

0.1 Zewotir Measures of Influence in LME Models

[?]Zewotir describes a number of approaches to model diagnostics, investigating each of the following;

- Variance components
- Fixed effects parameters
- Prediction of the response variable and of random effects
- likelihood function

[?]Zewotir lists several established methods of analyzing influence in LME models. These methods include

- Cook's distance for LME models,
- likelihood distance,
- the variance (information) ration,
- the Cook-Weisberg statistic,
- the Andrews-Prebigon statistic.

0.2 Matrix Notation for Case Deletion

0.2.1 Case deletion notation

For notational simplicity, $\mathbf{A}(i)$ denotes an $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{A} with the i -th row removed, a_i denotes the i -th row of \mathbf{A} , and a_{ij} denotes the (i, j) -th element of \mathbf{A} .

0.2.2 Further Assumptions of Linear Models

As with fitted models, the assumption of normality of residuals and homogeneity of variance is applicable to LMEs also.

Homoscedascity is the technical term to describe the variance of the residuals being constant across the range of predicted values. Heteroscedascity is the converse scenario : the variance differs along the range of values.

0.2.3 Residuals diagnostics in LME Models

A residual is the difference between an observed quantity and its estimated or predicted value. In LME models, there are two types of residuals, marginal residuals and conditional residuals. In a model without random effects, both sets of residuals coincide. [?]^{schabenberger} provides a useful summary.

- A marginal residual is the difference between the observed data and the estimated (marginal) mean, $r_{mi} = y_i - x_0' \hat{b}$
- A conditional residual is the difference between an observed value y_i and the conditional predicted value \hat{y}_i ,

$$r_{ci} = y_i - x_i' \hat{b} - z_i' \hat{\gamma}$$

The marginal and conditional means in the linear mixed model are $E[\mathbf{Y}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $E[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{u}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u}$, respectively.

0.2.4 Marginal and Conditional Residuals

A marginal residual is the difference between the observed data and the estimated (marginal) mean, $r_{mi} = y_i - x_0' \hat{b}$. A conditional residual is the difference between the observed data and the predicted value of the observation, $r_{ci} = y_i - x_i' \hat{b} - z_i' \hat{\gamma}$.

In linear mixed effects models, diagnostic techniques may consider ‘conditional’ residuals. A conditional residual is the difference between an observed value y_i and the conditional predicted value \hat{y}_i .

$$\epsilon_{i|} = y_i - \hat{y}_i = y_i - (X_i \hat{\beta} + Z_i \hat{b}_i)$$

However, using conditional residuals for diagnostics presents difficulties, as they tend to be correlated and their variances may be different for different subgroups, which can lead to erroneous conclusions.

$$r_{mi} = x_i^T \hat{\beta} \tag{1}$$

0.2.5 Marginal Residuals

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\beta} &= (X^T R^{-1} X)^{-1} X^T R^{-1} Y \\ &= B Y \end{aligned}$$

0.2.6 Marginal and Conditional Residuals

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0.2.7 Residuals diagnostics in LME Models

The marginal and conditional means in the linear mixed model are $E[\mathbf{Y}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $E[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{u}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u}$, respectively.

$$r_{mi} = x_i^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \quad (2)$$

0.2.8 Marginal Residuals

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Y} \\ &= \mathbf{B} \mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

Residuals

Residuals are used to examine model assumptions and to detect outliers and potentially influential data point. The raw residuals r_{mi} and r_{ci} are usually not well suited for these purposes.

- Conditional Residuals r_{ci}
- Marginal Residuals r_{mi}
-

Marginal Residuals

Distinction From Linear Models

- The differences between perturbation and residual analysis in the linear model and the linear mixed model are connected to the important facts that b and b depend on the estimates of the covariance parameters, that b has the form of an (estimated) generalized least squares (GLS) estimator, and that is a random vector.
- In a mixed model, you can consider the data in a conditional and an unconditional sense. If you imagine a particular realization of the random effects, then you are considering the conditional distribution Y —
- If you are interested in quantities averaged over all possible values of the random effects, then you are interested in Y ; this is called the marginal formulation. In a clinical trial, for example, you may be interested in drug efficacy for a particular patient. If random effects vary by patient, that is a conditional problem. If you are interested in the drug efficacy in the population of all patients, you are using a marginal formulation. Correspondingly, there will be conditional and marginal residuals, for example.
- The estimates of the fixed effects depend on the estimates of the covariance parameters. If you are interested in determining the influence of an observation on the analysis, you must determine whether this is influence on the fixed effects for a given value of the covariance parameters, influence on the covariance parameters, or influence on both.
- Mixed models are often used to analyze repeated measures and longitudinal data. The natural experimental or sampling unit in those studies is the entity that is repeatedly observed, rather than each individual repeated observation. For example, you may be analyzing monthly purchase records by customer.
- An influential data point is then not necessarily a single purchase. You are probably more interested in determining the influential customer. This requires that you can measure the influence of sets of observations on the analysis, not just influence of individual observations.
- The computation of case deletion diagnostics in the classical model is made simple by the fact that model. Such update formulas are available in the mixed model only if you assume that the covariance parameters

are not affected by the removal of the observation in question. This is rarely a reasonable assumption.

- The application of well-known concepts in model-data diagnostics to the mixed model can produce results that are at first counter-intuitive, since our understanding is steeped in the ordinary least squares (OLS) framework. As a consequence, we need to revisit these important concepts, ask whether they are portable to the mixed model, and gain new appreciation for their changed properties. An important example is the ostensibly simple concept of leverage.
- The definition of leverage adopted by the MIXED procedure can, in some instances, produce negative values, which are mathematically impossible in OLS. Other measures that have been proposed may be non-negative, but trade other advantages. Another example are properties of residuals. While OLS residuals necessarily sum to zero in any model (with intercept), this not true of the residuals in many mixed models.

0.3 Residual diagnostics

For classical linear models, residual diagnostics are typically implemented as a plot of the observed residuals and the predicted values. A visual inspection for the presence of trends inform the analyst on the validity of distributional assumptions, and to detect outliers and influential observations.

0.3.1 Residuals diagnostics in mixed models

The marginal and conditional means in the linear mixed model are $E[\mathbf{Y}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $E[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{u}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u}$, respectively.

A residual is the difference between an observed quantity and its estimated or predicted value. In the mixed model you can distinguish marginal residuals r_m and conditional residuals r_c .

$$r_{mi} = x_i^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \quad (3)$$

0.3.2 Marginal Residuals

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Y} \\ &= \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

0.4 Conditional and Marginal Residuals

Conditional residuals include contributions from both fixed and random effects, whereas marginal residuals include contribution from only fixed effects.

Suppose the linear mixed-effects model lme has an $n \times p$ fixed-effects design matrix \mathbf{X} and an $n \times q$ random-effects design matrix \mathbf{Z} .

Also, suppose the p-by-1 estimated fixed-effects vector is $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$, and the q-by-1 estimated best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) vector of random effects is $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$. The fitted conditional response is

$$\hat{y}_{Cond} = X\hat{\beta} + Z\hat{b}$$

and the fitted marginal response is

$$\hat{y}_{Mar} = X\hat{\beta}$$

residuals can return three types of residuals:

- raw,
- Pearson, and
- standardized.

For any type, you can compute the conditional or the marginal residuals. For example, the conditional raw residual is

$$r_{Cond} = y - X\hat{\beta} - Z\hat{b}$$

and the marginal raw residual is

$$r_{Mar} = y - X\hat{\beta}$$

Cox and Snell (1968, JRSS-B): general definition of residuals for models with single source of variability Hilden-Minton (1995, PhD thesis UCLA), Verbeke and Lesaffre (1997, CSDA) or Pinheiro and Bates (2000, Springer): extension to define three types of residuals that accommodate the extra source of variability present in linear mixed models, namely:

- i) Marginal residuals,
predictors of marginal errors,
- ii) Conditional residuals,

$$be = yX\hat{\beta}Zbb = \hat{\sigma}Q\hat{y}$$

, predictors of conditional errors

$$e = yE[y|b] = yX\beta Zb$$

- iii) BLUP, Zbb , predictors of random effects,

$$Zb = E[y|b]E[y]$$

Marginal residuals

$$y - X\beta = Z\eta + \epsilon$$

- Should be mean 0, but may show grouping structure
- May not be homoskedastic.
- Good for checking fixed effects, just like linear regr.

Conditional residuals

$$y - X\beta - Z\eta = \epsilon$$

- Should be mean zero with no grouping structure
- Should be homoscedastic.
- Good for checking normality of outliers

Random effects

$$y - X\beta - \epsilon = Z\eta$$

- Should be mean zero with no grouping structure
- May not be be homoscedastic.

0.5 Residual diagnostics

For classical linear models, residual diagnostics are typically implemented as a plot of the observed residuals and the predicted values. A visual inspection for the presence of trends inform the analyst on the validity of distributional assumptions, and to detect outliers and influential observations.

0.5.1 Residuals diagnostics in mixed models

The marginal and conditional means in the linear mixed model are $E[\mathbf{Y}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $E[\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{u}] = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u}$, respectively.

A residual is the difference between an observed quantity and its estimated or predicted value. In the mixed model you can distinguish marginal residuals r_m and conditional residuals r_c .

$$r_{mi} = x_i^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \quad (4)$$

0.5.2 Marginal Residuals

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Y} \\ &= \mathbf{B} \mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

0.5.3 Confounded Residuals

Hilden-Minton (1995, PhD thesis, UCLA): residual is pure for a specific type of error if it depends only on the fixed components and on the error that it is supposed to predict. Residuals that depend on other types of errors are called *confounded residuals*.

0.6 Iterative and non-iterative influence analysis

[?]schab highlights some of the issue regarding implementing mixed model diagnostics.

0.6.1 Iterative Influence Analysis

For linear models, the implementation of influence analysis is straightforward. However, for LME models, the process is more complex. Update formulas for the fixed effects are available only when the covariance parameters are assumed to be known. A measure of total influence requires updates of all model parameters. This can only be achieved in general is by omitting observations, then refitting the model.

[?]schab describes the choice between iterative influence analysis and non-iterative influence analysis.

0.6.2 Iterative vs Non-Iterative Influence Analysis

While the basic idea of influence analysis is straightforward, the implementation in mixed models can be tricky. For example, update formulas for the fixed effects are available only when the covariance parameters are assumed to be known. At most the profiled residual variance can be updated without refitting the model.

A measure of total influence requires updates of all model parameters, and the only way that this can be achieved in general is by removing the observations in question and refitting the model.

Because this **bruteforce** method involves iterative reestimation of the covariance parameters, it is termed *iterative influence analysis*. Reliance on closed-form update formulas for the fixed effects without updating the (un-profiled) covariance parameters is termed a noniterative influence analysis.

An iterative analysis seems like a costly, computationally intensive enterprise. If you compute iterative influence diagnostics for all n observations, then a total of $n + 1$ mixed models are fit iteratively. This does not imply,

of course, that the procedures execution time increases n -fold. Keep in mind that

- iterative reestimation always starts at the converged full-data estimates. If a data point is not influential, then its removal will have little effect on the objective function and parameter estimates. Within one or two iterations, the process should arrive at the reduced-data estimates.
- if complete reestimation does require many iterations, then this is important information in itself. The likelihood surface has probably changed drastically, and the reduced-data estimates are moving away

from the full-data estimates.

On occasion, quantification is not possible. Assume, for example, that a data point is removed and the new estimate of the G matrix is not positive definite. This may occur if a variance component estimate now falls on the boundary of the parameter space. Thus, it may not be possible to compute certain influence statistics comparing the full-data and reduced-data parameter estimates. However, knowing that a new singularity was encountered is important qualitative information about the data points influence on the analysis.

The basic procedure for quantifying influence is simple:

1. Fit the model to the data and obtain estimates of all parameters.
2. Remove one or more data points from the analysis and compute updated estimates of model parameters.
3. Based on full- and reduced-data estimates, contrast quantities of interest to determine how the absence of the observations changes the analysis.

We use the subscript (U) to denote quantities obtained without the observations in the set U . For example, (U) denotes the fixed-effects *leave- U -out* estimates. Note that the set U can contain multiple observations.

If the global measure suggests that the points in U are influential, you should next determine the nature of that influence. In particular, the points can affect

- the estimates of fixed effects
- the estimates of the precision of the fixed effects
- the estimates of the covariance parameters
- the estimates of the precision of the covariance parameters
- fitted and predicted values

It is important to further decompose the initial finding to determine whether data points are actually troublesome. Simply because they are influential somehow, should not trigger their removal from the analysis or a change in the model. For example, if points primarily affect the precision of the covariance parameters without exerting much influence on the fixed effects, then their presence in the data may not distort hypothesis tests or confidence intervals about β .

0.6.3 Summary of Paper

Standard residual and influence diagnostics for linear models can be extended to LME models. The dependence of the fixed effects solutions on the covariance parameters has important ramifications on the perturbation analysis. Calculating the studentized residuals-And influence statistics whereas each software procedure can calculate both conditional and marginal raw residuals, only SAS Proc Mixed is currently the only program that provide studentized residuals Which are preferred for model diagnostics. The conditional Raw residuals are not well suited to detecting outliers as are the studentized conditional residuals. (schabenberger r)

LME are flexible tools for the analysis of clustered and repeated measurement data. LME extend the capabilities of standard linear models by allowing unbalanced and missing data, as long as the missing data are MAR. Structured covariance matrices for both the random effects G and the residuals R. missing at Random.

A conditional residual is the difference between the observed value and the predicted value of a dependent variable- Influence diagnostics are formal techniques that allow the identification observation that heavily influence estimates of parameters. To alleviate the problems with the interpretation of conditional residuals that may have unequal variances, we consider scaling. Residuals obtained in this manner are called studentized residuals.

0.7 Schabenberger: Summary and Conclusions

- Standard residual and influence diagnostics for linear models can be extended to linear mixed models. The dependence of fixed-effects solutions on the covariance parameter estimates has important ramifications in perturbation analysis.
- To gauge the full impact of a set of observations on the analysis, covariance parameters need to be updated, which requires refitting of the model.
- The experimental INFLUENCE option of the MODEL statement in the MIXED procedure (SAS 9.1) enables you to perform iterative and noniterative influence analysis for individual observations and sets of observations.

- The conditional (subject-specific) and marginal (population-averaged) formulations in the linear mixed model enable you to consider conditional residuals that use the estimated BLUPs of the random effects, and marginal residuals which are deviations from the overall mean.
- Residuals using the BLUPs are useful to diagnose whether the random effects components in the model are specified correctly, marginal residuals are useful to diagnose the fixed-effects components.
- Both types of residuals are available in SAS 9.1 as an experimental option of the MODEL statement in the MIXED procedure.
- It is important to note that influence analyses are performed under the assumption that the chosen model is correct. Changing the model structure can alter the conclusions. Many other variance models have been fit to the data presented in the repeated measures example. You need to see the conclusions about which model component is affected in light of the model being fit.

0.8 Likelihood Distance

The likelihood distance is a global summary measure that expresses the joint influence of the subsets of observations, U , on all parameters in ϕ that were subject to updating. ? points out the likelihood distance gives the amount by which the log-likelihood of the model fitted from the full data changes if one were to estimate the model from a reduced-data estimates. Importantly $LD(\psi_{(U)})$ is not the log-likelihood obtained by fitting the model to the reduced data set. It is obtained by evaluating the likelihood function based on the full data set (containing all n observations) at the reduced-data estimates.

$$LD((U)) = 2[l(\hat{\phi}) - l\hat{\phi}_{\omega}]$$

$$RLD((U)) = 2[l_R(\hat{\phi}) - l_R(\hat{\phi})_{\omega}]$$

0.9 Likelihood Distance

The likelihood distance gives the amount by which the log-likelihood of the full data changes if one were to evaluate it at the reduced-data estimates. The important point is that $l(\psi_U)$ is not the log-likelihood obtained by fitting the model to the reduced data set.

It is obtained by evaluating the likelihood function based on the full data set (containing all n observations) at the reduced-data estimates.

The likelihood distance is a global, summary measure, expressing the joint influence of the observations in the set U on all parameters in ψ that were subject to updating.

0.9.1 Likelihood Distance

The likelihood distance is a global, summary measure, expressing the joint influence of the observations in the set U on all parameters in ϕ that were subject to updating.