of course the testing of the adequacy of the model is another question and it does not depend only on the variance component estimators.

## 2 Unbiased variance component estimators

### 2.1 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ESTIMATORS

Let us consider in detail the variance components model:

$$y = X\beta + \sum_{i=1}^k U_i \underline{a}_i = X\beta + U\underline{a},$$

with  $U = (U_1:U_2:\dots:U_k)$  and  $\underline{a}' = (\underline{a}'_1:\underline{a}'_2:\dots:\underline{a}'_k)$ , where  $y$  is an  $n \times 1$ -vector of observations,  $X$  is an  $n \times p$ -design matrix of known constants and of full rank ( $p < n$ ),  $\beta$  is a  $p \times 1$ -vector of fixed effects parameters,  $U_i$  a known  $n \times m_i$ -matrix,  $\underline{a}_i$  a  $m_i \times 1$  vector of random effects such that

$$(1) E(\underline{a}_i) = 0, (i = 1, 2, \dots, k)$$

$$(2) \text{ the } \underline{a}_i\text{'s are uncorrelated: } E(\underline{a}_i \underline{a}_j') = 0, i \neq j$$

$$(3) E(\underline{a}_i \underline{a}_i') = \sigma_i^2 I_{m_i}$$

The column space of  $(X, U)$  is supposed to be  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The assumptions imply  $\text{VAR}(y) = \sum_i \sigma_i^2 U_i U_i' = \sum_i \sigma_i^2 V_i$  where  $V_i = U_i U_i'$ .

Let  $P_0 = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$  be the orthogonal projection operator on the column space of  $X$ . Let  $P_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$  be the orthogonal projection operators on the column space of  $(X, U_1, U_2, \dots, U_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$  respectively, hence  $P_k = I_n$ . Let  $N_j = P_j - P_{j-1}$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$  and  $N_k = P_k - P_{k-1}$ . The projection operator  $N_j$  denotes the orthogonal projection on the orthogonal complement of the column space of  $(X, U_1, \dots, U_{j-1})$ , (the column space of  $X$  in case  $j = 1$ ), in the column space of  $(X, U_1, \dots, U_j)$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k-1$  and  $N_k = P_k - P_{k-1} = I_n - P_{k-1}$  is the orthogonal projection on the orthogonal complement of  $(X, U_1, \dots, U_{k-1})$ . HENDERSON's [16] Method III can be described as follows.

$$(1) \text{ Calculate } y'N_j y \text{ for } j = 1, 2, \dots, k \text{ and}$$

$$(2) \text{ Solve the system of linear equations of sums of squares}$$

$$y'N_j y = \sum_{i=j}^k \sigma_i^2 \text{tr}(N_j V_i) \quad (\text{for } j = 1, \dots, k).$$

This procedure is the hierarchical set up of the Analysis of Variance table. HENDERSON's method III is based on the following obvious decomposition of  $y$  into orthogonal complements:

$$y = P_0 y + \sum_{j=1}^k N_j y$$

with the consequence that

$$y'y = y'P_0 y + \sum_{j=1}^k y'N_j y$$

where  $P_0 y$  can be used for estimating  $\beta$ ,  $y'N_k y$  for estimating the residual variance  $\sigma_k^2$ , while  $y'N_j y$  for  $j = 1, \dots, k-1$  can be used to give unbiased estimators for the variance components  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_{k-1}^2$ . Because  $N_j X = 0$ ,  $N_j U_i = 0$  for  $i < j$ ,

$$E(y'N_j y) = \text{tr}(N_j V) = \sum_{i=j}^k \sigma_i^2 \text{tr}(N_j V_i)$$

for  $j = 1, \dots, k$ , the estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$  of  $\sigma_i^2$  are unbiased. This estimation method depends however on the order of the  $U_j$  in the definition of the projection operators  $P_j$ . A further disadvantage of this method is that there is a positive probability for negative values of  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2 = y'A_i y$  when  $A_i$  is not non-negative definite. Thus all estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ ) are impermissible.

#### Example 1

Let us consider the balanced one-way random effects model of section 1.2 with  $n_1 = 3$  classes and  $n_2 = 2$  observations per class, hence  $n = n_1 n_2 = 6$ , and  $y' = (y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_2}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{n_1 n_2})$ . Written in the model  $y = X\beta + \sum_{i=1}^k U_i \alpha_i$  with  $k = 2$ , we have  $X$  is a

$6 \times 1$ -matrix with  $X' = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$ ,  $\beta$  is equal to  $\mu$ ;  $U_1$  is the  $6 \times 3$ -matrix given below,  $U_2 = I_6$ ,  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  are given below,  $P_2 = I_6$ ,  $N_1 = P_1 - P_0$  and  $N_2 = I_6 - P_1$  are given below.

$$U_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, P_0 = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, P_1 = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, N_1 = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$N_2 = \frac{1}{7} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In the analysis of variance table the degrees of freedom are the ranks of  $P_0$ ,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  respectively and the sum of squares are  $SSL = y'P_0 y$ ,  $SSA = y'N_1 y$ ,  $SSE = y'N_2 y$  and  $SST = y'y$ .  $\text{VAR}(y) = \sigma_1^2 U_1 U_1' + \sigma_2^2 U_2 U_2' = \sigma_1^2 V_1 + \sigma_2^2 V_2$  where  $V_1$  is given below and  $V_2 = I_6$ .

$$V_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

GRAYBILL [8] showed that for the random effects model with balanced experimental design (i.e. equal numbers in the subclasses) the analysis of variance (ANOVA) estimators have uniformly minimum variance in the class of unbiased quadratic estimators, regardless the probability distributions of the components. READ [39] showed that unbiased quadratic estimators with uniformly minimum variance do not exist if the design for the random effects model is not balanced. KLEFFE [20] proves a similar result. GRAYBILL and WORTHAM [9] showed that for a balanced design with normally distributed random effects the ANOVA estimators are functions of independent minimal sufficient statistics, which are also complete, by which these estimators are uniformly minimum variance unbiased estimators.

Despite these properties of the ANOVA estimators there are some drawbacks.

### Example 2

Let us consider the following example of a mixed model with two missing observations  $y_{22}$  and  $y_{23}$ .

	$B_1$	$B_2$	$B_3$
$A_1$	$y_{11}$	$y_{12}$	$y_{13}$
$A_2$	$y_{21}$		

The model is  $y_{ij} = \alpha_i + \underline{b}_j + \underline{e}_{ij}$  ( $i = 1, 2; j = 1, \dots, 3$ ) where the effects  $\alpha_i$  are fixed, while the effects  $\underline{b}_j$  and  $\underline{e}_{ij}$  are random:

$$\begin{aligned} E\underline{b}_j &= 0, E\underline{e}_{ij} = 0, \text{var } \underline{b}_j = \sigma_1^2, \text{var } \underline{e}_{ij} = \sigma_2^2, \text{cov}(\underline{b}_j, \underline{b}_{j'}) = 0 \text{ for } j \neq j', \\ \text{cov}(\underline{e}_{ij}, \underline{e}_{i'j'}) &= 0 \text{ for } i \neq i' \text{ or } j \neq j'; \text{cov}(\underline{b}_j, \underline{e}_{ij'}) = 0 \text{ for all } i, j \text{ and } j'. \end{aligned}$$

The vector model with  $y' = (y_{11}, y_{12}, y_{13}, y_{21})$  is

$$y = X\beta + U_1 a_1 + U_2 a_2$$

with  $\beta = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2)'$ ;  $a_1 = (\underline{b}_1, \underline{b}_2, \underline{b}_3)'$  and  $a_2 = (\underline{e}_{11}, \underline{e}_{12}, \underline{e}_{13}, \underline{e}_{21})'$ ,  $X$  and  $U_1$  are given below,  $U_2 = I_4$ ,  $\text{VAR}(y) = \sigma_1^2 U_1 U_1' + \sigma_2^2 U_2 U_2' = \sigma_1^2 V_1 + \sigma_2^2 V_2$  where  $V_1$  is given below and  $V_2 = I_4$ .



$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; U_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; V_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The analysis of variance table reads:

Source of variation	df	SS
General mean level	1	$y'P_{00}y$
Fixed A effects	1	$y'N_0y$
Random B effects	2	$y'N_1y$
Error	0	$y'N_2y$
Total	4	$y'y$

The orthogonal projectors  $P_0$ ,  $P_{00}$  and  $N_1$  are given below while  $N_0 = P_0 - P_{00}$ ,  $P_1 = P_2 = I_4$  and  $N_2 = 0$ .

$$P_0 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, P_{00} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, N_1 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since no unique solution for the variance components from the EMS-column exists, ANOVA estimation fails here. In the following section 3 we discuss the least squares estimators by SEELY which provide a solution.

## 2.2 MINQUE ESTIMATORS

In this section we introduce first the MINQUE according to the its originator RAO. In section 4 we will show that MINQUE is a generalized least squares estimator.

RAO [34, 35, 36, 37] introduced the minimum norm quadratic unbiased estimator (MINQUE)  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y}$ ,  $A$  symmetric, for a linear combination  $q'\theta = \sum_{i=1}^k q_i\sigma_i^2$ . For unbiasedness we must have

$$E(\underline{y}'A\underline{y}) = \text{tr}(AV) + \beta'X'AX\beta = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 \text{tr}(AV_i) + \beta'X'AX\beta,$$

so that necessary and sufficient conditions for  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y}$  to be unbiased for  $q'\theta$  are that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} X'AX &= 0 \\ \text{tr}(AV_i) &= q_i \quad i = 1, \dots, k \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$

If we want an estimator which is invariant under translation of  $\beta$  we consider  $\beta_d = \beta - \beta_0$ ,

and put  $y_d = y - X\beta_0$ . Then the invariant estimator satisfies  $y_d' A y_d = y' A y$  for all  $\beta_0$ , which is equivalent to  $AX = 0$ . Thus invariance implies the first condition of unbiasedness. The conditions for an unbiased invariant estimator for  $q'\theta$  are:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} AX &= 0 \\ \text{tr}(A V_i) &= q_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (2)$$

Let  $\alpha_1^2, \dots, \alpha_k^2$  be a priori (or approximate) values of  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$ . (If no a priori information is available, then each  $\alpha_i^2$  may be taken to be unity.) Then we can rewrite

$$\begin{aligned} y &= X\beta + W_1 b_1 + \dots + W_k b_k, \quad W_i = \alpha_i U_i, \quad \underline{a}_i = \alpha_i \underline{b}_i \quad \text{and} \\ \text{VAR}(y) &= \gamma_1^2 T_1 + \dots + \gamma_k^2 T_k, \quad T_i = W_i W_i' = \alpha_i^2 V_i, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\gamma_i^2 = \sigma_i^2 / \alpha_i^2$ , the rescaled variance components to be estimated. If the hypothetical variables  $\underline{b}_i$  were known, then a natural estimator of  $\gamma_i^2$  would be  $\underline{b}_i' \underline{b}_i / m_i$  and hence

$$\hat{q}' \hat{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^k q_i \alpha_i^2 \underline{b}_i' \underline{b}_i / m_i = \underline{b}' \Delta \underline{b} \text{ (say),}$$

where  $\Delta$  is a suitably defined diagonal matrix and  $\underline{b}' = (\underline{b}_1' : \dots : \underline{b}_k')$ . But the proposed estimator is  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y} = \underline{b}' W' A W \underline{b}$  since  $X' A X = 0$  (unbiased) or  $AX = 0$  (invariant), where  $W = (W_1 : \dots : W_k)$ . The difference between  $\underline{b}' W' A W \underline{b}$  and  $\underline{b}' \Delta \underline{b}$  is  $\underline{b}' (W' A W - \Delta) \underline{b}$  which can be made small, in some sense, by minimizing  $\|W' A W - \Delta\|$ , where the norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is suitably chosen. We shall use the Euclidean norm, i.e.  $\|B\|^2 = \text{tr} B B' =$  the sum of squares of all the elements of  $B$ .

For the MINQUE (without invariance) the problem reduces to that of determining a symmetric  $A$  such that  $\text{tr}(A T A T) + 2\text{tr}(A X X' A T)$  is a minimum subject to the conditions (1), where

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^k T_i = \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j^2 V_j.$$

For the invariant MINQUE the problem reduces to that of determining a symmetric  $A$  such that  $\text{tr}(A T A T)$  is a minimum subject to the conditions (2). PRINGLE [30] gives an explicit solution for  $A$  in the MINQUE (without invariance)  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$ , i.e.

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j A_j, \quad \text{where}$$

$$A_j = (T + X X')^{-1} (V_j - Q T^{-1} V_j T^{-1} Q) (T + X X')^{-1},$$

$$Q = X(X' T^{-1} X)^{-1} X',$$

and the  $\lambda_j$  are determined from

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \text{tr}(A_j V_i) = q_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k.$$

RAO [35, 37] gives an explicit solution for  $A$  in the invariant MINQUE:

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i R T_i R,$$

where

$$R = T^{-1} - T^{-1} X (X' T^{-1} X)^{-1} X' T^{-1}$$

and  $\lambda_i$  satisfies the equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \text{tr}(R T_j R T_i) = \alpha_i^2 q_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k.$$

When  $y$  has an  $n$ -variate normal distribution,  $\text{var}(y' A y) = 2 \text{tr}(A V A V) + 4 \beta' X' A V A X \beta = 2 \text{tr}(A V A V)$  since  $A X = 0$ . Thus if the true variance components are  $\alpha_1^2, \dots, \alpha_k^2$ ,  $\text{tr}(A T A T)$  is proportional to  $\text{var}(y' A y)$  and the invariant MINQUE is the locally minimum variance unbiased quadratic estimator under normal distribution for  $y$ . See also KLEFFE [21].

The question arises if MINQUEs are permissible estimators for  $q'\theta$ . LAMOTTE [23] proves that in variance components models the only individual variance component which can be estimated unbiasedly by a non-negative quadratic function  $y' A y$  is  $\sigma_k^2$ , and even  $\sigma_k^2$  is so estimable only if all  $V_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$  are singular. Further only for  $q$  with all  $q_i$  non-negative,  $q'\theta$  may be estimated unbiasedly by a non-negative quadratic  $y' A y$ . For the balanced one-way layout of example (iv),  $q_1 \sigma_1^2 + q_2 \sigma_2^2$  has an unbiased estimator  $y' A y$  with  $A$  non-negative (definite) if and only if  $q_2 \geq n_2^{-1} q_1 \geq 0$ . Clearly  $\sigma_2^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2 + n_2 \sigma_1^2$  can be estimated unbiasedly by a non-negative quadratic, but  $\sigma_1^2$  cannot.

### 3 Least squares estimators

For a non-singular linear model  $y = X\beta + e$ , where  $y, e \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $X$  is an  $n \times p$ -matrix of rank  $p$ , the parameter vector  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $E(e) = 0$ ,  $\text{VAR}(e) = \sigma^2 V$  and  $V$  positive definite, it is known that the least squares estimator for  $\beta$ ,  $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1} X'y$ , is unbiased or, if  $V$  is known, the best linear unbiased estimator or Gauss-Markov estimator is  $\hat{\beta} = (X'V^{-1}X)^{-1} X'V^{-1}y$ .

Focussing our attention on variance component estimation we have the linear model given above with

$$\sigma^2 V = \sigma^2 (\gamma_1 V_1 + \dots + \gamma_{k-1} V_{k-1} + I_n),$$

with variance components  $\sigma_i^2 = \sigma^2 \gamma_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$  and  $\sigma^2 = \sigma_k^2$ .

The least squares approach to estimate variance components or linear combinations of variance components has been used by SEELY [40, 41]. Instead of quadratic functions of  $y$ , SEELY utilizes linear functions of  $Z = yy'$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , a vector space of symmetric  $n \times n$ -

matrices, with inner product of  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$  defined by  $(A, B) = \text{tr}(AB)$ . The linear estimator for variance components is  $(A, \underline{Z})$ . The expected value equals.

$$E(\underline{Z}) = \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_i \beta_j B_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 V_i, \quad \text{with } i \leq j$$

where  $B_{ii} = x_i x_i'$  and  $B_{ij} = x_i x_j' + x_j x_i'$  for  $i < j$  is symmetric and  $x_j$  is the  $j$ -th column of  $X$ , i.e.

$$E(\underline{Z}) = X\Psi X' + \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 V_i,$$

with  $\Psi = \beta\beta'$ . Hence  $E(\underline{Z})$  belongs to  $\{\text{span } \mathcal{B}_0 + \text{span } \mathcal{B}_1\}$  with  $\mathcal{B}_0 = \{B_{ij}; 1 \leq i \leq j \leq p\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_1 = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ . To get rid of the nuisance parameter  $\Psi$  we use the linear operator  $\mathcal{I} - P$  where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the identity mapping of  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $P$  is the projection operator on  $\mathcal{B}_0$ . In this case  $P(A) = PAP$ , where  $P$  is the orthogonal projection on the column space of  $X$ , i.e.  $P = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$ , and

$$(\mathcal{I} - P)(A) = A - PAP.$$

The unbiased estimation of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is possible if the equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} (V_1, (\mathcal{I} - P)V_1) & \dots & (V_1, (\mathcal{I} - P)V_k) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ (V_k, (\mathcal{I} - P)V_1) & \dots & (V_k, (\mathcal{I} - P)V_k) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \vdots \\ \rho_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}$$

or  $(\text{tr}(V_i(V_j - PV_jP))) \rho = \lambda$  have a solution. The unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is then given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i ((\mathcal{I} - P)V_i, \underline{Z}).$$

SEELY uses the operator  $\pi(A) = \frac{1}{2} \{ (I - P)A + A(I - P) \}$  to get rid of  $\Psi$  and therefore we must solve the normal equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{tr}(V_1(I - P)V_1) & \dots & \text{tr}(V_1(I - P)V_k) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \text{tr}(V_k(I - P)V_1) & \dots & \text{tr}(V_k(I - P)V_k) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \vdots \\ \rho_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k \end{bmatrix},$$

and the unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is given by  $\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (\underline{Z}'(I - P)V_i \underline{Z})$ .

Note that these estimators are completely analogous to the estimators in the linear

model  $y = X\beta + e$ , where  $X = (X_1, X_2)$  with  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  of full column rank and  $\beta = (\beta_1', \beta_2')'$ . If we wish to get rid of the nuisance parameters  $\beta_1$  to estimate  $\beta_2$  unbiasedly, we may write  $Ey = X\beta$  in the form

$$\begin{aligned} Ey &= X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 = X_1\beta_1 + PX_2\beta_2 + (I - P)X_2\beta_2 = \\ &= X_1\alpha + (I - P)X_2\beta_2 \end{aligned}$$

where  $P$  is the orthogonal projector on the column space of  $X_1$ ,  $P = X_1(X_1'X_1)^{-1}X_1'$ . A linear combination  $(\lambda, \beta_2)$  of parameters in  $\beta_2$  is identifiable if there is a  $\rho$  such that  $X_2'(I - P)X_2\rho = \lambda$ . From the normal equations we estimate  $\beta_2$  as the solution of

$$X_2'(I - P)X_2 \hat{\beta}_2 = X_2'(I - P)y$$

and the linear unbiased estimator for  $(\lambda, \beta_2) = \Sigma \lambda_i \beta_{2i}$  is given by

$$((I - P)X_2\rho, y) = \Sigma \rho_i ((I - P)X_{2i}, y)$$

where  $X_{2i}$  are the columns of  $X_2$ .

#### Example

Let us derive the least squares unbiased estimator for  $\lambda_1 \sigma_1^2 + \lambda_2 \sigma_2^2$  in example 2 of section 2.1. The orthogonal projector  $P = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$  and the matrices  $(I - P)V_i = V_i - PV_iP$  are given by

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad V_1 - PV_1P = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad V_2 - PV_2P = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $(V_i, (I - P)V_j) = \text{tr} V_i(V_j - PV_jP)$ , we must solve the following set of equations in  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10/3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \rho_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \rho_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -3 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Because

$$((I - P)V_i, y) = y'(V_i - PV_iP)y$$

the unbiased estimator for  $\lambda_1 \sigma_1^2 + \lambda_2 \sigma_2^2$  is

$$\begin{aligned} & \rho_1 \mathcal{Y}'(V_1 - PV_1P)\mathcal{Y} + \rho_2 \mathcal{Y}'(V_2 - PV_2P)\mathcal{Y} = \\ & \rho_1 \left\{ \frac{2}{3} (\mathcal{Y}_{11}^2 + \mathcal{Y}_{12}^2 + \mathcal{Y}_{13}^2 - \mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{12} - \mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{13} + 2\mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{21} - \mathcal{Y}_{12}\mathcal{Y}_{13} - \mathcal{Y}_{12}\mathcal{Y}_{21} - \mathcal{Y}_{13}\mathcal{Y}_{21}) \right\} + \\ & + \rho_2 \left\{ \frac{2}{3} (\mathcal{Y}_{11}^2 + \mathcal{Y}_{12}^2 + \mathcal{Y}_{13}^2 - \mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{12} - \mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{13} - \mathcal{Y}_{12}\mathcal{Y}_{13}) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

The unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_1^2$  is

$$\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} (2\mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{21} - \mathcal{Y}_{12}\mathcal{Y}_{21} - \mathcal{Y}_{13}\mathcal{Y}_{21})$$

and the unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_2^2$  is:

$$\hat{\sigma}_2^2 = \frac{1}{6} (2\mathcal{Y}_{11}^2 + 2\mathcal{Y}_{12}^2 + 2\mathcal{Y}_{13}^2 - 2\mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{12} - 2\mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{13} - 6\mathcal{Y}_{11}\mathcal{Y}_{21} - 2\mathcal{Y}_{12}\mathcal{Y}_{13} + 3\mathcal{Y}_{12}\mathcal{Y}_{21} + 3\mathcal{Y}_{13}\mathcal{Y}_{21}).$$

#### 4 MINQUE, a generalised least squares estimator

We give now the derivation of MINQUE as a generalised least squares estimator. If we have the idea that the variance-covariance matrix of  $\mathcal{Y}$

$$V = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 V_i$$

is of the form

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i,$$

or, in other words, if  $\alpha_i^2$  is the a priori (or approximate) value of  $\sigma_i^2$ , then we may transform  $\mathcal{Y}$  into  $\tilde{\mathcal{Y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathcal{Y}$  with  $E\tilde{\mathcal{Y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}}X\beta$  and  $\text{VAR } \tilde{\mathcal{Y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}}VT^{-\frac{1}{2}} =$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 T^{-\frac{1}{2}} V_i T^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 \tilde{V}_i.$$

When  $T$  is given, the unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i ((I - \tilde{P})\tilde{V}_i\tilde{Z})$$

where  $\tilde{Z} = \tilde{\mathcal{Y}}\tilde{\mathcal{Y}}'$ ,  $(I - \tilde{P})(A) = A - \tilde{P}A\tilde{P}$  with  $\tilde{P} = \tilde{X}(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}\tilde{X}'$  and  $\rho$  is the solution of the matrix equation

$$\{(\tilde{V}_i, (I - \tilde{P})\tilde{V}_i)\} \rho = \lambda.$$

Using the properties of the trace operator  $\text{tr}(ABC) = \text{tr}(BCA)$  we find that the unbiased estimator for

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$$

can be written as  $\underline{y}' A_* \underline{y}$  where

$$A_* = \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i T^{-1} (V_i - P_T V_i P_T') T^{-1},$$

in which  $P_T = X(X'T^{-1}X)^{-1}X'T^{-1}$  and  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_k$  satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i \text{tr } T^{-1} (V_i - P_T V_i P_T') T^{-1} V_j = \lambda_j \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, k.$$

This is the estimator which RAO [34, 35, 36, 37] introduced as the minimum norm quadratic unbiased estimator (MINQUE) if we minimize  $\text{tr}(ATA)$  only instead of  $\text{tr}(ATAT) + 2 \text{tr}(AXX'AT)$ .

If we want an estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  which is invariant under translation of  $\beta$  we consider  $\beta_d = \beta - \beta_0$ , and put  $\underline{y}_d = \underline{y} - X\beta_0$ . Then the invariant estimator satisfies

$$\underline{y}_d' A \underline{y}_d = \underline{y}' A \underline{y}$$

for all  $\beta_0$ , which is equivalent to  $AX = 0$ . From the derivation of the unbiased estimator  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$  without invariance

$$E(\underline{y}' A \underline{y}) = \text{tr } AV + \beta' X' A X \beta = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 \text{tr}(A V_i) + \beta' X' A X \beta,$$

it follows that necessary and sufficient conditions for  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$  to be unbiased for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} X' A X &= 0 \\ \text{tr}(A V_i) &= \lambda_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k \end{aligned} \right\}$$

We thus see that invariance implies the first condition of unbiasedness. The conditions for an unbiased invariant estimator  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$  for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  are:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A X &= 0 \\ \text{tr}(A V_i) &= \lambda_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k \end{aligned} \right\}$$

SEELY [44] shows that  $Q'\underline{y}$  is a maximal invariant statistic from  $R^n$  to  $R^q$ , where  $Q$  is an  $n \times q$ -matrix with  $q = n - \text{rank } X$ , column space of  $Q = \text{null space of } X'$  and  $Q'Q = I_q$ , i.e.  $QQ' = I - P$ , where  $P$  is the orthogonal projector on the column space of  $X$ . Now  $E(Q'\underline{y}) = Q'X\beta = 0$  and  $\text{VAR}(Q'\underline{y}) = Q'VQ = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 Q'V_iQ$ .

The set of normal equations for the least-squares estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is now given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (Q'V_iQ, Q'\underline{y}\underline{y}'Q)$$

where the  $\rho_i$ 's satisfy the matrix equation

$$\{(Q'V_iQ, Q'V_jQ)\}\rho = \lambda.$$

Using the properties of trace operators we find that the invariant unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  can be written as

$$\underline{y}' A_* \underline{y}$$

where

$$A_* = \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (I - P) V_i (I - P)$$

and  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_k$  satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i \text{tr}(I - P) V_i (I - P) V_j = \lambda_j \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, k.$$

If we have the idea that  $V$  is of the form  $T$  we first transform  $\underline{y}$  to

$$\tilde{\underline{y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}} \underline{y} \quad \text{with} \quad E\tilde{\underline{y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}} X\beta = \tilde{X}\beta$$

and

$$\text{VAR}(\tilde{\underline{y}}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 T^{-\frac{1}{2}} V_i T^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 \tilde{V}_i.$$

The invariant statistic now is  $\tilde{\underline{Q}}\tilde{\underline{y}}$  where  $\tilde{\underline{Q}}\tilde{\underline{Q}}' = I - \tilde{P}$  and  $\tilde{P} = \tilde{X}(\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}\tilde{X}'$ . The invariant unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is then given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (\tilde{\underline{Q}}' \tilde{V}_i \tilde{\underline{Q}}, \tilde{\underline{Q}}' \tilde{\underline{y}} \tilde{\underline{y}}' \tilde{\underline{Q}})$$

where the  $\rho_i$ 's satisfy the matrix equations

$$\{(\tilde{\underline{Q}}' \tilde{V}_i \tilde{\underline{Q}}, \tilde{\underline{Q}}' \tilde{V}_j \tilde{\underline{Q}})\}\rho = \lambda.$$

The invariant unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$ , given  $T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i$  can then be written as  $\underline{y}' A_* \underline{y}$  where

$$A_* = \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (I - P_T) T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T).$$

in which  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_k$  satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i \text{tr}(I - P_T) T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T) V_j = \lambda_j \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, k,$$

and in which

$$P_T = X(X'T^{-1}X)^{-1}X'T^{-1}.$$

This is RAO's invariant MINQUE estimator. When  $\underline{y}$  has an  $n$ -variate normal distribution,



$\text{var}(\underline{y}'A\underline{y}) = 2\text{tr}(A V A V) + 4\beta'X'AVAX\beta = 2\text{tr}(A V A V)$  since  $AX = 0$ . Thus if the true variance components are  $\alpha_1^2, \dots, \alpha_k^2$ ,  $\text{tr}(ATA T)$  is proportional to  $\text{var}(\underline{y}'A\underline{y})$  and the invariant MINQUE is the locally minimum variance unbiased quadratic estimator under normal distribution for  $\underline{y}$ . See also KLEFFE [21].

Finally we remark that SEELY [43] proves that when  $\underline{y}$  is normally distributed, for the class of unbiased invariant estimators (thus  $AX = 0$ ), the best quadratic unbiased estimator for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is a function of  $Q'\underline{y}$  if and only if

$$\mathcal{B} = \text{span}\{Q'V_1Q, \dots, Q'V_kQ\}$$

is a quadratic subspace of all real symmetric  $q \times q$  matrices  $\mathcal{A}$ . A subspace  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  with the property that  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  implies that  $B^2 \in \mathcal{B}$  is said to be a quadratic subspace of  $\mathcal{A}$ . SEELY [43, 44, 45] used the notion of quadratic subspaces also in the derivation of completeness of certain statistics for a family of multivariate normal distributions. For a survey of invariant methods for estimating variance components, where the restriction of non-negativity of the quadratic estimator has not been taken into account, see KLEFFE [22].

## 5 Non-negative estimators

(i) At the end of section 2 the question arises of MINQUE's are permissible estimators for  $q'\theta$ , where  $\theta = (\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2)'$ . The answer was that many variance components were estimated by MINQUE which were not non-negative estimators. RAO [36] indicates a modification of MINQUE which would provide non-negative estimators, but the resulting estimators would generally be neither quadratic nor unbiased. BROWN [2] describes an iterative feedback procedure using residuals which ensures non-negative estimation of variance components. See also RAO and CHAUBEY [38].

(ii) For a linear model  $\underline{y} = X\beta + \underline{e}$ , where  $\underline{y}, \underline{e} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $X$  is an  $n \times p$ -matrix of rank  $p$ , the parameter vector  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $E(\underline{e}) = 0$ ,  $\text{VAR}(\underline{e}) = \sigma^2 V$  and  $V$  positive definite, it is known that the least squares estimator for  $\beta$ ,  $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'\underline{y}$ , is unbiased or, if  $V$  is known, the best linear unbiased estimator or Gauss-Markov estimator is  $\hat{\beta} = (X'V^{-1}X)^{-1}X'V^{-1}\underline{y}$ .

Sometimes order restrictions are imposed on the parameters  $\beta_i$  in  $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)'$ . The estimation of  $\beta_i$  must e.g. be order preserving or isotonic. For permissible estimators of  $\beta$  see BARLOW et al. [1].

In the case of variance component estimation we have the linear model given above with

$$\sigma^2 V = \sigma^2 (\gamma_1 V_1 + \dots + \gamma_{k-1} V_{k-1} + I_n),$$

with variance components  $\sigma_i^2 = \sigma^2 \gamma_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$  and  $\sigma^2 = \sigma_k^2$ .

Isotonic variance components estimators are given for the balanced case by THOMPSON [46] and THOMPSON and MOORE [47]. See also BARLOW et al. [1].

(iii) In the linear model  $\underline{y} = X\beta + \underline{e}$  sometimes  $\beta$  belongs to the positive orthant  $\mathbb{R}_+^p$  of  $\mathbb{R}^p$ . A permissible estimator  $\tilde{\beta}$  of  $\beta$ , better than the one found by truncation (i.e. replacing

negative estimates of  $\beta_i$  by zero), is provided by the solution of the quadratic programming problem:

$$\text{minimize } \|y - Xb\|, \quad b_i \geq 0, \quad (i = 1, \dots, p),$$

or, if  $V$  is known,

$$\text{minimize } \|V^{-\frac{1}{2}}y - V^{-\frac{1}{2}}Xb\| \quad b_i \geq 0, \quad (i = 1, \dots, p).$$

If there are inequality constraints for some  $\beta_i$ ,  $\beta$  must belong to a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^p$  and we again have a quadratic programming problem. See e.g. JUDGE and TAKAYAMA [18], MANTEL [25], WATERMAN [50] and LIEW [24].

In the case of the variance components model we discussed in section 3 the least squares approach of SEELY to estimate the variance components  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$ . In his procedure SEELY has not taken into consideration the non-negativity of  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$ . Imposing this restriction on the parameters means that we may again use the quadratic programming approach in order to ensure that the estimators for  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  be non-negative.

The author developed independently of others the procedure to find non-negative variance components estimators just as in the case of a positive  $\beta$  in the linear model  $y = X\beta + e$ . For solving the related quadratic programming problem we use the algorithm of WATERMAN [50]. Consider  $Q'y$ , which is a maximal invariant statistic from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^q$ , where  $Q$  is an  $n \times q$  matrix with  $q = n - \text{rank } X$ , column space of  $Q = \text{null space of } X'$  and  $Q'Q = I_q$ , i.e.  $QQ' = I - P$ , where  $P = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$  is the orthogonal projector on the column space of  $X$ . Let  $Z = (Q'y)(Q'y)'$ , then  $EZ = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 Q'V_iQ$ . Let the index set  $I$  range over all  $2^k$  subsets of  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ . For each such set we minimize  $\|Z - E(\hat{Z})\|$  and obtain the unrestricted solution. If all the estimates of the parameters of  $\sigma_i^2$  belonging to a certain set  $J \in I$  are non-negative, we obtain  $\|Z - \{E(\hat{Z}) \mid \text{corresponding to } J\}\|$ . The minimum of these norms solves the problem for we then set all those parameters  $\sigma_i^2$  equal to zero which do not belong to the minimal set of  $E(\hat{Z})$ .

PUKELSHEIM [32, 33] investigated the unbiased estimation of variance components by means of non-negative quadratics, using convex programming.

Another interesting development is the use of restricted generalized inverse operators such as given by HARTUNG [12]. He considers minimum bias estimators (as introduced by CHIPMAN [3] for estimating the mean value parameter  $\beta$ ), which are invariant under the group of translations of  $\beta$ , where the minimum is taken over the appropriate class of positive semi-definite matrices after a reduction by invariance. These estimators always exist. They are of course non-negative and are unbiased if non-negative unbiased quadratic estimation of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is given. If these estimates are not unique, the one with minimum norm has to be taken. The minimum norm minimum bias invariant positive semi-definite estimator has been characterized by introducing a non-linear cone-restricted

pseudo inverse, for which HARTUNG gave a representation, allowing computation without consideration of the boundary.

## 6 Maximum likelihood estimators

Another estimator which is always permissible is the proper maximum likelihood estimator (MLE), which yields a point in the parameter set  $\Theta$  at which the likelihood function attains an absolute maximum. It should be noted that in many situations the estimators obtained by merely solving the likelihood equations, i.e. setting first derivatives of the likelihood equal to zero, will be impermissible. Solving likelihood equations while taking into account the restrictions imposed by the parameter set  $\Theta$  will give the proper MLE.

For the general variance components model with normal vector  $y$  the likelihood is given by

$$l = (2\pi)^{-n/2} (\det(V))^{-1/2} \exp\{-(y - X\beta)' V^{-1} (y - X\beta)/2\}$$

or

$$\log l = L(\theta, \beta, y) = -(n/2) \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log \det(V) - (y - X\beta)' V^{-1} (y - X\beta)/2,$$

defined for  $\theta = (\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2)'$  and  $\beta$  such that  $\sigma_k^2 > 0$ ,  $\sigma_i^2 \geq 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ . We write  $V$  as

$$V = \sigma_k^2 H = \sigma_k^2 (\gamma_1 V_1 + \dots + \gamma_{k-1} V_{k-1} + I_n)$$

where  $\gamma_i = \sigma_i^2 / \sigma_k^2$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ . Hence

$$L(\theta, \beta, y) = -(n/2) \log 2\pi - (n/2) \log \sigma_k^2 - \frac{1}{2} \log \det(H) + \\ -(y - X\beta)' H^{-1} (y - X\beta) / (2\sigma_k^2).$$

The likelihood equations are

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta} = \sigma_k^{-2} \{X' H^{-1} y - (X' H^{-1} X) \beta\} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \sigma_k^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma_k^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^4} (y - X\beta)' H^{-1} (y - X\beta) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \gamma_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(H^{-1} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \gamma_i}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} (y - X\beta)' \frac{\partial H^{-1}}{\partial \gamma_i} (y - X\beta) \\ = -\frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(H^{-1} V_i) + \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} (y - X\beta)' H^{-1} V_i H^{-1} (y - X\beta) = 0$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ .

We obtain

$$\hat{\beta} = (X'H^{-1}X)^{-1}(X'H^{-1}y)$$

and

$$\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = y'R'H^{-1}Ry/n$$

where

$$R = I - X(X'H^{-1}X)^{-1}X'H^{-1}.$$

Inserting this in  $\partial L/\partial \gamma_i = 0$  we get  $k-1$  equations for the  $k-1$  values of  $\gamma_i$ :

$$y'R'H^{-1}V_iH^{-1}Ry/\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = \text{tr}(H^{-1}V_i) \quad (i = 1, \dots, k-1)$$

or, if we put  $V_i = U_iU_i'$ ,

$$y'R'H^{-1}U_iU_i'H^{-1}Ry/\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = \text{tr}(U_iH^{-1}U_i').$$

For the balanced one-way layout the ML estimators are given in explicit form by HERBACH [17]:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}_2^2 &= \text{MSE} \\ \hat{\sigma}_1^2 &= \{(1 - n_1^{-1})\text{MSA} - \text{MSE}\}/n_2 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \text{if } (1 - n_1^{-1})\text{MSA} \geq \text{MSE}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}_2^2 &= \{(n_1 - 1)\text{MSA} + n_1(n_2 - 1)\text{MSE}\}/(n_1n_2) \\ \hat{\sigma}_1^2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

HARTLEY and RAO [13] gave an iterative procedure for solving the estimation equations above under the restriction  $\gamma_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, k-1$ . For a simplification of the procedure see HEMMERLE and HARTLEY [15].

If one believes in unbiased estimators, then a criticism of the ML approach for estimating  $\theta$  is that it does not take into account the loss in degrees of freedom due to estimating  $\beta$ . In the particular case  $y = X\beta + e$ , i.e. with  $k=1$ ,  $V = \sigma_1^2 I_n$  and  $\sigma_1^2 > 0$ , the ML estimator for the single variance component  $\sigma_1^2$  is

$$\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = (y - X\hat{\beta})(y - X\hat{\beta})/n$$

where

$$\hat{\beta} = X(X'X)^{-1}X'y, \quad E(\hat{\sigma}_1^2) = \sigma_1^2(n-p)/n,$$

hence the estimator  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  is biased downwards.

The restricted maximum likelihood (REML) or modified maximum likelihood approach of PATTERSON and THOMPSON [28, 29] maximises the likelihood, not of the complete vector  $y$ , but of all error contrasts. Any linear combination  $u'y$  of the observations such that  $E(u'y) = 0$ , i.e. such that  $u'X = 0$  with  $u$  independent of  $\theta$  or  $\beta$  is an error contrast. Each such vector belongs to the column space of the singular matrix  $S = I - X(X'X)^{-1}X'$ .

Since  $SX$  is null,  $Sy$  is singular  $N(0, \sigma_k^2 SHS)$ . The maximum possible number of linearly independent error contrasts is  $n - p$ . A particular set of  $n - p$  linearly independent error contrasts is given by  $Ty$ , where  $T$  is an  $(n-p) \times n$ -matrix whose rows are any  $n - p$  linearly independent rows of  $S$ , and  $TX = 0$ . Now the transformation

$$\underline{z} = \begin{pmatrix} T \\ X'H^{-1} \end{pmatrix} y \simeq N \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ X'H^{-1}X\beta \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} TH'T'\sigma_k^2 & 0 \\ 0 & X'H^{-1}X\sigma_k^2 \end{pmatrix} \right),$$

is non-singular, because both  $X'$  and  $T$  have full rank, while the rows of  $T$  are linearly independent of those of  $X'$ . The log likelihoods of  $Ty$  and  $X'H^{-1}y$  are respectively:

$$L_1 = -\frac{1}{2}(n-p)\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}(n-p)\log \sigma_k^2 - \frac{1}{2}\log \det(TH'T') + \\ - \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} y'T'(TH'T')^{-1}Ty$$

and

$$L_2 = -\frac{1}{2}p \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}p \log \sigma_k^2 - \frac{1}{2}\log \det(X'H^{-1}X) + \\ - \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} (y - X\beta)'H^{-1}X(X'H^{-1}X)^{-1}X'H^{-1}(y - X\beta).$$

Differentiation of  $L_1$  gives:

$$\frac{\partial L_1}{\partial \sigma_k^2} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} (n-p) + \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^4} y'T'(TH'T')^{-1}Ty$$

and

$$\frac{\partial L_1}{\partial \gamma_i} = -\frac{1}{2}\text{tr}(U_i'T'(TH'T')^{-1}TU_i) + \frac{1}{2\sigma_k^2} y'T'(TH'T')^{-1}TU_iU_i'T'(TH'T')^{-1}Ty$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ .

Setting these derivatives equal to zero we get the restricted maximum likelihood (REML) estimators. An iterative procedure, starting with initial values for  $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{k-1})$ , requires solving  $\hat{\sigma}_k^2 = y'T'(TH'T')^{-1}Ty/(n-p)$  and calculating new  $\gamma_i$ -values which bring  $\partial L_1/\partial \gamma_i$  closer to zero. For the numerical procedure see CORBEIL and SEARLE [4].

PATTERSON and THOMPSON [29] mentioned that the MINQUE procedure is equivalent to a single iteration of REML. Further, for balanced variance components models the REML estimators are the usual analysis of variance estimators. They used these properties as a justification of their procedure. But these properties imply that the REML procedure of PATTERSON and THOMPSON gives impermissible estimators. The authors do not use a proper maximum likelihood procedure because they only set the likelihood derivatives  $\partial L_1/\partial \sigma_k^2$  and  $\partial L_1/\partial \gamma_i$   $i = 1, \dots, k-1$  equal to zero, without taking into consideration the constraints  $\gamma_i \geq 0$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k-1$ ).

Also in the comparisons of variance components estimators of CORBEIL and SEARLE [4] they used the improper REML-procedure ignoring these non-negativity constraints. Therefore their results are questionable.

For a thorough discussion of maximum likelihood approaches to variance component estimation see HARVILLE [14], in which it is argued that the correct REML procedure makes sense. From the comment by J. N. K. RAO on HARVILLE's article we mention the warning concerning the use of ML-procedures, because none of the proposed algorithms guarantees a solution which is indeed ML.

The behaviour of the likelihood as a function of the variance components appears to be complex; even for the simple unbalanced one-way layout, the likelihood equation may have multiple roots, or the ML-estimate may be a boundary point rather than a root.

Another procedure to get maximum likelihood estimates for variance components is given by MILLER [27]. The asymptotic properties of these maximum likelihood estimates are given by MILLER [26].

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CHAPTER 6

6. HOW LARGE IS THE PROBABILITY FOR THE ESTIMATE OF A VARIANCE  
COMPONENT TO BE NEGATIVE?

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## How Large is the Probability for the Estimate of a Variance Component to be Negative?

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### Abstract

For a balanced one-way classification, where the normally distributed observations obey a random model  $y_{ij} = \mu + \underline{b}_i + \underline{c}_{ij}$  with two variance components  $\text{var}(\underline{b}_i) = \sigma_1^2$  and  $\text{var}(\underline{c}_{ij}) = \sigma_2^2$ , the probability is given that the analysis of variance estimate of  $\sigma_1^2$  will be negative. This probability depends on  $\sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$  and the degrees of freedom in the ANOVA table. Tables for this probability are given. If the normally distributed observations obey an intra-class correlation model, the probability that the Mean Square between groups is smaller than the Mean Square within groups can also be evaluated from the given tables.

*Key words:* Variance components, probability of negative estimates, balanced random model, balanced intra-class correlation model.

### 1. Introduction

Often there occur situations in statistical practice which can be described in the form of a linear model with random effects. The main interest is directed towards the magnitude of the variances of the several sources of variation. The use of the well-known analysis of variance (ANOVA) estimators for the variance components sometimes produces negative estimates. A first idea, and a good one, which comes to mind is to check the calculations. When no errors are found in the computation, a second idea is to consider (check) more carefully the assumptions implied by the model.

In § 2 the assumptions of the simplest variance component model will be generated from the sampling procedure. We shall consider a balanced two-stage sampling procedure or a balanced two-stage nested design.

In § 3 the ANOVA estimator for the variance components for such a design will be described. When the model assumptions fit the practical situation, then there will often be doubt about the normality of the observations.

In § 4 it is shown that this doubt is not always justified, since there is a reasonably large probability for negative outcomes of the ANOVA estimator for a variance component.

In § 5 the intra-class correlation model will be described. This model can often be applied in situations where primarily a variance component model seemed appropriate.

When all the assumptions of the variance component model are fulfilled then it follows that the ANOVA estimator is not a good estimation procedure for variance components. A permissible estimator for a non-negative parameter as a variance component should be non-negative. An example of such a non-negative estimator is proposed in § 6.

## 2. The Construction of a Variance Component Model

A variance component model is shown to be generated by the sampling procedure of the observations. Let us first consider the following example. From a large bulk of natural phosphatic fertilizers one wishes to determine the average content  $\mu$  of  $P_2O_5$ . One uses a balanced two-stage sampling procedure. In the first stage  $n_1$  samples (for example bales) are drawn at random from the bulk. In the second stage  $n_2$  subsamples are drawn from each sample. Chemical analysis of  $P_2O_5$  is performed at each of the  $n_1 n_2$  subsamples. The bulk of natural phosphatic fertilizer will not be completely homogeneous, hence the average content of  $P_2O_5$  of samples will vary. The average content of the random samples from the bulk can be seen as random drawings from a probability distribution with variance  $\sigma_1^2$ . The chemical determination will not give completely reproducible analysis, hence the determinations of subsamples from samples will vary. The  $P_2O_5$  content found from the analysis can be seen as random drawings from a probability distribution with variance  $\sigma_2^2$ . The goal of this investigation is to estimate the interesting parameters  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$ .

For a formal derivation of a random model for such a practical situation we consider a large population (= bulk). Note that in practice small random samples without replacement are drawn from a large population. This type of sampling can be considered, without any harm, as sampling with replacement. In a *balanced* two-stage nested design the same number  $n_2$  of sub-samples is drawn in the second stage from each sample.

An element chosen at random from the population according to a nested sampling scheme in two stages has a composite subscript  $(\underline{i}, \underline{j})$ , where  $\underline{i}$  refers to the first sampling step,  $\underline{j}$  refers to the second sampling step. (We denote a random variable  $\underline{x}$  by underlining the symbol  $x$ ; an observed value of this random variable is denoted by the symbol  $x$  without a bar below).

Sampling starting from a specified element  $\underline{i}$  in the first stage is denoted by  $(\underline{i}, \underline{j})$ . Conditional sampling of  $\underline{j}$  given that  $\underline{i} = \underline{i}$  is identical to sampling  $(\underline{i}, \underline{j})$ . The observation at the element obtained at the last sampling stage is denoted by  $y_{\underline{i}\underline{j}}$ .

The random variable  $y_{\underline{i}\underline{j}}$  has expectation  $E(y_{\underline{i}\underline{j}} | \underline{i} = \underline{i}) = E_j y_{\underline{i}\underline{j}} = \mu_{\underline{i}}$ , where ex-

pectation has been taken over the second sampling stage, given the result of the first sampling stage. Define the random variable  $e_{ij} = y_{ij} - \mu_i$ . The expectation of  $e_{ij}$  is zero by definition. Now assume that the variance of  $e_{ij}$  is the same for all  $i$ . It will be denoted as  $\text{var}_j(e_{ij}) = \sigma_2^2$ .

Next define  $E_i(\mu_i) = \mu$  and the random variable  $e_i = \mu_i - \mu$  with expectation zero and variance  $\sigma_1^2$ .

It follows that

$$y_{ij} = \mu_i + e_{ij} = \mu + e_i + e_{ij}$$

where  $\mu_i = \mu + e_i$ .

From  $E_{i,j}(e_i e_{ij}) = E_i[E_j(e_i e_{ij})] = E_i[e_i E_j(e_{ij})] = E_i(e_i \cdot 0) = 0$  it follows that  $e_i$  and  $e_{ij}$  are uncorrelated. Note that this is a consequence of the accurate description of the sampling procedure and not an a priori assumption. It also follows from the sampling scheme that  $e_{ij}$  and  $e_{i'j'}$ , ( $j \neq j'$ ) are independent. So we have not only that  $\text{var}_i(\mu_i) = \sigma_1^2$  according to the definition, but also  $\text{var}_{i,j}(y_{ij}) = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$ . The two variances  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$  are called the variance components of  $\text{var}_{i,j}(y_{ij})$ .

So far we considered sampling of one element only from the population. An additional sampling in the first stage will be identical by definition while in the second stage it will be independent of the previous sampling result. Denote two resulting observations by  $y_{ij}$  and  $y_{i'j'}$ . In the following we mean by  $\underline{i} = \underline{i}'$  that both observations have the first sampling stage in common, and analogously for  $\underline{j} = \underline{j}'$ .

In the expressions:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + e_i + e_{ij}$$

and

$$y_{i'j'} = \mu + e_{i'} + e_{i'j'}$$

any two terms with the same number of subscripts are either identical or uncorrelated. If  $(\underline{i}, \underline{j}) = (\underline{i}', \underline{j}')$  then

$$e_i = e_{i'}, e_{ij} = e_{i'j'}.$$

If  $\underline{i} = \underline{i}'$  but  $\underline{j} \neq \underline{j}'$  then only  $e_i = e_{i'}$  are identical while  $e_{ij}$  and  $e_{i'j'}$  are uncorrelated. Finally, if  $\underline{i} \neq \underline{i}'$  then the two pairs  $(e_i, e_{i'})$  and  $(e_{ij}, e_{i'j'})$  are uncorrelated.

The following expressions for covariances are now immediate:

$$\text{cov}(y_{ij}, y_{i'j'}) = \delta_{ii'} [\sigma_1^2 + \delta_{jj'} \sigma_2^2]$$

$$\text{cov}(y_{ij}, y_{i'j'}) = \delta_{ii'} \delta_{jj'} \sigma_2^2,$$

where the Kronecker delta notation is used

$$\delta_{ii'} = 1 \text{ if } i = i' \text{ and } \delta_{ii'} = 0 \text{ if } i \neq i'.$$

The usual description of the model is:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + b_i + c_{ij} \quad (i = 1, \dots, n_1; j = 1, \dots, n_2),$$

where the subscripts  $i$  and  $j$  refer to the samples rather than to the sampling procedure. With this relabelling  $\underline{b}_i$  plays the role of  $\underline{e}_i$  and  $\underline{c}_{ij}$  that of  $\underline{e}_{ij}$ .

We summarize as follows:

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} \underline{y}_{ij} &= \mu + \underline{b}_i + \underline{c}_{ij} \\ \text{with } E\underline{b}_i &= 0 \text{ and } \text{cov}(\underline{b}_i, \underline{b}_{i'}) = \delta_{ii'} \sigma_1^2 \quad \text{for } i, i' = 1, \dots, n_1; \\ E\underline{c}_{ij} &= 0, \text{cov}(\underline{c}_{ij}, \underline{c}_{i'j'}) = \delta_{ii'} \delta_{jj'} \sigma_2^2 \quad \text{for } i, i' = 1, \dots, n_1; \\ j, j' &= 1, \dots, n_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{cov}(\underline{b}_i, \underline{c}_{i'j'}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $y$  be the vector of all observations,  $y = (y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_2}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}, \dots, y_{n_1 n_2})'$ , then  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $n = n_1 n_2$ ,  $\underline{b} = (\underline{b}_1, \dots, \underline{b}_{n_1})' \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$ ,  $\underline{c} = (\underline{c}_{11}, \dots, \underline{c}_{1n_2}, \dots, \underline{c}_{n_1 n_2})' \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

The model can now be written as

$$\underline{y} = \underline{1}_n \mu + U_1 \underline{b} + U_2 \underline{c}$$

where  $\underline{1}_n$  is a  $n \times 1$ -columnvector of ones,  $U_1$  is an  $n \times n_1$  designmatrix related to the first sampling stage, hence the  $i^{\text{th}}$ -column of  $U_1$  consists of 1 according to observations of the  $i$ -th sample and 0 elsewhere;  $U_2$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix.

The covariance matrix of  $y$  can be written as  $V = \sigma_1^2 U_1 U_1' + \sigma_2^2 U_2 U_2' = \sigma_1^2 V_1 + \sigma_2^2 V_2$  with  $V_1 = I_{n_1} \times J_{n_2}$  and  $V_2 = I_n$ ,  $n = n_1 n_2$ , where the KRONECKER product  $A \times B$  of the  $(p \times q)$ -matrix  $A = \{a_{ij}\}$  and the  $(r \times s)$ -matrix  $B = \{b_{kl}\}$  is the partitioned  $(pr \times qs)$ -matrix  $\{a_{ij} B\}$ . (For the properties and use of the KRONECKER product  $A \times B$  see the Appendix).  $I_{n_1}$  is the  $n_1 \times n_1$  unit matrix  $\{\delta_{ij}\}$ , and  $J_{n_2}$  is the  $n_2 \times n_2$ -matrix of ones,  $\{1\}$ .

In the described model (1) there are no further assumptions about the probability distribution of the random effects. Often an additional assumption is suitable for practice. This assumption is that of normally distributed random effects. Note that uncorrelated random effects in the case of joint normally distributed effects is equivalent to stochastic independence of the effects. In this case we formulate model (2) as:

$$\underline{y} = \underline{1}_n \mu + U_1 \underline{b} + U_2 \underline{c}$$

with

$$(2) \quad \underline{b} = N(0, \sigma_1^2 I_{n_1}), \underline{c} = N(0, \sigma_2^2 I_n), n = n_1 n_2,$$

and  $\underline{b}$  and  $\underline{c}$  are stochastically independent.

Hence  $\underline{y}$  has a multivariate normal distribution  $N(\underline{1}_n \mu, V)$ .

### 3. Estimation of the Variance Components

The best estimator for the expectation  $E y_{ij} = \mu$  is  $\bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} y_{ij} / (n_1 n_2)$ . For model (1) this estimator  $\bar{y}$  has minimum variance among all unbiased linear estimators. For model (2) this estimator  $\bar{y}$  has minimum variance among all unbiased estimators. This follows from the fact that  $\bar{y}$  is a minimal sufficient complete statistic of the

normally distributed observations with respect to  $\mu$ . For the estimation of the variance components the analysis of variance table can be calculated:

Source of variation	degrees of freedom df	Sum of Squares SS	Mean Squares MS	Expected Mean Squares E(MS)
Between samples	$a = n_1 - 1$	SSB	MSB	$\sigma_2^2 + n_2\sigma_1^2$
Within samples	$e = n_1(n_2 - 1)$	SSW	MSW	$\sigma_2^2$
Corrected Total	$n_1n_2 - 1$	SST		

where  $SST = \sum_i \sum_j y_{ij}^2 - C$  with  $C = (\sum_i \sum_j y_{ij})^2 / (n_1n_2)$ ;  $SSB = \sum_i (\sum_j y_{ij})^2 / n_2 - C$ ;  $SSW = SST - SSB$ ;  $MSB = SSB/a$ ;  $MSW = SSW/e$  with  $a = n_1 - 1$  and  $e = n_1(n_2 - 1)$ .

Well known is  $EMS_B = \sigma_2^2 + n_2\sigma_1^2$  and  $EMS_W = \sigma_2^2$ .

Unbiased estimators for  $\sigma_2^2$  and  $\sigma_1^2$  are  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2 = MSW$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = (MSB - MSW)/n_2$ , respectively. These estimators are the so-called analysis of variance (ANOVA) estimators.

Under model (1) these estimators have minimal variance in the class of unbiased quadratic functions of the observations, GRAYBILL (1954); only for balanced designs. READ (1961). Under model (2) these estimators have minimal variance in the class of unbiased estimators. This follows from the fact that for a balanced design with normally distributed random effects the ANOVA estimators are functions of independent minimal sufficient complete statistics, with respect to the parameters  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$  (GRAYBILL and WORTHAN (1956)).

In practical applications the problem arises of negative outcomes for  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ . (Remark that  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  can be written as  $\sum_i \sum_j (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_i)^2 / (n_1(n_2 - 1))$  with  $\bar{y}_i = \sum_j y_{ij} / n_2$ , hence  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  can never be negative).

In that case one will often question the validity of the model. But in § 4 the probability will be calculated for negative outcomes of  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  in the case of normally distributed observations (model (2)).

#### 4. Probability of Negative Outcomes of $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$

Under the assumptions of model (2)  $SSW$  is distributed as  $\sigma_2^2 \chi_e^2$  with  $e = n_1(n_2 - 1)$ , and  $SSB$  as  $(\sigma_2^2 + n_2\sigma_1^2) \chi_a^2$  with  $a = n_1 - 1$ . Furthermore  $SSW$  and  $SSB$  are stochastically independent.

Let  $MSW = SSW/e$  and  $MSB = SSB/a$ . The probability for a negative outcome of  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  is  $P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 < 0) = P((MSB - MSW)/n_2 < 0) = P(MSB < MSW) = P(MSB/MSW < 1)$  since  $P(MSW = 0) = 0$ . However  $MSB/MSW$  is distributed as

$$\frac{(\sigma_2^2 + n_2\sigma_1^2) \chi_a^2 / a}{\sigma_2^2 \chi_e^2 / e} = (1 + n_2\gamma) F(a, e)$$

where  $\gamma = \sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$  and  $\underline{F}(a, e)$  has the  $F$ -distribution with  $a$  and  $e$  degrees of freedom respectively.

Hence  $P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 < 0) = P((1 + n_2\gamma) \underline{F}(a, e) < 1) = P\left(\underline{F}(a, e) < \frac{1}{1 + n_2\gamma}\right)$ . Another objection against the assumption of normality may be that we may find a certain negative outcome  $-D$  ( $D > 0$ ) whereas the probability is negligible for outcomes of  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  equal to or smaller than  $-D$ . To investigate this objection in more detail we express  $D$  in units of  $\sigma_2^2$ , i.e.  $D = \delta\sigma_2^2$  with  $\delta > 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 \leq -\delta\sigma_2^2) &= P((\underline{\text{MSB}} - \underline{\text{MSW}})/n_2 \leq -\delta\sigma_2^2) \\ &= P((\sigma_2^2 + n_2\sigma_1^2) \underline{\chi}_a^2/(an_2) - \sigma_2^2 \underline{\chi}_e^2/(en_2) \leq -\delta\sigma_2^2) \\ &= P\left(\frac{1 + n_2\gamma}{an_2} \underline{\chi}_a^2 - \frac{1}{en_2} \underline{\chi}_e^2 \leq -\delta\right) \quad \text{with } \gamma = \sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

This probability can be evaluated by numerical inversion of the characteristic function of a linear combination of independent chi-square variables, see IMHOFF (1961). The special case  $\delta = 0$  has been handled before. In Table 1 this probability multiplied by 1000 is presented for several combinations of  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ . If for a certain combination of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  this probability is less than 0.001 it has been omitted.

It should be noted that sometimes there are available separate estimators for  $\sigma_2^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2 + m\sigma_1^2$  from different experiments. (For example in plant or animal breeding experiments). From one experiment one will obtain an unbiased estimator  $\underline{\text{SSW}}/q$  for  $\sigma_2^2$  with  $q$  degrees of freedom and from another experiment an unbiased estimator  $\underline{\text{SSB}}/p$  for  $\sigma_2^2 + m\sigma_1^2$ , which is independent of  $\underline{\text{SSW}}/q$ . Now we find  $P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 \leq -\delta\sigma_2^2) = P((1 + m\gamma) \underline{\chi}_p^2/p - \underline{\chi}_q^2/q \leq -\delta m)$  where  $\gamma = \sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$ .

In Table 2 this probability multiplied by 1000 is presented for several combinations of the degrees of freedom  $p$  and  $q$  and several values of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ . If for a certain combination of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  this probability is less than 0.001 it has been omitted.

The use of these tables is hence to find the probability of falsely rejecting the assumption of normality. To use a value  $\delta$  one must know the value of  $\sigma_2^2$ . An idea about the value of  $\sigma_2^2$  can be obtained from an  $(1 - \alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\sigma_2^2$ :

$$\underline{\text{SSW}}/U < \sigma_2^2 < \underline{\text{SSW}}/L$$

with

$$P(\underline{\chi}_e^2 < L) = \alpha/2 \quad \text{and} \quad P(\underline{\chi}_e^2 < U) = 1 - \alpha/2.$$

**Table 1**

For given  $\gamma = \sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$  and stochastically independent  $\underline{\chi}_a^2$  and  $\underline{\chi}_e^2$  the probability multiplied by 1000 is given for a negative estimate of the variance component  $\sigma_1^2$ :

$$1000 \times P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 < -\delta\sigma_2^2) = 1000 \times P\left(\frac{1 + n_2\gamma}{an_2} \underline{\chi}_a^2 - \frac{1}{en_2} \underline{\chi}_e^2 \leq -\delta\right), \quad \delta > 0,$$

with degrees of freedom  $\alpha = n_1 - 1$ ,  $e = n_1(n_2 - 1)$  for

$$n_1 = 2, 5, 10, 30, 50, 70 \quad \text{and} \quad n_2 = 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 15.$$

This probability has been computed for  $\gamma = 0.0, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 10.0$  and for  $\delta = 0.0, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1 (0.1) 1.0, 1.5, 2.0$ .

If for a certain combination of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  this probability is less than 0.001 it is not given.

$\gamma \backslash \delta$	$n_1 = 2, n_2 = 2; \alpha = 1, e = 2$														
	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.0
0.0	578	568	522	473	387	317	259	212	174	142	116	95	78	29	11
0.1	542	532	491	444	363	298	244	200	163	134	110	90	73	27	10
0.5	447	438	405	366	300	246	201	164	140	122	103	87	60	22	8
1.0	377	370	342	309	253	208	170	139	114	93	76	62	51	19	7
2.0	301	296	273	247	202	165	136	111	91	74	61	50	41	15	6
10.0	152	149	138	125	102	84	69	56	46	38	31	25	21	8	3

$n_1 = 2, n_2 = 3; \alpha = 1, e = 4$															
0.0	625	614	563	491	350	237	154	98	61	38	23	14	8	1	
0.1	569	559	512	446	316	214	139	88	55	34	20	12	7	0	
0.5	438	429	392	341	241	162	105	67	42	26	16	9	6	0	
1.0	356	349	318	276	195	131	85	54	34	21	12	8	4	0	
2.0	275	269	245	213	150	101	66	41	26	16	10	6	3	0	
10.0	133	130	119	103	73	48	32	20	12	8	5	3	2	0	

$n_1 = 2, n_2 = 4; \alpha = 1, e = 6$													
0.0	644	631	568	472	274	138	62	27	11	4	2	1	
0.1	570	557	500	413	239	120	54	23	9	4	1	1	
0.5	415	405	361	297	171	85	38	16	6	2	1	0	
1.0	329	321	286	235	135	67	30	13	5	2	1	0	
2.0	250	243	216	177	102	50	23	9	4	2	0	0	
10.0	119	116	102	84	48	24	11	5	2	1	0	0	

$n_1 = 2, n_2 = 5; \alpha = 1, e = 8$										
0.0	654	638	562	436	190	61	17	4	1	
0.1	563	548	480	370	160	52	14	3	1	
0.5	393	382	331	254	108	35	9	2	1	
1.0	306	298	257	197	84	27	7	2	0	
2.0	230	223	192	147	62	20	5	1	0	
10.0	108	105	90	69	29	9	2	1	0	

$n_1 = 2, n_2 = 10; \alpha = 1, e = 18$					
0.0	669	642	477	167	2
0.1	511	487	354	122	2
0.5	312	296	211	72	1
1.0	234	221	157	53	1
2.0	170	161	114	39	0
10.0	78	74	52	18	0



$\gamma \backslash \delta$	$n_1=2, n_2=15; a=1, e=28$												
	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
0.0	674	632	328	12									
0.1	468	434	216	8									
0.5	266	245	119	4									
1.0	196	180	87	3									
2.0	141	130	63	2									
10.0	64	59	28	1									

$n_1=5, n_2=2; a=4, e=5$													
0.0	514	504	463	413	318	237	173	124	88	61	42	28	19
0.1	442	433	396	352	269	200	145	103	73	51	35	23	16
0.5	261	255	231	203	153	112	80	56	40	28	19	13	8
1.0	155	151	136	119	88	64	46	32	22	16	11	7	5
2.0	72	70	63	55	40	29	20	14	10	7	5	3	2
10.0	6	6	5	4	3	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0

$n_1=5, n_2=3; a=4, e=10$											
0.0	548	532	466	380	224	113	51	21	8	3	1
0.1	431	416	359	288	166	82	37	15	6	2	1
0.5	195	188	157	123	67	32	14	6	2	1	0
1.0	97	92	77	59	32	15	6	3	1	0	0
2.0	38	36	30	23	12	6	2	1	0	0	0
10.0	2	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

$n_1=5, n_2=4; a=4, e=15$								
0.0	562	540	448	327	128	34	7	1
0.1	405	386	311	220	82	21	4	1
0.5	149	140	108	72	25	6	1	0
1.0	66	62	46	31	10	2	0	0
2.0	23	22	16	10	4	1	0	0
10.0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0

$n_1=5, n_2=5; a=4, e=20$						
0.0	569	542	423	268	57	5
0.1	378	353	264	159	31	3
0.5	116	108	75	42	8	1
1.0	47	43	30	16	3	0
2.0	16	14	10	5	1	0
10.0	1	1	0	0	0	0

$n_1=5, n_2=10; a=4, e=45$				
0.0	582	526	265	31
0.1	264	228	97	10
0.5	46	38	14	1
1.0	15	12	4	0
2.0	4	4	1	0

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=5, n_2=15; a=4, e=70$													
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	2.0
0.0		587	500	107											
0.1		192	150	23											
0.5		24	18	2											
1.0		7	5	1											
2.0		2	2	0											

$n_1=10, n_2=2; a=9, e=10$															
0.0		505	491	438	373	257	165	100	58	32	17	9	5	2	
0.1		397	385	339	285	191	120	72	41	23	12	6	3	2	
0.5		156	150	128	104	66	39	23	13	7	4	2	1	0	
1.0		57	54	46	36	22	13	7	4	2	1	0	0	0	
2.0		12	11	9	7	4	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	

$n_1=10, n_2=3; a=9, e=20$															
0.0		529	507	416	306	132	42	10	2						
0.1		354	336	265	186	74	22	5	1						
0.5		80	74	54	34	12	3	1	0						
1.0		19	17	12	8	2	1	0	0						
2.0		2	2	2	1	0	0	0	0						

$n_1=10, n_2=4; a=9, e=30$															
0.0		539	508	380	230	47	4								
0.1		308	285	197	108	19	2								
0.5		43	39	24	11	2	0								
1.0		8	7	4	2	0	0								
2.0		1	1	0	0	0	0								

$n_1=10, n_2=5; a=9, e=40$															
0.0		544	504	340	159	10									
0.1		266	239	141	57	3									
0.5		25	22	11	4	0									
1.0		4	3	1	0	0									

$n_1=10, n_2=10; a=9, e=90$															
0.0		554	470	142	3										
0.1		129	97	18	0										
0.5		3	2	0	0										

$n_1=10, n_2=15; a=9, e=140$															
0.0		557	428	25											
0.1		67	41	1											
0.5		1	0	0											

$n_1=30, n_2=2; a=29, e=30$															
0.0		501	479	391	290	135	51	16	4	1					
0.1		313	295	229	159	66	23	6	2	0					
0.5		33	30	20	12	4	1	0	0	0					
1.0		2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0					

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=30, n_2=3; a=29, e=60$													
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5
0.0		515	477	327	172	24	1								
0.1		222	198	115	50	5	0								
0.5		4	4	2	0	0	0								
<hr/>															
		$n_1=30, n_2=4; a=29, e=90$													
0.0		521	467	260	83	2									
0.1		153	127	51	11	0									
0.5		1	0	0	0	0									
<hr/>															
		$n_1=30, n_2=5; a=29, e=120$													
0.0		524	454	198	32										
0.1		103	79	20	0										
<hr/>															
		$n_1=30, n_2=10; a=29, e=270$													
0.0		530	382	20											
0.1		14	6	0											
<hr/>															
		$n_1=30, n_2=15; a=29, e=420$													
0.0		532	308												
0.1		2	0												
<hr/>															
		$n_1=50, n_2=2; a=49, e=50$													
0.0		500	472	361	238	79	18	3							
0.1		262	241	168	98	26	5	1							
0.5		8	7	4	2	0	0	0							
<hr/>															
		$n_1=50, n_2=3; a=49, e=100$													
0.0		511	462	275	108	5									
0.1		135	130	58	16	0									
<hr/>															
		$n_1=50, n_2=4; a=49, e=150$													
0.0		516	446	196	35										
0.1		87	65	16	1										
<hr/>															
		$n_1=50, n_2=5; a=49, e=200$													
0.0		518	429	130	8										
0.1		47	31	4	0										
<hr/>															
		$n_1=50, n_2=10; a=49, e=450$													
0.0		523	335	4											
0.1		2	0	0											
<hr/>															
		$n_1=50, n_2=15; a=49, e=700$													
0.0		524	245												

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=70, n_2=2; a=69, e=70$												
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0 1.5 2.0
0.0		500	467	337	200	48	7	1						
0.1		225	202	127	63	11	1	0						
0.5		2	2	1	0	0	0	0						

  

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=70, n_2=3; a=69, e=140$				
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2
0.0		509	451	237	70	1
0.1		112	89	30	5	0

  

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=70, n_2=4; a=69, e=210$			
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1
0.0		513	431	152	16
0.1		52	35	5	0

  

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=70, n_2=5; a=69, e=280$			
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1
0.0		515	410	88	2
0.1		23	13	1	0

  

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=70, n_2=10; a=69, e=630$		
		0.00	0.01	0.05
0.0		519	299	1

  

$\gamma$	$\delta$	$n_1=70, n_2=15; a=69, e=980$	
		0.00	0.01
0.0		520	200

Table 2

For given  $\gamma = \sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$  and stochastically independent  $\chi_p^2$  and  $\chi_q^2$  the probability multiplied by 1000 is given for a negative estimate of the variance component  $\sigma_1^2$ :

$$1000 \times P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 \leq -\delta \sigma_2^2) = 1000 \times P\left(\frac{1+m\gamma}{p} \chi_p^2 - \frac{1}{q} \chi_q^2 \leq -\delta m\right)$$

with degrees of freedom

$p$  and  $q=1, 5, 10, 30, 50, 100$  and  $m\gamma=0.0, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 10.0$  and  $\delta>0$ ,  $m\delta=0.00, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1 (0.1) 1.0, 1.5, 2.0$ . If for a certain combination of  $m\gamma$  and  $m\delta$  this probability is less than 0.001 it is not given.

$m\gamma \backslash m\delta$	$p=1, q=1$															
	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.0	
0.0	500	490	462	435	391	356	326	300	277	256	237	220	205	145	104	
0.1	485	475	448	422	382	348	320	291	269	249	231	214	199	141	102	
0.5	436	428	404	380	343	312	286	264	244	226	209	194	181	141	92	
1.0	392	385	363	343	309	282	259	238	220	204	189	176	164	116	84	
2.0	333	328	309	292	264	241	221	204	188	175	162	151	140	100	72	
10.0	186	184	173	164	148	136	125	115	106	99	92	85	80	57	41	

$p=1, q=5$																
0.0	636	633	618	599	556	509	459	408	360	314	273	236	202	86	34	
0.1	615	612	598	579	537	491	443	394	347	303	263	227	194	83	33	
0.5	548	545	532	515	477	435	392	348	306	267	232	200	171	73	29	
1.0	488	486	474	458	424	386	348	309	272	237	205	176	151	64	26	
2.0	418	416	398	384	355	324	291	258	227	198	171	147	126	54	21	
10.0	224	223	217	209	193	176	158	140	123	107	92	79	68	29	11	

$p=1, q=10$																
0.0	660	657	645	629	593	551	502	448	391	334	279	228	184	50	11	
0.1	638	635	623	608	572	531	484	432	377	321	268	219	176	48	10	
0.5	567	565	554	539	506	469	426	379	330	281	235	192	154	42	9	
1.0	505	502	492	479	449	415	376	335	291	248	206	168	135	37	8	
2.0	432	429	420	409	383	354	322	287	250	214	180	140	112	31	6	
10.0	231	230	225	218	203	187	169	150	130	110	92	75	60	16	3	

$p=1, q=30$																
0.0	675	672	662	648	618	583	543	495	436	367	292	217	151	10		
0.1	652	650	639	625	596	562	522	476	419	352	280	208	145	10		
0.5	579	577	567	554	526	494	458	416	365	306	243	180	134	8		
1.0	515	513	503	491	465	436	404	366	321	268	212	158	110	7		
2.0	432	430	422	411	388	364	336	303	265	231	184	139	98	6		
10.0	235	233	229	223	210	196	180	162	141	118	93	69	48	3		

$p=1, q=50$																
0.0	678	675	665	652	622	589	551	506	451	383	301	214	136	3		
0.1	655	653	642	629	600	567	530	486	433	367	288	205	130	3		
0.5	582	580	570	557	529	499	465	425	377	319	250	177	113	2		
1.0	517	515	506	494	468	440	409	373	331	279	218	155	98	2		
2.0	434	432	424	413	391	366	340	309	273	230	180	127	81	2		
10.0	236	235	230	224	211	197	182	165	145	122	95	67	42	1		

$p=1, q=100$																
0.0	680	678	668	654	626	593	556	514	463	400	316	215	117	14		
0.1	657	655	645	632	603	571	535	493	444	383	303	205	112	0		
0.5	584	582	572	559	532	502	469	431	387	332	262	177	97	0		
1.0	519	517	508	496	471	443	413	378	339	290	228	154	84	0		
2.0	435	433	425	415	393	369	342	313	280	239	188	127	69	0		
10.0	236	235	230	224	212	198	183	167	149	127	99	67	36	0		

$m\gamma$	$m\delta$	$p=5, q=1$														
		0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.0
0.0		364	360	347	332	306	283	263	244	226	210	196	183	171	123	89
0.1		343	340	328	314	289	268	249	231	215	200	186	174	162	117	85
0.5		276	273	264	253	234	217	202	189	176	164	153	143	134	97	71
1.0		217	215	208	200	185	172	160	150	140	131	123	115	108	78	57
2.0		144	143	139	134	124	115	108	101	94	88	83	78	74	54	39
10.0		21	21	20	20	18	17	16	15	14	13	13	12	11	8	6

		$p=5, q=5$														
0.0		500	495	474	448	396	348	302	261	224	191	163	138	116	46	18
0.1		460	455	435	410	362	317	275	237	203	173	147	124	105	42	16
0.5		334	330	314	295	259	225	194	166	141	120	101	85	72	29	10
1.0		233	230	218	204	178	154	132	112	95	80	68	57	48	19	7
2.0		127	125	119	111	96	82	70	59	50	42	35	29	24	10	4
10.0		10	10	9	9	7	6	5	4	4	3	2	2	2	1	0

		$p=5, q=10$														
0.0		535	529	506	476	417	359	303	251	205	164	130	101	78	18	4
0.1		488	482	460	432	376	322	271	224	182	145	114	89	68	16	3
0.5		342	338	320	298	256	216	179	146	118	93	73	56	43	10	2
1.0		230	226	214	198	168	140	115	93	74	58	45	35	26	6	1
2.0		118	116	109	100	84	69	56	45	36	28	21	16	12	3	0
10.0		8	8	8	7	6	4	4	3	2	2	1	1	1	0	0

		$p=5, q=30$														
0.0		565	559	535	503	437	369	301	235	176	125	84	54	33	1	
0.1		512	506	482	452	389	326	263	204	152	107	72	46	28	1	
0.5		348	344	324	300	252	206	162	123	90	62	41	26	15	1	
1.0		226	223	208	191	157	126	98	73	52	36	23	14	9	0	
2.0		111	109	101	92	74	58	44	33	23	16	10	6	4	0	
10.0		7	7	6	6	4	3	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	

		$p=5, q=50$														
0.0		572	566	542	510	442	372	300	231	167	112	69	39	20		
0.1		517	511	487	456	392	326	261	199	142	95	58	33	17		
0.5		350	345	325	300	251	203	158	117	82	53	32	18	9		
1.0		225	222	207	189	155	123	94	68	47	30	18	10	5		
2.0		110	108	100	90	72	56	42	30	20	13	7	4	2		
10.0		7	6	6	5	4	3	2	2	1	1	0	0	0		

		$p=5, q=100$														
0.0		578	572	547	515	446	374	300	227	159	100	55	26	10		
0.1		522	516	491	460	394	327	260	194	135	84	46	21	8		
0.5		350	345	325	300	250	223	155	112	76	46	24	11	4		
1.0		224	221	206	188	153	120	90	64	42	25	13	6	2		
2.0		108	106	98	89	70	54	40	28	18	10	5	2	1		
10.0		6	6	6	5	4	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0		

[illegible]

$m \backslash p$	$q=5$															
	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.0	
0.0	435	429	405	377	325	279	237	201	170	143	120	100	83	32	12	
0.1	381	376	354	329	282	241	204	173	145	122	102	85	70	27	10	
0.5	219	216	202	186	158	133	111	93	78	64	54	44	36	14	5	
1.0	107	106	98	90	75	63	52	43	36	29	24	20	16	6	2	
2.0	26	25	24	21	18	14	12	10	8	7	5	4	4	1	0	

$q=10$																
0.0	465	458	426	388	318	256	203	158	122	93	70	52	38	8	1	
0.1	394	386	358	324	262	208	164	126	97	73	55	40	30	6	1	
0.5	188	184	167	148	116	89	68	51	38	28	20	15	11	2	0	
1.0	70	68	61	53	40	30	22	16	12	9	6	4	3	0	0	
2.0	10	9	8	7	5	4	3	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	

$q=30$																
0.0	500	489	444	390	288	201	133	84	50	28	15	8	4			
0.1	398	388	347	299	214	145	93	57	33	18	10	5	2			
0.5	136	131	112	92	59	36	21	12	6	3	2	1	0			
1.0	31	30	25	19	11	6	4	2	1	0	0	0	0			
2.0	2	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			

$q=50$																
0.0	511	498	448	387	272	176	105	57	29	13	6	2	1			
0.1	397	385	340	287	192	119	68	36	17	8	3	1	0			
0.5	119	114	94	74	43	23	12	6	2	1	0	0	0			
1.0	22	21	17	12	6	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0			
2.0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			

$q=100$																
0.0	521	507	452	383	255	150	77	34	13	4	1					
0.1	395	382	332	273	170	94	46	19	7	2	0					
0.5	102	97	78	59	30	14	6	2	1	0	0					
1.0	16	15	12	8	4	1	0	0	0	0	0					

$q=1$																
0.0	322	320	310	298	277	257	240	223	208	194	182	170	159	115	84	
0.1	294	292	284	273	258	240	224	209	195	182	170	159	149	108	79	
0.5	226	225	219	211	197	184	172	161	150	140	131	124	116	85	62	
1.0	164	162	158	153	143	134	126	118	110	104	97	91	86	63	47	
2.0	89	89	87	84	79	74	70	66	62	58	55	52	48	36	27	
10.0	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	

$q=5$																
0.0	428	422	398	370	318	272	231	195	165	138	116	96	80	31	11	
0.1	372	367	346	320	274	233	197	166	140	117	98	81	67	26	9	
0.5	207	203	190	175	147	124	103	86	72	59	49	40	33	12	4	
1.0	95	93	87	79	66	55	45	37	31	25	21	17	14	5	2	
2.0	19	19	17	16	13	10	9	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	



$m\gamma \backslash m\delta$	$p=50, q=10$															
	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.0	
0.0	456	448	416	377	306	244	192	148	113	86	64	48	35	7	1	
0.1	381	373	344	310	248	195	152	116	88	66	49	36	26	5	1	
0.5	167	163	148	130	100	76	57	42	31	23	16	12	8	2	0	
1.0	53	52	46	40	30	22	16	12	8	6	4	3	2	0	0	
2.0	5	5	4	4	2	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	

$p=50, q=30$																
0.0		489	477	428	368	261	175	111	66	38	20	11	5	2		
0.1		375	364	321	270	184	118	72	42	23	12	6	3	1		
0.5		101	96	80	63	38	22	12	6	3	2	1	0	0		
1.0		15	14	11	8	4	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0		

$p=50, q=50$																
0.0		500	486	429	360	237	142	78	39	18	7	3	1			
0.1		369	356	306	249	154	87	45	21	9	4	1	0			
0.5		78	73	58	43	22	10	5	2	1	0	0	0			
1.0		8	7	6	4	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0			

$p=50, q=100$																
0.0		511	494	429	348	208	106	46	17	5	1					
0.1		360	345	289	224	122	57	23	8	2	0					
0.5		57	53	40	27	11	4	1	0	0	0					
1.0		4	4	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0					

$p=100, q=1$																
0.0		320	317	308	296	275	256	238	222	207	193	181	169	158	114	84
0.1		292	290	281	271	252	235	218	204	190	178	169	158	148	107	79
0.5		224	222	216	208	195	182	170	159	149	140	131	123	115	84	62
1.0		160	159	155	150	141	132	124	116	109	102	96	90	85	62	46
2.0		86	86	84	81	76	72	68	64	60	56	53	50	47	35	26
10.0		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0

$p=100, q=5$																
0.0		422	416	392	364	312	266	226	191	160	134	112	94	78	30	11
0.1		365	360	339	313	267	227	192	161	135	113	94	78	65	24	9
0.5		196	193	181	166	139	116	97	81	67	55	46	38	31	11	4
1.0		85	84	78	71	59	48	40	33	27	22	18	15	12	4	2
2.0		14	14	13	12	10	8	6	5	4	3	3	2	2	1	0

$p=100, q=10$																
0.0		449	440	407	368	296	234	182	140	107	80	60	44	32	6	1
0.1		370	362	333	298	236	184	142	108	81	61	45	33	24	4	1
0.5		150	147	132	115	87	65	48	36	26	19	14	10	7	1	0
1.0		41	40	35	30	22	16	11	8	6	4	3	2	1	0	0
2.0		2	2	2	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

$m\delta \backslash m\gamma$	$p=100, q=30$														
	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.0
0.0	479	465	412	348	237	152	92	53	29	15	7	4	2		
0.1	353	341	295	243	157	96	56	31	16	8	4	2	1		
0.5	70	67	54	41	22	12	6	3	1	1	0	0	0		
1.0	6	5	4	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		

$p=100, q=50$															
0.0	489	473	408	332	203	112	55	25	10	4	1				
0.1	338	324	270	211	118	60	28	12	5	2	1				
0.5	44	41	30	21	9	4	1	0	0	0	0				
1.0	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				

$p=100, q=100$															
0.0	500	480	401	307	158	66	23	7	2						
0.1	317	300	237	170	76	28	9	2	0						
0.5	22	20	13	8	2	0	0	0	0						

## 5. The Intra-Class Correlation Model

In § 2 we have seen that the observations within the same sample are correlated,  $\text{cov}(y_{ij}, y_{ij'}) = \sigma_1^2$  for  $j \neq j'$ ; hence the correlation coefficient  $\rho(y_{ij}, y_{ij'}) = \sigma_1^2 / (\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$ . The observations from several samples are uncorrelated. In our variance component model the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  is non-negative by definition.

In several applications however, especially in plant breeding or animal breeding, one wants a model where the observations within the same sample may be negatively correlated. It is frequently employed in studies about twins. The following intra-class correlation model has been proposed by R. A. FISHER long before the variance component model.

From a population  $n_1$  samples (groups) are drawn at random. From each group  $n_2$  elements are drawn. Let  $y_{ij}$  be the observation at the  $j$ -th element drawn from the  $i$ -th group. Then the model (3) is now:

$$\begin{aligned} y_{ij} &= \mu + e_{ij} & i &= 1, \dots, n_1 \\ & & j &= 1, \dots, n_2; \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} (3) \quad E e_{ij} &= 0, \text{ var } (e_{ij}) = \sigma^2 \\ \text{cov } (e_{ij}, e_{ij'}) &= \delta_{ij'} \rho \sigma^2 \quad \text{for } j \neq j'. \end{aligned}$$

The parameter  $\rho$  is called the intra-class correlation coefficient. Let

$$y' = (y_{11}, y_{12}, \dots, y_{1n_2}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{n_1 n_2}) \in \mathbf{R}^n$$

and

$$e' = (e_{11}, e_{12}, \dots, e_{1n_2}, e_{21}, \dots, e_{n_1 n_2}) \in \mathbf{R}^n$$

with  $n = n_1 n_2$ ;  $I_n$  a column vector with coordinates of merely ones, then we have in vectorform:  $\underline{y} = \mu I_n + \underline{e}$  with non-singular covariance matrix of  $\underline{y}$ :

$$V = \sigma^2 I_{n_1} \times \{(1 - \rho) I_{n_2} + \rho J_{n_2}\}.$$

From the requirement of positive-definiteness of  $V$  it follows that  $-1/(n_2 - 1) < \rho < 1$ . The proof is as follows. The positive definite matrix  $V$  has only positive eigenvalues. The eigenvalues of  $V$  are found as the product of the eigenvalues of  $\sigma^2 I_{n_1}$  and those of  $\{(1 - \rho) I_{n_2} + \rho J_{n_2}\}$ . The latter are to be found from  $|(1 - \rho) I_{n_2} + \rho J_{n_2} - \lambda I_{n_2}| = 0$  or

$$(1 - \lambda + (n_2 - 1) \rho) (1 - \rho - \lambda)^{n_2 - 1} = 0.$$

Hence those eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = 1 + (n_2 - 1) \rho$  and  $\lambda_2 = (1 - \rho)$  with multiplicity  $n_2 - 1$ . The eigenvalues of  $V$  are therefore  $\sigma^2 (1 + (n_2 - 1) \rho)$  with multiplicity  $n_1$  and  $\sigma^2 (1 - \rho)$  with multiplicity  $n_1 (n_2 - 1)$ . Since they must be positive it follows that  $-1/(n_2 - 1) < \rho < 1$ .

If we adopt the assumption of normally distributed observations, then we have the model:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + e_{ij}$$

$e_{ij}$  are identical  $N(0, \sigma^2)$  for

$$(4) \quad \begin{aligned} i &= 1, \dots, n_1; j = 1, \dots, n_2; \\ \text{cov}(y_{ij}, y_{i'j'}) &= \delta_{ii'} \rho \sigma^2 \quad \text{for } j \neq j'. \end{aligned}$$

The estimator of  $\mu$ , given by  $\bar{y} = \sum_i \sum_j y_{ij} / (n_1 n_2)$  is for model (3) the minimum variance unbiased linear estimator. For model (4) this estimator  $\bar{y}$  has minimum variance among all unbiased estimators. This follows from the fact that  $\bar{y}$  is a minimal sufficient complete statistic of the normally distributed observations with respect to  $\mu$ .

For the estimation of the relevant parameters we use the same analysis of variance table as in § 3 but the expected mean squares are now

$$E(\text{MSB}) = \sigma^2 (1 + (n_2 - 1) \rho)$$

and

$$E(\text{MSW}) = \sigma^2 (1 - \rho)$$

respectively.

Now  $\text{SSW}$  is distributed as  $\sigma^2 (1 - \rho) \chi_e^2$  and  $\text{SSB}$  as  $\sigma^2 (1 + (n_2 - 1) \rho) \chi_a^2$ .

From  $E(\text{MSB}) = \sigma^2 (1 + (n_2 - 1) \rho)$  and  $E(\text{MSW}) = \sigma^2 (1 - \rho)$  it follows that  $E(\text{MSB}) < E(\text{MSW})$ , if and only if  $\rho < 0$ .

The probability  $P(\text{MSB} < \text{MSW})$  is equal to  $P(\text{MSB}/\text{MSW} < 1)$  since  $P(\text{MSW} = 0) = 0$ , and  $\text{MSB}/\text{MSW}$  is distributed as  $(1 + n_2 \rho / (1 - \rho)) F(a, e)$ , hence  $P(\text{MSB} < \text{MSW}) = P(F(a, e) < 1 / (1 + n_2 \rho / (1 - \rho)))$ . Entering Table 1 with  $\gamma = \rho / (1 - \rho)$  we may read this probability numerically. Note that  $P(\text{MSB} < \text{MSW}) \geq P(F(a, e) <$

$< 1$ ), if  $-1/(n_2 - 1) < \rho < 0$ , with equality if  $\rho = 0$ . We can also read from Table 1 the probability  $P(\underline{\text{MSB}} - \underline{\text{MSW}} < -\delta n_2 \sigma^2 (1 - \rho)) =$

$$P\left(\frac{1 + n_2 \gamma}{n_2 a} \chi_a^2 - \frac{1}{n_2 e} \chi_e^2 \leq -\delta\right), \quad \text{with } \delta > 0.$$

From the analysis of variance table it follows that  $(\underline{\text{MSB}} - \underline{\text{MSW}})$  is an unbiased estimator for  $n_2 \rho \sigma^2$ , and  $(\underline{\text{MSB}} + (n_2 - 1) \underline{\text{MSW}})$  for  $n_2 \sigma^2$ . SNEDECOR and COCHRAN (1969) propose as an estimator for  $\rho$ :

$$\hat{\rho}_1 = (\underline{\text{MSB}} - \underline{\text{MSW}}) / (\underline{\text{MSB}} + (n_2 - 1) \underline{\text{MSW}}).$$

Note that  $\hat{\rho}_1$  is not unbiased.

Another estimator for  $\rho$  follows from the  $n_2(n_2 - 1)$  ordered pairs of observations which can be formed in each group. The correlation coefficient between these pairs gives an estimate for  $\rho$ . When we take the sum over all groups we get another, but also biased, estimator for  $\rho$ :

$$\hat{\rho}_2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1) \underline{\text{MSB}} - n_1 \underline{\text{MSW}}}{(n_1 - 1) \underline{\text{MSB}} + n_1 (n_2 - 1) \underline{\text{MSW}}}$$

Since  $\hat{\rho}_2$  differs only slightly from  $\hat{\rho}_1$ ,  $\hat{\rho}_1$  is the usual estimator in practice.

## 6. A Non-Negative Estimation for $\sigma_1^2$

Finally we want to remark that even if all assumptions of model (1) or (2) are satisfied, the analysis of variance estimator is not a desirable estimator for  $\sigma_1^2$ . The variance component  $\sigma_1^2$  is non-negative and one would prefer an estimator which can not give negative outcomes. The problem of negative outcomes of  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  stems from the demand of unbiasedness. In the theory of estimation, the estimators  $\underline{t}$  of a parameter  $\theta$  can be compared by the second moment with respect to  $\theta$ .

$$E(\underline{t} - \theta)^2 = \text{Var}(\underline{t}) + (E\underline{t} - \theta)^2.$$

If an estimator  $\underline{t}$  is unbiased, then  $E\underline{t} = \theta$  and  $E(\underline{t} - \theta)^2 = \text{Var}(\underline{t})$ . But there are many examples of estimators known, which have a smaller second moment than the minimum variance unbiased estimator. For example, the estimator  $\underline{\text{SSW}}/e$  for  $\sigma_2^2$  in model (2) has within the class of unbiased estimators minimal variance. Another estimator with smallest second moment with respect to  $\sigma_2^2$  is  $\underline{\text{SSW}}/(e + 2)$ . (For model (1) we can only say that  $\underline{\text{SSW}}/(e + 2)$  has smallest second moment within the class of all quadratic functions of the observations).

For the variance component  $\sigma_1^2$  an estimator with smaller second moment with respect to  $\sigma_1^2$  than the analysis of variance estimator  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  is the truncated estimator of  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ , that is the estimator

$$\begin{cases} (\underline{\text{MSB}} - \underline{\text{MSW}})/n_2 & \text{if } \underline{\text{MSB}} \geq \underline{\text{MSW}} \\ 0 & \text{if } \underline{\text{MSB}} < \underline{\text{MSW}}. \end{cases}$$

This truncated estimator is a biased, but non-negative estimator for  $\sigma_1^2$ , which has smaller second moment than  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ .

Another non-negative estimator for  $\sigma_1^2$ , which is also biased, is given by the maximum likelihood estimator. This estimator can only be calculated if the probability distributions of the random components in the model are completely specified, such as for example in model (2). The truncated  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$ -estimator can be used even in model (1). For another non-negative estimator see VERDOOREN (1980).

### Appendix: Kronecker Product

Let  $A = (a_{ij})$  and  $B = (b_{ij})$  be  $(m_1 \times m_2)$  and  $(n_1 \times n_2)$  matrices, respectively. Then the **KRONECKER** product  $A \times B = (a_{ij}b_{kl})$  is an  $(m_1 n_1 \times m_2 n_2)$  matrix expressible as a partitioned matrix with  $a_{ij}B$  as the  $(i, j)$ -th partition,  $i = 1, \dots, m_1$  and  $j = 1, \dots, m_2$ .

The following results are consequences of the definition (see e.g. NEUDECKER (1968) and RAO (1973)):

- a)  $O \times A = A \times O = O$  ( $O$  = zero matrix)
- b)  $(A_1 + A_2) \times B = (A_1 \times B) + (A_2 \times B)$
- c)  $A \times (B_1 + B_2) = (A \times B_1) + (A \times B_2)$
- d)  $aA \times bB = abA \times B$
- e)  $(A_1 A_2) \times (B_1 B_2) = (A_1 \times B_1) (A_2 \times B_2)$ , if the matrix products  $A_1 A_2$  and  $B_1 B_2$  exist.
- f)  $(A \times B)' = A' \times B'$

In case  $A$  and  $B$  are square of order  $(m \times m)$  and  $(n \times n)$  respectively the following results hold:

- (i)  $(A \times B)^{-1} = A^{-1} \times B^{-1}$ , if the inverses exist.
- (ii)  $(A \times B) (A^{-1} \times B^{-1}) = I_m \times I_n = I_{mn}$ , if the inverses exist.
- (iii) Let  $A$  have eigenvalues  $\alpha_i$ , eigencolumnvectors  $u_i$  and eigenrowvectors  $v_i'$  ( $i = 1, \dots, m$ ):

Let  $B$  have eigenvalues  $\beta_j$ , eigencolumnvectors  $w_j$  and eigenrowvectors  $z_j'$  ( $j = 1, \dots, n$ );

Then  $A \times B$  has eigenvalues  $\alpha_i \beta_j$ , eigencolumnvectors  $u_i \times w_j$  and eigenrowvectors  $v_i' \times z_j'$  ( $i = 1, \dots, m; j = 1, \dots, n$ ).

*Proof of (iii)*

Use result e):

$$\begin{aligned} (A \times B) (u_i \times w_j) &= (A u_i) \times (B w_j) = (\alpha_i u_i) \times (\beta_j w_j) = \alpha_i \beta_j (u_i \times w_j) . \\ (v_i' \times z_j') (A \times B) &= (v_i' A) \times (z_j' B) = (\alpha_i v_i') \times (\beta_j z_j') = \alpha_i \beta_j (v_i' \times z_j') . \end{aligned}$$

$$(iv) |A \times B| = |A|^n |B|^m$$

*Proof of (iv)*

$A \times B$  has eigenvalues  $\alpha_i \beta_j$  ( $i = 1, \dots, m; j = 1, \dots, n$ ). So

$$A \times B = \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \beta_j = \prod_{i=1}^m \left( \alpha_i^n \prod_{j=1}^n \beta_j \right) = \left( \prod_{i=1}^m \alpha_i^n \right) \left( \prod_{j=1}^n \beta_j^m \right) = |A|^n |B|^m.$$

$$(v) \operatorname{tr} (A \times B) = (\operatorname{tr} A)(\operatorname{tr} B)$$

*Proof of (v)*

$$\operatorname{tr} (A \times B) = \sum_i \sum_j \alpha_i \beta_j = \left( \sum_i \alpha_i \right) \left( \sum_j \beta_j \right) = (\operatorname{tr} A) (\operatorname{tr} B)$$

$$(vi) \varrho(A \times B) = \varrho(A) \cdot \varrho(B) \text{ where } \varrho(A) \text{ is the rank of } A.$$

*Proof of (vi)*

$\varrho(A)$  = number of non-zero eigenvalues  $\alpha_i$  of  $A$ ;  $\varrho(B)$  = number of non-zero eigenvalues  $\beta_j$  of  $B$ . Hence the number of non-zero eigenvalues  $\alpha_i \beta_j$  of  $A \times B$  is  $\varrho(A) \cdot \varrho(B)$ .

## Summary

Consider a balanced two-stage sampling scheme where the observations obey a random model. Under the assumption of normally distributed observations, the probability is given that the estimate of a variance component will be negative.

## Zusammenfassung

Es wurde eine balanzierte zwei-stufige Stichprobenerhebung betrachtet, wobei die Beobachtungen mittels eines stochastischen Modells beschrieben werden können. Vorausgesetzt, die Beobachtungen seien normal verteilt, so wird die Wahrscheinlichkeit gegeben, daß die Schätzung einer Varianzkomponente negativ ist.

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## CHAPTER 7

### 7. EXACT TESTS AND CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR VARIANCE RATIOS IN NESTED DESIGNS

#### PART II: CONTINUATION

#### 7.1. Introduction

In chapter 5 the onset of the author's research on exact tests in unbalanced two- and three-stage nested designs was given. A systematic derivation of the distribution of sums of squares in the Analysis of Variance table is given in section 7.2. For this derivation a fruitful use had been made of vectors, vector spaces and orthogonal projection of a vector on a vector space. The notions presented here are extensions of the concepts introduced in chapter 3.

Furthermore the author introduces, in section 7.2, a new exact test concerning the ratios of variance components in three-stage nested designs. For the three-stage nested design there are two interesting ratios of variance components,  $\rho_1 = \sigma_A^2/\sigma_e^2$  and  $\rho_2 = \sigma_B^2/\sigma_e^2$ , where  $\sigma_A^2$  and  $\sigma_B^2$  are the variance components in the first and second stages respectively, and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the error variance. The new test on  $H_{01}: \rho_1 = \rho_{10}$  against  $H_{11}: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$  depends on  $\rho_2$  and the author's approach is to test  $\rho_1$  after fixing  $\rho_2$ . In practice the researcher already has a priori knowledge about  $\rho_2$ ; a range of plausible  $\rho_2$  has already been estimated from previous experiments or can be found in the literature. The situation is the same in animal breeding, where the Best Linear Unbiased Prediction (BLUP) of breeding values depends on plausible values for ratios of variance components. These ratios are estimated (sometimes not so well) from previous experiments and are regularly updated.

In section 7.3 an example is given in which the performance of the new exact test is demonstrated.



7.2. Exact tests and confidence intervals for ratio of variance components in unbalanced two- and three-stage nested designs

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EXACT TESTS AND CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR RATIO OF VARIANCE  
COMPONENTS IN UNBALANCED TWO- AND THREE-STAGE NESTED DESIGNS

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ABSTRACT

For the unbalanced two-stage nested design an exact size  $\alpha$  test for  $H_0: \rho \leq \rho_0$  against  $H_1: \rho > \rho_0$  exists, where  $\rho = \sigma_B^2 / \sigma_e^2$  with  $\sigma_B^2$  the variance component in the first sampling stage and  $\sigma_e^2$  the error variance in the second stage. Using Wald's procedure one can construct an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for the ratio  $\rho$  of the variance components.

For the three-stage nested design there are two interesting ratios of variance components  $\rho_1 = \sigma_A^2 / \sigma_e^2$  and  $\rho_2 = \sigma_B^2 / \sigma_e^2$ , where  $\sigma_A^2$  and  $\sigma_B^2$  are the variance components in the first stage and

second stage respectively, and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the error variance. The construction of exact size  $\alpha$  tests and  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence intervals for  $\rho_2$  is no problem using the same procedure as for the two-stage nested design. In the balanced three-stage nested design an exact size  $\alpha$  test is well known for  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > 0$ . A test for  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$  exists but depends also on the parameter  $\rho_2$ . In the unbalanced three-stage nested design even the test for  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > 0$  depends also on  $\rho_2$ . Also an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  irrespective of  $\rho_2$  is not possible. Many approximate solutions were proposed in the past. One way to overcome this difficulty is to construct simultaneous confidence regions for  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ . In this paper a different solution will be proposed, which produces exact tests and confidence intervals for  $\rho_1$  given a certain value of  $\rho_2$ . The experimenter who is interested in a test or confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  decides beforehand in which range of  $\rho_2$  he is interested in his experiment to make decisions about  $\rho_1$ . Exact size  $\alpha$  tests and  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence intervals for  $\rho_1$  given a value of  $\rho_2$  are presented here.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Model and notations

For a sampling procedure in two stages we consider a large population. In the first sampling stage  $b$  samples are drawn at random from the population. In the second sampling stage  $n_i$  subsamples are drawn at random from the  $i$ -th sample.

In a balanced two-stage nested design the same number  $m$  of subsamples is drawn in the second stage from each sample, hence  $n_i = m$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, b$ . Let the observation made on the  $k$ -th subsample from the  $i$ -th sample be denoted by  $y_{ik}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, b$ . A linear model for the random variable  $y_{ik}$  is then as follows:

$$y_{ik} = \beta + u_i + e_{ik}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n_i; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, b. \quad (1)$$

The  $u_i$ 's and the  $e_{ij}$ 's have zero means and are statistically independent with  $\text{var}(u_i) = \sigma_B^2$  and  $\text{var}(e_{ik}) = \sigma_e^2$ . In the sequel we

make the assumption of normally distributed effects. Note that uncorrelated random effects in the case of joint normally distributed effects are equivalent to stochastic independence of the effects. A two-stage nested design is also called a one-way random model.

Let  $y$  be the column vector of all observations

$$\underline{y} = (y_{11}, \dots, y_{1n_1}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{2n_2}, \dots, y_{b1}, \dots, y_{bn_b})', \quad \text{then } \underline{y} \in R^n.$$

$$\text{with } n = \sum_{i=1}^b n_i, \quad \underline{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_b)' \in R^b, \quad \underline{e} = (e_{11}, \dots, e_{bn_b})' \in R^n.$$

The model can now be written as

$$\underline{y} = X\beta + Z\underline{u} + \underline{e} \quad (2)$$

where  $X$  is a  $n \times 1$ -column vector of ones,  $\underline{1}_n$ ,  $Z$  is an  $n \times b$  design

matrix related to the first sampling stage. Let  $\underline{1}_{n_i}$  be a column

vector of  $n_i$  ones then  $Z$  can be described as  $\text{diag}(\underline{1}_{n_1}, \underline{1}_{n_2}, \dots, \underline{1}_{n_b})$ ,

where  $\text{diag}$  means a diagonal block matrix. Let  $I_b$  be the  $b \times b$  identity matrix then  $\underline{u}$  has a multivariate normal distribution

$N(0, \sigma_B^2 I_b)$  and  $\underline{e}$  is  $N(0, \sigma_e^2 I_n)$ . The dispersion matrix of  $\underline{y}$  (or co-

variance matrix of  $\underline{y}$ ),  $D(\underline{y}) = E[(\underline{y} - E\underline{y})(\underline{y} - E\underline{y})']$  where  $E\underline{y} = \underline{1}_n \beta$

can be written as

$$D(\underline{y}) = E[(Z\underline{u} + \underline{e})(Z\underline{u} + \underline{e})'] = \sigma_B^2 Z Z' + \sigma_e^2 I_n = \sigma_e^2 (\rho Z Z' + I_n) = \sigma_e^2 V \quad (3).$$

with  $\rho = \sigma_B^2 / \sigma_e^2$ , the ratio of the variance components. Hence  $\underline{y}$  has a multivariate normal distribution  $N(\underline{1}_n, \beta, \sigma_e^2 V)$  with  $V$  depending on  $\rho$ .

Analogously we derive a model for a three-stage nested sampling procedure by taking a random sample of size  $a$  in the first sampling stage,  $b_h$  random subsamples from the  $h$ -th sample and  $n_{hi}$  random subsamples in the third sampling stage from the  $i$ -th subsample of the  $h$ -th sample. Let  $y_{hik}$  be the observation of the  $k$ -th subsample of the  $h$ -th subsample of the  $i$ -th sample ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n_{hi}$ ;  $i = 1, 2, \dots, b_h$ ;  $h = 1, 2, \dots, a$ ), then the linear model is

$$y_{hik} = \beta + u_{1h} + u_{2hi} + e_{hik} \quad (4)$$

with  $E u_{1h} = E u_{2hi} = E e_{hik} = 0$ ,  $\text{var}(u_{1h}) = \sigma_A^2$ ,  $\text{var}(u_{2hi}) = \sigma_B^2$ ,  $\text{var}(e_{hik}) = \sigma_e^2$ , and uncorrelated random effects  $u_{1h}$ ,  $u_{2hi}$ ,  $e_{hik}$ .

We again assume normally distributed random effects.

Let  $\underline{y}$  be the vector of observations in ordered form with last

index running first. We have

$$\underline{y} = X\beta + Z_1 \underline{u}_1 + Z_2 \underline{u}_2 + \underline{e} \quad (5)$$

where  $X = \underline{1}_{n..}$ ,  $n.. = \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} n_{hi}$ ;  $Z_1 = \text{diag}(\underline{1}_{n_1}, \dots, \underline{1}_{n_a})$  of order

$n.., x_a$ ,  $n_h = \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} n_{hi}$ ;  $Z_2 = \text{diag}(\underline{1}_{n_{11}}, \dots, \underline{1}_{n_{a1}})$  of order  $n.., x_{b..}$ ,

$b_{.} = \sum_{h=1}^a b_{h.}$ . Now  $\underline{u}_1$  is  $N(0, \sigma_A^2 \underline{I}_a)$ ,  $\underline{u}_2$  is  $N(0, \sigma_B^2 \underline{I}_{b.})$ ,  $\underline{e}$  is  $N(0, \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_{n..})$

and  $\underline{u}_1$ ,  $\underline{u}_2$  and  $\underline{e}$  are independent. Hence  $\underline{y}$  has a multivariate normal distribution  $N(\underline{1}_{n..} \beta, \sigma_e^2 V)$  with dispersion matrix

$$D(\underline{y}) = \sigma_e^2 V = \sigma_e^2 (\rho_1 \underline{Z}_1 \underline{Z}_1' + \rho_2 \underline{Z}_2 \underline{Z}_2' + \underline{I}_{n..}) \quad (6)$$

and with  $\rho_1 = \sigma_A^2 / \sigma_e^2$ ,  $\rho_2 = \sigma_B^2 / \sigma_e^2$ .

A three-stage nested design is called balanced if  $b_{h.} = m_1$  for  $h = 1, 2, \dots, a$  and  $n_{hi} = m_2$  for  $h = 1, 2, \dots, a$  and  $i = 1, 2, \dots, b_{h.}$ . The design is called partially balanced if  $n_{hi} = m_h$  for all  $i$ , but  $b_{h.}$  is not the same for all  $h = 1, 2, \dots, a$ .

When we look at the model (2) for a two-stage nested design and at model (5) for a three-stage nested design we see that these models are the simplest examples of a general mixed model

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\beta + \underline{Z}_1 \underline{u}_1 + \dots + \underline{Z}_k \underline{u}_k + \underline{e}$$

with  $D(\underline{y}) = \sigma_1^2 \underline{Z}_1 \underline{Z}_1' + \dots + \sigma_k^2 \underline{Z}_k \underline{Z}_k' + \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_{n..}$  .. where  $\sigma_i^2$  is the variance component belonging to the random effect vector  $\underline{u}_i$ .

## 1.2. Sum of Squares in the ANOVA-table

For the description of tests and confidence intervals for the ratio of variance components we need an analysis of variance table. We will describe the calculation of the sum of squares as the squares of projections of the observation vector  $\underline{y}$  on certain

subspaces.

For the two-stage nested design we have the observation vec-

tor  $\underline{y} \in R^{n \cdot}$  with  $n \cdot = \sum_{h=1}^b n_h$ . Let  $L$  be the column space of  $\underline{1}_n$ , and

$B$  the column space of  $Z$ . The dimension of the subspace  $L$ ,  $\dim L$ , equals the rank of  $\underline{1}_n$ , hence  $\dim L = 1$ ; also  $\dim B = b$ , the rank

of  $Z$ . Notice that  $L \subset B$  and define the subspace  $B^*$  as the intersection  $B \cap L^\perp$ , the orthogonal complement of  $L$  in  $B$ , with  $\dim B^* = b - 1$ . Let  $C$  be the orthogonal complement of  $B$  in  $R^{n \cdot}$  with  $\dim C = n \cdot - b$ . The space  $R^{n \cdot}$  is now decomposed into 3 orthogonal subspaces  $L$ ,  $B^*$  and  $C$ . Let  $P_L$  be the orthogonal projector of  $\underline{y}$  on  $B$ , then  $P_B = X(X'X)^{-1}X' = n^{-1} \underline{1}_n \underline{1}_n' = n^{-1} J_n$ , where  $J_n$  is

the  $n \times n$  matrix with elements 1. Let  $P_B$  be the orthogonal projector of  $\underline{y}$  on  $B$ , then  $P_B = Z(Z'Z)^{-1}Z' = \text{diag}(B_1, B_2, \dots, B_b)$  with

$B_i = n_i^{-1} J_{n_i}$ . The orthogonal projector of  $\underline{y}$  on  $B^*$  is now  $P_B - P_L$ .

The orthogonal projector of  $\underline{y}$  on  $C$  is

$P_C = I_n \cdot - P_B = \text{diag}(I_{n_1} - B_1, I_{n_2} - B_2, \dots, I_{n_b} - B_b)$ . Remark that a

projection matrix  $P$  is symmetric ( $P = P'$ ) and idempotent ( $P^2 = P$ ).

For a first-stage class,  $B_i$  is also a projection matrix on the space with base  $\underline{1}_{n_i}$ . We can decompose the vector  $\underline{y} \in R^{n \cdot}$  into three

orthogonal components  $P_L \underline{y}$ ,  $P_{B^*} \underline{y}$  and  $P_C \underline{y}$  and hence (Pythagorean

theorem) we have for the squared lengths of  $\underline{y}$  and its projections:

$$\tilde{y}'\tilde{y} = (P_{LY})'(P_{LY}) + (P_{B^*Y})'(P_{B^*Y}) + (P_{CY})'(P_{CY})$$

$$= \tilde{y}'P_{LY} + \tilde{y}'P_{B^*Y} + \tilde{y}'P_{CY}.$$

In the Analysis of Variance table (ANOVA table) this orthogonal decomposition is used. A Sum of Squares (SS) is the square of the length of a projection on a subspace and the degrees of freedom (df) associated with such SS is the dimension of the subspace.

The ANOVA-table for a two-stage nested design is

Source of variation	sub-space	dim df	Sum of Squares SS	Mean Squares MS
Between samples	$B^*$	$b-1$	$\tilde{y}'P_{B^*Y} = SSB$	$MSB = SSB/(b-1)$
Within samples= Error	$C$	$n-b$	$\tilde{y}'P_{CY} = SSE$	$MSE = SSE/(n-b)$
Corrected total	$L^\perp$	$n-1$	$\tilde{y}'\tilde{y} - \tilde{y}'P_{LY} = SST$	

$$\text{Calculations: } \tilde{y}'\tilde{y} = \sum_{i=1}^b \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} y_{ik}^2$$

$$\text{Correction term} = CT = \tilde{y}'P_{LY} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^b \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} y_{ik} \right)^2 / n;$$

$$SSB = \tilde{y}'P_{B^*Y} = \tilde{y}'P_{BY} - \tilde{y}'P_{LY} = \sum_{i=1}^b \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} y_{ik} \right)^2 / n_i - CT;$$



$$SSE = \tilde{y}' P_C \tilde{y} = (\tilde{y}' \tilde{y} - \tilde{y}' P_L \tilde{y}) - \tilde{y}' P_{B^*} \tilde{y} = \tilde{y}' \tilde{y} - \tilde{y}' P_B \tilde{y}.$$

Analogously for the three-stage nested design we have the

observation vector  $\tilde{y} \in R^{n_{..}}$  with  $n_{..} = \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} n_{hi}$ , with space

$L =$  column space of  $1_{n_{..}}$ ,  $A =$  column space of  $Z_1$ ,  $B =$  column

space of  $Z_2$ .

Notice that  $L \subset A \subset B$  and define  $A^* = A \cap L^\perp$ ,  $B^* = B \cap A^\perp$  hence

$\dim L = 1$ ,  $\dim A^* = a-1$ ,  $\dim B^* = b_{..} - a$  with  $b_{..} = \sum_{h=1}^a b_h$ . Let  $C$  be

the orthogonal complement of  $B$  in  $R^{n_{..}}$ , hence  $\dim C = n_{..} - b_{..}$ .

The matrices  $P_L$ ,  $P_{A^*}$ ,  $P_{B^*}$  and  $P_C$  are the orthogonal projectors on the spaces  $L$ ,  $A^*$ ,  $B^*$  and  $C$  respectively.

Because  $L$ ,  $A^*$ ,  $B^*$  and  $C$  are orthogonal the following decomposition holds:

$$\tilde{y}' \tilde{y} = \tilde{y}' P_L \tilde{y} + \tilde{y}' P_{A^*} \tilde{y} + \tilde{y}' P_{B^*} \tilde{y} + \tilde{y}' P_C \tilde{y}.$$

Furthermore  $P_L = 1_{n_{..}} (1_{n_{..}}' 1_{n_{..}})^{-1} 1_{n_{..}}' = n_{..}^{-1} J_{n_{..}}$ ;

$$P_A = Z_1 (Z_1' Z_1)^{-1} Z_1' = \text{diag}(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_a)$$

where  $A_h = n_{h.}^{-1} J_{n_{h.}}$  is symmetric and idempotent;  $P_{A^*} = P_A - P_L$ ;

$$P_B = Z_2 (Z_2' Z_2)^{-1} Z_2' = \text{diag}(B_{11}, \dots, B_{1b_1}, \dots, B_{a1}, \dots, B_{ab_a})$$

where  $B_{hi} = n_{hi}^{-1} J_{n_{hi}}$  is symmetric and idempotent;

$$P_{B^*} = P_B - P_A; P_C = I_{n_{..}} - P_B = \text{diag}(I_{11} - B_{11}, \dots, I_{ab_a} - B_{ab_a}).$$

The ANOVA table for a three-stage nested design is

Source of variation	sub-space	dim df	Sum of Squares SS	Mean Square MS
Between first-stage samples	$A^*$	$a-1$	$\tilde{y}'P_{A^*}\tilde{y} = SSA$	$MSA$
Between second-stage within first-stage samples	$B^*$	$b_{.}-a$	$\tilde{y}'P_{B^*}\tilde{y} = SSB$	$MSB$
Error	$C$	$n_{..}-b_{.}$	$\tilde{y}'P_C\tilde{y} = SSE$	$MSE$
Corrected total	$L^\perp$	$n_{..}-1$	$\tilde{y}'\tilde{y}-\tilde{y}'P_L\tilde{y} = SST$	

$$\text{Calculations: } \tilde{y}'\tilde{y} = \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ih}} y_{hik}^2;$$

$$CT = \tilde{y}'P_L\tilde{y} = \left( \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{ih}} y_{hik} \right)^2 / n_{..};$$

$$SSA = \tilde{y}'P_{A^*}\tilde{y} = \tilde{y}'P_{A\tilde{y}} - \tilde{y}'P_L\tilde{y} = \sum_{h=1}^a \left( \sum_{i,k} y_{hik} \right)^2 / n_{h.} - CT;$$

$$SSB = \tilde{y}'P_{B^*}\tilde{y} = \tilde{y}'P_{B\tilde{y}} - \tilde{y}'P_{A\tilde{y}} = \sum_h \sum_i \left( \sum_k y_{hik} \right)^2 / n_{hi} - \tilde{y}'P_{A\tilde{y}};$$

$$SSE = \tilde{y}'P_C\tilde{y} = (\tilde{y}'\tilde{y} - \tilde{y}'P_L\tilde{y}) - \tilde{y}'P_{A^*}\tilde{y} - \tilde{y}'P_{B^*}\tilde{y} = \tilde{y}'\tilde{y} - \tilde{y}'P_{B\tilde{y}}.$$

### 1.3. Distribution of Sum of Squares

For the derivation of the distribution of the test statistics we need the distribution of Sum of Squares in the ANOVA table. A

short review of the basic facts will be given now. For more details we refer to Searle (1971), Rao (1973) or Graybill (1976). Let  $\underline{y}$  be  $N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$  and let the matrix  $A$  be a non-negative matrix,

then the quadratic form  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y}$  can be written as  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma^2 z_i^2$  with  $z_i$

independent  $N(0,1)$  random variables and  $\lambda_i$  the  $k$  positive eigen-

values of  $A$ . Hence  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y} = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma^2 S_i^2$  where  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi^2$

random variables with 1 degree of freedom,  $\chi^2(1)$ . If  $P_A$  is a pro-

jection matrix ( $P_A = P_A'$ ,  $P_A^2 = P_A$ ) on a subspace  $A$  of  $R^n$  with  $\dim A = k$ , then  $P_A$  has  $k$  eigenvalues equal to 1 and  $n-k$  eigenvalues equal to 0. The quadratic form  $\underline{y}'P_A\underline{y}$  can now be written as

$\sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^k S_i^2$  where  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi^2(1)$  random variables, which is

a multiple of a  $\chi^2$ -variable with  $k$  df. Let now  $\underline{y}$  be  $N(X\beta, \sigma^2 V)$ ,

$\beta \in RP$ , where  $V$  is a  $n \times n$  positive definite matrix, and let rank  $X$  be  $k \leq p$ , then  $\underline{y} = X\underline{\beta} + \sigma V^{\frac{1}{2}}\underline{x}$  with  $\underline{x}$  is  $N(0, I_n)$ . ( $V^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is a non-

singular symmetric matrix such that  $(V^{\frac{1}{2}})(V^{\frac{1}{2}}) = V$ ; if  $HH' = H'H = I_n$  and  $H'VH = \Lambda$ ,  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$  with  $\lambda_i > 0$ , then  $V^{\frac{1}{2}} = H\Lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}H'$  with  $\Lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} = \text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_n})$ ).

Let  $A$  be the orthogonal complement of the column space of  $X$  then  $\dim A = n-k$ . Let  $P_A$  be the orthogonal projector on  $A$ , then  $P_A X = 0$  and  $P_A = I_n - X(X'X)^{-}X'$ , where  $(X'X)^{-}$  is a generalized

inverse of  $X'X$  such that  $(X'X)(X'X)^{-}(X'X) = X'X$ . Now let us con-

sider the quadratic form

$$\tilde{y}' P_A \tilde{y} = (\tilde{X}\beta + \sigma \tilde{V}^{1/2} \tilde{x})' P_A (\tilde{X}\beta + \sigma \tilde{V}^{1/2} \tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}' \sigma^2 \tilde{V}^{1/2} P_A \tilde{V}^{1/2} \tilde{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-k} \lambda_i \sigma^2 S_i^2,$$

where  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables and  $\lambda_i$  are the non-zero eigenvalues of  $\tilde{V}^{1/2} P_A \tilde{V}^{1/2}$ . The set of positive eigenvalues of  $\tilde{V}^{1/2} P_A \tilde{V}^{1/2}$  is the same as that of  $V P_A$  or  $P_A V$ .

In the ANOVA table for nested designs a Sum of Squares is of the form  $\tilde{y}' P_D \tilde{y}$  with  $P_D$  a projection matrix such that  $P_D \tilde{X} = 0$ ,

hence  $\tilde{y}' P_D \tilde{y}$  is distributed as a linear combination of  $d$  indepen-

dent chi-square variables with one degree of freedom, where  $d$  is the rank of  $P_D$  or  $\dim D = d$ .

We also consider general quadratic forms  $\tilde{y}' Q \tilde{y}$  where

$Q \tilde{X} = 0$  with  $Q$  symmetric but not necessarily semi-positive defi-

nite. The distribution of  $\tilde{y}' Q \tilde{y}$  is that of  $\sum_{i=1}^q \lambda_i \sigma^2 S_i^2$  where  $\lambda_i$  are

the non-zero (positive and negative) eigenvalues of  $\tilde{V}^{1/2} Q \tilde{V}^{1/2}$  or equivalently of  $V Q$  or  $Q V$ ,  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi^2(1)$  random variables.

#### 1.4. Eigenvalues of the dispersion matrix $D(\tilde{y})$

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The dispersion matrix  $D(\tilde{y})$  for the two-stage nested design is given in (3):

$$D(\tilde{y}) = \sigma_e^2 (\rho Z Z' + I_n) = \sigma_e^2 V. \text{ But } V = \text{diag}(V_1, V_2, \dots, V_b) \text{ where}$$

$$V_i = \rho J_{n_i} + I_{n_i} = \rho n_i B_i + B_i + I_{n_i} - B_i = (1 + \rho n_i) B_i + (I_{n_i} - B_i)$$

where  $B_i$  and  $I_{n_i} - B_i$  are idempotent matrices with  $B_i = n_i^{-1} J_{n_i}$  ( $i=1, \dots, b$ ); and  $B_i(I_{n_i} - B_i) = 0$ , the zero-matrix.

Hence  $V_i$  has one eigenvalue  $(1 + \rho n_i)$  for eigenvector  $\underline{1}_{n_i}$  and  $n_i - 1$

eigenvalues 1 with eigenvectors belonging to the orthogonal complement of the space spanned by  $\underline{1}_{n_i}$ . Hence  $V$  has in total  $b$

eigenvalues  $1 + \rho n_1, \dots, 1 + \rho n_b$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^b (n_i - 1)$  eigenvalues 1. We

have now written  $V$  in the spectral form as:

$$V = \text{diag}(V_1, V_2, \dots, V_b) \text{ with } V_i = (1 + \rho n_i) B_i + 1(I_{n_i} - B_i) \quad (7)$$

$$\text{hence } V_i^{\frac{1}{2}} = (1 + \rho n_i)^{\frac{1}{2}} B_i + 1^{\frac{1}{2}} (I_{n_i} - B_i)$$

$$\text{and } V_i^{-1} = (1 + \rho n_i)^{-1} B_i + 1^{-1} (I_{n_i} - B_i).$$

$$\text{Finally } V^{\frac{1}{2}} = \text{diag}(V_1^{\frac{1}{2}}, \dots, V_b^{\frac{1}{2}}) \text{ and } V^{-1} = \text{diag}(V_1^{-1}, \dots, V_b^{-1}).$$

The dispersion matrix  $D(y)$  for the three-stage nested design

$$\text{is given in (6): } D(y) = \sigma_e^2 (\rho_1 Z_1 Z_1' + \rho_2 Z_2 Z_2' + I_{n..}) = \sigma_e^2 V.$$

But  $V = \text{diag}(V_1, V_2, \dots, V_a)$  where

$$V_h = \rho_1 J_{n_h} + \rho_2 \text{diag}(J_{n_{h1}}, \dots, J_{n_{hb_h}}) + I_{n_h}. \quad (8)$$

$$= \rho_1 n_h A_h + \rho_2 \text{diag}(n_{h1} B_{h1}, \dots, n_{hb_h} B_{hb_h}) + I_{n_h}.$$

with symmetric and idempotent matrices  $A_h = n_h^{-1} J_{n_h}$ ,

$$B_{hi} = n_{hi}^{-1} J_{n_{hi}}, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, b; h = 1, 2, \dots, a).$$

For the balanced three-stage nested design  $n_{hi} = m_2$ ,  $b_i = m_1$ ,  
 $n_h = m_1 m_2$  and  $V_h = \rho_1 m_1 m_2 A + \rho_2 m_2 \text{diag}(B, \dots, B) + I_{m_1 m_2}$

where  $A = (m_1 m_2)^{-1} J_{m_1 m_2}$ ,  $B = m_2^{-1} J_{m_2}$ , hence

$$V_h = (1 + m_2 \rho_2 + m_1 m_2 \rho_1) A + (1 + m_2 \rho_2) [\text{diag}(B, \dots, B) - A] + [I_{m_1 m_2} - \text{diag}(B, \dots, B)].$$

The three matrices in  $V_h$  are symmetric and idempotent and the product of each two is zero. The coefficients of these three matrices are the eigenvalues of  $V_h$  where the eigenvalue  $(1 + m_2 \rho_2 + m_1 m_2 \rho_1)$  has multiplicity 1,  $(1 + m_2 \rho_2)$  has multiplicity  $m_1 - 1$  and 1 has multiplicity  $m_1(m_2 - 1)$ . The matrix  $V$  has the same eigenvalues repeated  $a$  times. Hence in the balanced case we

can easily find  $V_h^{-1}$  or  $V_h^{\frac{1}{2}}$  and thus  $V^{-1}$  or  $V^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

This nice structure of  $D(y)$  in the nested design has also

been used by e.g. Fuller and Battese (1973). See also LaMotte (1972) for a nice representation of  $V^{-1}$ .

## 2. TWO-STAGE NESTED DESIGNS

### 2.1. Balanced case

In the model (1) we have the situation

$$y_{ik} = \beta + u_i + e_{ik} \quad \text{with } i = 1, 2, \dots, b; k = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

for each  $i$ . With the tools of chapter 1 we can readily derive

$$SSB = \tilde{y}' P_B \tilde{y} \quad \text{and} \quad P_B \tilde{V} = (P_B - P_L) \text{diag}(V_1, V_2, \dots, V_b)$$

with  $P_B = \text{diag}(B_1, \dots, B_b) = \text{diag}(B, B, \dots, B)$ ,  $B = m^{-1}J_m$ ;

$$V_i = (1+\rho m)B + (I_m - B) = W \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, b; P_L = (bm)^{-1}J_{bm}.$$

In the balanced case we can use also the direct (or Kronecker) product  $\times$  of two matrices. Properties of direct products can be found in Neudecker (1968), Rao (1973) or Khuri (1982).

In our case  $P_B = I_b \times B$ ,  $V = I_b \times W$  thus

$$(P_B - P_L)V = (1+\rho m)(P_B - P_L) = (1+\rho m)P_{B*}. \text{ Hence } SSB = \tilde{y}'P_{B*}\tilde{y} \text{ is}$$

distributed as  $\sigma_e^2(1+\rho m)\chi^2(b-1)$ . In the same way we derive

$$SSE = \tilde{y}'P_C\tilde{y} \text{ is distributed as } \sigma_e^2\chi^2(b(m-1)). \text{ Furthermore } SSB \text{ and}$$

$SSE$  are stochastically independent because

$$P_{B*}D(\tilde{y})P_C = \sigma_e^2 P_{B*}VP_C = 0 \quad (\text{see Searle (1971)}).$$

Hence  $MSB/MSE$  has a  $(1+\rho m)F$ -distribution with  $b-1$  and  $b(m-1)$  df.

For the test of  $H_0: \rho = 0$  against  $H_1: \rho > 0$  (with  $\rho = \sigma_B^2/\sigma_e^2$ ) we calculate the test statistic  $MSB/MSE$ . We reject  $H_0$  at significance level  $\alpha$  if  $MSB/MSE > F(1-\alpha; b-1, b(m-1))$ , the  $(1-\alpha)$ -distribution point of  $F(b-1, b(m-1))$ . For the test of  $H_0: \rho \leq \rho_0$  against  $H_1: \rho > \rho_0$  we must calculate the test statistic  $(1+\rho_0 m)^{-1}MSB/MSE$ , which has under  $H_0$  again an  $F(b-1, b(m-1))$ -distribution. This test is UMP invariant with respect to a group of transformations generated by translations and scale transformations. Also the test is UMP unbiased of size  $\alpha$  (see Lehmann (1959) or Herbach (1959)); for mixed models containing random effects which are ordered hierarchically see Spjøtvoll (1966) and Roebuck (1982).

For the sequel we notice that this test statistic  $(1+\rho_0 m)^{-1}MSB/MSE$  is equivalent to  $MSB(\rho_0)/MSE(\rho_0)$  where

$$MSB(\rho_0) = \tilde{y}' P_B [V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_B \tilde{y} / (b-1) \text{ and}$$

$$MSE(\rho_0) = \tilde{y}' P_C [V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_C \tilde{y} / (b(m-1)) \text{ and } \sigma_e^2 V(\rho_0) \text{ is the dispersion}$$

matrix of  $\tilde{y}$  with  $\rho = \rho_0$  or  $V(\rho_0) = I_b \times [(1+\rho_0 m)B + (I_m - B)]$ . It

follows readily that

$$\tilde{y}' P_B [V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_B \tilde{y} = \tilde{y}' P_B \tilde{y} / (1+\rho_0 m)$$

and

$$\tilde{y}' P_C [V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_C \tilde{y} = \tilde{y}' P_C \tilde{y}.$$

An exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho$  now follows from  $(1+\rho m)^{-1}(MSB/MSE)$  which has an  $F(b-1, b(m-1))$ -distribution. Let  $F_1 = F(\alpha/2; b-1, b(m-1))$  and  $F_2 = F(1-\alpha/2; b-1, b(m-1))$  be the  $\alpha/2$  and  $1-\alpha/2$  points of the distribution function of  $F(b-1, b(m-1))$  respectively. Then a  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho$ , which is uniformly most accurate invariant is given by:

$$[F_2^{-1}(MSB/MSE) - 1]/m < \rho < [F_1^{-1}(MSB/MSE) - 1]/m.$$

## 2.2. Unbalanced case

Recall model (1) which is

$$y_{ik} = \beta + u_i + e_{ik} \text{ with } k = 1, 2, \dots, n_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, b.$$

Lehmann (1959) already mentioned that for the unbalanced case there is no UMP invariant test. Spjøtvoll (1967) found that for the problem of testing  $H_0: \rho \leq \rho_0$  against  $H_1: \rho = \rho_1$  ( $\rho > \rho_0$ ) the most powerful similar invariant test depends upon the value of  $\rho_1$ . His test statistic is



$$W(\rho_0, \rho_1) = \frac{\tilde{y}' P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_{B*} \tilde{y} - \tilde{y}' P_{B*}[V(\rho_1)]^{-1} P_{B*} \tilde{y}}{\tilde{y}' P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_{B*} \tilde{y} + \tilde{y}' P_{C\tilde{y}}}$$

where  $V(\rho_0)$  and  $V(\rho_1)$  are the matrices  $\rho ZZ' + I_n$ , with  $\rho = \rho_0$  and  $\rho = \rho_1$  respectively. This test has the property of maximizing the minimal power over the set of alternatives with  $\rho \geq \rho_1$ . To get a size  $\alpha$  test a constant  $c$  must be determined such that  $P_0(W(\rho_0, \rho_1) > c) = \alpha$ . For the case under  $H_1: \rho_1 \rightarrow \infty$  (test against large  $\rho_1$ ) the sum of squares is  $\tilde{y}' P_{B*}[V(\rho_1)]^{-1} P_{B*} \tilde{y} \rightarrow 0$ . To reject

the  $H_0$  when  $W(\rho_0, \infty)$  is large is the same as to reject  $H_0$  when

$$T(\rho_0) = \tilde{y}' P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1} P_{B*} \tilde{y} / \tilde{y}' P_{C\tilde{y}} > \text{constant } c'.$$

Using the results of section 1.4 it can easily be derived that

$$W(\rho_0, \rho_1) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^b g_{i0} (\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_0)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^b g_{i1} (\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^b g_{i0} (\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_0)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^b \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} (y_{ik} - \bar{y}_{i.})^2}$$

where  $g_{ij} = n_i / (\rho_j n_i + 1)$ ,  $\bar{y}_j = \sum_{i=1}^b g_{ij} \bar{y}_{i.} / \sum_{i=1}^b g_{ij}$  for  $j = 0$  and  $1$ , and

$$\bar{y}_{i.} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} y_{ik} / n_i; \text{ hence } T(\rho_0) = \sum_{i=1}^b g_{i0} (\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_0)^2 / \sum_{i=1}^b \sum_{k=1}^{n_i} (y_{ik} - \bar{y}_{i.})^2.$$

To calculate  $P(W(\rho_0, \rho_1) > c)$  we note that  $W(\rho_0, \rho_1) > c$  is equivalent to

$$\underline{y}'[P_{B*}((1-c)[V(\rho_0)]^{-1} - [V(\rho_1)]^{-1})P_{B*} - cP_C]\underline{y} > 0$$

$$\text{or } \underline{y}'\underline{Qy} > 0 = \underline{y}'\underline{Qy}/\sigma_e^2 > 0.$$

The distribution of  $\underline{y}'\underline{Qy}/\sigma_e^2$  is that of a linear combination of

independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables with positive and negative coefficients, where the coefficients are the eigenvalues of  $QV(\rho_0)$  under  $H_0$  (for calculating the P-value) and of  $QV(\rho_1)$  under  $H_1$  (for calculating the power function). The distribution of  $T(\rho_0)$  at  $\rho = \rho_0$  is easily found. The numerator  $\underline{y}'P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1}P_{B*}\underline{y}$  is

a linear combination of independent  $\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(1)$  variables with coefficients the eigenvalues of  $P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1}P_{B*}V(\rho_0)$ , which turns

out to be  $P_{B*}$ ; hence the numerator is a  $\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(b-1)$  variable.

Furthermore the numerator and denominator of  $T(\rho_0)$  are independent under  $H_0$  because their covariance is zero, which follows from

$$P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1}P_{B*}V(\rho_0)P_C = P_{B*}P_C = 0.$$

Hence  $(n-b)T(\rho_0)/(b-1)$  has under  $H_0$  an  $F(b-1, n-b)$ -distribution. Note that

$$\underline{y}'P_C[V(\rho_0)]^{-1}P_C\underline{y} = \underline{y}'P_C\underline{y} \text{ and is a } \sigma_e^2 \chi^2(n-b) \text{ variable.}$$

We have again as test statistic  $MSB(\rho_0)/MSE(\rho_0)$  as in the balanced case. For the power calculations at  $\rho = \rho_1$ :  $P(T(\rho_0) > c) =$

$$P(\underline{y}'[P_{B*}[V(\rho_0)]^{-1}P_{B*} - cP_C]\underline{y} > 0) = P(\underline{y}'\underline{Qy} > 0) = P(\underline{y}'\underline{Qy}/\sigma_e^2 > 0),$$

where  $\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y}/\sigma_e^2$  has the distribution of  $\sum_{i=1}^q \lambda_i S_i^2$ , where  $S_i^2$  are inde-

pendent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables and  $\lambda_i$  are the positive and negative eigenvalues of  $QV(\rho_1)$  and  $q = \text{rank } Q$ .

Spjøtvoll (1968) gives several examples of the exact power function calculations of the test statistics  $W$  and  $T$  for the hypothesis  $\rho = 0$  against  $\rho = 0.1$  at the 1% level for the special case he was able to tackle, viz. the unbalanced two-stage design (one-way lay-out) with  $b = 3$  classes only.

Verdooren (1974) shows how the exact P-values and power function of unbalanced one-way lay-out in general (thus also for more than three classes) can be calculated. The calculation of  $P(\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y}/\sigma_e^2 > c)$  can be handled with the procedure of Imhof (1961).

He shows that the distribution function of  $\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y}/\sigma_e^2$  can be

obtained quite easily by straightforward numerical integration of the characteristic function of  $\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y}/\sigma_e^2$ . A computer program in

FORTRAN was given by Koerts and Abrahamse (1969). With this program fast numerical calculation of the distribution function of a linear combination of independent (non-)central chi-square variables with positive and negative coefficients is possible. Another good program in ALGOL is given by Davies (1980) and Farebrother (1980), (1984a). The Koerts and Abrahamse program can in most cases be used, see Farebrother (1984b). For examples of calculations see Verdooren (1974) and Verdooren (1982).

Wald (1940, 1947) and also Spjøtvoll (1967) use  $T(\rho)$  for constructing an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho$ . The lower confidence limit  $\rho_L$  of  $\rho$  is given by the root of the following equation in  $\rho$ ,

$$(n_+ - b)T/(b-1) = F(1-\alpha/2; b-1, n_+ - b)$$

and the upper confidence limit  $p_U$  of  $p$  is given by the root of the equation in  $p$ :

$$(n_{\cdot}-b)T/(b-1) = F(\alpha/2; b-1, n_{\cdot}-b).$$

The construction of this exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $p$  can only be solved iteratively, which can easily be programmed, see Verdooren (1976). For an approximate  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $p$  based on an approximation of  $T(p)$  see Thomas and Hultquist (1978). At the present time however, the calculation for an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval is so easy, that we would use the procedure of Thomas and Hultquist only as a starting point for the iterative calculation of an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval.

The upper bound  $p_U$  can be negative which is contrary to the model assumptions. This happens when  $(n_{\cdot}-b)T(0)/(b-1)$  is smaller than  $F(\alpha/2; b-1, n_{\cdot}-b)$ . Seely and El-Bassiouni (1983) prove that the probability that  $p_U$  is negative is at most  $\alpha/2$  and goes to zero as  $p$  gets large. To avoid the possibility of negative end-points, one can use an adjusted interval suggested by Thompson (1955). This confidence interval for  $p$  is  $[\max(0, p_L), \max(0, p_U)]$  which has confidence level  $1-\alpha$  for  $p > 0$  and  $1-\alpha/2$  for  $p = 0$ .

A locally most powerful test for  $H_0: p = p_0$  against  $H_1: p = p_0 + \Delta$ , where  $\Delta$  is small, is given by Mostafa (1967). His power calculations are not exact but based on approximations. With Imhof's procedure exact results can be given.

Recently, Seely and El-Bassiouni (1983) were able to obtain Wald's (1947) exact test via reductions in sums of squares for the random effects adjusted for the fixed effects in a general mixed model. They also gave necessary and sufficient conditions under Wald's test, which can be used in mixed models. Harville and Fenech (1985) outlined the computational aspects of Seely and El-Bassiouni's method in the context of a specific animal breeding application.

A computational remark can however be made. By calculating Wald's exact test via reductions in sums of squares, our method given

here by calculating the sum of squares as squares of projections, gives a more rapid and lucidly interpreted result. Seely et al. (1983) and Harville et al. (1985) use a linear transformation of  $\tilde{y}$  which is not a projection operator. Their linear transformations can however be easily transformed to projection operators.

### 3. THREE-STAGE NESTED DESIGN

#### 3.1. Balanced case

In the model (4) we have the situation

$$y_{hik} = \beta + u_{1h} + u_{2hi} + e_{hik}$$

with  $h = 1, 2, \dots, a$ ;  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m_1$  for each  $h$  and  $k = 1, 2, \dots, m_2$  for each  $h$  and  $i$ . With the tools of chapter 1 we readily derive the distribution of  $SSA = \tilde{y}' P_{A^*} \tilde{y}$ ,  $SSB = \tilde{y}' P_{B^*} \tilde{y}$  and  $SSE = \tilde{y}' P_C \tilde{y}$ .

In the balanced case we have seen in 1.4:  $P_A = I_a \times A$ ,  $P_{A^*} = P_A - P_L$ ,  $P_B = I_{am_1} \times B$ ,  $P_{B^*} = P_B - P_A$ ;  $P_C = I_{am_1 m_2} - P_B$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are symmetric and idempotent matrices with  $A = (m_1 m_2)^{-1} J_{m_1 m_2}$  and  $B = m_2^{-1} J_{m_2}$ . The dispersion matrix  $D(\tilde{y}) = \sigma_e^2 V$

with  $V = I_a \times W$  with  $W = \rho_1 J_{m_1 m_2} + \rho_2 I_{m_1} \times J_{m_2} + I_{m_1 m_2}$ .

For the distribution of  $SSA = \tilde{y}' P_{A^*} \tilde{y}$  we need the eigenvalues of

$$P_{A^*} V = (m_1 m_2 \rho_1 + m_2 \rho_2 + 1) P_{A^*}.$$

Because  $P_{A^*}$  is a projection operator on  $A^*$  it has rank

$P_{A^*} = \dim A^* = a-1$ . So  $a-1$  eigenvalues are 1 and the other eigenvalues are 0. SSA has therefore the distribution of

$$\sigma_e^2(m_1 m_2 \rho_1 + m_2 \rho_2 + 1) \chi^2(a-1).$$

Analogously we derive the eigenvalues of  $P_{B^*} V = (m_2 \rho_2 + 1) P_{B^*}$ . Because  $P_{B^*}$  is a projection operator on  $B^*$  it has rank  $P_{B^*} = \dim B^* = a(m_1 - 1)$ . So  $a(m_1 - 1)$  eigenvalues are 1 and the other eigenvalues are 0. SSB has therefore the distribution of  $\sigma_e^2(m_2 \rho_2 + 1) \chi^2(a(m_1 - 1))$ . Also  $P_C V = P_C$ . Hence SSE has a

$$\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(am_1(m_2 - 1))\text{-distribution because rank } P_C = \dim C = am_1(m_2 - 1).$$

Because  $P_{A^*} V P_{B^*} = (m_1 m_2 \rho_1 + m_2 \rho_2 + 1) P_{A^*} P_{B^*} = 0$ , SSA and SSB are independent. Also  $P_{A^*} V P_C = (m_1 m_2 \rho_1 + m_2 \rho_2 + 1) P_{A^*} P_C = 0$  and  $P_{B^*} V P_C = (m_2 \rho_2 + 1) P_{B^*} P_C = 0$  hence SSA, SSB are mutually independent. Hence MSB/MSE has a  $(1 + m_2 \rho_2) F$ -distribution with  $a(m_1 - 1)$  and  $am_1(m_2 - 1)$  degrees of freedom respectively.

For the test of  $H_0: \rho_2 = 0$  against  $H_1: \rho_2 > 0$  we reject  $H_0$  at significance level  $\alpha$  if  $MSB/MSE > F(1-\alpha; a(m_1 - 1), am_1(m_2 - 1))$ . This was the special case  $\rho_{20} = 0$ ; now we consider the general case.

For the test of  $H_0: \rho_2 \leq \rho_{20}$  against  $H_1: \rho_2 > \rho_{20}$  the test statistic  $(1 + m_2 \rho_{20})^{-1} MSB/MSE$  is used, which has under  $H_0$  again an  $F(a(m_1 - 1), am_1(m_2 - 1))$ -distribution. The argument for deriving this test is completely analogous to the argument used in section 2.1, which shows that we have a UMP unbiased size  $\alpha$  test. Notice again that we can use the information about  $\rho_2$  under  $H_0$  to calculate

$$\tilde{y}' P_{B^*} [V(\rho_{20})]^{-1} P_{B^*} \tilde{y} = (1 + m_2 \rho_{20})^{-1} \tilde{y}' P_{B^*} \tilde{y}$$

and

$$\tilde{y}' P_C [V(\rho_{20})]^{-1} P_C \tilde{y} = \tilde{y}' P_C \tilde{y}.$$

The test statistic is hence equivalent to  $MSB(\rho_{20})/MSE(\rho_{20})$ .

An exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_2$  now follows from  $(1+m_2\rho_2)^{-1}(\text{MSB}/\text{MSE})$ , which has an  $F(a(m_1-1), am_1(m_2-1))$ -distribution, just as in section 2.1.

For the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > 0$  we use the fact that  $\text{MSA}/\text{MSB}$  has the distribution of

$$[(1+m_2\rho_2+m_1m_2\rho_1)/(1+m_2\rho_2)]F(a-1, a(m_1-1)),$$

which has under  $H_0$  an  $F(a-1, a(m_1-1))$  distribution.

For the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$  the test statistic  $\text{MSA}/\text{MSB}$  has the distribution of

$$[1+m_1m_2\rho_{10}/(1+m_2\rho_2)]F(a-1, a(m_1-1)) \text{ under } H_0.$$

This distribution depends on the nuisance parameter  $\rho_2$ !

Let us use the information about the dispersion matrix  $D(y)$  for  $\rho_1 = \rho_{10}$ ,

$$D(y|\rho_{10}) = \sigma_e^2[\rho_{10}Z_1Z_1' + \rho_2Z_2Z_2' + I_{am_1m_2}] = \sigma_e^2V(\rho_{10}).$$

We calculate  $\text{SSA}(\rho_{10}) = y'P_A^*[V(\rho_{10})]^{-1}P_A^*y$  which is equal to

$$(1+m_2\rho_2+m_1m_2\rho_{10})^{-1}y'P_A^*y.$$

$$\text{Also } \text{SSB}(\rho_{10}) = y'P_B^*[V(\rho_{10})]^{-1}P_B^*y = (1+m_2\rho_2)^{-1}y'P_B^*y.$$

If we use as a test statistic  $\text{MSA}(\rho_{10})/\text{MSB}(\rho_{10})$  we get  $[1+m_1m_2\rho_{10}/(1+m_2\rho_2)]^{-1}\text{MSA}/\text{MSB}$  and this has an  $F(a-1, a(m_1-1))$ -distribution. But the test statistic depends on the nuisance parameter  $\rho_2$ .

Also the construction of an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  depends on the value of  $\rho_2$ .

Several proposals are made to solve this problem from which we mention some interesting ones. Broemeling (1969) gives a

simultaneous confidence region for  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  from which an upper bound and lower bound respectively can be found for  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  separately. By projecting on the  $\rho_1$  axis an upper bound and lower bound respectively for  $\rho_1$  can be found. These bounds are conservative. How to find the exact confidence coefficients associated with Broemeling's confidence regions for  $(\rho_1, \rho_2)$  is demonstrated by Sahai and Anderson (1973) in terms of the upper tail of the inverted Dirichlet distribution. A computer program for calculating the upper tail of the inverted Dirichlet distribution is given by Yassaee (1976). An extension of the results of Sahai and Anderson (1973) is given by Yassaee (1981).

Broemeling (1978) proposed a confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  based on a two-sided version of the simultaneous confidence region of  $(\rho_1, \rho_2)$ . Unfortunately this proposal was wrong, as Tong (1979) proved.

Khuri (1981) presented a technique for the construction of simultaneous confidence intervals for the values of all continuous functions of the variance components for a general balanced random model. For the balanced three-stage nested design an approximate  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  is given by Graybill and Wang (1979) and Wang and Graybill (1981).

Having mentioned the proposals in the literature we now propose a new procedure. Let us consider again the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$ , with test statistic

$$MSA(\rho_{10})/MSB(\rho_{10}) = [1+m_1m_2\rho_{10}/(1+m_2\rho_2)]^{-1}MSA/MSB = f.$$

This test statistic has an  $F(a-1, a(m_1-1))$ -distribution for each  $\rho_2$ . In an experiment we get an outcome  $f$ . Let us now calculate the P-value or critical level  $P\{F(a-1, a(m_1-1)) > f\}$  for each possible  $\rho_2$ . In practice we can calculate this for several  $\rho_2$ -values such as  $\rho_2 = 0, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 4, 8$  etc. For a certain  $\rho_{10}$  we now have a set of P-values for the range of  $\rho_2$  values. The experimenter often knows which range of  $\rho_2$  is of



interest to him. For each value of  $\rho_2$  in this range we can decide at significance level  $\alpha$  whether  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  must be rejected in favour of  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$ . If the experimenter has no previous knowledge about  $\rho_2$ , an idea about the interesting range can be suggested from a confidence interval of  $\rho_2$ . (A Bayesian approach would assume an a priori distribution for  $\rho_2$  and derive the a posteriori set of not rejected  $\rho_1$ 's).

The idea of calculating the P-values under the  $H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_{10}$  for several given values of  $\rho_2$  can be used more fruitfully. If we use our knowledge about  $\rho_2$  we see that, irrespective of the value of  $\rho_{10}$ ,  $\tilde{y}'P_{B*}[V(\rho_{10})]^{-1}P_{B*}\tilde{y} = (1+m_2\rho_2)^{-1}\tilde{y}'P_{B*}\tilde{y} = (1+m_2\rho_2)^{-1}$  SSB

has a  $\sigma_e^2\chi^2(a(m_1-1))$ -distribution. But also  $\tilde{y}'P_C[V(\rho_{10})]^{-1}P_C\tilde{y} =$

$\tilde{y}'P_C\tilde{y} = \text{SSE}$  has a  $\sigma_e^2\chi^2(am_1(m_2-1))$ -distribution. Furthermore SSB

and SSE are independent, hence  $(1+m_2\rho_2)^{-1}\text{SSB} + \text{SSE}$  has a  $\sigma_e^2\chi^2$ -distribution with  $a(m_1-1) + am_1(m_2-1) = a(m_1m_2-1)$  degrees of freedom. Let us define  $\text{SSD} = [(1+m_2\rho_2)^{-1}\text{SSB} + \text{SSE}]$  and  $\text{MSD} = \text{SSD}/d$  with  $d = a(m_1m_2-1)$  then  $\text{MSA}(\rho_{10})/\text{MSD} = [1 + m_2\rho_2 + m_1m_2\rho_{10}]^{-1}\text{MSA}/\text{MSD}$  has an  $F(a-1, d)$ -distribution (because SSA is independent of SSB and SSE, SSA is independent of SSD).

By calculating for a range of  $\rho_2$  values the P-values for a certain  $H_0$  with value  $\rho_{10}$ , we can decide for which interesting  $\rho_2$  we reject  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  in favour of  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$ .

Also an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  can now be given if we use a given value of  $\rho_2$ . For each  $\rho_2$  we calculate  $\text{MSA}/\text{MSD}$ . Because  $[1+m_2\rho_2+m_1m_2\rho_1]^{-1}\text{MSA}/\text{MSD}$  for a given value of  $\rho_2$  has an  $F(a-1, d)$ -distribution, we get an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $1 + m_2\rho_2 + m_1m_2\rho_1$ :

$$(\text{MSA}/\text{MSD})/F(1-\alpha/2; a-1, d) < 1+m_2\rho_2+m_1m_2\rho_1 < (\text{MSA}/\text{MSD})/F(\alpha/2; a-1, d)$$

and hence an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  given the value of  $\rho_2$ , is

$$L < \rho_1 < U \text{ with } L = \{[(MSA/MSD)/F(1-\alpha/2; a-1, d)] - 1 - m_2\rho_2\}/(m_1m_2)$$

$$\text{and } U = \{[(MSA/MSD)/F(\alpha/2; a-1, d)] - 1 - m_2\rho_2\}/(m_1m_2).$$

A conservative confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  is obtained by choosing

$$\text{lower bound} = \min_{\rho_2}(L), \text{ upper bound} = \max_{\rho_2}(U),$$

with  $\rho_2$  varying in the range given by the experimenter.

When a priori information about  $\rho_2$  is not available a Bonferroni type approach could be used. First a  $(1-\frac{1}{2}\alpha)$ -confidence interval is derived for  $\rho_2$ , based on MSB/MSE. Second, the procedure above is carried out with this interval as range for  $\rho_2$ , and with L and U determined (for given  $\rho_2$ ) with confidence coefficient  $1-\frac{1}{2}\alpha$  (instead of  $1-\alpha$ ).

### 3.2. Unbalanced case

Recall model (4) which is

$$y_{hik} = \beta + u_{1h} + u_{2hi} + e_{hik}$$

with  $h = 1, 2, \dots, a$ ;  $i = 1, 2, \dots, b_h$  and  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n_{hi}$ .

It can easily be shown that  $SSE = y'P_C y$  has a  $\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(n_{..} - b_{..})$ -

distribution with  $n_{..} = \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} n_{hi}$  and  $b_{..} = \sum_{h=1}^a b_h$ .  $SSB = y'P_B y$

has a distribution of  $\sigma_e^2 \sum_{i=1}^{b_{..}-a} \lambda_i S_i^2$  where  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues

of  $P_B V$  and  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables.

The test of  $H_0: \rho_2 = 0$  against  $\rho_2 > 0$  can be based on

$\tilde{y}'P_B^* \tilde{y} = \text{SSB}$  and  $\tilde{y}'P_C \tilde{y} = \text{SSE}$ . Under  $H_0$  SSB has a  $\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(b_1 - a)$ -dis-

tribution. Furthermore SSB and SSE are independent while

$P_B^* V P_C = P_B^* P_C = 0$ . Hence MSB/MSE has under  $H_0$  an

$F(b_1 - a, n_1, -b_1)$ -distribution.

For the test of  $H_0: \rho_2 \leq \rho_{20}$  against  $\rho_2 > \rho_{20}$  we use an analogous extension of the test statistic  $T(\rho)$  of the unbalanced two-stage nested design.

Define  $T(\rho_{20}) = \text{SSB}(\rho_{20})/\text{SSE}$

$$= \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} g_{hi} (\bar{y}_{hi} - \bar{y}_{h..})^2 / \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{hi}} (y_{hik} - \bar{y}_{hi})^2$$

with  $g_{hi} = n_{hi}/(\rho_{20} n_{hi} + 1)$ ,  $\bar{y}_{hi} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{hi}} y_{hik} / n_{hi}$  and

$$\bar{y}_{h..} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{b_h} g_{hi} \bar{y}_{hi}}{\sum_{i=1}^{b_h} g_{hi}}$$

We can directly apply Wald's procedure to construct an exact  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_2$  using  $(n_1, -b_1)T(\rho_2)/(b_1 - a)$  which has again an  $F(b_1 - a, n_1, -b_1)$ -distribution. See Verdooren (1976).

We now consider the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > 0$ . We can easily calculate the expected Mean Squares (EMS), using the fact that the expected value of a quadratic form  $\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y}$  with  $E\tilde{y} = X\beta$  and  $D(\tilde{y}) = \sigma_e^2 V$ ,

$$E(\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y}) = \text{tr } Q\sigma_e^2 V + \beta'X'QX\beta,$$

with  $V$  given in (8) and where  $\text{tr}$  stands for trace of the square matrix.

For a sum of squares in the ANOVA table  $Q$  is equal to  $P_A^*$ ,  $P_B^*$  and  $P_C$  respectively, hence  $QX = 0$ .

Furthermore we have

$$E(\tilde{y}'P_C\tilde{y}) = \sigma_e^2 \text{tr}(P_C V) = \sigma_e^2(n_{..} - b_{.}) \text{ and}$$

$$E(\tilde{y}'P_B\tilde{y}) = \sigma_e^2 \text{tr}(P_B V) = (b_{.} - a)\sigma_e^2[1 + k_3\rho_2],$$

$$\text{with } k_3 = \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} n_{hi}^2 (n_{hi}^{-1} - n_{h.}^{-1}).$$

$$E(\tilde{y}'P_A\tilde{y}) = \sigma_e^2 \text{tr}(P_A V) = (a-1)\sigma_e^2[1 + k_2\rho_2 + k_1\rho_1]$$

$$\text{with } k_2 = \sum_{h=1}^a \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} n_{hi}^2 (n_{h.}^{-1} - n_{..}^{-1}) \text{ and } k_1 = \sum_{h=1}^a n_{h.}^2 (n_{h.}^{-1} - n_{..}^{-1}).$$

In the past Tietjen and Moore (1968) advocated a quasi-F test by using a linear combination  $a_1 \text{MSB} + (1-a_1) \text{MSE}$  such that the expectation of this combination was equal to  $E(\text{MSA})$  under  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$ . The idea for the quasi-F test was the application of the procedure of Satterthwaite (1946). The idea of Satterthwaite was to approximate a linear combination of independent chi-square

variables  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i \chi^2(g_i)$  by  $c \chi^2(g)$ , such that the expectation and

variance of these two random quantities are equal. Kruskal (1968) pointed out that for such an unbalanced nested design MSA and MSB are not independent ( $P_A^* V P_B^*$  is not equal to a null matrix). It can easily be shown that MSA and MSB are independent if the three-stage nested design is partially balanced ( $n_{hi} = m_h$  for all  $i$ ) or has last stage uniformity. Note that last stage uniformity requires  $n_{hi} = m$  for all  $h$  and  $i$ . Even for partially balanced designs SSA and SSB are not always distributed as a chi-square variable. And an expression as a linear combination of independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables is still needed.

Next Tietjen (1974) proposed the conventional F-test based on MSA/MSB for testing  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$ , instead of Satterthwaite's procedure which was earlier proposed by Tietjen and Moore in 1968. The P-value has been approximated by  $P(F(a-1, b, -a) > \text{MSA/MSB})$ . Tietjen (1974) based his proposal on several simulations, but this is only a crude approximate test.

Cummings and Gaylor (1974) also give crude approximate P-values for MSA/MSD with  $\text{MSD} = c\text{MSB} + (1-c)\text{MSE}$  if  $c = k_2/k_3 < 1$ , such that under  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$ ,  $E(\text{MSA}) = E(\text{MSD})$ , and for  $(d\text{MSA} + (1-d)\text{MSE})/\text{MSB}$  if  $d = k_3/k_2 < 1$ , such that under  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$ ,  $E(d\text{MSA} + (1-d)\text{MSE}) = E(\text{MSB})$ . Tan and Cheng (1984) compare Tietjen's test statistic, Cummings and Gaylor's test statistic and their own test statistic  $(k_3\text{MSA} + k_2\text{MSE}) / (k_2\text{MSB} + k_3\text{MSE})$ , such that under  $H_0: \rho_1 = 0$ ,  $E(k_3\text{MSA} + k_2\text{MSE}) = E(k_2\text{MSB} + k_3\text{MSE})$ . Using a better approximation for the distribution of the test statistics, based on Laguerre polynomial expansions, they conclude that their test statistic is a preferable one.

However Verdooren (1974) has shown how an exact P-value can be calculated. Let the actual outcome of MSA/MSB be  $f$ , then the exact P-value is

$$P_0(\text{MSA/MSB} > f, \text{ given that } \rho_1 = 0) =$$

$$P_0((\tilde{y}'P_A^* \tilde{y} / \tilde{y}'P_B^* \tilde{y}) > (a-1)f / (b, -a)) =$$

$$P_0(\tilde{y}'[P_A^* - [(a-1)f / (b, -a)]P_B^*]\tilde{y} > 0) = P_0(\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y} > 0) = P_0(\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y} / \sigma_e^2 > 0).$$

The distribution under  $H_0$  of  $\tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y} / \sigma_e^2$  is equal to that of  $\sum_{i=1}^q \lambda_i S_i^2$ ,

where  $q = \text{rank } Q$ , and  $\lambda_i$  are the non-zero eigenvalues of  $QV$  and  $S_i^2$

are independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables. This probability can easily be determined using a computer program such as that given by Koerts and Abrahamse (1969), see section 2.2, and an example is calculated by Verdooren (1974). In that way exact P-values and power calculations of the other test statistics can be found.

Now we consider the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$ . For a three-stage nested design Wald's procedure, as indicated by Seely and El-Bassiouni (1983), does not work because  $\text{rank}(X, Z_1, Z_2) - \text{rank}(X, Z_1) = 0$ , for the column space of  $Z_1$  lies in the column space of  $Z_2$  (otherwise stated  $A \subset B$ ).

Neither can a suggestion by Pincus (1977) be applied in this situation because we can not find a subspace of dimension larger than zero which is orthogonal to the range of  $X$  and  $(Z_2 Z_2')$ , which

could give information about  $\sigma_A^2$ .

We therefore propose our approach of section 3.1. Calculate for a given  $\rho_2$ :

$$\underline{y}' \underline{P}_A [V(\rho_{10})]^{-1} \underline{P}_A \underline{y} = \text{SSA}(\rho_{10}), \quad \underline{y}' \underline{P}_B [V(\rho_{10})]^{-1} \underline{P}_B \underline{y} = \text{SSB}(\rho_{10})$$

and use as a test statistic:  $\text{MSA}(\rho_{10})/\text{MSB}(\rho_{10})$ .

For each given value of  $\rho_2$  we can calculate the exact P-value given an outcome of an experiment of  $\text{MSA}(\rho_{10})/\text{MSB}(\rho_{10}) = f$ .

This P-value is  $P(\text{MSA}(\rho_{10})/\text{MSB}(\rho_{10}) > f)$ . Using the computer program we can evaluate

$$P(\underline{y}' \underline{Q} \underline{y} / \sigma_e^2 > 0) = P\left(\sum_{i=1}^q \lambda_i S_i^2 > 0\right)$$

where  $\underline{Q} = \underline{P}_A [V(\rho_{10})]^{-1} \underline{P}_A - [f(a-1)/(b-a)] \underline{P}_B [V(\rho_{10})]^{-1} \underline{P}_B$ ,  $q$  is the rank of  $\underline{Q}$  and  $\lambda_i$  are the positive or negative eigenvalues of  $\underline{Q} V(\rho_{10})$ , and  $S_i^2$  are independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables. We can calculate

the P-value according to our  $H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_{10}$  and we can decide whether  $H_0$  must be rejected in favour of  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$ .

A better use of the information from a given value of  $\rho_2$  can be found in improving the estimator for  $\sigma_e^2$ . The distribution of

$$\tilde{y}'P_B[V(\rho_{10})]^{-1}P_B\tilde{y} = \tilde{y}'Q\tilde{y} \text{ is that of } \sigma_e^2 \sum_{i=1}^q \lambda_i S_i^2 \text{ where } S_i^2 \text{ are}$$

independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables and  $\lambda_i$  are the positive eigenvalues of  $Q[V(\rho_{10})]$ , or equivalently  $[V(\rho_{10})]^{-\frac{1}{2}}Q[V(\rho_{10})]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , and  $q = b - a$ . Let  $\{h_i\}$  be a complete set of orthonormal eigenvectors of  $[V(\rho_{10})]^{-\frac{1}{2}}Q[V(\rho_{10})]^{\frac{1}{2}} = M(B^*)$  corresponding to the positive eigenvalues of  $\{\lambda_i\}$ . Note that  $\rho_{10}$  appears in  $V(\rho_{10})$  but not in  $M(B^*)$  and consequently not in  $\{h_i\}$  and  $\{\lambda_i\}$ .

$$\text{Now } \sum_{i=1}^q \tilde{y}'[V(\rho_{10})]^{-\frac{1}{2}}h_i h_i' [V(\rho_{10})]^{\frac{1}{2}} \tilde{y} / \lambda_i = SS\tilde{B} \text{ has a } \sigma_e^2 \chi^2(q)\text{-distrib-}$$

tion for each given value of  $\rho_2$ . But  $SSE = \tilde{y}'P_C\tilde{y} = \tilde{y}'P_C[V(\rho_{10})]^{-1}P_C\tilde{y}$

has, irrespective of  $\rho_2$  and  $\rho_{10}$ , a  $\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(n - b)$ -distribution.

Furthermore  $SSE$  and  $SS\tilde{B}$  are independent, hence  $SSD = SS\tilde{B} + SSE$  has

a  $\sigma_e^2 \chi^2(n - a)$ -distribution. For each given value of  $\rho_2$  we can use  $MSA(\rho_{10})/MSD$  to test  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$ .

Also we can now use  $MSA(\rho_{10})/MSD$  to get, after some iterations, a  $(1-\alpha)$ -confidence interval for  $\rho_1$  for each given value of  $\rho_2$ . Of course this procedure must be handled by computer. But in principle we have for each interesting value of  $\rho_2$  an answer for the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 \leq \rho_{10}$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$ .

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### 7.3. An example of the performance of the new exact test

We give an example of the performance of the exact tests about the variance ratios  $\rho_2 = \sigma_B^2/\sigma_e^2$  and  $\rho_1 = \sigma_A^2/\sigma_e^2$  for the three-stage nested design, as described in section 7.2 (subsection 3). The data are taken from Gill (1981) in which age-adjusted milk production records (305 days) are given, obtained in the same year and herd from cows whose sires and dams were considered randomly representative of a large population. Production records (in kg) are shown in table 7.3.1.

Table 7.3.1. Milk Production Records, kg (305 days)

Sire	Dam	Production of full-sib daughters		
1	1	4379	6560	
	2	5560	7733	7198
	3	4637	5639	8072
	4	5726	5576	
	5	4968	4574	
2	6	5355	7057	7052
	7	4605	4180	
	8	4393	4530	
3	9	5195		
	10	6137	4748	7351
	11	6253		
	12	5553	6026	6666
4	13	6268	7575	7024
	14	7112		
	15	5840	7316	6382
	16	6246	5595	
	17	5400	6440	
	18	7301	6615	
	19	5453		
	20	7374	6693	6592

The statistical model for this example may be written

$$Y_{hik} = \mu + \underline{s}_h + \underline{d}_{hi} + \underline{e}_{hik} \quad (7.3.1.)$$

( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n_{hi}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, b_h$  and  $h = 1, 2, 3, 4$ ),

where  $\mu$  is the general population mean,  $\underline{s}_h$ ,  $\underline{d}_{hi}$  and  $\underline{e}_{hik}$  symbolize the

random effects of sires, dams, and progeny together with environment, respectively.

The analysis of variance table is given in table 7.3.2.; for the recipe of calculation see section 4.1.

Table 7.3.2. Analysis of Variance table for the data of Table 7.3.1.

Source of Variation	df	SS	MS	E(MS)
Between sires	3	8298165.5	2766055.2 (=MSS)	$\sigma_e^2 + K_2\sigma_D^2 + K_1\sigma_S^2$
Between dams, within sires	16	18089233.5	1130577.1 (=MSD)	$\sigma_e^2 + K_3\sigma_D^2$
Error	24	20639926.0	859996.9 (=MSE)	$\sigma_e^2$
Corrected total	43	47027325.0		

The values are  $K_3 = 2.135$ ;  $K_2 = 2.462$  and  $K_1 = 10.530$ .

The ANOVA estimates for the variance components are:

$$\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = 859996.9;$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_D^2 = (1130577.1 - 859996.9)/2.135 = 126735.5;$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_S^2 = (2766055.2 - 2.462 \times 126735.5)/10.530 = 151380.4.$$

Outcomes of the biased estimators for  $\rho_2 = \sigma_S^2/\sigma_e^2$  and  $\rho_1 = \sigma_D^2/\sigma_e^2$

are  $\hat{\rho}_2 = \hat{\sigma}_S^2/\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = 0.176$  and  $\hat{\rho}_1 = \hat{\sigma}_D^2/\hat{\sigma}_e^2 = 0.147$  respectively.

For the test of  $H_{02}: \rho_2 = 0$  against  $H_{12}: \rho_2 > 0$ , the test statistic  $f = \text{MSD}/\text{MSE}$  is used. The outcome of  $f$  in this experiment is 1.315; the P-value or critical level  $\gamma = P(f > 1.315 \mid \rho_2 = 0) = 0.265$ . The

power of this test for  $\rho_2$  with significance level  $\gamma = 0.265$  is

$$\beta(\rho_2) = P(f > 1.315 \mid \rho_2).$$

Some values for  $\beta(\rho_2)$  are given below.

$\rho_2$	$\beta(\rho_2)$
0	0.265 = $\gamma$
0.1	0.419
0.2	0.558
0.5	0.821
1	0.960
2	0.997
2.5	0.999
3	1.000

For the test of  $H_{02}: \rho_2 = \rho_{20}$  against  $H_{12}: \rho_2 > \rho_{20}$ , the test statistic  $f = T(\rho_{20}) \times 24/16$  is used with  $T(\rho_{20}) = \text{SSB}(\rho_{20})/\text{SSE} =$

$$\sum_{h=1}^4 \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} g_{hi} (\bar{y}_{hi.} - \bar{y}_{h..})^2 / \sum_{h=1}^4 \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{hi}} (y_{hik} - \bar{y}_{hi.})^2$$

where

$$g_{hi} = n_{hi} / (\rho_{20} n_{hi} + 1); \bar{y}_{hi.} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{hi}} y_{hik} / n_{hi}$$

and

$$\bar{y}_{hi.} = \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} g_{hi} \bar{y}_{hi.} / \sum_{i=1}^{b_h} g_{hi.}$$

For some values of  $\rho_{20}$  and  $\rho_2$  are given the P-value or critical level

$$\gamma(\rho_{20}) = P(f(\rho_2) > f \mid \rho_2 = \rho_{20})$$

and some power values

$$\beta(\rho_2) = P(f(\rho_2) > f \mid \rho_2 > \rho_{20}).$$

$\rho_2 \geq \rho_{20}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{20}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	265	419	558	821	960	997	999	1000
0.1		430	567	826	961	997	999	1000
0.2			574	830	962	997	999	1000
0.5				836	964	997	999	1000
1					965	997	999	1000
2						997	999	1000
2.5							999	1000
3								1000

For the test of  $H_0: \rho_1 = \rho_{10}$  against  $H_1: \rho_1 > \rho_{10}$  given the value of  $\rho_2$ , the test statistic  $f = MSA(\rho_{10})/MSB(\rho_{10})$  is used where

$$MSA(\rho_{10}) = y'P_A [V(\rho_{10})]^{-1} P_A y / 3$$

and

$$MSB(\rho_{10}) = y'P_B [V(\rho_{10})]^{-1} P_B y / 16.$$

For some values of  $\rho_{10}$ ,  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are given

the P-value or critical level

$$\gamma(\rho_{10} | \rho_2) = P(f(\rho_{10}) > f | \rho_{10}, \rho_2)$$

and some power values

$$\beta(\rho_1 | \rho_2) = P(f(\rho_1) > f | \rho_1 > \rho_{10}, \rho_2).$$

$\rho_2 = 0$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	101	343	514	756	882	950	963	971
0.1		355	525	764	887	952	965	972
0.2			525	764	887	952	965	972
0.5				762	886	952	964	972
1					885	952	964	972
2						952	964	972
2.5							964	972
3								972



$$\rho_2 = 0.1$$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	104	304	460	706	851	935	951	962
0.1		316	472	716	857	938	953	963
0.2			472	716	957	938	954	964
0.5				714	856	937	953	963
1					855	937	953	963
2						937	953	963
2.5							953	963
3								963

$$\rho_2 = 0.2$$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	106	278	420	664	822	920	939	952
0.1		290	431	674	829	923	942	954
0.2			432	674	829	923	942	954
0.5				673	828	922	942	954
1					827	922	941	954
2						922	941	954
2.5							941	954
3								954

$$\rho_2 = 0.5$$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	113	233	342	566	745	875	904	923
0.1		243	352	576	753	880	907	926
0.2			355	578	754	880	908	926
0.5				577	753	880	908	926
1					752	879	907	926
2						878	907	925
2.5							906	925
3								925

$$\rho_2 = 1.0$$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	119	200	278	463	646	807	847	875
0.1		208	286	471	653	812	851	879
0.2			289	474	655	814	853	880
0.5				475	656	814	853	880
1					654	813	852	879
2						812	851	879
2.5							851	878
3								878

$$\rho_2 = 2.0$$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	126	175	223	354	515	695	748	788
0.1		181	230	361	521	701	753	792
0.2			233	364	524	703	755	794
0.5				367	527	705	757	795
1					526	705	756	795
2						703	755	793
2.5							754	793
3								792

$$\rho_2 = 2.5$$

$\rho_1 \geq \rho_{10}$  (Probabilities x 1000)

$\rho_{10}$	0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	2.5	3
0	128	169	210	323	470	651	706	749
0.1		174	215	329	476	656	711	753
0.2			218	332	479	658	714	756
0.5				336	483	661	716	758
1					483	661	716	756
2						659	714	756
2.5							713	755
3								755

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## CHAPTER 8

### 8. ESTIMATION OF VARIANCE COMPONENTS

#### PART II: CONTINUATION

##### 8.1. Introduction

In chapter 6 the onset of the author's research on estimation of variance components was given.

Because many statisticians did not easily grasp the rationale of Rao's minimum norm derivation in the MINQUE, the unified least squares approach in the derivation of estimators for variance components is given in section 8.2.

Also recent developments in permissible (hence non-negative) estimators for variance components are presented.

In section 8.3 the connection between the calculation of Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimators, Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) estimators and Iterative Minimum Norm Quadratic Unbiased Estimators (I-MINQUE) is elucidated.

Furthermore some recommendations are made for the procedure of estimating variance components.

Finally, no discussion of the Bayesian approach in variance component estimation will be found here. Previous knowledge about variance components must of course be incorporated. This can be effected by using prior weights for ratios of variance components in the dispersion matrix, which is used in a non-negative modification of a least squares estimator (or MINQUE) for the variance components.

8.2. Least squares estimators and non-negative estimators  
of variance components

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LEAST SQUARES ESTIMATORS AND NON-NEGATIVE ESTIMATORS  
OF VARIANCE COMPONENTS

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Key Words and Phrases: permissible estimators; MINQUE; MIVQUE;  
ML; REML; quadratic or convex programming.

ABSTRACT

Using the least squares method we have a unified procedure for the derivation of estimators for variance components in the linear model of  $ZZ'$ , where  $Z$  is the residual vector from a simple least squares fit for  $X\beta$ . These least squares estimators are unbiased but not always non-negative. The invariant and unbiased least squares estimators for variance components are the MINQUE estimators. For multivariate normally distributed variables the MINQUE is the same as the MIVQUE.

Non-negative estimators of variance components are permissible estimators. Taking into account the constraints of non-negativity of the variance components, a quadratic programming procedure is suggested.

For multivariate normally distributed variables the ML method or REML method can be used. In practice many computer programs do

not take into account the non-negativity constraints on the parameter space. Henderson's iterative procedure using the mixed model equations guarantees a non-negative solution for REML.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The estimation of variance components for the analysis of variance models has a long history. A good expository review has been given by Khuri and Sahai (1985). Several times one can find remarks on negative estimates produced by certain estimators. Rao (1977) and Kleffe (1980) reviewed the estimation procedures based on the MINQUE-theory. However, leading principles in these papers are properties such as unbiasedness and minimum variance of the unbiased estimator. These properties are often not so relevant for the estimation procedures for variance components. We feel that the leading principle must be permissible estimation and, for the usually adopted quadratic loss function, the minimum mean squared error.

We examine the least squares method for estimating variance components. This method gives for many situations a unified procedure, which can also be adapted to meet the non-negativity constraints for variance components.

We introduce in section 2 the concept of permissible estimation. In section 3 the least squares estimators are discussed in the linear model and in the dispersion-mean model. In section 4 a procedure has been given which can be adopted to produce non-negative variance component estimators. In section 5 some remarks on non-negative ML and REML estimators for normally distributed variables are made.

## 2. PERMISSIBLE ESTIMATION

At the VI-th International Conference on Mathematical

Statistics at Wisła, Poland (7-13 December 1978), the concept of permissible estimation has been introduced, see Verdooren (1980). In our view this concept must be the first requirement for estimating variance components.

Consider a random variable  $\underline{y}$  which assumes values in the sample space  $Y$  according to a probability distribution  $P$  which is known to belong to a given class  $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$  of probability distributions, and let  $y$  denote the observed value. If  $P = P_\theta$ ,  $\theta$  is the true value of the underlying unknown parameter. We shall be interested in the estimation of a real valued parameter  $g: \Theta \rightarrow R$ , or equivalently of the corresponding true value  $\gamma = g(\theta)$ . We need an estimator  $d: Y \rightarrow R$  with the interpretation that  $d(y)$  will be used as an estimate for  $\gamma = g(\theta)$  if the outcome  $y \in Y$  of  $\underline{y}$  is observed.

Estimators will be compared by means of their mean squared error (MSE) (or risk function if squared error loss is considered):

$$MSE_\theta(d) = E_\theta(d(\underline{y}) - g(\theta))^2 = \text{var}_\theta d(\underline{y}) + (\text{bias}_\theta(d))^2$$

where  $\text{bias}_\theta(d) = E_\theta d(\underline{y}) - g(\theta)$ .

An estimator is said to be admissible if no estimator exists with uniformly (in  $\theta$ ) smaller MSE. Or, more precisely,  $d$  is admissible if no  $d'$  exists with  $MSE_\theta(d') \leq MSE_\theta(d)$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$  and  $MSE_\theta(d') < MSE_\theta(d)$  for at least one  $\theta$ .

In our view it is worthwhile to introduce the concept of permissible estimation as a necessary condition. Let  $\underline{y}_1, \underline{y}_2, \dots, \underline{y}_n$  be a random sample of a random variable  $\underline{y}$  with probability distribution  $P \in \{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$ . An estimator  $\underline{t} = t(\underline{y}_1, \underline{y}_2, \dots, \underline{y}_n)$  for  $\theta$  is said to be permissible if  $\underline{t} \in \Gamma$  holds with probability one. In some situations  $\Gamma = \{g(\theta)\} = \{\gamma; \gamma = g(\theta) \text{ for some } \theta \in \Theta\}$  is an interval of the form  $[a, b]$  or  $[a, \infty)$  or  $(-\infty, b]$  or some other bounded set. If the estimator  $d: Y \rightarrow R$  takes on values outside  $\Gamma$  with positive probability, (and hence is not permissible), then it

can be improved by truncating. This is seen immediately as follows.

Let  $d: Y \rightarrow R$  be any estimator for  $y = g(\theta)$  (it need not be unbiased) such that  $\Gamma = \{g(\theta)\} = [a, b]$  and  $P_\theta\{d(\underline{y}) \notin \Gamma\} > 0$  for at least one  $\theta \in \Theta$ . Let  $d'$  be the corresponding truncated estimator:

$$d'(\underline{y}) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } d(\underline{y}) < a \\ d(\underline{y}) & \text{if } a \leq d(\underline{y}) \leq b \\ b & \text{if } d(\underline{y}) > b. \end{cases}$$

Now for any  $\theta \in \Theta$  we have  $g(\theta) \in \Gamma$  and hence

$$(d(\underline{y}) - g(\theta))^2 \geq (d'(\underline{y}) - g(\theta))^2 \quad \text{for all } \underline{y} \in Y. \text{ Hence}$$

$MSE_\theta(d) \geq MSE_\theta(d')$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ . For  $\theta$  with  $P_\theta\{d(\underline{y}) \notin \Gamma\} > 0$ , we obviously have strict inequality and hence  $d$  is inadmissible.

Note that this result can be extended to the case where  $\underline{y}$  is a random vector and  $\Theta$  is a closed convex set. Truncation here means that an estimate which falls outside this set  $\Theta$  is replaced by the boundary point of  $\Theta$  nearest to it.

Examples of not permissible estimators are probability estimators with possible values outside  $[0, 1]$ ; and estimators for a parameter known to be positive, which may take occasionally negative values.

For the sake of illustration, consider the balanced one-way random effects model:

$$y_{ij} = \mu + \underline{a}_i + \underline{e}_{ij}, \quad i = (1, 2, \dots, m); \quad j = (1, 2, \dots, n).$$

The random variables  $\underline{a}_i$  are  $N(0, \sigma_1^2)$  and are identically and independently distributed (i.i.d.); the random variables  $\underline{e}_{ij}$  are  $N(0, \sigma_2^2)$  and also i.i.d.; the  $\underline{a}_i$  and  $\underline{e}_{ij}$  are assumed to be independent. By calculating



$$\underline{CT} = (\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n y_{ij})^2 / (mn); \underline{SSA} = \sum_{i=1}^m (\sum_{j=1}^n y_{ij})^2 / n - \underline{CT},$$

$$\underline{SSR} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n y_{ij}^2 - \underline{CT} - \underline{SSA}; \underline{MSA} = \underline{SSA} / (m-1), \underline{MSR} = \underline{SSR} / (m(n-1))$$

we have an unbiased estimator  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2 = \underline{MSR}$  for  $\sigma_2^2$ , and an unbiased estimator for  $\sigma_1^2$  is

$$\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = (\underline{MSA} - \underline{MSR}) / n.$$

Notice that

$$\hat{\sigma}_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_{i.})^2 / (m(n-1))$$

is a permissible estimator for  $\sigma_2^2$ . However  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  is not a permissible estimator since there is a positive probability that  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  takes negative values under the model assumed! We have

$$\begin{aligned} P(\hat{\sigma}_1^2 \leq 0) &= P((\underline{MSA} - \underline{MSR}) / n \leq 0) = P(\underline{MSA} / \underline{MSR} \leq 1) \\ &= P(F(m-1), m(n-1)) \leq (1 + n\gamma)^{-1}) \quad \text{where } \gamma = \sigma_1^2 / \sigma_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

Verdooren (1982) gives extensive tables for this probability for several values of  $m$ ,  $n$  and  $\gamma$ . From this table it can be seen that negative estimates can occur frequently, in certain cases 25 % of the time.

It is possible to use the biased estimator  $\max(0, \hat{\sigma}_1^2)$ , which

has smaller MSE than  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  for all values of  $(\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2)$ .

Another example is given by the estimators in the linear regression model with unequal variances. See Rao and Subrahmaniam (1971), Hartley and Jayatilake (1973), Chaubey and Rao (1976) and Kleffe (1984).

### 3. LEAST SQUARES ESTIMATORS

#### 3.1. The linear model

Let us consider the linear model

$$y = X\beta + e,$$

where  $y, e \in R^n$ ,  $X$  is an  $n \times p$ -matrix of full rank  $p$ , the parameter vector  $\beta \in R^p$ ;  $E(e) = 0$ , dispersion matrix  $D(e) = D(y) = \sigma^2 I_n$ . It is known that the simple or ordinary least squares estimator for  $\beta$ ,  $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y$ , is unbiased. Each linear combination  $c'\beta$  (or written as inner product of  $c$  and  $\beta$ :  $(c, \beta)$ ) has as an unbiased estimator

$$c'\hat{\beta} = (c, \hat{\beta}).$$

Let  $X$  be partitioned as  $(X_1, X_2)$  with  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  of full column rank  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  respectively ( $p_1 + p_2 = p$ ) and  $\beta = (\beta_1', \beta_2')'$ . If we

wish to remove the nuisance parameters  $\beta_1$  while estimating  $\beta_2$  unbiasedly, we may write the expectation vector  $Ey = X\beta$  in the form

$$Ey = X_1\beta_1 + X_2\beta_2 = X_1\beta_1 + P_1X_2\beta_2 + (I_n - P_1)X_2\beta_2 = X_1\alpha + M_1X_2\beta_2$$

where  $P_1$  is the orthogonal projector on the column space of  $X_1$ ,

$P_1 = X_1(X_1'X_1)^{-1}X_1'$  and  $M_1 = I_n - P_1$ , the orthogonal projector on the null space of  $X_1$ .

A linear combination  $\lambda'\beta_2 = (\lambda, \beta_2)$  of parameters is identifiable if and only if there is a  $\rho$  such that

$$X_2'M_1X_2\rho = \lambda.$$

In this case of full rank, any linear combination of the parameters is identifiable. From the normal equations we estimate  $\beta_2$  from

$$X_2'M_1X_2\hat{\beta}_2 = X_2'M_1Y,$$

and the linear unbiased estimator for

$$(\lambda, \beta_2) = \lambda'\beta_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{p_2} \lambda_i \beta_{2i}$$

is given by

$$(M_1X_2\rho, Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{p_2} \rho_i (M_1X_{2i}, Y),$$

where  $X_{2i}$ ,  $i = (1, 2, \dots, p_2)$  are the columns of  $X_2$ .

If the linear model  $Y = X\beta + \underline{e}$  has dispersion matrix

$$D(\underline{e}) = D(Y) = \sigma^2 V$$

and  $V$  is symmetric and positive definite, it is known that the ordinary least squares estimator for  $\beta$ ,  $\hat{\beta} = X(X'X)^{-1}X'Y$ , is unbiased. Let  $V$  be known,  $V = V^{\frac{1}{2}}V^{\frac{1}{2}}$  with  $V^{\frac{1}{2}}$  symmetric. Now we transform the model by multiplying with  $V^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ , that is,

$$V^{-\frac{1}{2}}Y = V^{-\frac{1}{2}}X\beta + V^{-\frac{1}{2}}\underline{e}.$$

or  $\tilde{Y} = \tilde{X}\beta + \tilde{e}$  with  $D(\tilde{e}) = D(\tilde{Y}) = \sigma^2 I_n$ .

In the transformed linear model, we apply the ordinary least squares estimator for  $\beta$ , which gives

$$\tilde{\beta} = (\tilde{X}'\tilde{X})^{-1}\tilde{X}'\tilde{Y}.$$

Substituting from the above transformation, the generalized least squares estimator is

$$\tilde{\beta} = (X'V^{-1}X)^{-1}X'V^{-1}Y,$$

which is the best linear unbiased estimator or Gauss-Markov estimator for  $\beta$ .

The ordinary least squares estimator will be the same as the generalized least squares if and only if the range of  $VX$  is contained in the range of  $X$  and rank of  $X = p$ .

### 3.2. Variance Components model

Let us consider the variance components model:

$$y = X\beta + U_1a_1 + \dots + U_ka_k,$$

where  $y$  is an  $n \times 1$ -vector of observations,  $X$  is an  $n \times p$ -design matrix of known constants and of full rank ( $p < n$ ),  $\beta$  is  $p \times 1$ -vector of fixed effects parameters,  $U_i$  is a known  $n \times m_i$ -matrix,  $a_i$  is an  $m_i \times 1$ -vector of random effects such that

- (1)  $E(a_i) = 0$ ,
- (2)  $D(a_i) = \sigma_i^2 I_{m_i}$ ,  $i = (1, 2, \dots, k)$ .

Further,  $U_k = I_n$  and  $\text{var}(\underline{a}_k) = \sigma_k^2 > 0$ . The column space of  $(X, U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k)$  is  $R^n$ . These assumptions imply that

$$\begin{aligned} D(\underline{y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 U_i U_i' = \sigma_1^2 V_1 + \sigma_2^2 V_2 + \dots + \sigma_{k-1}^2 V_{k-1} + \sigma_k^2 I_n \\ &= \sigma^2 (\gamma_1 V_1 + \gamma_2 V_2 + \dots + \gamma_{k-1} V_{k-1} + I_n) = \sigma^2 V \end{aligned}$$

where the variance components  $\sigma_i^2 = \sigma^2 \gamma_i$  for  $i = (1, 2, \dots, k-1)$ ,  $\sigma_k^2 = \sigma^2$ , and  $D(\underline{y})$  is positive definite.

The least squares approach to estimate variance components or linear combinations of variance components has been used by Seely (1970 a,b) and Seely and Zyskind (1971). Instead of quadratic functions of  $\underline{y}$ , Seely utilizes linear functions of  $\underline{Z} = \underline{y}\underline{y}'$  in  $S$ , a vector space of symmetric  $n \times n$ -matrices, with inner product of  $A, B \in S$  defined by  $(A, B) = \text{tr } A'B = \text{tr } AB$ , where  $\text{tr } A$  means trace of  $A$ . The linear estimator for variance components is  $(A, \underline{Z})$ . The expected value of  $\underline{Z}$  is:

$$E(\underline{Z}) = \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_i \beta_j B_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 V_i$$

$i \leq j$

where  $B_{ii} = x_i x_i'$  and  $B_{ij} = x_i x_j' + x_j x_i'$  for  $i < j$  are symmetric and  $x_j$  is the  $j$ -th column of  $X$ . Alternatively,

$$E(\underline{Z}) = X\Psi X' + \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 V_i \quad \text{with } \Psi = \beta\beta'.$$

Hence  $E(\underline{Z})$  belongs to  $\{\text{span } B_0 + \text{span } B_1\}$  with

$$B_0 = \{B_{ij}; 1 \leq i \leq j \leq p\} \text{ and } B_1 = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}.$$

This model has a form similar to the one in section 3.1.

The dispersion matrix of  $\underline{Z}$  consists of the product of the

second and fourth moments of  $\underline{y}$ . Let  $\text{vec } A$  be the column vector obtained from writing the rows of the matrix  $A$  one behind the other and transposing the resulting row vector. Then the inner product of  $A$  and  $B$  is the ordinary inner product of  $\text{vec } A$  and  $\text{vec } B$ :  $\langle A, B \rangle = (\text{vec } A)' (\text{vec } B) = \text{tr}(A'B)$ .

We have a nuisance parameter  $\Psi$  and parameters  $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$  with the column vectors  $\text{vec } V_1, \text{vec } V_2, \dots, \text{vec } V_k$ , respectively. We apply the ordinary least squares method to this model after eliminating the nuisance parameter  $\Psi$ . To remove the nuisance parameter  $\Psi$  we use the linear operator  $I - \Pi$  where  $I$  is the identity mapping of  $S$  to  $S$ ,  $\Pi$  is the projection operator on  $B_0$ . In this case  $\Pi(A) = PAP$ , where  $P$  is the orthogonal projection on the column space of  $X$ , i.e.

$$P = X(X'X)^{-1}X', \text{ and } (I - \Pi)(A) = A - PAP.$$

The unbiased estimation of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is possible if the equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} (V_1, (I - \Pi)(V_1)), & \dots, & (V_1, (I - \Pi)(V_k)) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ (V_k, (I - \Pi)(V_1)), & \dots, & (V_k, (I - \Pi)(V_k)) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \vdots \\ \rho_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}$$

or  $\{\text{tr}\{V_i(V_j - PV_jP)\}\} \rho = \lambda$  have a solution.

The unbiased estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is then given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i ((I - \Pi)(V_i), \underline{Z}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (\underline{Y}' (V_i - PV_iP) \underline{Y}).$$

Seely (1970b) uses the operator

$$\pi(A) = \frac{1}{2}\{(I-P)A + A(I-P)\}$$

to remove  $\Psi$  and obtained the normal equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{tr}(V_1(I-P)V_1) & \dots & \text{tr}(V_1(I-P)V_k) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \text{tr}(V_k(I-P)V_1) & \dots & \text{tr}(V_k(I-P)V_k) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \vdots \\ \rho_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

The unbiased estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (\underline{Y}'(I-P)V_i \underline{Y}).$$

In Rao (1973) one finds that the conditions for an invariant

and unbiased estimator  $\underline{Y}'A\underline{Y}$  of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} AX &= 0 \\ \text{tr}(AV_i) &= \lambda_i \quad i = (1, 2, \dots, k) \end{aligned}$$

Seely (1972) shows that  $Q'\underline{Y}$  is a maximal invariant statistic from  $R^n$  to  $R^q$ , where  $Q$  is a  $n \times q$ -matrix with  $q = n - \text{rank } X$ , column space of  $Q = \text{null space of } X'$  and  $Q'Q = I_q$ , i.e.  $QQ' = I - P = M$ , where  $P$  is the orthogonal projector on the column space of  $X$ . Now we use  $QQ'\underline{Y} = M\underline{Y}$  or the simple residuals as our invariant statistic. We have, since  $M = M'$ ,

$$E(M\mathbf{y}) = M\mathbf{X}\beta = 0 \text{ and } D(M\mathbf{y}) = MD(\mathbf{y})M = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 MV_i M.$$

The set of normal equations for the least squares estimator of

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2 \text{ gives a solution}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (MV_i M, M\mathbf{y} \mathbf{y}' M)$$

where the  $\rho_i$ 's satisfy the matrix equation  $\{(MV_i M, MV_j M)\} \rho = \lambda$ . Using the properties of trace operators we find that the invariant

and unbiased estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  can be written as  $\mathbf{y}' A_* \mathbf{y}$  where

$$A_* = \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i MV_i M \text{ and } \rho_1, \dots, \rho_k \text{ satisfy } \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i \text{tr}(MV_i MV_j) = \lambda_j \text{ for}$$

$$j = (1, 2, \dots, k).$$

If we know that  $D(\mathbf{y})$  is of the form  $T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i$ , or in other

words, if  $\alpha_i^2$  is the a priori (or approximate) value of  $\sigma_i^2$ , we first transform  $\mathbf{y}$  into  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{y}$  with  $E\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = T^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{X}\beta = \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\beta$

$$\text{and } D(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 T^{-\frac{1}{2}} V_i T^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 \tilde{V}_i.$$

The invariant statistic is now  $\tilde{M}\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$  with  $\tilde{M} = I - \tilde{P}$  and  $\tilde{P} = \tilde{\mathbf{X}}(\tilde{\mathbf{X}}'\tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}'$ .



The invariant unbiased estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is then given by

$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (\tilde{M} \tilde{V}_i \tilde{M}', \tilde{M} \tilde{Y} \tilde{Y}' \tilde{M})$  where the  $\rho_i$ 's satisfy the matrix equations

$$\{\tilde{M} \tilde{V}_i \tilde{M}', \tilde{M} \tilde{V}_j \tilde{M}'\} \rho = \lambda.$$

The invariant and unbiased estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$ , given  $T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i$ , can then be written as  $\underline{Y}' A \underline{Y}$  where

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i (I - P_T) T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T).$$

The coefficients  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_k$  satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i \text{tr}((I - P_T) T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T) V_j) = \lambda_j \quad \text{for } j = (1, 2, \dots, k),$$

where

$$P_T = X(X'T^{-1}X)^{-1}X'T^{-1}.$$

This is the invariant MINQUE (Minimum Norm Quadratic Unbiased Estimator) of Rao (1970, 1971, 1972, 1973). We have derived here these estimators using the well known least squares procedure. The rationale of Rao's minimum norm is not so easily understood by several statisticians.

When  $\underline{y}$  has a  $n$ -variate normal distribution, since  $A\underline{x} = 0$ ,

$$\text{var}(\underline{y}' A \underline{y}) = 2 \text{tr}(A D(\underline{y}) A D(\underline{y})) + 4 \beta' X' A D(\underline{y}) A X \beta = 2 \text{tr}(A D(\underline{y}) A D(\underline{y})).$$

Thus, if the true variance components are  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2, \text{tr}(ATAT)$

is proportional to  $\text{var}(\underline{y}'A\underline{y})$  and the invariant MINQUE is the locally minimum variance unbiased quadratic estimator under multivariate normal distribution of  $\underline{y}$ .

Finally we remark that Seely (1971) shows that when  $\underline{y}$  has a multivariate normal distribution, the best quadratic invariant and

unbiased estimator of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  is a function of  $M\underline{y}$  if and only if

$B = \text{span}\{MV_1M, \dots, MV_kM\}$  is a quadratic subspace of all real symmetric matrices  $S$ . A subspace  $B$  of  $S$  with the property that  $B_1 \in B$  implies  $B_1^2 \in B$  is said to be a quadratic subspace of  $S$ , that is, the elements of  $B$  form a Jordan algebra with operator  $\frac{1}{2}[(A,B)+(B,A)]$ . Notice that in this case the ordinary least squares estimator of  $\sigma_1^2$  is equal to the generalized least squares estimator.

Seely (1972, 1977) used the notion of quadratic subspaces also in the derivation of completeness of certain statistics for a family of multivariate normal distributions.

The approach of looking at the quadratic estimators  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y}$  as linear functions of  $\underline{y}\underline{y}'$  has been exploited by Pukelsheim (1976, 1977). That the mean and dispersion share the same structure (dispersion-mean correspondence) has been elaborated by Pukelsheim (1977). See also Drygas (1977), Pukelsheim (1979) and Anderson, Henderson, Pukelsheim and Searle (1984) for overviews of this topic.

If  $\underline{y}$  has a multivariate normal distribution the least squares approach gives the MINQUE which is the same as the MIVQUE (Minimum Variance Quadratic Unbiased Estimator). See Swallow and Searle (1978) for the comparison of MIVQUE and ANOVA estimators.

#### 4. NON-NEGATIVE ESTIMATION

The question now arises whether the least squares solutions of the variance components in the dispersion-mean correspondence model approach, are permissible estimators. For balanced designs these estimators (thus also the MINQUE estimator) are the same as the ANOVA estimators. We saw already in section 2 that the ANOVA estimator is not permissible. For unbalanced designs with two or more classifications, there are no unique ANOVA estimators. For the one-way model with unequal variances several estimators for the mean and the variances are examined by Rao, Kaplan and Cochran(1981). Rao and Chaubey (1978) showed that for the model

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \varepsilon_{ij}, \quad j = (1, 2, \dots, n_i) \text{ for } i = (1, 2, \dots, k),$$

with  $E(\varepsilon_{ij}) = 0$ ,  $\text{var}(\varepsilon_{ij}) = \sigma_i^2$  and independent  $\varepsilon_{ij}$ 's, non-nega-

tiveness and unbiasedness result in  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2 / (n_i - 1)$  as

the estimator for  $\sigma_i^2$ .

LaMotte (1973) shows that for the variance components models the only individual variance component which can be estimated unbiasedly by a non-negative quadratic function  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y}$  is  $\sigma_k^2$ , the last

variance component;  $\sigma_k^2$  can have a non-negative estimator only

if all  $V_i$ ,  $i = (1, 2, \dots, k-1)$  are singular. (Note  $V_k = I_n$  is non-

singular). Further  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  with all  $\lambda_i$  non-negative, may be estima-

ted unbiasedly by a non-negative quadratic  $\underline{y}'A\underline{y}$ . For the balanced

one-way lay-out of the example in section 2,  $\lambda_1 \sigma_1^2 + \lambda_2 \sigma_2^2$  has an unbiased estimator  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$  with A symmetric and non-negative definite

if and only if  $\lambda_2 \geq n^{-1} \lambda_1 \geq 0$ . Clearly  $\sigma_2^2 = E(\underline{MSR})$  and  $\sigma_2^2 + n\sigma_1^2 = E(\underline{MSA})$  can be estimated by a non-negative quadratic.

We shall now describe a procedure for obtaining non-negative estimators from the least squares residuals. Consider the model

$$\underline{y} = X\beta + \sum_{i=1}^k U_i \alpha_i,$$

with the positive definite dispersion matrix

$D(\underline{y}) = \sigma_k^2(\gamma_1 V_1 + \dots + \gamma_{k-1} V_{k-1} + I_n)$ , (see the top of section 3.2). Consider the residuals  $M\underline{y}$ ,  $M = I - P$  with  $P = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$  the orthogonal projector on the column space of X.  $M\underline{y}$  is a maximal invariant statistic in a subspace of dimension  $q = n - \text{rank } X$ . We now have the residual model

$$M\underline{y} \text{ with } E(M\underline{y}) = 0 \text{ and } D(M\underline{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 M V_i M.$$

The natural parameter set for  $(\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2)'$  is

$$G_M = \{(s_1^2, s_2^2, \dots, s_k^2)' \in R^k \mid \sum_{i=1}^k s_i^2 M V_i M \in S\},$$

where  $\sum_{i=1}^k s_i^2 M V_i M$  is positive definite and S is the set of all real

symmetric non-negative definite nxn-matrices.

Pukelsheim (1981 a,b) characterized non-negative estimability

of a form  $\sum \lambda_i^2 \sigma_i$  by means of the natural parameter set in a residual model. This leads to the surprising alternative that in the presence of a quadratic subspace condition either the standard

unbiased estimators  $\underline{s}_i^2$ ,  $i = (1, 2, \dots, k)$ , provide an unbiased

non-negative definite quadratic estimator,  $\sum \lambda_i \underline{s}_i^2$ , or no such estimator exists. This is proved by Mathew (1984a).

Mathew (1984b), Peddada (1984) and Massam and Muller (1985) extend Pukelsheim's results, but the checking of conditions of non-negative estimability is not easy if there is no quadratic subspace in the natural parameter set. In the linear model

$$\underline{y} = X\beta + \underline{e}$$

with  $E\underline{e} = 0$ ,  $D(\underline{e}) = D(\underline{y}) = \sigma^2 V$ ,  $V$  positive definite, sometimes  $\beta$  belongs to the positive orthant  $R_+^p$  of  $R^p$ . A permissible estimator

$\hat{\underline{\beta}}$  of  $\beta$ , better than the one found by truncation (i.e. replacing negative estimates of  $\beta_i$  by zero), is provided by the solution of the quadratic programming problem:

$$\text{minimize } \|\underline{y} - X\mathbf{b}\|^2, \quad b_i \geq 0, \quad i = (1, 2, \dots, p)$$

or, if  $V$  is known,

$$\text{minimize } \|\underline{V}^{-\frac{1}{2}}\underline{y} - \underline{V}^{-\frac{1}{2}}X\mathbf{b}\|^2, \quad b_i \geq 0, \quad i = (1, 2, \dots, p).$$

If there are inequality constraints for some  $\beta_i$ ,  $\beta$  must belong to a convex subset of  $R^p$  and we again have a quadratic or convex programming problem. See e.g. Judge and Takayama (1966), Mantel (1969), Waterman (1974), Liew (1976), and Bremner (1982).

In the case of the variance components model, we discussed in section 3. the least squares approach of Seely (or the MINQUE of Rao) to estimate the variance components  $\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$ . In his procedure

Seely had not taken into consideration the non-negativity of

$\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2$ . Imposing this restriction on the parameters means that we may use again the quadratic programming approach in order to

assure that the estimators of  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2$  are non-negative.

A solution of the related quadratic programming problem is found using the algorithm of Waterman (1974). Consider all possible  $2^k$  subsets of  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ . For each such set, say  $J$ , we minimize  $\|Z - \hat{E}(Z)\|$  and obtain the unrestricted solution. More precisely we project  $Z$  orthogonally on the space generated by  $\{MV_i M; i \in J\}$ . If all the estimates of the parameters with index in  $J$  are non-negative, we retain these estimates and the corresponding norm  $\|Z - \hat{E}(Z)\|$  corresponding to  $J$ . The retained subset  $J$  which gives the minimum of these norms solves the original problem; those parameters  $\sigma_i^2$  for which  $i \notin J$

are estimated by zero. These non-negative estimators are closest to the least squares estimators.

Brown (1978) also started with the residual model and also used a quadratic programming technique to find a non-negative solution. But now he uses these estimated variance components to get a generalized least squares solution for  $\beta$ . By this he gets an updated  $My$  and covariance matrix of  $Z = (My)(My)'$ . Using these  $D(Z)$  for the projection on the parameter space with as inner product of 2 elements  $A, B \in S$ :  $\text{tr}(A[D(y)]^{-1}B)$  he stops after a certain number of iterations or after the convergence criterion has been met. Rich and Brown (1979) reported some experimental evi-

dence for the usefulness of this procedure.

For the special case with two variance components, non-negative unbiased estimators are given by Baksalary and Molifška (1984) and non-negative, admissible invariant estimators by Gnot, Kleffe and Zmysłony (1985).

Another type of a non-negative estimating procedure is given by Rao and Chaubey (1978). They minimize the norm of the invariant MINQUE without restrictions of unbiasedness, and called this estimator MINQE.

For estimating  $\sum_{i=1}^k p_i \sigma_i^2$  their estimator is  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$ ; with  $\alpha_i^2$  are

a priori values of  $\sigma_i^2$ , hence  $D(\underline{y})$  is the form  $T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i$  and

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i/n_i) \alpha_i^4 (I - P_T)' T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T) \text{ where } P_T = X(X'T^{-1}X)^{-1}X'T^{-1}.$$

If  $\underline{z} = T^{-1}(I - P_T)\underline{y}$  then the MINQUE for  $\sigma_i^2$  is given by

$$\hat{\sigma}_i^2 = \alpha_i^4 \underline{z}' V_i \underline{z} / n_i \text{ and is non-negative.}$$

Chaubey (1983) proposed a non-negative estimator closest to

MINQUE. Let the estimator  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$  (for some  $i$ ) be the MINQUE  $\underline{y}' A \underline{y}$ , where  $A$  is not necessarily non-negative. Write  $A$  in its spectral

$$\text{form } A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i e_i' \text{ where } \lambda_i \text{ are the eigenvalues of } A \text{ and } e_i \text{ is}$$

the orthonormal eigenvector belonging to  $\lambda_i$ .

Skip the negative eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  (say  $n-r$  ones) and define

$$B'B = \sum_{j=1}^r \lambda_j e_j e_j'. \text{ The euclidean norm } \|A - B'B\| \text{ is minimal, or other-}$$

wise stated the  $A$  matrix is closest approximated by a non-negative matrix  $B'B$ . The estimator  $\underline{y}' B'B \underline{y}$  is a non-negative esti-

mator for  $\sigma_i^2$  and can be seen as a truncated MINQUE, since it is obtained by taking the spectral decomposition of the matrix A. The estimator  $y'B'y$  remains within the class of invariant quadratic estimators but is not always unbiased any more.

For a discussion of the properties of these non-negative estimators see Rao (1977), Rao, Kaplan and Cochran (1981), Rao and Sylvestre (1984) and Kleffe (1980). The comparison of these non-negative estimators is given by Chaubey (1984).

For the balanced case Thompson (1962) and Thompson and Moore (1963) derive non-negative estimators such that linear combinations of variance components (e.g.  $\sigma_1^2 \leq \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$ ) are order

preserving. Another type of non-negative estimator for variance components has been proposed by Hartung (1981), but his method is not order preserving for estimators of linear combinations of variance components! Therefore we do not discuss this estimator.

Kleffe and Rao (1986) discussed the existence of asymptotically unbiased non-negative estimators. For finite n we always have a positive probability to get negative estimates. For infinite n this probability is zero.

Simple conditions can be found from the expressions of the estimators in several cases. Secondly, adjustments to non-negativeness result in the bias for the unbiased estimators like the ANOVA and the MINQUE. The variances of these adjusted biased estimators may not become small unless certain conditions are satisfied. Rao (1987) examined for two models the conditions for the biased and unbiased estimators of the variance components to become small in MSE.

## 5. MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATORS

Another estimator which is always permissible is the proper maximum likelihood estimator (MLE), which yields a point in the



parameter set  $\theta$  at which the likelihood function attains an absolute maximum. It should be noted that in many situations the estimators obtained by merely solving the likelihood equations, i.e. setting first derivatives of the likelihood equal to zero, will not be permissible. Solving likelihood equations while taking into account the restrictions imposed by the parameter set  $\theta$  will give the proper MLE.

For the variance components model with multivariate normally distributed  $y$ , Hartley and Rao (1967) give an iterative procedure for solving the likelihood equations under the restriction of non-negative variance components.

The restricted maximum likelihood (REML) or modified maximum likelihood approach of Patterson and Thompson (1971, 1975) maximizes the likelihood, not of the complete vector  $y$ , but of all error contrasts.

For a discussion of maximum likelihood approaches to variance component estimation see Harville (1977). J.N.K. Rao warned in his comment on Harville's article against the use of ML-procedures, because none of the proposed algorithms in that article guarantees a solution which is indeed ML.

The behaviour of the likelihood as a function of the variance components appears to be complex; even for the simple unbalanced one-way lay-out, the likelihood equation may have multiple roots, or the ML-estimate may be a boundary point rather than a root.

A procedure which guarantees a non-negative solution is the iterative process of Henderson (1984) using the mixed model equations to get a REML solution. The comparison of ANOVA, MINQUE, REML and ML estimators for variance components in the unbalanced one-way classification has been done by Swallow and Monahan (1984). Conerly and Webster (1987) extended the comparison between the MSE of the MINQE and the estimators considered by Swallow and Monahan (1984).

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### 8.3. Which estimation procedure to be used?

For the variance components estimators we gave, in section 5.2 subsection 2.1, the mixed model

$$\underline{y} = X\beta + \sum_{i=1}^k U_i \underline{a}_i \quad (8.3.1)$$

where  $\underline{a}_k$  are the error effects with  $D(\underline{a}_k) = \sigma_k^2 V_k$  with  $V_k = I_n$ .

Let  $v$  stand for the column vector of variance components:

$$v' = (\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_k^2) = \sigma_k^2 (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, 1) \quad (8.3.2)$$

To estimate  $v$ , at the present time four main options are available: ANOVA, Least Squares or MINQUE, ML and REML.

For balanced designs ANOVA and MINQUE are the same. For unbalanced designs the absence of an optimality criterion for ANOVA estimators is a serious deficiency. With more than two variance components, Henderson's Method III estimators give no unique estimator either. Therefore our recommendation is to abandon the ANOVA method of estimating variance components for unbalanced data.

MINQUE, ML and REML are all to be preferred over ANOVA because they have built-in optimality properties. There are also computational connections between these three estimators.

Let us first consider the invariant MINQUE as described in section 5.2, subsection 4, (§ 5.2.4). The dispersion matrix of  $\underline{y}$  is:

$$D(\underline{y}) = V = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2 V_i \quad (8.3.3)$$

where  $V_i = U_i U_i'$ . If the a priori (or approximate) values of  $\sigma_i^2$  are  $\alpha_i^2$ , then the variance components are estimated by calculating with the approximate dispersion matrix

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i.$$

As described in § 5.2.4 the invariant unbiased estimator for

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \sigma_i^2 = \lambda'v, \text{ given } T = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 V_i, \text{ is}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i y' (I - P_T) T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T) y$$

in which  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_k$  satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \rho_i \text{tr}[(I - P_T) T^{-1} V_i T^{-1} (I - P_T) V_j] = \lambda_j$$

for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , and in which  $P_T = X(X'T^{-1}X)^{-1}X'T^{-1}$ .

We use the notation

$$\{a_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^{i,j=k} \text{ for a square matrix of order } k \text{ and } \{b_i\}_{i=1}^{i=k} \text{ for a column}$$

vector of order  $k$ . Let  $\omega$  be the column vector of a priori values  $\alpha_i^2$ ,

which are used in place of  $\sigma_i^2$ ,  $\omega = (\alpha_1^2, \alpha_2^2, \dots, \alpha_k^2)'$ .

Let  $P_\omega = T^{-1}(I - P_T)$ , then  $P_\omega = P_\omega'$ .

Let  $\rho = (\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_k)'$ , then the estimator of  $\lambda'v$  is

$$\lambda' \hat{v} = \rho' \{ y' P_\omega V_i P_\omega y \}_{i=1}^{i=k} \quad (8.3.4)$$

and  $\lambda' \hat{v}$  exists if

$$\{ \text{tr}(P_\omega V_i P_\omega V_j) \}_{i,j=1}^{i,j=k} = \lambda. \quad (8.3.5)$$

Inserting (8.3.5) into (8.3.4) means that the estimation of the variance components vector  $v$  must satisfy the equations in matrix form

$$\{ \text{tr}(P_\omega V_i P_\omega V_j) \}_{i,j=1}^{i,j=k} \hat{v} = \{ y' P_\omega V_i P_\omega y \}_{i=1}^{i=k}$$

or, using the property of the trace operator  $\text{tr}(ABC) = \text{tr}(BCA)$  and



$$V_i = U_i U_i',$$

$$\{ \text{tr}(U_i U_i' P_{\omega} U_j U_j' P_{\omega}) \}_{i,j=1}^{i,j=k} \underline{\hat{\theta}} = \{ \underline{y}' P_{\omega} U_i U_i' P_{\omega} \underline{y} \}_{i=1}^{i=k}. \quad (8.3.6)$$

A very natural extension is to use as a new  $\omega$  the outcomes  $\hat{\theta}$  from (8.3.6) and solve the equation (8.3.6) with this new  $\omega$ .

One iterates till the solution is sufficiently accurate. This is the Iterative MINQUE or I-MINQUE for the variance components.

The ML estimator for the variance components is derived in section 5.2, subsection 6, (§ 5.2.6). This estimator can only be used if we assume that the observations  $\underline{y}$  have a multivariate normal distribution. This restriction is not needed for the MINQUE or I-MINQUE.

The dispersion matrix  $D(\underline{y}) = V$  of (8.3.4) is also described as

$$D(\underline{y}) = \sigma_K^2 H = \sigma_K^2 \sum_{i=1}^k \gamma_i V_i \quad (8.3.7)$$

with  $\gamma_k = 1$ .

The ML estimators follow after iterating as the solutions of

$$\hat{\beta} = (X' \hat{H}^{-1} X)^{-1} (X' \hat{H}^{-1} y) \quad (8.3.8)$$

and

$$\hat{\sigma}_K^2 = y' \hat{R}' \hat{H}^{-1} \hat{R} y / n \quad (8.3.9)$$

where  $\hat{R} = I - X(X' \hat{H}^{-1} X)^{-1} X' \hat{H}^{-1}$ ,

and

$$\text{tr}(\hat{H}^{-1} V_i) = y' \hat{R}' \hat{H}^{-1} V_i \hat{H}^{-1} \hat{R} y / \hat{\sigma}_K^2 \quad (8.3.10)$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$ .

Let us define

$$\hat{\rho} = \hat{H}^{-1} \hat{R} / \hat{\sigma}_K^2 = \hat{V}^{-1} - \hat{V}^{-1} X (X' \hat{V}^{-1} X)^{-1} X' \hat{V}^{-1}. \quad (8.3.11)$$

$$\text{Because } \text{tr}(\hat{H}^{-1}\hat{V}_i) = \text{tr}(\hat{H}^{-1}\hat{V}_i\hat{H}^{-1}\hat{H}) = \text{tr}(\hat{H}^{-1}U_iU_i'\hat{H}^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^k \hat{\gamma}_j U_j U_j') = \sum_{j=1}^k \text{tr}(\hat{H}^{-1}U_iU_i'\hat{H}^{-1}U_j U_j') \hat{\sigma}_j^2 / \hat{\sigma}_k^2,$$

we can write equations (8.3.9) and (8.3.10) in matrix form, using

$$\hat{V}^{-1} = \hat{H}^{-1} / \hat{\sigma}_k^2, \text{ as:}$$

$$\{\text{tr}(U_i U_i' \hat{V}^{-1} U_j U_j' \hat{V}^{-1})\}_{i,j=1}^{i,j=k} \hat{V} = \{Y' \hat{P} U_i U_i' \hat{P} Y\}_{i=1}^{i=k}. \quad (8.3.12)$$

The equations (8.3.8) and (8.3.12) are iteratively solved for  $\hat{V}$ .

Notice that for each iteration cycle  $\hat{H}$  and  $\hat{P}$  must be adapted. A ML estimator for the variance components is given by the solution of the set of

equations (8.3.12) with the restriction that all  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2 \geq 0$ .

The REML estimator for the variance components is derived in section 5.2, subsection 6, (§ 5.2.6). This estimator is found as the solution of

$$\tilde{\sigma}_k^2 = Y' T' (T \tilde{T}' T')^{-1} T Y / (n-p) \quad (8.3.13)$$

and

$$\text{tr}(U_i' T' (T \tilde{T}' T')^{-1} T U_i) = Y' T' (T \tilde{T}' T')^{-1} T U_i U_i' T' (T \tilde{T}' T')^{-1} T Y / \tilde{\sigma}_k^2 \quad (8.3.14)$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$ ,

where  $T$  is an  $(n-p) \times n$  matrix of which the rows are any  $n-p$  linear independent rows of  $S = I - X(X'X)^{-1}X'$ , and  $TX = 0$ . Because  $S$  can be written

as  $QQ'$ , where  $Q$  is a  $n \times (n-p)$  matrix with  $Q'Q = I_{n-p}$ , it follows that

$T' = QF$ , where  $F$  is a non-singular matrix.

$$\text{Now } T' (T \tilde{T}' T')^{-1} T = Q F (F' Q' \tilde{H} Q F)^{-1} F' Q' = Q F [F' (Q' \tilde{H} Q) F]^{-1} F' Q' =$$

$$Q F F^{-1} (Q' \tilde{H} Q)^{-1} (F')^{-1} F' Q' = Q (Q' \tilde{H} Q)^{-1} Q'.$$

Furthermore the dispersion matrix of  $S\bar{Y}$  is  $\sigma_k^2 S H S$ , where  $S H S$  is singular.

Let the Moore-Penrose form of a generalised inverse of a non-null matrix  $B$  be  $B^+$ , so that  $B^+$  is the unique solution of

- (i)  $B B^+ B = B$  ,  
(ii)  $B^+ B B^+ = B^+$  ,  
(iii)  $B B^+ = (B B^+)'$  ,  
(iv)  $B^+ B = (B^+ B)'$  .

It can be shown that the Moore-Penrose inverse of  $\tilde{S}\tilde{H}\tilde{S}$  is  $(\tilde{S}\tilde{H}\tilde{S})^+ =$

$$Q(Q'\tilde{H}Q)^{-1}Q' , \text{ but also } (\tilde{S}\tilde{H}\tilde{S})^+ = \tilde{H}^{-1} - \tilde{H}^{-1}X(X'\tilde{H}^{-1}X)^{-1}X'\tilde{H}^{-1} = \tilde{P}\tilde{\sigma}_K^2 .$$

We have now proved that  $T'(T\tilde{H}T')^{-1}T = \tilde{P}\tilde{\sigma}_K^2$ , and the equations (8.3.13)

and (8.3.14) can be written in matrix-form, using  $\tilde{V}^{-1} = \tilde{H}^{-1}/\tilde{\sigma}_K^2$ , as:

$$\{tr(U_i U_i' \tilde{P} U_j U_j' \tilde{P})\}_{i,j=1}^{i,j=k} \tilde{V} = \{Y' \tilde{P} U_i U_i' \tilde{P} Y\}_{i=1}^{i=k} \quad (8.3.15)$$

and solved by iteration for  $\tilde{V}$ .

A REML estimator for the variance components is given by the solution of the set of equations (8.3.15) with the restriction that all  $\tilde{\sigma}_i^2 \geq 0$ .

We now see that the REML equations (8.3.15) differ from the ML equations (8.3.12) only in having the  $\tilde{P}$ -matrix where the ML equations have the  $V^{-1}$ -matrix in the left-hand side.

Further the MINQUE equations (8.3.6) are exactly the same as the REML equations (8.3.15), except that the  $\tilde{P}$ -matrix in REML is replaced by  $P_\omega$  for MINQUE. Thus a MINQUE = a first iterate of REML. This was first observed by Hocking and Kutner (1975). If the I-MINQUE gives positive estimates for the variance components it is the same as the REML. Only for normally distributed data do we have a REML; if there is no good foundation for the normality assumption, then using the REML procedure and calling the estimate I-MINQUE would be acceptable . Brown (1976) has shown that I-MINQUE has a limiting distribution that is normal.

But a MINQUE is not a permissible estimator; MINQUE can produce negative estimates. Therefore a non-negative adapted MINQUE must be used. To get rid of the pre-assigned vector  $\omega$  of a priori values of

variance components, a non-negative I-MINQUE would be a preferable estimator.

If the data are multivariate normally distributed, the choice is between ML or REML. Both estimators can only be found by iteratively solving the equations (8.3.12) for ML or (8.3.15) for REML, and this raises a number of problems that are in the realm of numerical analysis. Searle (1987) posed the following questions.

Does the choice of a starting value affect the attained value at convergence? Does that attained value always correspond to a global maximum of the likelihood that is being maximized, or does it sometimes correspond to a local maximum?

Since at each successive round of the iteration a numerical matrix is being used for  $V$ , how does one ensure that it is always positive-definite? What are the consequences if an updated  $V$  is not positive-definite? If, after some iteration, the numerical value  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$  to be given to  $\sigma_j^2$  is negative, what action is to be taken? Were that negative  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$  the result from the last round of iteration then it would, according to the maximum likelihood principles, be changed to zero. The model would then be altered correspondingly, and the remaining variance components re-estimated. But suppose  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2 < 0$  occurs before convergence; and suppose it is changed to zero and the model altered, and iteration continues using that altered model. Is this a good procedure if, as a result of some numerical peculiarity of those data, continuing with that unchanged negative  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$  would have, at a subsequent round of iteration, led to a positive  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$ ? Perhaps changing  $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$  to zero and altering the model is the wrong thing to do.

Up to now no available computing package takes care of these difficulties. The research worker believes uncritically in the result given by the computer package. A test with different starting values is usually not made, because it is time consuming. However, if one gets the

same solution some confidence in this result would seem to be justified.

So far we have sketched the difficulties and dangers inherent in using ML or REML procedures, but we have not answered the difficult question: ML or REML? One favoured characteristic of REML is that with balanced data the REML equations reduce to the same equations as are used by ANOVA estimators. We have seen in section 2.3 that ANOVA estimators for balanced designs have the attractive minimum variance property. But ANOVA estimators are not permissible, they can lead to negative estimates. The solutions of the REML equations (8.3.15) are not necessarily REML estimators; they only are if they are positive!

Also REML gives no unbiased estimators even for balanced designs. It is true that the expected value of the right-hand side of the REML equations in (8.3.15) can be written in the same form as the left-hand side of those equations, but this does not imply unbiasedness. The non-negativity constraint of REML has to be taken into account. For unbalanced designs, after iteration, neither ML nor REML is unbiased.

One of the merits of ML over REML is that the ML procedure includes providing an ML estimator for the fixed effects, namely  $\hat{E}(\underline{y}) = X(X'\hat{V}^{-1}X)^{-1} X'\hat{V}^{-1}\underline{y}$ , where the ML solutions for the variance components are inserted into  $\hat{V}$ . Kackar and Harville (1981, 1984) have shown that this ML estimator for  $E(\underline{y})$  is unbiased, and that its sampling variance can be calculated, and hence we asymptotically have normality.

The REML method provides no such estimator, although intuitively one would be inclined to use  $X(X'\tilde{V}^{-1}X)^{-1} X'\tilde{V}^{-1}\underline{y}$  as an estimator for  $E(\underline{y})$  as well, where the REML solutions for the variance components are inserted into  $\tilde{V}$ .

It is difficult to be anything but inconclusive about which of ML

and REML is the preferred method. ML has the merit of simultaneously providing estimators for both the fixed effects and the variance components, and that is appealing. On the other hand, REML has the attraction of providing variance components estimators that are unaffected by the fixed effects. As already discussed before, for data where we do not want to assume normality, a REML procedure as given in most computer packages, gives I-MINQUE results. One must be aware, however, that, in the case of negative results, one should repeat the calculations searching along the boundary of the parameter space (see section 8.2, subsection 4).

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## CHAPTER 9

### 9. PREDICTION OF RANDOM EFFECTS

#### 9.1. Introduction

In the mixed model the estimation of fixed effects and prediction of the random effects are two other aspects that demand attention besides the estimation of variance components. If the dispersion matrix  $D(\underline{y}) = V$  is known, the generalized least squares estimator of  $E(\underline{y}) = X\beta$  is  $X(X'V^{-1}X)^{-1}X'V^{-1}\underline{y}$ .

At the end of section 8.3 we have discussed the estimation of  $E(\underline{y})$ . We now proceed to discuss the prediction of random effects. Any random effect that occurs in the data is not actually a random variable, but is a realization of a random variable. Nevertheless, it is usually unobservable, e.g. the genetic make-up of the dairy cow, whose annual milk yield has been recorded. Whilst we cannot measure these realizations we can think of predicting random effects. This has many applications in practice. The most far-reaching, on a world-wide scale, is in dairy cow breeding, where bulls used in artificial insemination programs each have many offspring, half of whom have milk production records. These records can be used to calculate predictions of the bull's genetic merits. This leads to a ranking of bulls, and only the best few get continuing use in artificial insemination. It is this procedure that has, over the last 30 years, drastically increased the per-cow milk production in many countries around the world. The same principles have also been used in other contexts, such as meat, wool and egg production. In section 9.2 an application in variety testing of field crops is described.

Let us consider again the mixed model, which is described in section 5.2, subsection 2.1:

$$y = X\beta + \sum_{i=1}^k U_i a_i \quad (9.1.1.)$$

where  $a_k$  are the error effects, with  $D(a_k) = \sigma_k^2 V_k$  with  $V_k = I_n$ .

Let  $\underline{U} = (a_1', a_2', \dots, a_k')'$  then the dispersion matrix  $D(\underline{a})$  is  $D = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2 I_{m_1}, \dots, \sigma_k^2 I_{m_k})$ , a block diagonal matrix, with the blocks being the matrices  $\sigma_i^2 I_{m_i}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Furthermore, the dispersion matrix

$$D(y) = \sum_{i=1}^k U_i U_i' \sigma_i^2 = V \quad (9.1.2.)$$

and the covariance matrix of  $y$  and  $\underline{a}$  is

$$C = \text{cov}(y, \underline{a}') = \sum_{i=1}^k U_i \sigma_i^2.$$

So the feature of interest is prediction of  $\underline{a}$ , where  $y$  and  $\underline{a}$  are jointly distributed:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y \\ \underline{a} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad E \begin{bmatrix} y \\ \underline{a} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X\beta \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and dispersion matrix } D \begin{bmatrix} y \\ \underline{a} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V & C \\ C' & D \end{bmatrix}. \quad (9.1.3.)$$

Cochran (1951) or Rao (1973, section 4g.1) describe the best (i.e. minimum mean square) predictor for  $\underline{a}$  as

$$\tilde{\underline{a}} = E(\underline{a} | y). \quad (9.1.4.)$$

The best linear predictor, i.e. linear in elements of  $y$ , is

$$\tilde{\underline{a}}_L = E(\underline{a}) + C' V^{-1} (y - X\beta). \quad (9.1.5.)$$



These results  $\tilde{\underline{a}}$  and  $\tilde{\underline{a}}_L$  hold for any distribution (satisfying the usual regularity conditions) having finite first and second moments. Furthermore, when that distribution is the multivariate normal distribution, (9.1.4.) and (9.1.5.) give the same result, i.e. under normality

$$\tilde{\underline{a}} = \tilde{\underline{a}}_L = E(\underline{a} \mid \underline{y}) = E(\underline{a}) + C'V^{-1}(\underline{y} - X\beta). \quad (9.1.6.)$$

An extension of (9.1.5.) is given by Henderson (1963) for the mixed model. He shows that the best linear predictor of

$$\underline{w} = T'X\beta + \underline{a}$$

is

$$\tilde{\underline{w}} = T'X\hat{\beta} + E(\underline{a}) + C'V^{-1}(\underline{y} - X\hat{\beta}) \quad (9.1.7.)$$

where

$$X\hat{\beta} = X(X'V^{-1}X)^{-1}X'V^{-1}\underline{y}.$$

This is what animal breeders refer to as Best Linear Unbiased Prediction (BLUP). Again, it requires values of  $\sigma^2_i$  for practical application. A comprehensive compilation of the theory for BLUP and its application in animal breeding can be found in Henderson (1984).

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9.2. The best estimation of varietal contrasts according to the model  
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## THE BEST ESTIMATION OF VARIETAL CONTRASTS ACCORDING TO THE MODEL FROM COMBINED VARIETAL TRIALS

### 1. INTRODUCTION

One of the main objects of varietal trials is to estimate the differences in yielding capacity of varieties. The assumptions to derive a good estimation procedure are relatively simple and the observations do not need to be normally distributed. Although the principles of the best linear unbiased estimators (BLUE) for varietal contrasts are described in several mathematical statistical handbooks (e.g. Rao (1973), Searle (1971)), there seems to be no extensive use in the field of variety research. Our colleagues of animal breeding make much more use of these tools. Also the method of best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) of varietal contrasts has not been used in variety research.

In section 2 we give a review of the best linear unbiased estimator in linear models, demonstrated on a little numerical example. In section 3 the linear model of combined varietal trials is described. According to this model the BLUE can be applied. In section 4 the method of best linear prediction is described. Often in varietal research the prediction of varietal contrasts is the relevant question and not the estimation.

### 2. BEST LINEAR UNBIASED ESTIMATORS (BLUE)

#### 2.1. THE MODEL ( $y$ , $X\beta$ , $\sigma^2 I_n$ )

Let us start with the following simple linear model. Consider uncorrelated observations\* ( $y_1, \dots, y_n$ ) such that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} E(y_i) &= x_{i1}\beta_1 + \dots + x_{im}\beta_m \\ V(y_i) &= \sigma^2 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad i=1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (1)$$

where  $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m)$  and  $\sigma^2$  are unknown parameters and  $(x_{ij})=X$  is a  $n \times m$ -matrix of known coefficients with  $n > m$ . If  $\underline{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)'$  and  $\underline{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m)'$  stand for column vectors of the variables  $y_i$  and the parameters  $\beta_j$ , this fixed effects model (1) can be written in

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\* Random variables and vectors (r. v.) are denoted by a letter which is underscored; outcomes of r. v. are denoted by the same letter which is not underscored.

matrix notation:

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{e}, \quad E(\underline{e}) = \underline{0}, \quad D(\underline{e}) = \sigma^2 \underline{I}_n \quad (2)$$

where  $D$  stands for the dispersion-matrix (matrix of variances and covariances) and  $\underline{I}_n$  for the unit matrix of order  $n$ ; hence  $E(\underline{y}) = \underline{X}\underline{\beta}$  and  $D(\underline{y}) = \sigma^2 \underline{I}_n$ . We denote this linear model as  $(\underline{y}, \underline{X}\underline{\beta}, \sigma^2 \underline{I}_n)$ . The problem is that of estimating the unknown parameters  $\beta_j$  on the basis of the observations  $\underline{y}$ . Using the method of least squares for estimating  $\beta_j$  we must minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - x_{i1}b_1 - \dots - x_{im}b_m)^2 = (\underline{y} - \underline{X}\underline{b})'(\underline{y} - \underline{X}\underline{b}),$$

this is the ordinary least squares (OLS) method and the solution is found from the so-called normal equations

$$\underline{X}'\underline{X}\underline{b} = \underline{X}'\underline{y}. \quad (3)$$

Often the linear model is defined with too much parameters  $\underline{\beta}$ , which is called over-parametrization. This means that the normal equations (3) may have more solutions  $\underline{b}$ . An unbiased estimator as  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  for  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} = p_1\beta_1 + \dots + p_m\beta_m$  needs not to be unique. The concept of an identifiable linear function of parameters  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is now needed. Now  $E(\underline{y}) = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta}^*$  implies  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} = \underline{p}'\underline{\beta}^*$ . Therefore  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is identifiable if  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  is unbiased and is unique for all solutions  $\underline{b}$  of the normal equations (3) or equivalently  $\underline{p} \in C(\underline{X}') \Leftrightarrow \underline{p} \in C(\underline{X}'\underline{X})$  or, equivalently there exists a linear function of  $\underline{y}$  with expectation  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$ , [ $C(\underline{A})$  is the column-space of the matrix  $\underline{A}$ ].

Note that it is not sufficient to solve (3) and if for two solutions  $\underline{b}_1$  and  $\underline{b}_2$ ,  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}_1 = \underline{p}'\underline{b}_2$ , to say that  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is identifiable (which is sometimes done in practice) because it must be true for all solutions of (3). From the uniqueness of  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  for all solutions of the normal equations (3) in most books  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is called an estimable linear function of the parameters instead of an identifiable linear function. The Gauss-Markov theorem is now as follows: If  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is estimable, then  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  has minimum variance in the class of linear unbiased estimators of  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$ . The estimator  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  is called the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) for  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$ .

Till now we did not solve the normal equation (3). If the rank of the  $n \times m$ -matrix,  $R(\underline{X}) = m$ , then  $R(\underline{X}'\underline{X}) = m$  and hence the normal equation has an unique solution  $\underline{b} = (\underline{X}'\underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}'\underline{y}$  and naturally  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  is unique for any given  $\underline{p}$ . Hence all linear parametric functions are estimable, if and only if  $R(\underline{X}) = m$ . If  $\text{rank } R(\underline{X}) < m$ , then some parametric functions do not admit unbiased estimators. For such non-estimable or non-identifiable parametric functions nothing can be inferred.

Let  $(\underline{X}'\underline{X})^-$  be a generalised inverse of  $\underline{X}'\underline{X}$ , such that  $(\underline{X}'\underline{X})(\underline{X}'\underline{X})^-(\underline{X}'\underline{X}) = \underline{X}'\underline{X}$ . It can than be shown that  $\underline{b} = (\underline{X}'\underline{X})^- \underline{X}'\underline{y}$  is a solution of the normal equations. There are two equivalent criterions to conclude that  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is estimable.

(i) A necessary and sufficient condition that  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is estimable is that

$$\underline{p}'[\underline{I} - (\underline{X}'\underline{X})^-(\underline{X}'\underline{X})] = \underline{0}$$

or

$$\underline{p}' = \underline{p}'(\underline{X}'\underline{X})^-(\underline{X}'\underline{X}).$$

(ii) Let  $\underline{q}_i$  be basis vectors of the kernel or null space of  $\underline{X}$ , or  $\underline{X}\underline{q}_i = \underline{0}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, s$ , where  $s = m - R(\underline{X})$ . Let  $\underline{Q}'$  be the matrix  $(\underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_2, \dots, \underline{q}_s)$  or  $\underline{X}\underline{Q}' = \underline{0}$ . A necessary and sufficient condition that  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is estimable is that  $\underline{p}'\underline{Q}' = \underline{0}'$  or  $\underline{Q}\underline{p} = \underline{0}$ .

Because the null space  $X$  is often already needed for the construction of a generalised inverse of  $X'X$  criterion (ii) is easier to use to check the estimability of  $p'\beta$ . A generalised inverse of  $X'X$  is found as  $(X'X + cQ'Q)^{-1}$  with  $c \neq 0$ .

Note that an easy check for estimability in experimental designs is that if  $p'\beta$  can be expressed as a linear combination of expected cell means it is estimable.

Let  $p'b$  and  $r'b$  be the least squares estimators of the estimable functions  $p'\beta$  and  $r'\beta$ . Let  $(X'X)^-$  be any generalized inverse of  $X'X$ , then

$$V(p'b) = \sigma^2 p'(X'X)^- p, \quad \text{cov}(p'b, r'b) = \sigma^2 p'(X'X)^- r, \quad (4)$$

so  $\sigma^2(X'X)^-$  can be formally considered as the dispersion matrix of  $b$  as long as formulas (4) are applied to estimable parametric functions.

When  $X'X$  is non-singular we have the well-known fact  $D(b) = \sigma^2(X'X)^{-1}$ . Note that the calculation of  $(X'X)^-$  is not always necessary to find the variance of  $p'b$ . Suppose from the normal equations  $X'Xb = X'y$  we find that on multiplying by a vector  $c$ ,  $c'(X'X)b = c'(X'y)$  reduces to  $p'b = c'(X'y)$ . Then  $c'(X'y)$  is the BLUE of  $p'\beta$  and  $V(p'b) = V(c'X'y) = \sigma^2 c'(X'X)c = \sigma^2 c'p$ . Similarly if  $c'(X'X) = p'$  and  $d'(X'X) = r'$ , then  $c'(X'y)$  and  $d'(X'y)$  are the BLUE of  $p'\beta$  and  $r'\beta$  and  $\text{cov}(c'(X'y), d'(X'y)) = \sigma^2 c'r = \sigma^2 d'p$ .

Example 1. In a randomized (complete) block design two varieties  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are tested in 3 blocks  $B_1, B_2, B_3$ , each block consist of 2 plots. Unfortunately a tractor destroyed the plot of  $A_2$  in block  $B_3$ . The observations  $y_{ij}$  are as follows:

	$B_1$	$B_2$	$B_3$
$A_1$	$y_{11} = 10$	$y_{12} = 11$	$y_{13} = 13$
$A_2$	$y_{21} = 10$	$y_{22} = 14$	*

One assumes that the fixed effects of factor  $A$  and  $B$  are additive, hence

$$E(y_{ij}) = \alpha_i + \beta_j \quad (i=1, 2; j=1, 2, 3).$$

We can consider the observations to be uncorrelated with the same variance  $\sigma^2$ . Hence we have the model  $(y, X\beta, \sigma^2 I_5)$  with  $y = (y_{11}, y_{12}, y_{13}, y_{21}, y_{22})'$  and

$$E(y) = X\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The normal equations  $X'Xb = X'y$  are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 34 \\ 24 \\ 20 \\ 25 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that for many varieties in incomplete blocks a solution of  $X'Xb = X'y$  is often found

by an iterative procedure. Remark that the columns  $x_i$  of  $X$  are linearly dependent:  $x_1 + x_2 = x_3 + x_4 + x_5$  or  $x_1 + x_2 - x_3 - x_4 - x_5 = 0$  hence  $Xq = 0$  with  $q = (1, 1, -1, -1, -1)'$ , where  $q$  is the basis of the null space of  $X$ . The matrix  $Q' = (q)$ . The rank of  $X$  is  $R(X) = 5 - 1 = 4$  hence  $X'X$  is singular.

A generalized inverse  $(X'X)^- = (X'X + cQ'Q)^{-1}$  with  $c \neq 0$ . When we take  $c = 1$  we get a

$$(X'X)^- = \begin{bmatrix} 0.28 & -0.12 & 0.02 & 0.02 & -0.08 \\ -0.12 & 0.48 & -0.08 & -0.08 & 0.32 \\ 0.02 & -0.08 & 0.43 & -0.07 & -0.22 \\ 0.02 & -0.08 & -0.07 & 0.43 & -0.22 \\ -0.08 & 0.32 & -0.22 & -0.22 & 0.88 \end{bmatrix}$$

With this generalized inverse we find a solution of the normal equations as

$$= (X'X)^- X'y = \begin{bmatrix} 6.5 \\ 8 \\ 2.75 \\ 5.25 \\ 6.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} =$$

Remark the varietal contrast  $\alpha_2 - \alpha_1 = p'\beta = (-1, 1, 0, 0, 0)\beta$  is estimable because  $p'q = 0$ ;  $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)/2 = p'\beta = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0, 0, 0)\beta$  is not estimable because  $p'q = 1 \neq 0$ ;  $\alpha_2 + (\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3)/3 = p'\beta = (0, 1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3})\beta$  is estimable because  $p'q = 0$ .  $E(y_{23}) = \alpha_2 + \beta_3$  is estimable with estimate  $a_2 + b_3 = 8 + 6.5 = 14.5$ .

Another generalised inverse of  $X'X$  can be found by stating one of the five parameters (of which only four parameters are independent) equal to e.g. 0. A solution is found by

stating e.g.  $a_1 = 0$ . The relevant part of  $X'X$  is now  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and this has an inverse

$$\frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{A generalised inverse of } X'X \text{ is then } \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{The}$$

solution of the normal equations are now  $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1.5 \\ 9.25 \\ 11.75 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix}$ . The BLUE for  $\alpha_2 - \alpha_1$  is in both

cases  $a_2 - a_1$  with result  $1.5 = (8 - 6.5) = (1.5 - 0)$ . The BLUE for  $\alpha_1 + (\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3)/3$  is 11.333 and for  $\alpha_2 + (\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3)/3$  is 12.833.  $\text{Var}(a_2 - a_1) = \sigma^2(0.28 + 0.48 - 2(-0.12)) = \sigma^2(0 + 4 - 2(0))/4 = 1\sigma^2$ .

2.2. THE MODEL ( $\underline{y}$ ,  $\underline{x}\beta$ ,  $\underline{V}$ )

We consider now the model where the  $n$  observations  $\underline{y}$  can have unequal variances and correlated observations are possible. The linear model is

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\beta + \underline{e}, \quad \text{with } E(\underline{e}) = \underline{0} \text{ and } D(\underline{e}) = \underline{V} = \sigma^2 \underline{W}, \underline{V} \text{ is positive definite.}$$

This linear model is denoted as  $(\underline{y}, \underline{X}\beta, \underline{V})$ . By considering  $\underline{z} = \underline{W}^{-1/2} \underline{y}$  we have

$$E(\underline{z}) = \underline{W}^{-1/2} \underline{X}\beta = \underline{U}\beta$$

$$D(\underline{z}) = \sigma^2 \underline{I}_n.$$

The transformed model is  $\underline{z} = \underline{U}\beta + \underline{f}$  with  $E(\underline{f}) = \underline{0}$  and  $D(\underline{f}) = \sigma^2(\underline{I})$ . We can apply now the results of section 2.1 on  $(\underline{z}, \underline{U}\beta, \sigma^2 \underline{I}_n)$ . The least squares estimator for  $\beta$  is found as the solution of the normal equations  $\underline{U}'\underline{U}\underline{b} = \underline{U}'\underline{z}$  or

$$\underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{X}\underline{b} = \underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{y}. \quad (5)$$

The BLUE for estimable parametric functions  $\underline{p}'\beta$  are given by  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  where  $\underline{b}$  is a solution of (5) and such an estimator is called the generalised least squares (GLS) estimator of  $\underline{p}'\beta$ . The variance of an estimable  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$  is

$$V(\underline{p}'\underline{b}) = \sigma^2 \underline{p}'(\underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{X})^{-} \underline{p}.$$

Remark: If we take in the model  $(\underline{y}, \underline{X}\beta, \underline{V})$  as an estimator  $\underline{b}$  the solution of  $\underline{X}'\underline{X}\underline{b} = \underline{X}'\underline{y}$  then we have for an estimable function  $\underline{p}'\beta$  a linear unbiased estimator  $\underline{p}'\underline{b}$ , but this estimator has in general no minimum variance in the class of linear unbiased estimators of  $\underline{p}'\beta$ . Sometimes are OLS and GLS estimators for  $\underline{p}'\beta$ . If and only if the column space  $C(\underline{V}\underline{X}) \subset C(\underline{X})$ , or  $\underline{X}$  is invariant under  $\underline{V}$ , then OLS is GLS. See also Baksalary and Kala (1981, 1983).

Example 2. Let us take as an example 2 varieties  $A1$  and  $A2$  which are tested on 3 random locations (places or sites)  $L1, L2, L3$  drawn at random from a certain region. Due to an accident, the yield of variety  $A2$  in place  $B3$  was lost. Let the observations be the same as in example 1.

	L 1	L 2	L 3
A1	$y_{11} = 10$	$y_{12} = 11$	$y_{13} = 13$
A2	$y_{21} = 10$	$y_{22} = 14$	*

From previous experiments in this region, which has the same climatic conditions everywhere, one can state that there is no interaction of variety and places. The statistical model for this mixed model is

$$\underline{y}_{ij} = \alpha_i + \underline{u}_j + \underline{e}_{ij} \quad (i = 1, 2; j = 1, 2, 3)$$

with  $E(\underline{u}_j) = 0$ ,  $\text{cov}(\underline{u}_j, \underline{u}_{j'}) = \delta_{jj'} \sigma_u^2$ ;  $E(\underline{e}_{ij}) = 0$ ,  $\text{cov}(\underline{e}_{ij}, \underline{e}_{i'j'}) = \delta_{ii'} \delta_{jj'} \sigma_e^2$ ;  $\text{cov}(\underline{u}_j, \underline{e}_{ij}) = 0$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ ; where  $\delta_{ii'} = 1$  if  $i = i'$  and  $\delta_{ii'} = 0$  if  $i \neq i'$ .

In matrix notation is

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{Z}\underline{u} + \underline{e}$$

$$\text{with } D(\underline{u}) = \sigma_L^2 \underline{I}_3; D(\underline{e}) = \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_5, \text{ cov}(\underline{u}, \underline{e}) = 0, \underline{X}\underline{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix}; \underline{Z}\underline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The expectation vector  $E(\underline{y}) = \underline{X}\underline{\beta}$  and the dispersion matrix of  $\underline{y}$  is

$$E[(\underline{y} - \underline{X}\underline{\beta})(\underline{y} - \underline{X}\underline{\beta})'] = \underline{Z}D(\underline{u})\underline{Z}' + D(\underline{e}) = \sigma_L^2 \underline{Z}\underline{I}_3 \underline{Z}' + \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_5.$$

Hence  $D(\underline{y}) = \underline{V} = \sigma_e^2 \underline{W} = \sigma_e^2 [\gamma \underline{Z}\underline{Z}' + \underline{I}_5]$  with  $\gamma = \sigma_L^2 / \sigma_e^2$  and

$$\underline{W} = \gamma \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let us assume that from previous experiments is known  $\gamma = \sigma_L^2 / \sigma_e^2 = 3$ .

$$\underline{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{W}^{-1} = \frac{1}{196} \begin{bmatrix} 112 & 0 & 0 & -84 & 0 \\ 0 & 112 & 0 & 0 & -84 \\ 0 & 0 & 49 & 0 & 0 \\ -84 & 0 & 0 & 112 & 0 \\ 0 & -84 & 0 & 0 & 112 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The normal equations are

$$(\underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{X}) \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{y} \rightarrow \frac{1}{196} \begin{bmatrix} 273 & -168 \\ -168 & 224 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{196} \begin{bmatrix} 973 \\ 924 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{196}{32928} \begin{bmatrix} 224 & 168 \\ 168 & 273 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{196} \begin{bmatrix} 973 \\ 924 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{32928} \begin{bmatrix} 373184 \\ 415716 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11.333 \\ 12.625 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In the general mixed model situation

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{Z}\underline{u} + \underline{e}, \quad \text{with } E(\underline{u}) = 0, E(\underline{e}) = 0; D(\underline{u}) = \sigma_u^2 \underline{G}, D(\underline{e}) = \sigma_e^2 \underline{R}$$

and  $\text{cov}(\underline{u}, \underline{e}) = 0$ ,

we have  $D(\underline{y}) = \underline{V} = (\underline{Z}\underline{G}\underline{Z}' + \underline{R})\sigma_e^2 = \sigma_e^2 \underline{W}$ .

The generalised least squares solution  $\underline{b}$  for  $\underline{\beta}$  follows from the normal equations

$$(\underline{X}'\underline{V}^{-1}\underline{X})\underline{b} = \underline{X}'\underline{V}^{-1}\underline{y} \quad \text{or equivalently } (\underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{X})\underline{b} = \underline{X}'\underline{W}^{-1}\underline{y}. \quad (6)$$

In solving these equations one needs  $\underline{W}^{-1}$  where  $\underline{W}$  is a  $n \times n$ -matrix. The difficulty with this method is that  $\underline{W}$  is often a matrix so large that its inversion is very costly. An alternative



method is given by Henderson et al. (1959). The idea is that in the fixed model situation

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{Z}\underline{u} + \underline{e} = (\underline{X} \ \underline{Z}) \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\beta} \\ \underline{u} \end{bmatrix} + \underline{e} \quad \text{with } D(\underline{e}) = \underline{R}\sigma_e^2 = D(\underline{y}),$$

the normal equations are

$$(\underline{X} \ \underline{Z})' \underline{R}^{-1} (\underline{X} \ \underline{Z}) \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b} \\ \underline{\hat{u}} \end{bmatrix} = (\underline{X} \ \underline{Z})' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{y}$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{X}' \\ \underline{Z}' \end{bmatrix} \underline{R}^{-1} (\underline{X} \ \underline{Z}) \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b} \\ \underline{\hat{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{X}' \\ \underline{Z}' \end{bmatrix} \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{y}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{X}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{X} & \underline{X}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{Z} \\ \underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{X} & \underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{Z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b} \\ \underline{\hat{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{X}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{y} \\ \underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{y} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In the mixed model situation we have the same patterned matrix at the left-hand-side with the addition of the inverse of  $D(\underline{u})\sigma_e^{-2} = \underline{G}$  to  $\underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{Z}$ . The generalised least squares estimate  $\underline{b}$  of  $\underline{\beta}$  is then found as a solution of

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{X}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{X} & \underline{X}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{Z} \\ \underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{X} & \underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{Z} + \underline{G}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b} \\ \underline{\hat{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{X}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{y} \\ \underline{Z}' \underline{R}^{-1} \underline{y} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (7)$$

These equations (7) are called Henderson's Mixed Model Equations (MME).

Because often  $\underline{R}$  is a diagonal matrix the only difficulty is the inverse of  $\underline{G}$  which is of a much smaller order than  $\underline{W}$ . Another computational trick is the absorbing of e.g. the  $\underline{\hat{u}}$  equations in the  $\underline{b}$  equations in (7). Let the MME in (7) be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{A} & \underline{B} \\ \underline{B}' & \underline{C} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b} \\ \underline{\hat{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{r}_1 \\ \underline{r}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

then the absorbed equations are

$$[\underline{A} - \underline{B}\underline{C}^{-1}\underline{B}'] \underline{b} = \underline{r}_1 - \underline{B}\underline{C}^{-1}\underline{r}_2. \quad (8)$$

The proof that a solution of MME (7) is a solution of the GLS equations (6) is based on the identity

$$\underline{W}^{-1} = (\underline{Z}\underline{G}\underline{Z}' + \underline{R})^{-1} = \underline{R}^{-1} - \underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z}(\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z} + \underline{G}^{-1})^{-1}\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}.$$

From the second line of the MME (7) it follows

$$\underline{\hat{u}} = (\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z} + \underline{G}^{-1})^{-1} [\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}\underline{y} - \underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}\underline{X}\underline{b}].$$

Inserting  $\underline{\hat{u}}$  in the first line of the MME (7) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{X}' [\underline{R}^{-1} - \underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z}(\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z} + \underline{G}^{-1})^{-1}\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}] \underline{X}\underline{b} = \\ = \underline{X}' [\underline{R}^{-1} - \underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z}(\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}\underline{Z} + \underline{G}^{-1})^{-1}\underline{Z}'\underline{R}^{-1}] \underline{y} \end{aligned}$$

and hence

$$\underline{X}' \underline{W}^{-1} \underline{X}\underline{b} = \underline{X}' \underline{W}^{-1} \underline{y}.$$

Example 2 (continuation). The Mixed Model Equations are with  $R=I_5=R^{-1}$ ,  $G=3I_3$  hence  $G^{-1}=\frac{1}{3}I_3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} X'X & X'Z \\ Z'X & Z'Z + \frac{1}{3}I_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ \hat{u} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X'y \\ Z'y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & \frac{7}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \frac{7}{3} & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \hat{u}_1 \\ \hat{u}_2 \\ \hat{u}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 34 \\ 24 \\ 20 \\ 25 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Absorbing of the  $\hat{u}_j$  equations in the  $a_i$  equations gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} (3 - \frac{3}{7} - \frac{3}{7} - \frac{3}{4}) & (0 - \frac{3}{7} - \frac{3}{7}) \\ (0 - \frac{3}{7} - \frac{3}{7}) & (2 - \frac{3}{7} - \frac{3}{7}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 34 - \frac{3}{7}20 - \frac{3}{7}25 - \frac{3}{4}13 \\ 24 - \frac{3}{7}20 - \frac{3}{7}25 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 39 & -24 \\ -24 & 32 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{28} \begin{bmatrix} 139 \\ 132 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{672} \begin{bmatrix} 32 & 24 \\ 24 & 39 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 139 \\ 132 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{672} \begin{bmatrix} 7616 \\ 8484 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11.333 \\ 12.625 \end{bmatrix}.$$

### 3. A MODEL FOR COMBINED VARIETAL TRIALS

Let us now discuss the testing of  $I$  varieties ( $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_I$ ) in a region. Let us take a random sample of  $J$  places (or sites)  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_J$  from this region. In each location we use a completely randomized design with  $H$  plots for each variety. Let  $y_{ijh}$  be the yield of variety  $A_i$  on the  $h$ -th plot in place  $P_j$ . A combined analysis is based on the cross-classification of varieties and places.

	$P_1$	$\dots P_j \dots$	$P_J$
$A_1$	$y_{111}, \dots, y_{11H}$		
$\vdots$			
$A_i$			
$\vdots$			
$A_I$			

The mixed model is

$$y_{ijh} = \mu + \alpha_i + p_j + (ap)_{ij} + e_{ijh} \quad (9)$$

where  $\mu$  is a general mean,  $\alpha_i$  is the fixed effect of variety  $A_i$  ( $i=1, \dots, I$ ) and to get rid of the overparametrization we have chosen the  $\alpha_i$ 's such that  $\sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i = 0$ ;  $p_j$  is the random effect of place  $P_j$  ( $j=1, \dots, J$ ) with  $E(p_j)=0$ ,  $V(p_j)=\sigma_p^2$  and  $\text{cov}(p_j, p_{j'})=0$  if  $j \neq j'$ ;  $(ap)_{ij}$  is the random interaction effect of variety  $A_i$  at place  $P_j$  with  $E[(ap)_{ij}]=0$ ,  $V[(ap)_{ij}]=\sigma_{ap}^2$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ ;  $e_{ijh}$  is the residual random error or plot to plot variation with  $E(e_{ijh})=0$ ,  $V(e_{ijh})=\sigma_e^2$  for

all  $i, j$  and  $h$ ; the  $e_{ijh}$ 's are uncorrelated; furthermore  $\text{cov}(\underline{p}_j, (\underline{ap})_{ij}) = 0$ ,  $\text{cov}(\underline{p}_j, e_{ijh}) = 0$ ,  $\text{cov}((\underline{ap})_{ij}, e_{ijh}) = 0$ .

If we calculate the analysis of variance (ANOVA) table, one will find in the literature two different Expected Mean Squares columns (i) and (ii):

Source of Variation	D.F.	M.S.	E.M.S. (j)	E.M.S. (ii)
Varieties (fixed)	$I-1$	MSA	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + JH\kappa_A^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + JH\kappa_A^2$
Places (random)	$J-1$	MSP	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + IH\sigma_P^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + IH\sigma_P^2$
Interaction	$(I-1)(J-1)$	MSAP	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2$
Error	$IJ(H-1)$	MSE	$\sigma_e^2$	$\sigma_e^2$
Corrected Total	$IJH-1$			

with  $\kappa_A^2 = \sum_{i=1}^I (\alpha_i - \bar{\alpha})^2 / (I-1) = \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i^2 / (I-1)$  while  $\bar{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i / I = 0$ .

At a first glance the difference in the E. M. S. column is in  $E(\underline{MSP})$  where the term  $H\sigma_{AP}^2$  is present in (i) and absent in (ii). In the statistical handbooks we find EMS (i) for example in Steel and Torrie (1980) and Kirk (1968) and one finds EMS (ii) for example in Scheffé (1959), Snedecor and Cochran (1980) and Winer (1971). Inclusion of  $H\sigma_{AP}^2$  from  $E(\underline{MSP})$  in (i) arise when the random effects  $(\underline{ap})_{ij}$  in (9) for the mixed model, are defined uncorrelated. Exclusion of  $H\sigma_{AP}^2$  from  $E(\underline{MSP})$  in (ii) can arise when  $(\underline{ap})_{ij}$  in (9) are defined such that  $\sum_{i=1}^I (\underline{ap})_{ij} = 0$  for all  $j$ . In this case there is a correlation between  $(\underline{ap})_{ij}$  and  $(\underline{ap})_{i'j}$  ( $i \neq i'$ ;  $j = 1, \dots, J$ ). Reasonable is to assume that  $\text{cov}[(\underline{ap})_{ij}, (\underline{ap})_{i'j}] = \omega$  for all  $j$  and  $i \neq i'$ . Now is

$$V\left[\sum_{i=1}^I (\underline{ap})_{ij}\right] = V(0) = 0$$

but otherwise

$$V\left[\sum_{i=1}^I (\underline{ap})_{ij}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^I \sigma_{AP}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{i' \neq i}^I \omega = I\sigma_{AP}^2 + I(I-1)\omega$$

and hence

$$\omega = -\sigma_{AP}^2 / (I-1).$$

The limitation  $\sum_{i=1}^I (\underline{ap})_{ij} = 0$  for all  $j$  is quite reasonable when we adopt the mixed model derivation of Scheffé (1959). Searle (1971) shows that the mixed model (i) can be redefined to get mixed model (ii).

Redefine

$$\underline{p}_j^* = \underline{p}_j + \sum_{i=1}^I (\underline{ap})_{ij} / I \quad \text{and} \quad (\underline{ap})_{ij}^* = (\underline{ap})_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^I (\underline{ap})_{ij} / I.$$

Now

$$V(\underline{p}_j^*) = \sigma_p^2 + \sigma_{AP}^2 / I = \sigma_p^{*2},$$

$$V[(\underline{ap})_{ij}^*] = \sigma_{AP}^2 + \sigma_{AP}^2 / I - 2\sigma_{AP}^2 / I = \sigma_{AP}^2 (I-1) / I = \sigma_{AP}^{*2},$$

$$\text{cov}[(\underline{ap})_{ij}^*, (\underline{ap})_{i'j}^*] = -\sigma_{AP}^{*2} / (I-1) \quad \text{for} \quad i \neq i'.$$

The variance components in EMS (ii) are  $\sigma_{AP}^2(ii) = \sigma_{AP}^{*2} I / (I-1) = \sigma_{AP}^2$ ,

$$\sigma_P^2(ii) = \sigma_P^{*2} = \sigma_P^2 + \sigma_{AP}^2 / I;$$

so  $\sigma_P^2$  has in EMS(i) and EMS(ii) a different meaning! Furthermore there is no correlation between  $(\underline{ap})_{ij}$  and  $(\underline{ap})_{i'j'}$  in mixed model (i) but there is a correlation in mixed model (ii).

In matrix notation the mixed model can be written as

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{Z}_1 \underline{u}_1 + \underline{Z}_2 \underline{u}_2 + \underline{e} \quad \text{with} \quad \underline{\beta} = (\mu, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_I)'$$

$$\underline{u}_1 = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_J)'$$

$$\text{and} \quad \underline{u}_2 = ((\underline{ap})_{11}, (\underline{ap})_{12}, \dots, (\underline{ap})_{IJ})'$$

where  $\underline{X}$ ,  $\underline{Z}_1$  and  $\underline{Z}_2$  are the design matrices; the dispersion matrix of  $\underline{u}_1$  is  $D(\underline{u}_1) = \sigma_P^2 \underline{I}_J$ ,  $D(\underline{e}) = \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_n$  with  $n = IJH$  and for mixed model (i)

$$D(\underline{u}_2) = \sigma_{AP}^2 \underline{I}_{IJ}$$

and for mixed model (ii)

$$D(\underline{u}_2) = \sigma_{AP}^2 / (I-1) [\underline{J} \times (\underline{I}_I - \underline{J}_I) \otimes \underline{I}_J = [\sigma_{AP}^2 / (I-1)] \underline{\Omega},$$

where  $\underline{J}_I$  is  $I \times I$ -matrix with all elements equal to 1 and the Kronecker product  $\underline{A} \otimes \underline{B}$  is  $(a_{ij} \underline{B})$ . The dispersion matrix of  $\underline{y}$  is for model (i):

$$\begin{aligned} D(\underline{y}) &= V(i) = \underline{Z}_1(\sigma_P^2 \underline{I}_J) \underline{Z}_1' + \underline{Z}_2(\sigma_{AP}^2 \underline{I}_{IJ}) \underline{Z}_2' + \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_n = \\ &= \sigma_e^2 [\lambda_1 \underline{Z}_1 \underline{Z}_1' + \lambda_2 \underline{Z}_2 \underline{Z}_2' + \underline{I}_n] = \sigma_e^2 \underline{W}(i) \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda_1 = \sigma_P^2 / \sigma_e^2; \lambda_2 = \sigma_{AP}^2 / \sigma_e^2. \end{aligned}$$

The dispersion matrix of  $\underline{y}$  is for model (ii):

$$\begin{aligned} D(\underline{y}) &= V(ii) = \underline{Z}_1(\sigma_P^2 \underline{I}_J) \underline{Z}_1' + \underline{Z}_2(\sigma_{AP}^2 / (I-1) \underline{\Omega}) \underline{Z}_2' + \sigma_e^2 \underline{I}_n = \\ &= \sigma_e^2 [\lambda_1 \underline{Z}_1 \underline{Z}_1' + \lambda_2 \underline{Z}_2 \underline{\Omega} \underline{Z}_2' + \underline{I}_n] = \sigma_e^2 \underline{W}(ii) \\ &\quad \text{with} \quad \lambda_1 = \sigma_P^2 / \sigma_e^2; \lambda_2 = \sigma_{AP}^2 / [\sigma_e^2 (I-1)]. \end{aligned}$$

For the estimation of varietal contrasts we can now use the BLUE such as already have been discussed in section 2. It turns out that for a balanced cross-classification the ordinary least squares estimator (OLS) for  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$  is the same as the generalised least squares estimators (GLS). This feature has to do with the fact that the column space of  $\underline{X}$  is invariant with respect to the dispersion matrix  $\underline{V}$ . But in the unbalanced case the OLS and the GLS estimators give different outcomes. See for conditions that OLS is GLS Baksalary and Kala (1981, 1983).

A more realistic example is the testing of  $I$  varieties on  $J$  random places, but in each location there is a need for blocking, for example there is a fertility gradient in the experimental field which can be accounted for by rectangular blocks with the long side perpendicular on the gradient, or the experimental field consists of homogeneous parts of different fertility. In each location we use a randomized block design with  $H$  complete blocks of  $I$  plots (such complete blocks are often called replications). Let  $\underline{y}_{ijh}$  be the yield

of variety  $A_i$  at place  $P_j$  in the  $h$ -th block  $B_{hj}$  of place  $P_j$ , then the mixed model is

$$y_{ijh} = \mu + \alpha_i + p_j + \beta_{h(j)} + (ap)_{ij} + e_{ijh}. \quad (10)$$

For the fixed block effects  $\beta_{h(j)}$  we choose the condition  $\sum_{h=1}^H \beta_{h(j)} = 0$  for each  $j = 1, \dots, J$  to get rid of the overparametrization. The other effects are defined as in (9). The ANOVA-table gives then according to model (i) — no limitation on  $(ap)_{ij}$  and model (ii) —  $\sum_{i=1}^I (ap)_{ij} = 0$  for each  $j$ :

Source of Variation	D.F.	M.S.	E.M.S. (i)	E.M.S. (ii)
Varieties	$I-1$	MSA	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + JH\kappa_A^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + JH\kappa_A^2$
Places	$J-1$	MSP	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + IH\sigma_P^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + IH\sigma_P^2$
Blocks within places	$J(H-1)$	MSB	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2 + I\kappa_B^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + I\kappa_B^2$
Interaction $A \times P$	$(I-1)(J-1)$	MSI	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2$	$\sigma_e^2 + H\sigma_{AP}^2$
Error	$(I-1)J(H-1)$	MSE	$\sigma_e^2$	$\sigma_e^2$
Corrected Total	$IJH-1$			

with  $\kappa_A^2 = \sum_{i=1}^I \alpha_i^2 / (I-1)$  and  $\kappa_B^2 = \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H \beta_{h(j)}^2 / [J(H-1)]$ .

In the balanced case with a completely randomized design [mixed model (9)] or a randomized (complete) block design [mixed model (10)] we can also analyze the two-way table of varietal means

$$\bar{y}_{ij} = \sum_{h=1}^H y_{ijh} / H.$$

The mixed model for  $\bar{y}_{ij}$  is then for both cases (i) and (ii):

$$\bar{y}_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + p_j + (ap)_{ij} + \bar{e}_{ij}, \quad (11)$$

with  $V(\bar{e}_{ij}) = \sigma_e^2 / H$  but  $D[(ap)_{ij}]$  is different in model (i) or (ii).

If we have a different number of replications  $r_j$  per place  $P_j$ ,  $V(\bar{e}_{ij}) = \sigma_e^2 / r_j$  and  $D(\bar{e})$  is a diagonal matrix with diagonal elements  $\sigma_e^2 / r_j$ . In the case of a randomized block design with missing values at a certain place or with an incomplete block design the best estimators for  $\mu + \alpha_i$  is not  $\bar{y}_{ij}$  more and the BLUE of  $\mu + \alpha_i$  per place has a dispersion-matrix which is not diagonal any more! Also the use of  $\alpha$ -designs of Patterson et al. (1978) in varietal testing has the impact of a more complicated structure for the dispersion-matrix of the BLUE of  $\mu + \alpha_i$ . Till now in practice one neglects this and uses for the analysis of a two-way table of varieties and places with the estimates of  $\mu + \alpha_i$  per place an error dispersion-matrix which is a constant times the identity matrix. With the possibility now to use the computer it is wise to use the generalised least squares estimators with the correct dispersion matrix.

From the generalised least squares method with use of the mixed model normal equations (7) one can see that if the ratio of the variance components  $\sigma_P^2 / \sigma_e^2$  and  $\sigma_{AP}^2 / \sigma_e^2$  are very large the generalised least squares method for a mixed model is about the same as the ordinary

least squares method for a fixed model where the effect of places are considered to be fixed. This means that if we take places at random from a country with different climatic and/or soil regions, we can expect a very large  $\sigma_p^2/\sigma_e^2$ . Often it is better to divide the country in strata (=regions) according to the more homogeneous climatic or soil conditions and the ratio of  $\sigma_p^2/\sigma_e^2$  is then not so large.

One can expect in our developed countries in Europe that the differences of yield that we may expect to put forward in varietal field experiments are about 5 percent of the mean yield. Just for such small differences in yielding capacity it is worthwhile to use the more elaborated generalised least square method to find BLUE for varietal contrast!

Over-year summaries can be obtained by assembling the BLUE of varietal means for each season in a varieties  $\times$  years table. The same remarks we have made before can be used for analyzing such tables according to the correct model. Prior experiments give ideas for  $\sigma_p^2/\sigma_e^2$  and  $\sigma_{AP}^2/\sigma_e^2$ .

#### 4. BEST LINEAR UNBIASED PREDICTION

A mixed linear model arises in combined variety trials and in many genetic applications and can be represented as we have seen in section 2 as

$$\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{Z}\underline{u} + \underline{e} \quad (12)$$

where  $\underline{y}$  is an  $n \times 1$ -observation vector.  $\underline{X}$  is a known  $n \times m$ -matrix,  $\underline{\beta}$  is an unknown fixed  $m \times 1$ -vector and  $\underline{Z}$  is a known  $n \times k$ -matrix;  $\underline{u}$  and  $\underline{e}$  are nonobservable random vectors with  $E(\underline{u})=0$  and  $E(\underline{e})=0$  and dispersion-matrix

$$D \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u} \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{G} & \underline{0} \\ \underline{0} & \underline{R} \end{bmatrix} \sigma_e^2,$$

where  $\sigma_e^2$  is a scalar, possibly unknown, and  $\underline{G}$  and  $\underline{R}$  are both nonsingular. Now, given a sample vector  $\underline{y}$ , we wish now to do often

1. Predict  $\underline{u}$  or some linear function of  $\underline{u}$ ;
2. Predict linear functions of  $\underline{\beta}$  and  $\underline{u}$  jointly.

The varietal advisory service and the practical breeder wish to do these predictions. C. R. Henderson has done much work to apply prediction in animal breeding, see e.g. Henderson (1973, 1975). It can be shown that if  $\underline{\beta}$ ,  $\underline{G}$  and  $\underline{R}$  are known, the best linear predictor (BLP) of  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} + \underline{q}'\underline{u}$ , is,

$$\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} + \underline{q}' \text{cov}(\underline{u}, \underline{y}') \underline{V}^{-1}(\underline{y} - \underline{X}\underline{\beta}), \quad \text{where } \text{cov}(\underline{u}, \underline{y}') = \underline{G}\underline{Z}'\sigma_e^2, \quad (13)$$

$$D(\underline{y}) = \underline{V} = \sigma_e^2 [\underline{Z}\underline{G}\underline{Z}' + \underline{R}] = \sigma_e^2 \underline{W}.$$

In the multivariate normal case, (13) is of course  $E(\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} + \underline{q}'\underline{u}|\underline{y})$  and consequently is the best predictor. Whether or not normality is implied, (13) is the usual selection index used in animal and plant breeding. Now if  $\underline{\beta}$  is unknown, as is usually the case, the method (13) cannot be used. A modification involving unbiasedness can be employed, however. By unbiased it is mean  $E(\text{predictor}) = E(\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} + \underline{q}'\underline{u}) = \underline{p}'\underline{\beta}$ . It can be shown (e.g. Henderson

(1973)) that the best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) of  $\mathbf{p}'\beta + \mathbf{q}'\mathbf{u}$ , where  $\mathbf{p}'\beta$  is estimable, is:

$$\mathbf{p}'\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{q}'\mathbf{GZ}'\mathbf{W}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb}) = \mathbf{p}'\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{q}'\hat{\mathbf{u}}, \quad (14)$$

with  $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{GZ}'\mathbf{W}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Xb})$  and where  $\mathbf{b}$  is any solution of the generalized least squares equations

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{Xb} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{y}. \quad (15)$$

In animal breeding programs, such as in the national sire evaluation programs the order of  $\mathbf{y}$  may be in the millions, and  $\mathbf{V}$  is not diagonal. Therefore (14) and (15) are not computationally feasible. However,  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  can be obtained from the solution of the mixed model equations, as we already seen in section 2.2.:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{X} & \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{Z} \\ \mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{X} & \mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{Z} + \mathbf{G}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{Z}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (16)$$

which can be solved either directly or by iterative methods when  $\mathbf{R}$  is a diagonal or a patterned matrix. From the inverse of the coefficient matrix  $\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{b})$  and  $\mathbf{V}(\hat{\mathbf{u}} - \mathbf{u})$  can be obtained.

In addition to unbiasedness and minimum prediction error variance,  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  from (16) has the following properties (Henderson 1973):

- (i) it maximizes the probability that elements of  $\mathbf{u}$  are correctly ranked pairwise, in a multivariate setting;
- (ii) under normality, it is the maximum likelihood estimator of  $E(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})$ ;
- (iii) it is linearly invariant, i.e.  $\text{BLUP}(\mathbf{q}'\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{q}'\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ , where  $\mathbf{q}$  is a vector of constants.

In a Bayesian setting with normal prior and normal likelihood,  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  is the median of the posterior distribution. Hence, any function of  $\mathbf{u}$  is estimated with minimum absolute error loss by the same function of  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ . In varietal testing literature the notion of BLUP is seldom (or never) mentioned. In my opinion many questions in varietal research is the prediction and not the estimation. Use of equation (14) can be fruitfully adopted for the prediction of the yielding capacity of varieties.

Example 3. Let us take as an example 2 varieties  $A1$  and  $A2$  which are tested on 3 random places  $P1$ ,  $P2$ ,  $P3$  drawn at random from a certain region. The experimental design used at each place was a randomized block design with four blocks. Due to a misunderstanding in place  $P3$  variety  $A2$  was not sown but another variety. The varietal means  $\bar{y}_{ij}$ , per place were

	$P1$	$P2$	$P3$
$A1$	$\bar{y}_{11.} = 10$	$\bar{y}_{12.} = 11$	$\bar{y}_{13.} = 13$
$A2$	$\bar{y}_{21.} = 10$	$\bar{y}_{22.} = 14$	*

The mixed model for these varietal means is

$$\bar{y}_{ij.} = \alpha_i + p_j + (\underline{ap})_{ij} + \bar{e}_{ij.} \quad (17)$$

where we assume model (i) of section 3, uncorrelated random effects  $(\underline{ap})_{ij}$  in (9). We can

redefine the model as

$$\bar{y}_{ij} = \alpha_i + p_j + f_{ij} \quad (18)$$

with  $E(p_j) = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(p_j) = \sigma_p^2$  and uncorrelated  $p_j$  and  $E(f_{ij}) = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(f_{ij}) = \sigma_{AP}^2 + \sigma_e^2/4 = \sigma_f^2$  with uncorrelated  $f_{ij}$  and also  $p_j$  and  $f_{ij}$  are uncorrelated. Let us further assume that from previous experiments we know  $\gamma = \sigma_p^2/\sigma_f^2 = 3$ . We wish to predict the varietal mean of A2 at place P3. Let

$$\underline{y} = (\bar{y}_{11}, \bar{y}_{12}, \bar{y}_{13}, \bar{y}_{21}, \bar{y}_{22})'$$

then

$$E\underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{\beta} + \underline{Z}\underline{U} + \underline{f}$$

with  $\underline{u} = (p_1, p_2, p_3)'$ , and  $\underline{X}$ ,  $\underline{\beta}$  and  $\underline{Z}$  as given in Example 2, section 2.2. The dispersion matrix  $D \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u} \\ \underline{f} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{G} & \underline{0} \\ \underline{0} & \underline{R} \end{bmatrix} \sigma_f^2$  where  $\underline{G} = \gamma \underline{I}_3$  and  $\underline{R} = \underline{I}_5$ .

The best linear unbiased predictor of  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} + \underline{q}'\underline{u}$  with  $\underline{p}' = (0, 1)$  and  $\underline{q}' = (0, 0, 1)$  is according to (14)

$$\underline{p}'\underline{b} + \underline{q}'\underline{GZ}'\underline{W}^{-1}(\underline{y} - \underline{X}\underline{b})$$

with

$$\underline{W} = \underline{Z}\gamma\underline{I}_3\underline{Z}' + \underline{I}_5 = 3\underline{Z}\underline{Z}' + \underline{I}_5.$$

The inverse  $\underline{W}^{-1}$  is given in example 2 and the solution of (15) of  $\underline{b}$  is found there as

$$\underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11.333 \\ 12.625 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Inserting these results we get as BLUP for  $\underline{p}'\underline{\beta} + \underline{q}'\underline{u}$ :

$$(0, 1) \begin{bmatrix} 11.333 \\ 12.625 \end{bmatrix} + (0, 0, 1) \begin{bmatrix} -1.69629 \\ 0.44657 \\ 1.25025 \end{bmatrix} = 13.875.$$

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#### NAJLEPSZA ESTYMACJA KONTRASTÓW OBIEKTOWYCH STOSOWANA DO ZŁOŻONYCH MODELI DOŚWIADCZEŃ ODMIANOWYCH

Jednym z głównych powodów prowadzenia doświadczeń odmianowych jest ocena możliwości planowania odmian. Założenia stojące u podstaw poprawnych procedur estymacyjnych są względnie proste i nie wymagają normalności rozkładów. Chociaż zasady najlepszej liniowej nieobciążonej estymacji BLUE dla kontrastów obiektowych są opisane w wielu podręcznikach statystyki matematycznej (np. Rao 1973 lub Searle'a 1971), to wydaje się, że nie są one rozpowszechnione w badaniach odmianowych. Częściej można je spotkać w badaniach hodowlanych zwierząt. Podobnie, metoda najlepszej liniowej nieobciążonej predykcji (BLUP) kontrastów nie jest stosowana w badaniach odmianowych.

W pracy zaprezentowano zasady najlepszej liniowej nieobciążonej estymacji w modelach liniowych oraz zademonstrowano prosty przykład numeryczny. Ponadto, przedstawiono model liniowy złożonego doświadczenia odmianowego, w którym pokazano estymację BLU. Wreszcie, opisano metodę najlepszej liniowej predykcji, która w badaniach odmianowych jest częściej stosowana niż postępowanie estymacyjne.

## SUMMARY

In several sciences but especially in animal and plant breeding, the general mixed model with fixed and random effects plays a great role. Statistical inference on variance components means tests of hypotheses about variance components, constructing confidence intervals for them, estimating them, and using the variance components to get best estimates for fixed effects as well as to predict random effects.

Many problems in the statistical inference of variance components already arise in even the most simple mixed model, describing nested designs; they are already present in the balanced nested designs, but become more pronounced in the unbalanced case. To find a guideline for solving the problems for the general mixed model, the study of the nested designs is worthwhile.

In chapter 1 the outline of the author's research on statistical inference of variance components is given.

In chapter 2 the historical development of variance components estimation is described. More than 125 years ago the notion of variance components appears explicitly in astronomy. The expansion began with the development of quantitative genetics in 1918 after the first World War, but the tremendous increase in research in variance components dates from after the second World War.

Just as in the fixed effects model, the notions of vectors, vector spaces and projections of vectors on vector spaces, can be fruitfully used for the mixed effects model. This approach is given in chapter 3.

For balanced nested designs exact tests about ratios of variance components and the calculation of their power, are well-known. For the unbalanced three-stage nested designs an exact test exists about the variance component belonging to the second stage, but for the first stage variance component no exact test was available in practice before

1974. In chapter 4 the onset of the author's research on the testing problem is described. It was possible to calculate the critical level or P-value for the exact test.

The estimation of variance components was directed towards finding, for several designs, the best quadratic unbiased estimators for the variance components. In chapter 5 the onset of author's research on the estimation problem is described. On introduction of the concept of a permissible estimator it becomes clear which approaches to estimate variance components are unsatisfactory. To use permissible estimators for variance components means to use estimators which give non-negative estimates. A solution for a non-negative estimator has been found using the least squares approach as a unified procedure in variance components estimation.

To demonstrate the danger of the use of the best quadratic unbiased estimator in the simplest random model, the balanced one-way classification, the probabilities for negative estimates were calculated in chapter 6.

In chapter 7 a new exact test about ratios of variance components in the unbalanced three-stage nested design is given.

The description of the least squares method as a unified procedure for the estimation of variance components and for the derivation of permissible (non-negative) estimators of variance components is given in chapter 8. The use of the main estimation procedures such as iterated Least Squares (or I-MINQUE), Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) estimators, is also discussed there.

Finally in chapter 9 the use of variance components in predicting the random effects is discussed. Best Linear Unbiased Prediction (BLUP), which is extensively used in animal breeding, has not so far

been applied on the same scale in plant breeding. How to use it is the subject of the last section 9.2.

## SAMENVATTING

In diverse wetenschapsgebieden, maar voornamelijk in de veefokkerij en de plantenveredeling, speelt het algemene gemengde model met vaste en stochastische effecten een grote rol. Statistische gevolgtrekkingen maken omtrent variantiecomponenten betekent: het toetsen van hypothesen over variantiecomponenten, het construeren van betrouwbaarheidsintervallen ervoor, het schatten ervan, en het gebruik ervan, zowel om de beste schattingen voor de vaste effecten te verkrijgen, alsook om de stochastische effecten te kunnen voorspellen.

Veel problemen die zich voordoen bij het maken van statistische gevolgtrekkingen omtrent variantiecomponenten, komen reeds voor in het eenvoudigste gemengde model, dat de hiërarchische of geneste schema's beschrijft. Deze problemen zijn versluierd aanwezig bij de evenwichtige geneste schema's, maar komen zeer sterk naar voren bij de onevenwichtige schema's. Om een richtsnoer te vinden voor het oplossen van de problemen bij het algemene gemengde model, is de studie van hiërarchische schema's de moeite waard.

In hoofdstuk 1 wordt een overzicht gegeven van het onderzoek van de auteur met betrekking tot het maken van statistische gevolgtrekkingen omtrent variantiecomponenten.

In hoofdstuk 2 wordt de historische ontwikkeling van het schatten van variantiecomponenten beschreven. Reeds meer dan 125 jaar geleden kwam het begrip variantiecomponenten expliciet voor in de sterrenkunde. De verdere ontwikkeling begon met die van de kwantitatieve genetica in 1918, na de eerste wereldoorlog, maar de enorme uitbreiding in het onderzoek naar variantiecomponenten dateert van na de tweede wereldoorlog.

Net als bij het model met vaste effecten, kunnen de begrippen vector, vectorruimte en projectie van vectoren op vectorruimten met vrucht gebruikt worden bij het model met gemengde effecten. Deze aanpak wordt in hoofdstuk 3 beschreven.

Voor evenwichtige hiërarchische bemonsteringsschema's zijn exacte toetsen omtrent verhoudingen van variantiecomponenten algemeen bekend, evenals de berekening van het onderscheidingsvermogen. Voor het niet-evenwichtige hiërarchische bemonsteringsschema in drie trappen bestaat er een exacte toets op de variantiecomponent die bij de tweede trap behoort. Maar voor de variantiecomponent die bij de eerste trap behoort was het voor 1969 praktisch niet mogelijk om de kansverdeling van de toetsingsgrootte te berekenen. In hoofdstuk 4 wordt het begin beschreven van het door de auteur verrichte onderzoek aangaande dit toetsingsprobleem. Het bleek mogelijk om de overschrijdingskans van de exacte toets te berekenen.

Het schatten van variantiecomponenten was erop gericht om, voor verschillende schema's, de beste zuivere kwadratische schatters te vinden. In hoofdstuk 5 komt aan de orde het begin van het door de schrijver verrichte onderzoek betreffende het schattingsprobleem. Na invoering van het begrip van een toegestane ('permissible') schatter ziet men duidelijk of een bepaalde aanpak om variantiecomponenten te schatten tot onbevredigende resultaten leidt. Een toegestane schatter voor variantiecomponenten is een schatter die niet-negatieve uitkomsten levert. Hoe een niet-negatieve schatter door de schrijver gevonden is, door het toepassen van het kleinste kwadraten principe als unificerende schattingsprocedure, wordt ook beschreven in hoofdstuk 5.

In hoofdstuk 6 wordt geïllustreerd hoe gevaarlijk het kan zijn om zelfs in het eenvoudigste model met enkel stochastische effecten, namelijk het evenwichtige bemonsteringsschema met één classificatie,

de beste zuivere kwadratische schatter te gebruiken. Hiertoe worden de kansen berekend dat zo'n schatter negatieve uitkomsten levert.

In hoofdstuk 7 wordt een nieuwe exacte toets beschreven omtrent verhoudingen van variantiecomponenten in het niet-evenwichtige drie-traps geneste bemonsteringsschema.

Hoofdstuk 8 bevat de beschrijving van de methode van de kleinste kwadraten als unificerende procedure voor het schatten van variantiecomponenten. Verder wordt de methode van kleinste kwadraten gebruikt om toegestane (niet-negatieve) schatters te vinden.

Dit hoofdstuk besluit met een bespreking van het gebruik van de voornaamste schattingsprocedures, namelijk die van de geïtereerde kleinste kwadraten (I-MINQUE), de methode van de grootste aan-nemelijkheid (ML) en de methode van de grootste aannemelijkheid van de rest-contrasten (REML).

Hoofdstuk 9 beschrijft het gebruik van variantiecomponenten bij het voorspellen van stochastische effecten. De in de veefokkerij op grote schaal gebruikte beste lineaire zuivere voorspeller (BLUP) van stochastische effecten, wordt in de plantenveredeling nog lang niet in die mate toegepast. Hoe deze methode kan worden gebruikt bij het rassenonderzoek wordt beschreven in de laatste paragraaf 9.2.

## CURRICULUM VITAE

Léon Robert Verdooren werd op 10 januari 1936 geboren te Soerabaja in het toenmalige Nederlands-Indië. Hij behaalde in 1952 het eindexamen HBS-B aan het St. Canisius College te Nijmegen. In september 1952 begon hij zijn studie aan de Landbouwhogeschool te Wageningen. In september 1958 behaalde hij het examen van Landbouwkundig Ingenieur (met lof) in de richting Cultuurtechniek met als afstudeervakken de Cultuurtechniek, de Wiskundige Statistiek en de Weg- en Waterbouwkunde.

Tijdens zijn studie was hij vanaf mei 1957 aangesteld als student-assistent bij de afdeling Wiskunde LH. Na zijn afstuderen verbleef hij daar als medewerker tot februari 1962. Hij werd toen benoemd tot hoofd van de afdeling Wiskundige Statistiek van het Instituut voor Rassenonderzoek van Landbouwgewassen (IVRO) te Wageningen. In augustus 1969 keerde hij terug naar de afdeling Wiskunde LH als Wetenschappelijk Hoofdmedewerker. Sinds januari 1986 is hij Universitair Hoofddocent in de Statistische Proeftechniek bij de Vakgroep Wiskunde.