# Generalized Inference: Applications to Mixed Linear Models

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### **TERMINOLOGY**

- Tsui & Weerahandi (1989) introduced the terms
  - Generalized P-value (GPV)
  - Generalized Test Variable (GTV).
- Weerahandi (1993) introduced the terms
  - Generalized Pivotal Quantities (GPQ)
  - Generalized Confidence Intervals (GCI).
- The term Generalized Inference (GI) refers to inference procedures that are based on the above concepts.

### **TERMINOLOGY**

- Using this approach one can develop hypothesis tests and confidence interval procedures for certain classes of parametric models when exact pivotal quantities are not available.
- In particular, the approach leads to "good" inference procedures in (balanced) normal mixed linear models. But the method is more generally applicable.

### **OUTLINE**

- 1. What is a GPQ? How it leads to a GCI?
- 2. What is a GTV? How it leads to a GPV?
- 3. Simple Examples of GPQs, GCIs, GTVs, and GPVs.
- 4. Recipe for Constructing GPQs
- 5. Examples (a) Exact Methods (b) Approximate Methods
- 6. Generalized Inference in Balanced Mixed Linear Models
- 7. Some nonstandard applications
- 8. References
- 9. Remarks: Historical connections Issues in unbalanced situations Extensions

### **Notation**

D = observable data vector

d =observed value of D

 $\xi$  = vector of parameters

 $\tau = h(\xi)$ , a scalar function of  $\xi$  about which inference is to be made (test or confidence interval)

WLOG we can assume that  $\xi = (\tau, \zeta)$  where  $\tau$  is the scalar parameter of interest and  $\zeta$  is a vector of nuisance parameters

# **Generalized Pivotal Quantity**

 $R = R(\mathbf{D}; \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi})$ , a function of  $\mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{d}$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ , is called a **Generalized Pivotal Quantity** if it satisfies the following two properties (Weerahandi, 93):

- 1. Distribution of R is free of unknown parameters.
- 2. The observed pivotal quantity  $r_{obs} = r = R(d; d, \xi)$  depends on  $\xi$  only through  $\tau$ .

### **Generalized Confidence Interval**

An equal tailed  $1-\alpha$  GCI (confidence set) for  $\tau$  is obtained as the set

$$\{\tau \mid R_{\alpha/2} \le r \le R_{1-\alpha/2}\}$$

Often the confidence set reduces to an interval [L, U].

## **Example: One-Sample Problem**

$$Y_1,\ldots,Y_n\sim \mathsf{iid}\ N(\mu,\sigma^2)$$

 $y_1, \ldots, y_n$  are observed values

 $\bar{Y}$  = sample mean, S = sample standard deviation.

 $\bar{y}, s$  the corresponding realized values (known constants)

Usual pivotal quantity: 
$$T = \frac{Y - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

Realized value: 
$$t = \frac{\bar{y} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$
.

Classical *t*-interval is  $\{\mu | t_{\alpha/2} \le t \le t_{1-\alpha/2}\}$ 

i.e., 
$$\left\{ \mu \middle| \bar{y} - t_{1-\alpha/2:n-1} \left( \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \le \mu \le \bar{y} - t_{\alpha/2:n-1} \left( \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right) \right\}$$

# **Example: One-Sample Problem**

Define 
$$R = \bar{y} - \left(\frac{s}{S}\right)(\bar{Y} - \mu) = \bar{y} - \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$
.

R is said to be a Generalized Pivotal Quantity for  $\mu$ .

The observed pivotal is  $r = \mu$ .

A GCI for 
$$\mu$$
 is  $\{\mu | R_{\alpha/2} \leq \mu \leq R_{1-\alpha/2}\}$ 

Note 
$$R = \bar{y} - \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)T$$
 so,  $R_{\gamma} = \bar{y} - \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)T_{1-\gamma}$ .

$$\{\mu | R_{\alpha/2} \le r \le R_{1-\alpha/2}\} = \{\mu | t_{\alpha/2} \le \frac{y-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \le t_{1-\alpha/2}\}.$$

Thus, the GCI is the same as the classical *t*-interval.

### **Generalized Test Variable and GPV**

### We wish to test

$$H_0: \theta \leq \theta_0$$
 versus  $H_a: \theta > \theta_0$ 

 $T = T(\mathbf{D}; \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi})$  is called a **GTV** if it satisfies:

- 1. The distribution of T depends on  $\xi$  only through  $\theta$ . In particular, it is completely determined when  $\theta$  is specified.
- 2. The observed value of the test variable  $t = t_{obs} = T(\mathbf{d}; \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi})$  is free of unknown parameters.
- 3. For fixed d,  $\zeta$ , and  $t^*$ ,  $Pr[T(D; d, \xi) > t^*]$  is a nondecreasing function of  $\theta$ .
- **4.**  $GPV = Pr[T(\mathbf{D}; \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) > t_{obs} | \theta = \theta_0]$

# Example: One-Sample Problem - GTV

Define 
$$V = \mu - \bar{y} + \left(\frac{s}{S}\right)(\bar{Y} - \mu)$$

V is said to be a Generalized Test Variable (GTV) for testing  $H_0: \mu \leq \mu_0$  versus  $H_0: \mu > \mu_0$ .

The observed test variable is v = 0.

$$\mathsf{GPV} \stackrel{def}{=} P\left[V \geq v \middle| \mu = \mu_0\right]$$

Here 
$$GPV = P\left[\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \ge \frac{\bar{y} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}\right] = P\left[T \ge t_0\right]$$

where  $t_0$  = the usual computed t-statistic.

So, in this example, GPV = Ordinary P-value

### A Recipe for Construcing GPQs

Joint distribution of the data vector D is indexed by a k-dimensional parameter  $\boldsymbol{\xi} = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_k) \in \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ .

 $\tau = h(\xi)$ , a scalar function for which inference is required.

#### Assume

- (a) There exist a mapping  $f: R^k \times R^k \to R^k$ , such that,  $(U_1, \ldots, U_k) = \mathbf{U} = f(\mathbf{D}; \boldsymbol{\xi})$  has a joint distribution free of  $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ .
- (b) For each D, there exists a mapping  $g(D; \cdot) : R^k \to R^k$  such that

$$g(D; U) = g(D; f(D; \xi)) = (g_1(D; U), \cdots, g_k(D; U)) = \xi.$$

### Recipe-continued

### Define

$$R = R(\boldsymbol{D}; \boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = h(\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{d}; \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{D}; \boldsymbol{\xi}))) = h(\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{d}; \boldsymbol{U}))$$

- 1. R is a GPQ for  $\tau = h(\xi)$ .
- 2.  $R_{\alpha/2} \le \tau \le R_{1-\alpha/2}$  is an equal-tailed 2-sided GCI for  $\tau$ . (One-sided Generalized Bounds obtained in an obvious manner).
- 3.  $T = T(\mathbf{D}; \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = h(\boldsymbol{\xi}) R = \tau R$ , is a Generalized Test Variable for testing  $H_0: \tau \leq \tau_0$  versus  $H_a: \tau > \tau_0$ .
- **4.**  $GPV = Pr[T(\mathbf{D}; \mathbf{d}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \ge 0 \mid \tau = \tau_0]$

### **Balanced Mixed Linear Models**

In many Balanced Mixed Linear Models the ANOVA sums of squares and sample cell means form a set of complete sufficient statistics. For instance, this is the case when the model is saturated.

The joint distribution of this set has a simple structural representation.

The recipe may be applied to produce tests and confidence intervals for functions of the model parameters.

Simulation studies show that these work well.

Some general theoretical results exist that provide insight into why these methods perform well.

# **General Setting**

- Suppose  $SS_1, \ldots, SS_q$  are the sums of squares in the ANOVA table corresponding to the random effects. Also suppose  $\hat{\beta}$  is the vector of estimates of the cell means generated by the fixed factors.
- **Denote the cell means by**  $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_p$ .
- ullet Denote the expected Mean Squares (EMS) by  $heta_1,\dots, heta_q$
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  where

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \theta_1 \mathbf{V}_1 + \dots + \theta_q \mathbf{V}_q$$

and  $V_i$  are matrices of known constants.

# **GPQs**

• The  $\theta_i$  admit GPQs of the following form:

$$R_{\theta_i} = \frac{ss_i}{U_i} = \frac{(ss_i)(\theta_i)}{SS_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, q$$

where  $U_i \sim \chi^2_{\nu_i}$  (jointly independent).

- $m{eta}$  admits a GPQ given by  $m{R}_{m{eta}} = m{b} m{R}_{m{C}} m{Z}$  where  $m{b}$  is the observed value of  $\hat{m{\beta}}$  and  $m{R}_{m{C}}$  is the Cholesky factor (lower triangular) of the matrix  $m{R}_{m{\Sigma}} = R_{\theta_1} m{V}_1 + \dots + R_{\theta_q} m{V}_q$ .
- Let  $\tau$  be any function, say  $f(\theta, \beta)$  of the model parameters for which a confidence interval is sought. Then  $R_{\tau} = f(\mathbf{R}_{\theta}, \mathbf{R}_{\beta})$  is a GPQ for  $\tau$ .

# **One-way Nested Random Model**

$$X_{ij}=\mu+A_i+e_{ij}$$
.  $i=1,\ldots,a;\ j=1,\ldots,n$ .  $A_i\sim N(0,\sigma_A^2)$  and  $e_{ij}\sim N(0,\sigma_e^2)$ .

All random variables jointly independent.

We want a confidence interval for  $\sigma_A^2$ . Methods that have appeared in the literature:

- Tukey-Williams
- Moriguti-Bulmer
- Howe
- Graybill-Wang

# Example

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{n\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_e^2}{na}}}, \quad U_1 = \frac{SSw}{\sigma_e^2}, \quad U_2 = \frac{SSb}{\sigma_e^2 + n\sigma_A^2}$$

$$Z \sim N(0, 1), \quad U_1 \sim \chi_{a(n-1)}^2 \quad U_2 \sim \chi_{a-1}^2$$

$$\mu = \bar{X} - Z\sqrt{\frac{SSb}{naU_2}},$$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{SSw}{U_1}} \quad \sigma_A = \sqrt{max \left\{0, \frac{SSb}{nU_2} - \frac{SSw}{nU_1}\right\}}$$

# **GPQ**

A GPQ for  $\sigma_A^2$  is given by

$$R = max \left\{ 0, \frac{ssb}{nU_2} - \frac{ssw}{nU_1} \right\}$$
$$= max \left\{ 0, (n\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_e^2) \frac{ssb}{nSSb} - \sigma_e^2 \frac{ssw}{nSSw} \right\}$$

### **EXAMPLE**

Weights of bottles selected from filling machines

	Mach	nines	
1	2	3	4
14.23	16.46	14.98	15.94
14.96	16.74	14.88	16.07
14.85	15.94	14.87	14.91

Type 3 Analysis of Variance

		Sum of	Mean	
Source	DF	Squares	Square	EMS
machine	3	5.329425	1.776475	$\sigma_E^2 + 3\sigma_A^2$
Residual	8	1.454600	0.181825	$\sigma_E^2$

# Confidence Interval for $\sigma_A^2$

The GPQ for  $\sigma_A^2$  is

$$R = max \left\{ 0, \frac{ssb}{nU_2} - \frac{ssw}{nU_1} \right\}$$
$$= max \left\{ 0, \frac{5.329425}{3U_2} - \frac{1.4546}{3U_1} \right\}$$

Graybill-Wang interval for  $\sigma_A^2$  is [ 0.107, 8.16 ]

GCI for  $\sigma_A^2$  is [ 0.09624, 8.19219 ] by simulation

GCI for  $\sigma_A^2$  is [0.09605, 8.152] by numerical evaluation

Other methods work well also

$$\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_E^2$$

$$\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_E^2 = \frac{1}{n} (n\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_E^2) + \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma_E^2.$$

$$R = \max \left\{ 0, \frac{ssb}{nU_2} + \frac{(n-1)ssw}{nU_1} \right\} =$$

$$\max \left\{ 0, \frac{5.329425}{3U_2} + \frac{2(1.4546)}{3U_1} \right\}.$$

Welch-Satterthwaite, Graybill-Wang work well. GCI is competitive.

	<u>GCI</u>	Graybill-Wang
Lower bound	0.313	0.306
Upper bound	8.403	8.360

Exact calculation for GCI gives [0.31241,8.398] (maple) GCI for  $\sigma_A^2/\sigma_E^2$  coincides with the usual exact interval based on the ratio  $MS_B/MS_E$ .

Brand 1	Machine 1	15.66	15.66	15.70	15.70	15.68	15.70
	2	15.69	15.71	15.68	15.72	15.71	15.72
	3	15.73	15.68	15.73	15.71	15.67	15.72
	4	15.72	15.73	15.74	15.74	15.73	15.75
Brand 2	Machine 1	15.78	15.80	15.78	15.79	15.78	15.79
	2	15.78	15.76	15.76	15.77	15.76	15.77
	3	15.76	15.80	15.78	15.78	15.79	15.78
	4	15.77	15.80	15.78	15.78	15.77	15.78

## **ANOVA for EXAMPLE**

BI	RΑ	N.	D-	1

		Sum of	
Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square
machine	3	0.008083	0.002694
Residual	20	0.007167	0.000358
		BRAND-2	
		Sum of	
Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square
machine	3	0.001312	0.000437
Residual	20	0.002150	0.000108

$$(\sigma_{A1}^2 + \sigma_{E1}^2)/(\sigma_{A2}^2 + \sigma_{E2}^2)$$

$$R = \frac{\frac{ssb1}{n_1U_{21}} + \frac{(n_1 - 1)ssw1}{n_1U_{11}}}{\frac{ssb2}{n_2U_{22}} + \frac{(n_2 - 1)ssw2}{n_2U_{12}}} = \frac{\frac{0.008083}{6U_{21}} + \frac{5(0.007167)}{6U_{11}}}{\frac{0.001312}{6U_{22}} + \frac{5(0.002150)}{6U_{12}}}$$

GCI Burdick-Graybill 90% Lower bound 1.068 1.03 90% Upper bound 24.412 \*\*\*

$$\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_B^2 + \sigma_E^2$$

Cage		1			2			3		4		
Mosquito	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
	58.5	59.5	77.8	80.9	84.0	83.6	70.1	68.3	69.8	69.8	56.0	54.5
	50.7	49.3	63.8	65.8	56.6	57.5	77.8	79.2	69.9	69.2	62.1	64.5

# **ANOVA**

			Sum of		
	Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square	
	cage	2	665.675833	332.837917	
	mosquito(cage)	9	1720.677500	191.186389	
	Residual	12	15.620000	1.301667	
				<u>GCI</u>	Burdick-Graybill
95%	One sided	Lowe	r bound	63.3212	65.5
95%	One sided	Uppe	r bound	1763.68	1724

# Two way Crossed Random Model

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + A_i + B_j + (AB)_{ij} + E_{ijk}$$
  
  $i = \text{Mice Strain (5)}; j = \text{Day (6)}; k = \text{Mice (5)}$ 

Source	Df	SS	MS	_
Strain	4	0.3680	0.0920	
Days	5	0.0505	0.0101	(Weir, 1949)
Interaction	20	0.1040	0.0052	(1043)
Error	120	0.4080	0.0034	

Need CI for 
$$\sigma_A^2/(\sigma_A^2+\sigma_B^2+\sigma_{AB}^2+\sigma_E^2)$$
.

	<u>GCI</u>	Leiva-Graybill
90% Lower bound	0.157	0.196
90% Upper bound	0.770	0.814

# A Mixed Model Example

Source	Df	SS	MS	
Temperature (A)	2	616.78	308.39	(Montgomery, 1984)
Speed (B)	3	175.56	58.52	Temp FIXED, Speed RANDOM
Pressure (C)	2	5.04	2.52	Pressure RANDOM
AB	6	809.46	134.91	Need CI for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$
AC	4	179.08	44.77	$V(\widehat{\mu_1 - \mu_2}) = (\theta_{AB} + \theta_{AC} - \theta_{AB})$
ВС	6	115.56	19.26	$= (6\sigma_{AB}^2 + 8\sigma_{AC}^2 + 2\sigma_{ABC}^2 + \sigma_e^2)$
ABC	12	231.12	19.26	No exact interval available
Error	36	1248.12	34.67	

	<u>GCI</u>	Banerjee (1960)
95% Lower bound	-1.146	-3.28
95% Upper bound	17.742	19.9

# An Unbalanced Example

- An artifact measured by each of k labs (or, k methods)
- Lab i makes  $n_i$  measurements
- ullet Data are  $Y_{ij}, j=1,\cdots,n_i, i=1,\cdots,k$ .
- Model is:  $Y_{ij} = \mu_i + e_{ij}$
- $\mu$  = the true value.
- $\mu_i \mu = b_i$  is the "bias" of lab i.
- Parameter of interest is  $\mu$ .
- Estimate  $\mu$  using combined information from all labs.
- $e_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$ .

### **Three Models**

- Model-1: One-way random effects model with unequal sample sizes and heterogeneous variances. (See Rukhin and Vangel (1998), Vangel and Rukhin (1999), Rukhin, Biggerstaff, and Vangel (2000), Paule and Mandel (1971, 1982) – Large sample methods).
- Model-2: (Bounded Bias Model)  $b_i$  are in the (known) interval  $[m_i, M_i]$ . (Eberhardt, Reeve, and Spiegelman (1989).) Eberhardt et al. derived a minimax MSE linear estimator for  $\mu$ . Proposed approximate Cls.
- Model-3: (GUM model)  $b_i$  have known distribution, say  $F_i$ . (see, Expression of Uncertainty in Measurement (ISO GUM) (1995); the distributions are referred to as type-B distributions.)

# GPQ in Model 3

$$R^*(\boldsymbol{D}; \boldsymbol{d}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \bar{y}_{\boldsymbol{W}} - \bar{b}_{\boldsymbol{W}} - Z^* \left( \sum_{i=1}^k n_i Q_i / s s_i \right)^{-1/2}$$

where,

$$\bar{y}_{\mathbf{W}} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} W_i \bar{y}_i / \sum_{i=1}^{k} W_i, \quad \bar{b}_{\mathbf{W}} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} W_i b_i / \sum_{i=1}^{k} W_i,$$

$$U_i = ar{Y}_i - b_i, \ W_i = rac{n_i S S_i}{\sigma_i^2 \ s s_i}$$
  $au_0^2 = rac{1}{w_1 + \dots + w_k}$   $Z^* = (ar{U} oldsymbol{w} - \mu) / au_0 \sim N(0, 1), \ ext{and}$   $-Q_i = S S_i / \sigma_i^2 \sim \chi_{n_i-1}^2, \ i = 1, \dots, k$  .

# Example

Zinc ( $\mu$ g/g) in non-fat milk powder

Method	$n_i$	$ar{y}_i$	$s_i$	$M_i$
1	8	45.21	1.68	5.880
2	12	46.63	0.47	0.466
3	22	46.63 46.26	0.82	0.927
4	8	47.05	1.44	0.230

Distribution	Lower Bound	Upper bound
Uniform $[-M_i, M_i]$	45.85	47.05
$N(0, M_i/3)$	46.03	46.86

## **Example**

# Tolerance bounds for the distribution of true values when there are measurement errors

$$X_{ij}=\mu+A_i+e_{ij}$$
.  $i=1,\ldots,a;\ j=1,\ldots,n$ .  $A_i\sim N(0,\sigma_A^2)$  and  $e_{ij}\sim N(0,\sigma_e^2)$ .

All random variables jointly independent.

Need a  $\gamma$ -content,  $1-\alpha$  confidence, upper tolerance-bound for the distribution of  $\mu+A_i$ , i.e., for  $N(\mu,\sigma_A^2)$ .

This is equivalent to an upper confidence bound for  $\mu + z_{\gamma}\sigma_A$ .

Wang and Iyer (1994, Technometrics) have discussed this problem.

### **Example-continued**

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{n\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_e^2}{na}}}, \quad U_1 = \frac{SSw}{\sigma_e^2}, \quad U_2 = \frac{SSb}{\sigma_e^2 + n\sigma_A^2}$$
$$Z \sim N(0, 1), \quad U_1 \sim \chi_{a(n-1)}^2 \qquad U_2 \sim \chi_{a-1}^2$$
$$\mu = \bar{X} - Z\sqrt{\frac{SSb}{naU_2}},$$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{SSw}{U_1}}$$
  $\sigma_A = \sqrt{max\left\{0, \frac{SSb}{nU_2} - \frac{SSw}{nU_1}\right\}}$ 

# **GPQ**

A GPQ for  $\theta = \mu + z_{\gamma}\sigma_A$  is given by

$$R = \bar{x} - Z\sqrt{\frac{ssb}{naU_2}} + z_{\gamma}\sqrt{max}\left\{0, \frac{ssb}{nU_2} - \frac{ssw}{nU_1}\right\}$$

$$= \bar{x} - (\bar{X} - \mu)\sqrt{\frac{ssb}{SSb}}$$

$$+z_{\gamma}\sqrt{\max\left\{0, (n\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_e^2)\frac{ssb}{nSSb} - \sigma_e^2\frac{ssw}{nSSw}\right\}}$$

### **Historical Connections**

- GPV and GCI are intimately related to Fisher's Fiducial Inference and Fraser's Structural Inference.
- Fiducial Inference and Structural Inference allow one to make probability statements about model parameters somewhat akin to Bayesian Posterior Distributions for parameters, but do not rely on any prior distributions for the parameters – (Savage: "..eat the Bayesian omelette without breaking the Bayesian Egg").
- The probability statements are EXACT in their own setting but do not seem to have satisfactory frequentist interpretations. This led to quite a controversy over the use of Fiducial/Structural methods during the mid and latter part of the 20th century.

### **Historical Connections**

- GPVs and GCIs have a fiducial/structural flavor to them but Tsui and Weerahandi have put forward these ideas in a frequentist context. Although the inference is only APPROXIMATE in all but the simplest problems, Weerahandi refers to them as EXACT methods. The exactness properties of the procedures refers to their own setting and not to the usual frequentist setting.
- Methods for developing GPQs and GTVs were discussed by Iyer and Patterson (2002) where they used Fraser's structural distributions for parameters to construct GPQs and GTVs. No other general methods appear to be available.

## **Historical Connections**

- Andy Chang (2001) proposed the method of SURROGATE VARIABLES and derived some confidence interval procedures for a class of mixed models. His approach is essentially an application of Fraser's structural inference to construct GPQs for this class of problems.
- It is not clear whether generalized inference is EQUIVALENT to structural inference.
- IGNORING philosophical issues related to the meanings of fiducial or structural probability statements, if one examines frequentist properties of these methods, more often than not, they lead to competing procedures and often methods better than what is currently available. In many cases, the methods can be shown to also be obtainable using Bayesian arguments.

### Structural Distributions - Basic Idea

Let  $Y \sim N(\mu, 1)$ . Then Y has the structural representation

$$Y = \mu + Z$$

where  $Z \sim N(0,1)$ .

Suppose an observed value of Y is y = 2. We infer that a value z for Z has been realized such that

$$2 = \mu + z$$

If we want to know how plausible it is that  $\mu=10$ , this is equivalent to asking how plausible it is that z=-8. The known distribution of Z helps us assess this. Thus, the distribution of Z induces a distribution on  $\mu$  (called 'Structural Distribuion' by Fraser). In this example the induced distribution on  $\mu$  is N(2,1). We may write

### **Structural Distributions - 2**

 $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  iid sample from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

Sufficient statistics:  $\overline{Y}$ ,  $S^2$ .

Sructural representation:

$$\overline{Y} = \mu + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}Z$$
  $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = U$ 

Substitute observed values ( $\overline{y}$ ,  $s^2$ ) for  $\overline{Y}$ ,  $S^2$  and get:

$$\mu = \overline{y} - \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/(n-1)}}\right) = \overline{y} - \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) T_{n-1}$$

Thus,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  may be thought to have a joint structural distribution induced by the joint distribution of Z and U.

### Structural Distributions - continued

Let  $\tau_{\gamma} = \mu + Z_{\gamma}\sigma$ , the  $\gamma^{th}$  percentile of the  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  distribution. Suppose we want an upper confidence bound for  $\tau_{\gamma}$  with confidence coefficient  $1 - \alpha$ .

Derive the structural distribution of  $\tau_{\gamma}$  and use the  $\gamma^{th}$  percentile of this distribution as an upper confidence bound for  $\tau_{\gamma}$ . Such a bound is often referred to as a  $\gamma$ -content,  $1-\alpha$  coverage, one-sided tolerance bound for the distribution  $N(\mu,\sigma^2)$ .

FACT: The structural approach results in exactly the same tolerance bound as does the classical method based on a noncentral *t*-distribution.