

**Mixed Model Formulations for Multi-Environment Trials**

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## Abstract

When studying genotype by environment ( $G \times E$ ) interaction in multi-environment trials, plant breeders and geneticists often consider one of the effects, environments or genotypes, to be fixed and the other to be random. However, there are two main formulations for variance component estimation for the mixed model situation, referred to as the unconstrained-parameters and constrained-parameters formulations. These formulations give different estimates of genetic correlation and heritability, as well as different tests of significance for the random effects factor. The definition of main effects and interactions and the consequences of such definitions should be clearly understood, and any formulation selected should be consistent for both fixed and random effects. A discussion of the practical outcomes of using the two formulations in the analysis of data from multi-environment trials is presented. It is recommended that the constrained-parameters formulation be used because of the meaning of its parameters and the corresponding variance components. When managed (fixed) environments are considered, users will have more confidence in prediction for them, but will not be overconfident in prediction in the target (random) environments. On the other hand, the genetic gain (predicted response to selection in the target environments from the managed environments) is independent of formulation.

Abbreviations:  $G \times E$  Genotype by Environment; MET Multi-Environment Trial

23 When studying genotype by environment (G×E) interaction, breeders and geneticists  
24 often consider one of the two factors to be fixed and the other to be random. This results  
25 in what statisticians have dubbed the mixed model situation. For the fixed effect, all the  
26 levels in the population of parameters are present, while for the random factor, only a  
27 random sample from the population of levels is obtained. The experimenter often  
28 wishes to obtain estimates of variance components in order to compute genetic  
29 correlation, heritability estimates, repeatability estimates, genetic advance estimates, and  
30 other related statistics. Several discussions of variance component estimation in the  
31 mixed model situation have appeared in the literature (Federer, 1955; Cornfield and  
32 Tukey, 1956; Scheffe, 1956, 1959; Hocking, 1973; Ayres and Thomas, 1990; Samuels,  
33 Casella and McCabe, 1991; Fry, 1992; Schwarz, 1993; Searle, Casella and McCulloch,  
34 1992; Voss, 1999). Different formulations have been put forward with two of these  
35 being used most frequently. This poses a dilemma for the breeder and geneticist as to  
36 which formulation to use as they give different estimates of genetic correlation and  
37 heritability, as well as different tests of significance for the random effects factor.

38

39 Hocking (1973), Samuels *et al.* (1991), Fry (1992), Schwarz (1993) and others have  
40 attempted to deal with this dilemma by giving what they consider to be justifications for  
41 each of these two formulations. Despite the extensive literature and the well-written  
42 paper by Voss (1999) on resolving the controversy, it appears that confusion still reigns  
43 with regard to practical interpretation, particularly by plant breeders. We believe that  
44 the definition of main effects and interactions and the consequences of such definitions

45 should be clearly understood, and any formulation should be consistent for both fixed  
46 and random effects.

47

48 There are several variants of the two main formulations (see for example, Scheffe, 1959;  
49 Hocking, 1973; Searle *et al.*, 1992) that Fry (1992) called the Scheffe and SAS  
50 formulations (since one of the formulations has been programmed into the SAS software  
51 package for Proc Mixed and Proc VarComp). These have been more informatively  
52 called the constrained-parameters (CP) formulation and unconstrained-parameters (UP)  
53 formulation, respectively, by Voss (1999). We shall use this terminology here, with our  
54 focus being on the effect of these two formulations on the genetic inference.

55

56 The structure of this paper is such that some agricultural background material to the  
57 situation in which this problem arises is initially presented, then the statistical issues and  
58 genetic issues are discussed in turn. The application of the two formulations is  
59 illustrated using an example from the wheat breeding literature. Finally, some  
60 conclusions and recommendations are presented.

61

## 62 **Agricultural Background**

63 Data sets obtained from the study of genotype-environment systems are usually  
64 generated by evaluating candidate breeding lines (the genotypes) in a set of  
65 environments. The environments are often considered to have been sampled from some  
66 target population of environments in a series of experiments, referred to as multi-  
67 environment trials (METs). As the process of sampling environments is generally  
68 associated with testing the genotypes at a number of sites for a number of years,

69 environments are commonly defined as particular site-year combinations. Genotype by  
70 environment (G×E) interactions are detected as a significantly different pattern of  
71 response among the genotypes across environments, i.e. there is a significant difference  
72 in the relative performance of the genotypes when they are grown in different  
73 environments. Clearly, if there were no G×E interactions associated with the genotype-  
74 environment system relevant to a breeding objective, selection would be simple because  
75 the ‘best’ genotype in one environment would also be the ‘best’ genotype in all target  
76 environments. Experience has indicated that G×E interactions are the norm (certainly in  
77 Australia), rather than the exception, and they have considerable impact on selection for  
78 genetic improvement.

79

80 Cooper *et al.* (1995) hypothesised that regional testing strategies could be improved by  
81 accommodating the effects of G×E interactions to maximise the response to selection.  
82 They argued that one way of doing this was to identify the set of selection environments  
83 most relevant to the future production-environments. If these test environments can be  
84 repeated from year to year, confidence in predicting response in future environments  
85 would be increased. They therefore assessed the scope for managing environmental  
86 conditions at a restricted number of sites to provide discrimination among wheat lines  
87 for grain yield that matches that in target production-environments.

88

89 In analyzing data from such a multi-environment testing regime, the genotypes can be  
90 considered to be a random sample of the lines from the relevant stage of the breeding  
91 programme. It seems reasonable to consider the managed environments (M) to be fixed

92 as they can be repeated over years and locations. Hence, a mixed model for the  
93 genotype-environment system will be appropriate for data from these managed  
94 environments. However, the interpretation of experimental results and any inference  
95 from selection will apply to the target or production environments (T) which could most  
96 reasonably be considered to be random. Cooper *et al.* (1995) argued that a successful  
97 breeding strategy is one that gives a high indirect response to selection for average yield  
98 over the production-environments and quantified this using the genetic correlation which  
99 measured the similarity of line discrimination between the managed-environment  
100 selection regime and that for average performance in the production-environments.  
101 Thus, a combination of statistical and biological approaches is needed.

102

### 103 **Statistical Issues**

104 Cornfield and Tukey (1956) wanted a single flexible model to obtain the average values  
105 of mean squares in factorials, the simplest of which is the  $r$  replicate  $a \times b$  factorial  
106 experiment. This was achieved by Tukey (1949) and independently by Cornfield (1953)  
107 and Wilk (1953). They stated that the choice of assumptions depends on more than  
108 empirical questions about the behaviour of the experimental material. It depends on the  
109 nature of the sampling and randomization involved in obtaining the data. Moreover, it  
110 often depends on the purpose of the analysis, as expressed by the situations or  
111 populations to which one wishes to make statistical inference. These dependencies  
112 imply diversity, and adequate treatment of diversity requires flexibility of assumptions.  
113 Thus, even fifty years ago the importance of looking at these models from different  
114 perspectives was noted.

115

116 Voss (1999) described the two main formulations for the two-factor mixed model and  
117 put forward a resolution. The material in this section follows his presentation. The  
118 different two-factor models will be denoted as the unconstrained-parameters (UP)  
119 formulation and the constrained-parameters (CP) formulation. These are equivalent to  
120 the SAS (SAS (1990) software) and Scheffe (Scheffe, 1956, 1959) formulations,  
121 respectively.

122

123 The UP formulation for the  $r$  replicate  $a \times b$  factorial experiment with factor  $A$  fixed and  
124 factor  $B$  random is based on the following model for  $y_{ijk}$ , the response for the  $k^{\text{th}}$   
125 replicate of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  level of factor B and the  $i^{\text{th}}$  level of factor A:

126

$$127 \quad y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + B_j + (\alpha B)_{ij} + E_{ijk} \quad (1)$$

128 where

$$129 \quad B_j \sim N(0, \sigma^2_B),$$

$$130 \quad (\alpha B)_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2_{\alpha B}),$$

$$131 \quad E_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma^2),$$

132 all terms are mutually independent, and  $i=1, \dots, a; j=1, \dots, b; k=1, \dots, r$ .

133

134 The CP formulation for this same experiment is based on the following model for  $y_{ijk}$ :

135

$$136 \quad y_{ijk} = \mu + \tau_i + D_j + (\tau D)_{ij} + E_{ijk} \quad (2)$$

137 where

138  $D_j \sim N(0, \sigma^2_D),$   
 139  $(\tau D)_{ij} \sim N(0, ((a-1)/a) \sigma^2_{\tau D}),$  (for notational convenience)  
 140  $E_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma^2),$   
 141  $\Sigma \tau_i = 0, \Sigma_i (\tau D)_{ij} = 0 \forall j,$   
 142  $Cov((\tau D)_{ij}, (\tau D)_{i'j}) = -\sigma^2_{\tau D} / a$  for  $i' \neq i,$   
 143 all other terms are mutually independent, and  $i=1, \dots, a; j=1, \dots, b; k=1, \dots, r .$   
 144

145 A major distinction between these two models is the generality of the CP model in  
 146 allowing the covariance between  $y_{ijk}$  and  $y_{i'jk'}$  to be negative (Harville, 1978; Schwarz,  
 147 1993). In our agricultural example where factor  $A$  corresponds to managed  
 148 environments and factor  $B$  corresponds to genotypes, this would allow a negative  
 149 correlation between the responses for the same genotype in different managed  
 150 environments. While many authors have noted that one model is simply a  
 151 reparameterisation of the other, this does not help a plant breeder decide which of these  
 152 two formulations should be chosen and subsequently interpreted.

153  
 154 The heart of the problem is in the expected mean squares for the analysis of variance of  
 155 models (1) and (2), as given in Table 1. It would appear that under the UP formulation  
 156 one would test  $H_0: \sigma^2_B = 0$  by  $MSB/MSAB$ , but under the CP formulation one would test  
 157  $H_0: \sigma^2_D = 0$  by  $MSB/MSE$ . The relationship between these variance components

158  
 159 
$$\sigma^2_D = \sigma^2_B + \sigma^2_{\alpha B} / a \quad (3)$$

160 and

161  $\sigma^2_{\tau D} = \sigma^2_{\alpha B}$  (4)

162

163 does not clarify things as the plant breeder still needs to interpret the particular  
164 parameters in models (1) or (2).

165

166 In order to better understand the parameters, Voss (1999) constructed superpopulation  
167 models from which the UP and CP models could be induced. In particular, he showed  
168 that each parameter in the CP model is a main effect or interaction effect in the usual  
169 sense of deviations amongst means. Although he did not say so, this provides  
170 consistency across fixed and random effects. The parameters in the UP formulation are  
171 not main effects or an interaction effect in the usual sense because there are no  
172 constraints on the effects.

173

174 Voss concluded that the “bottom line is ... that ... the parameters and corresponding  
175 variance components in the CP mixed model correspond to specific main effects or  
176 interaction effects, and the analysis of variance tests motivated by consideration of the  
177 corresponding expected mean squares under the CP formulation are appropriate for  
178 testing the corresponding main effects and interactions under *both* the CP and UP  
179 models”. This is because the expected value of *MSB* under both the CP and UP models  
180 measures error variability plus main effects of *B*. Thus the appropriate test of main  
181 effects of *B* under both mixed models is *MSB/MSE*.

182

183 Another way of thinking about the situation is that for a random sample of genotypes,  
184 one has all of the interaction terms across the fixed environments. It can be argued that,  
185 under those circumstances, the sum of interaction terms should be zero, as in the CP  
186 model. Thus the CP model is consistent for both fixed and random effects. The UP  
187 model sets the expectation of the interaction terms to be zero over the population. But as  
188 all of the interaction terms in this population are present, the UP model is not consistent  
189 for both fixed and random effects.

190

### 191 **Genetic Issues**

192 Much quantitative genetic theory has been developed from the two-way model,  
193 particularly when both factors (genotypes and environments) are assumed to be random.  
194 The two concepts on which this theory is based are heritability (in the broad sense) and  
195 predicted genetic gain (or predicted response to selection) (Falconer, 1981). To  
196 understand their meaning, it is important that certain other parameters are defined with  
197 respect to the parameters in the associated statistical model. In this instance, they will be  
198 defined with respect to the mixed model (for managed environments) and for the fully  
199 random model (for target environments). The estimators for fixed effects are called best  
200 linear unbiased estimators (BLUEs) and those for random effects are called best linear  
201 unbiased predictors (BLUPs) (Henderson, 1963, 1977).

202

203 Selection amongst genotypes is based on phenotypic variance and the phenotypic  
204 variance on a line mean basis is determined directly from the expected mean square for  
205 genotypes from the analysis of variance of the data (Table 1). Thus for the managed  
206 environments

207

208  $\sigma_{p(M)}^2 = \sigma_B^2 + \sigma_{\alpha B}^2 / a + \sigma^2 / (ar)$  for the UP formulation

209 and

210  $\sigma_{p(M)}^2 = \sigma_D^2 + \sigma^2 / (ar)$  for the CP formulation.

211

212 On the other hand, response to selection is based on genotypic variance. Again, for the  
213 managed environments

214

215  $\sigma_{g(M)}^2 = \sigma_B^2$  for the UP formulation

216 and

217  $\sigma_{g(M)}^2 = \sigma_D^2$  for the CP formulation.

218

219 The heritability of genotype means in the managed environments is defined as the ratio  
220 of the genetic variance to the phenotypic variance:

221

222  $h_M^2 = \sigma_{g(M)}^2 / \sigma_{p(M)}^2$  (5)

223

224 using either the UP or CP formulation for both of these variances. The heritability in the  
225 targeted environments is defined similarly, but the fully random model is assumed.

226

227 The phenotypic correlation,  $r_{p(M,T)}$ , is calculated between the means of the genotype  
228 performance in the managed and production environments. The genetic correlation,  
229  $r_{g(M,T)}$ , measures the similarity of line discrimination between the managed-environments

230 selection regime and that for average performance in the production-environments.  
231 When the environment correlation from managed (M) to production (T) environments  
232 can be assumed zero (Burdon, 1977), as in this case, the relationship between the  
233 phenotypic and genetic correlations is

234

$$235 \quad r_{g(M,T)} = r_{p(M,T)} / (h_T h_M) \quad (6)$$

236

237 where  $h^2_T$  and  $h^2_M$  are the heritabilities in the target and managed environments,  
238 respectively.

239

240 The predicted response to selection (or genetic gain) in the environment  $l$  where  
241 selection is made,  $\Delta G_l$ , is given by

242

$$243 \quad \Delta G_l = i h^2_l \sigma_{p(l)} \quad (7)$$

244

245 where  $i$  is the standardized selection differential,  $h^2_l$  is the heritability on a line mean  
246 basis and  $\sigma_{p(l)}$  is the phenotypic standard deviation in environment  $l$ . This equation can  
247 be applied to selection for specific traits, such as resistance or tolerance to disease, pest  
248 or soil toxicity factors, when genotypes are exposed to the appropriate screen. Error  
249 variation reduces genetic gain as can be seen from the definition of heritability on a  
250 genotype means basis as the ratio of the genotypic to phenotypic variance.

251

252 Extending this concept to the common case where the environments in which selection  
 253 is made are a sample of the target environments (T), the predicted response to selection  
 254 in those target environments,  $\Delta G_T$ , is given by

255

$$256 \quad \Delta G_T = i h_T^2 \sigma_{p(T)} \quad (8)$$

257

258 where  $i$  is the standardised selection differential,  $h_T^2$  is the heritability on a line mean  
 259 basis and  $\sigma_{p(T)}$  is the phenotypic standard deviation in the target environments. Variation  
 260 due to G×E interaction decreases genetic gain as it is incorporated in the denominator in  
 261 the definition of heritability.

262

263 When prediction is desired from a test set of managed environments (M) to a target set  
 264 of environments (T), the predicted response to selection (correlated genetic gain),

265  $\Delta G_{(T|M)}$ , is given by

266

$$267 \quad \Delta G_{(T|M)} = i h_T h_M r_{g(M,T)} \sigma_{p(T)}$$

$$268 \quad = i r_{p(M,T)} \sigma_{p(T)} \quad (9)$$

269

270 where there is no error correlation among the managed and target environments,  $h_T$  and  
 271  $h_M$  are the square roots of the heritabilities of line means in the target and test  
 272 environments, respectively,  $r_{g(M,T)}$  and  $r_{p(M,T)}$  are the genetic and phenotypic correlations  
 273 between mean performance in the test and target environments, respectively, and  $\sigma_{p(T)}$  is  
 274 the phenotypic standard deviation in the target environments. A more detailed

275 description of the derivation and interpretation of these statistics is given in Cooper *et al.*  
276 (1996).

277

278 **Example**

279 The data being considered here arose from trials conducted in a set of managed  
280 environments by the Queensland wheat breeding programme in Australia (Cooper *et al.*,  
281 1995). Grain yield ( $\text{t ha}^{-1}$ ) was measured on 15 sampled lines which included three local  
282 check cultivars, one line from the 11<sup>th</sup> International Bread Wheat Screening Nursery and  
283 11 lines from the 17<sup>th</sup> International Bread Wheat Screening Nursery. The 15 lines were  
284 evaluated in 18 managed environments. These were made up of six managed-  
285 environments at each of three locations, Emerald, Kingsthorpe (in 1988) and Gatton (in  
286 1987 and 1988), and involved manipulating nitrogen availability, water and sowing date.  
287 They were evaluated in a randomized complete block design with two replicates in each  
288 managed-environment. A mixed model was adopted where the lines were random  
289 effects (as they were considered to be a random sample of the lines from the preliminary  
290 testing stage of the Queensland programme) and the managed-environments were fixed  
291 (as it was assumed that they represented known challenges which could be repeated over  
292 years). The estimation of variance components and genetic parameters was conducted  
293 using both the UP and CP formulations. The 15 lines were also evaluated in 10 target  
294 or production-environments over four years (1985 to 1988) in randomized complete  
295 block designs with three replicates in each environment. These were considered to be a  
296 random subset of the regional trials used by the Queensland wheat breeding programme  
297 (Brennan *et al.* 1981). Thus a completely random model was adopted for the

298 production-environment trials. More details may be found in Cooper *et al.* (1995) where  
299 two series of managed-environments were considered.

300

301 The resultant mean squares for genotypes, environments, G×E interaction and error for  
302 the data from the managed-environments (M) are presented in Table 2. As the focus  
303 here is on the interpretation from the mixed model, the mean squares for the data from  
304 the target or production environments (T) are not listed. The genetic parameter  
305 estimates using both the UP and CP formulations are presented in Table 3. Given the  
306 difference in the expected mean squares (Table 1), the estimate of the variance  
307 component for genotypes (i.e., the genetic variance) is greater for the CP formulation  
308 than for the UP formulation and consequently the line mean heritability is larger and the  
309 genetic correlation from the managed environments to the production environments is  
310 smaller for the CP formulation than for the UP formulation (Table 3). Irrespective of  
311 the formulation used, predicted genetic gain from managed to production environments  
312 ( $\Delta G_{(T|M)} = 0.003$ ) remains the same as the phenotypic correlation ( $r_{p(M,T)} = 0.56$ ) remains  
313 the same. This is in spite of the change in the estimated heritability in the managed  
314 environments.

315

316 The CP formulation puts more confidence in an ability to distinguish lines which are  
317 genetically better in the managed environments ( $h^2_M = 0.968$ ) than does the UP  
318 formulation ( $h^2_M = 0.896$ ) at the price of less confidence in prediction to production  
319 environments ( $r_{g(M,T)}$  of 0.72 for CP and 0.78 for UP) (Table 3). This is compatible with  
320 the fixed model assumption for environments.

321

322 Another consequence is that the calculation of the best linear unbiased predictors  
323 (BLUPs) for genotypes will be affected by the different models with those using the CP  
324 formulation likely to overestimate the prediction of performance to the production  
325 environments. This arises because, for the completely random model, the BLUP for  
326 genotype performance across environments ( $p_j$ ) is, in its heritability form (DeLacy *et*.  
327 *al.*, 1996), given by

328

$$329 \quad p_j = h^2_M (\bar{y}_{.j} - \bar{y}_{...}) .$$

330

331 where  $\bar{y}_{.j}$  is the mean genotype response across replicates and environments and  $\bar{y}_{...}$   
332 is the overall mean response.

333

334 The heritability from the CP formulation ( $h^2_M = 0.968$ ) is larger than that from the UP  
335 formulation ( $h^2_M = 0.896$ ) and shrinks the BLUPs less. Unless there are unequal  
336 numbers, the correlation between these BLUPs and the raw genotype means over  
337 environments is one. Here, the usual assumptions of homogeneity are made, *i.e.* the  
338 error variance in each environment is the same and the G×E interaction variance is the  
339 same in each environment. General mixed model theory allows both assumptions to be  
340 relaxed.

341

342 The advantage of using BLUPs for prediction is that the predicted range is near to the  
343 "actual" range, *i.e.* the range of performance in the target environments. The arithmetic

344 average gives too large a spread. BLUPs also allow for different adjustment of the  
345 means depending on the number of replications: those means calculated from a large  
346 number of observations are shrunk less. Check genotypes usually have more  
347 replications and it is reasonable to assume that their means are known more reliably, and  
348 in consequence should be adjusted less for prediction purposes. This shrinkage is, in  
349 one sense, what was meant with the phrase, "regression to the mean" – the means of a  
350 selected group, when they are re-evaluated, will be nearer the mean of the unselected  
351 group than their means from test data. The use of BLUPs in selection based on multi-  
352 environment trials is discussed by Gilmour *et al.* (1996).

353

#### 354 **Discussion and Conclusion**

355 Breeders are setting up fixed "managed" environments with known variables that  
356 contribute to genotype by environment interaction. This is opposed to selecting a  
357 "random sample" of environments from the population of environments in which a  
358 genotype will be grown. It is doubtful if a truly random sample of environments could  
359 be obtained anyway. The finite set of managed environments leads directly to a mixed  
360 model situation when the genotypes represent a random sample from the population of  
361 genotypes.

362

363 If the definition of main effects and interactions universally used in factorial  
364 experiments is acceptable, then the CP formulation is the correct one for the breeder to  
365 use. The inconsistencies associated with the UP formulation in going from fixed to  
366 random effects makes this formulation undesirable. Samuels *et al.* (1991) also prescribe  
367 the CP formulation as the appropriate one but for different reasons than those given

368 herein. A number of authors (e.g., Ayres and Thomas, 1990, Fry, 1992, Schwarz, 1993)  
369 have attempted to justify each of the formulations based on their covariance structures.  
370 The nature of the covariance structure arises from the finiteness of the population and  
371 from the way the response model is formulated. The latter item is not related to the  
372 population structure and properties but to the mathematical properties of the manner in  
373 which the model is written. Regardless of the algebraic properties and mathematical  
374 generality, a model is uninformative if it does not have practical value.

375

376 As far as hypothesis testing is concerned, it is irrelevant whether data are balanced or  
377 not, i.e. the sampling procedure does not change the hypothesis. The population  
378 parameters that are being estimated are not different in concept, even if the actual  
379 estimates are different.

380

381 For data collected over a period of years, it is recommended that breeders obtain  
382 estimates of the genotype and genotype by environment interaction components of  
383 variance by the two formulations and from ANOVA and REML methods. Then, the  
384 results for genetic correlations and heritabilities can be computed for all estimates and  
385 compared with the actual values achieved in the program. Such summarizations and  
386 applications will verify the validity of any particular procedure for the breeding program  
387 in question. Differences from actual can be obtained and compared for all the  
388 procedures.

389

390 Overall, we recommend the CP formulation because of meaning of its parameters and  
391 corresponding variance components. Users will be more confident in prediction in the

392 managed environments (M), but not overconfident in prediction in the target  
393 environments (T). Importantly, the genetic gain (predicted response to selection in the  
394 target environments from the managed environments) is the same under both  
395 formulations

396

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457 Table 1: Expected mean squares for the  $r$  replicate  $a \times b$  factorial experiment with factor  
 458  $A$  fixed and factor  $B$  random under the unconstrained-parameters (UP) and constrained-  
 459 parameters (CP) formulations.

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461 Source	MS	EMS for UP formulation	EMS for CP formulation
463 $A$ (env)	$MSA$	$\sigma^2 + r \sigma_{\alpha B}^2 + br s^2(\alpha_i)$	$\sigma^2 + r \sigma_{\tau D}^2 + br s^2(\tau_i)$
464 $B$ (gen)	$MSB$	$\sigma^2 + r \sigma_{\alpha B}^2 + ar \sigma_B^2$	$\sigma^2 + ar \sigma_D^2$
465 $AB$ (gen $\times$ env)	$MSAB$	$\sigma^2 + r \sigma_{\alpha B}^2$	$\sigma^2 + r \sigma_{\tau D}^2$
466 Error	$MSE$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^2$

467

468 for  $s^2(\alpha_i) = \Sigma(\alpha_i - \bar{\alpha})^2 / (a-1)$ ,  $\bar{\alpha} = \Sigma\alpha_i / a$  and  $s^2(\tau_i) = \Sigma_i \tau_i^2 / (a-1)$ .

469

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470 Table 2: Mean squares from the analysis of the grain yield ( $t\ ha^{-1}$ ) of 15 genotypes  
471 grown in randomized complete block designs within each of 18 managed environments.

472

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473	Source	Mean Square
474		
475	<i>A</i> (env)	67.226
476	<i>B</i> (gen)	3.052
477	<i>AB</i> (gen×env)	0.318
478	<i>Error</i>	0.099
479		

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480 Table 3: Genetic parameter estimates from the analysis of the grain yield ( $\text{t ha}^{-1}$ ) of 15  
 481 genotypes grown in randomized complete block designs within each of 18 managed  
 482 environments under the unconstrained-parameters (UP) and constrained-parameters (CP)  
 483 formulations.

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485	Parameter	UP formulation	CP formulation
486			
487	$\sigma_g^2$	0.076	0.082
488	$\sigma_p^2$	0.085	0.085
489	$h^2_M$	0.896	0.968
490	$r_{g(M,T)}$	0.78	0.72
491	$r_{p(M,T)}$	0.56	0.56
492	$\Delta G_{(T M)}$	0.003	0.003
493			

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