

Contents

0.1	LME Models in Method Comparison Studies	2
0.1.1	Test For Inter-Method Bias in the LME Frameworks	2
0.1.2	Carstensen's LME Framework for Method Comparison	3
0.1.3	Using Interaction Terms for Linked Replicates	6
0.1.4	Carstensen's LOAs	6
0.1.5	Carstensen Methods	7
0.1.6	Computation (BLUPs)	8
0.1.7	Roy's LME Framework for Method Comparison	9
0.1.8	Model Specification for Roy's Hypotheses Tests	11
0.1.9	Roy's Tests of Variances	12
0.2	Comparing MCS Approaches	15
0.3	Agreement Criteria for Replicate Measurements	17
	Bibliography	17

0.1 LME Models in Method Comparison Studies

Linear mixed effects (LME) models can facilitate greater understanding of the potential causes of bias and differences in precision between two sets of measurement. Due to computation complexity, LME models have not seen widespread use until many well known statistical software applications began facilitating them. Consequently LME approaches have seen increased use as a framework for method comparison studies in recent years (Lai & Shaio, Carstensen (2004); Carstensen et al. (2008) and Roy (2009) as examples).

In part this is due to the increased profile of LME models, and furthermore the availability of capable software. Additionally a great understanding of residual analysis and influence analysis for LME models has been achieved thanks to authors such as Schabenberger (2004), Christensen et al. (1992), Cook (1986) West et al. (2007), amongst others.

Carstensen et al. (2008) advocates the adoption of computer based approaches to method comparison studies, allowing the use of LME models that would not have been feasible otherwise. These authors remark that modern statistical computation, such as that used for LME models, greatly improve the efficiency of calculation compared to previous ‘by-hand’ approaches, as advocated in Bland and Altman (1999), describing them as tedious, unnecessary and outdated. Instead estimates for required LME parameters can be read directly from program output. Furthermore, using computer approaches removes associated constraints, such as the need for the design to be perfectly balanced.

0.1.1 Test For Inter-Method Bias in the LME Frameworks

The presence of an inter-method bias is the source of disagreement between two methods of measurement that is most easily identified. A formal test for inter-method bias can be implemented by examining the fixed effects of the model. This inter-method bias can be specified as a fixed effect in the LME model. This is common to well known

classical linear model methodologies, and interpretation of the results should pose not difficulty to a trained practitioner.

The null hypotheses, that both methods have the same mean, which is tested against the alternative hypothesis, that both methods have different means.

As the first in a series of hypothesis tests, Roy (2009) presents a formal test for inter-method bias. With the null and alternative hypothesis denoted H_1 and K_1 respectively, this test is formulated as

$$H_1 : \mu_1 = \mu_2, \tag{1}$$

$$K_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2. \tag{2}$$

The inter-method bias and necessary test statistic and p -value are presented in computer output.

0.1.2 Carstensen's LME Framework for Method Comparison

Carstensen et al. (2008) demonstrate statistical flaws with two approaches proposed by Bland and Altman (1999) for the purpose of calculating the variance of the inter-method bias when replicate measurements are available.

These authors advocate a LME model for the purpose of comparing two methods of measurement where replicate measurements are available on each item.

Instead, they recommend a fitted mixed effects model to obtain appropriate estimates for the variance of the inter-method bias.

These estimates are based upon variance component estimates derived using LME models. These models estimate variance components for measurements by different methods.

As their interest mainly lies in extending the Bland-Altman approach, other formal tests are not considered. Their interest lies in generalizing the limits-of-agreement (LOA) method developed by Bland and Altman (1986) to take proper cognizance of the replicate measurements. Estimation of repeatability is included in this framework.

Carstensen (2004) presents a model to describe the relationship between a value of measurement and its real value. The non-replicate case is considered first, as it is the context of the Bland Altman plots. This model assumes that inter-method bias is the only difference between the two methods. A measurement y_{mi} by method m on individual i is formulated as follows:

$$y_{mi} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + e_{mi} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2)). \quad (3)$$

For the replicate case, a measurement y_{mi} by method m on individual i the measurement y_{mir} is the r th replicate measurement on the i th item by the m th method, where $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, and $r = 1, \dots, n_i$ is formulated as follows;

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + c_{mi} + a_{ir} + \epsilon_{mir}, \quad c_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_m^2), a_{ir} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \varsigma^2), \epsilon_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \varphi_m^2). \quad (4)$$

When the design is balanced and there is no ambiguity we can set $n_i = n$. The variation between items for method m is captured by σ_m and the within item variation by τ_m .

Using Carstensen's notation, a measurement y_{mi} by method m on individual i the measurement y_{mir} is the r th replicate measurement on the i th item by the m th method, where $m = 1, 2$, $i = 1, \dots, N$, and $r = 1, \dots, n_i$ is formulated as follows;

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + c_{mi} + \epsilon_{mir}, \quad e_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_m^2), \quad c_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_m^2). \quad (5)$$

Here the terms α_m and μ_i represent the fixed effect for method m and a true value for item i respectively. The random effect terms comprise an interaction term c_{mi} and the residuals ϵ_{mir} . The c_{mi} term represent random effect parameters corresponding to the two methods, having $E(c_{mi}) = 0$ with $\text{Var}(c_{mi}) = \tau_m^2$.

Carstensen specifies the variance of the interaction terms as being univariate normally distributed. As such, $\text{Cov}(c_{mi}, c_{m'i}) = 0$. All the random effects are assumed independent, and that all replicate measurements are assumed to be exchangeable within each method.

The random error term for each response is denoted ε_{mir} having $E(\varepsilon_{mir}) = 0$, $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_{mir}) = \varphi_m^2$.

The differences are expressed as $d_i = y_{1i} - y_{2i}$. For the replicate case, an interaction term c is added to the model, with an associated variance component. All the random effects are assumed independent, and that all replicate measurements are assumed to be exchangeable within each method.

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir}, \quad e_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_m^2), \quad c_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_m^2). \quad (6)$$

The above formulation doesn't require the data set to be balanced. However, it does require a sufficient large number of replicates and measurements to overcome the problem of identifiability. The import of which is that more than two methods of measurement may be required to carry out the analysis.

There is also the assumptions that observations of measurements by particular methods are exchangeable within subjects. The quality of exchangeability means that future samples from a population behaves like earlier samples.

Carstensen et al. (2008) develop their model from a standard two-way analysis of variance model, reformulated for the case of replicate measurements, with random effects terms specified as appropriate. This model is formulated as follows, where y_{mir} is the r th replicate measurement on subject i with method m .

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \beta_m \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2), c_{mi} \sim N(0, \tau_m^2)) \quad (7)$$

The intercept term α and the $\beta_m \mu_i$ term follow from Dunn (2002), expressing constant and proportional bias respectively, in the presence of a real value μ_i . c_{mi} is a interaction term to account for replicate, and e_{mir} is the residual associated with each observation. Since variances are specific to each method, this model can be fitted separately for each method.

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + a_{ir} + c_{mi} + \varepsilon_{mir}. \quad (8)$$

The fixed effects α_m and μ_i represent the intercept for method m and the ‘true value’ for item i respectively. The random-effect terms comprise an item-by-replicate interaction term $a_{ir} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \varsigma^2)$, a method-by-item interaction term $c_{mi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_m^2)$, and model error terms $\varepsilon_{mir} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \varphi_m^2)$. All random-effect terms are assumed to be independent. For the case when replicate measurements are assumed to be exchangeable for item i , a_{ir} can be removed. The model expressed in (2) describes measurements by m methods, where $m = \{1, 2, 3 \dots\}$.

With regards to specifying the variance terms, Carstensen remarks that using his approach is common, remarking that *The only slightly non-standard (meaning “not often used”) feature is the differing residual variances between methods* (Carstensen, 2010).

0.1.3 Using Interaction Terms for Linked Replicates

Carstensen et al. (2008) formulates an LME model, both in the absence and the presence of an interaction term. Carstensen et al. (2008) uses both to demonstrate the importance of using an interaction term. Failure to take the replication structure into account results in over-estimation of the limits of agreement.

Carstensen et al. (2008) proposes the addition of an random effects term to their model when the replicates are linked. This term is used to describe the ‘item by replicate’ interaction, which is independent of the methods. This interaction is a source of variability independent of the methods. Therefore failure to account for it will result in variability being wrongly attributed to the methods.

0.1.4 Carstensen’s LOAs

Carstensen et al. (2008) presents a model where the variation between items for method m is captured by σ_m and the within item variation by τ_m .

Based on the model expressed in (2), Carstensen et al. (2008) compute the limits of agreement as

$$\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 \pm 2\sqrt{\tau_1^2 + \tau_2^2 + \varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2}$$

It is not possible to estimate the interaction variance components τ_1^2 and τ_2^2 separately, and therefore they are assumed to be equal. The limits of agreement therefore are

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 - \hat{\alpha}_2 \pm \sqrt{2\hat{\tau}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_1^2 + \hat{\sigma}_2^2}.$$

Carstensen et al. (2008) notes that, for $m = 2$, separate estimates of τ_m^2 can not be obtained. To overcome this, the assumption of equality, i.e. $\tau_1^2 = \tau_2^2$ is required.

Further to his model, Carstensen computes the limits of agreement as

$$\hat{\alpha}_1 - \hat{\alpha}_2 \pm \sqrt{2\hat{\tau}^2 + \hat{\sigma}_1^2 + \hat{\sigma}_2^2}$$

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2), c_{mi} \sim N(0, \tau_m^2)) \quad (9)$$

Carstensen et al. (2008) proposes a framework to calculate prediction intervals in the presence of replicate measurements, overcoming problems associated with Bland-Altman approach in this regard.

0.1.5 Carstensen Methods

A measurement y_{mi} by method m on individual i is formulated as follows;

$$y_{mi} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + e_{mi} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2)) \quad (10)$$

For the replicate case, an interaction term c is added to the model, with an associated variance component.

The following model is formulated as follows, where y_{mir} is the r th replicate measurement on subject i with method m .

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir} \quad (e_{mi} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2), c_{mi} \sim N(0, \tau_m^2)) \quad (11)$$

All the random effects are assumed independent, and that all replicate measurements are assumed to be exchangeable within each method.

$$y_{mir} = \alpha_m + \beta_m \mu_i + c_{mi} + e_{mir} \quad (12)$$

One important feature of replicate observations is that they should be independent of each other. In essence, this is achieved by ensuring that the observer makes each measurement independent of knowledge of the previous value(s). This may be difficult to achieve in practice.

0.1.6 Computation (BLUPs)

Modern software packages can be used to fit models accordingly. The best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) for a specific subject i measured with method m has the form $BLUP_{mir} = \hat{\alpha}_m + \hat{\beta}_m \mu_i + c_{mi}$, under the assumption that the μ s are the true item values.

Carstensen (2004) uses the above formula to predict observations for a specific individual i by method m ;

$$BLUP_{mir} = \hat{\alpha}_m + \hat{\beta}_m \mu_i + c_{mi} \quad (13)$$

.

Under the assumption that the μ s are the true item values, this would be sufficient to estimate parameters. The assumption of exchangeability can be unrealistic in certain situations. Carstensen (2004) provides an amended formulation which includes an extra interaction term $d_{mr} \sim N(0, \omega_m^2)$ to account for this.

Maximum likelihood estimation is used to estimate the parameters. The REML estimation is not considered since it does not lead to a joint distribution of the estimates of fixed effects and random effects parameters, upon which the assessment of agreement is based.

0.1.7 Roy’s LME Framework for Method Comparison

Barnhart et al. (2007) sets out three criteria for two methods to be considered in agreement: no significant bias, no difference in the between-subject variabilities, and no significant difference in the within-subject variabilities.

Lack of agreement can also arise if there is a disagreement in overall variabilities. This lack of agreement may be due to differing between-item variabilities, differing within-item variabilities, or both. The formulation previously presented by Roy usefully facilitates a series of significance tests that assess if and where such differences arise. These tests are comprised of a formal test for the equality of between-item variances.

Roy further proposes examination of the the overall variability by considering the second and third criteria be examined jointly. Should both the second and third criteria be fulfilled, then the overall variabilities of both methods would be equal.

For the purposes of comparing two methods of measurement, Roy (2009) presents a framework utilizing LME models. This approach provides for the formal testing of inter-method bias, between-subject variability and within-subject variability of two methods. The formulation contains a Kronecker product covariance structure in a doubly multivariate setup. By doubly multivariate set up, Roy means that the information on each patient or item is multivariate at two levels, the number of methods and number of replicated measurements. Further to Lam et al. (1999), it is assumed that the replicates are linked over time. However it is easy to modify to the unlinked case.

Roy (2009) proposes a suite of hypothesis tests for assessing the agreement of two methods of measurement, when replicate measurements are obtained for each item, using a LME approach. The tests are implemented by fitting a specific LME model, and three variations thereof, to the data. These three variant models introduce equality constraints that act as null hypothesis cases.

In addition to computing the inter-method bias, three significance tests are carried out on the respective formulations to make a judgement on whether or not two methods are in agreement. The difference in the models are specifically in how the the D and Σ

matrices are constructed, using either an unstructured form or a compound symmetry form. The first model is compared against each of three other models successively. These tests are the pairwise comparison of candidate models, one formulated without constraints, the other with a constraint.

Four candidates models are fitted to the data. These models are similar to one another, but for the imposition of equality constraints. The tests are implemented by fitting a four variants of a specific LME model to the data. For the purpose of comparing models, one of the models acts as a reference model while the three other variant are nested models that introduce equality constraints to serves as null hypothesis cases. The framework uses a linear mixed effects regression fit using a combination of symmetric and compound symmetry (CS) correlation structure the variance covariance matrices.

For these tests, four candidate LME models are constructed. The differences in the models are specifically in how the the D and Λ matrices are constructed, using either an unstructured form or a compound symmetry form. To illustrate these differences, consider a generic matrix A ,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

A symmetric matrix allows the diagonal terms a_{11} and a_{22} to differ. The compound symmetry structure requires that both of these terms be equal, i.e $a_{11} = a_{22}$.

The first model acts as an alternative hypothesis to be compared against each of three other models, acting as null hypothesis models, successively. The models are compared using the likelihood ratio test. Likelihood ratio tests are a class of tests based on the comparison of the values of the likelihood functions of two candidate models. LRTs can be used to test hypotheses about covariance parameters or fixed effects parameters in the context of LMEs. The test statistic for the likelihood ratio test is the difference of the log-likelihood functions, multiplied by -2 . The probability distribution of the test statistic is approximated by the χ^2 distribution with $(\nu_1 - \nu_2)$

degrees of freedom, where ν_1 and ν_2 are the degrees of freedom of models 1 and 2 respectively. Each of these three test shall be examined in more detail shortly.

Roy (2009) uses the same definition of replicate measurement as Bland and Altman (1999); measurements taken in quick succession by the same observer using the same instrument on the same subject can be considered true replicates under identical conditions. Roy (2009) notes that some measurements may not be ‘true’ replicates, as data can not be collected in this way. In such cases, the correlation matrix on the replicates may require a different structure, such as the autoregressive order one $AR(1)$ structure. However determining MLEs with such a structure would be computational intense, if possible at all.

0.1.8 Model Specification for Roy’s Hypotheses Tests

The LME model underpinning Roy’s approach can be written

$$y_{mir} = \beta_0 + \beta_m + b_{mi} + \epsilon_{mir}. \quad (14)$$

Here β_0 and β_m are fixed-effect terms representing, respectively, a model intercept and an overall effect for method m . The model can be reparameterized by gathering the β terms together into (fixed effect) intercept terms $\alpha_m = \beta_0 + \beta_m$. The b_{1i} and b_{2i} terms are correlated random effect parameters having $E(b_{mi}) = 0$ with $\text{Var}(b_{mi}) = g_m^2$ and $\text{Cov}(b_{1i}, b_{2i}) = g_{12}$. The random error term for each response is denoted ϵ_{mir} having $E(\epsilon_{mir}) = 0$, $\text{Var}(\epsilon_{mir}) = \sigma_m^2$, $\text{Cov}(\epsilon_{1ir}, \epsilon_{2ir}) = \sigma_{12}$, $\text{Cov}(\epsilon_{mir}, \epsilon_{mir'}) = 0$ and $\text{Cov}(\epsilon_{1ir}, \epsilon_{2ir'}) = 0$. Additionally these parameter are assumed to have Gaussian distribution. Two methods of measurement are in complete agreement if the null hypotheses $H_1: \alpha_1 = \alpha_2$ and $H_2: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ and $H_3: g_1^2 = g_2^2$ hold simultaneously. Roy (2009) uses a Bonferroni correction to control the familywise error rate for tests of $\{H_1, H_2, H_3\}$ and account for difficulties arising due to multiple testing. Additionally, Roy combines H_2 and H_3 into a single testable hypothesis $H_4: \omega_1^2 = \omega_2^2$, where $\omega_m^2 = \sigma_m^2 + g_m^2$ represent the overall variability of method m .

Response for i th subject can be written as

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + b_{1i} z_{i1} + b_{2i} z_{i2} + \epsilon_i$$

In order to express Roy's LME model in matrix notation we gather all $2n_i$ observations specific to item i into a single vector $\mathbf{y}_i = (y_{1i1}, y_{2i1}, y_{1i2}, \dots, y_{mir}, \dots, y_{1in_i}, y_{2in_i})'$.

0.1.9 Roy's Tests of Variances

Roy (2009) proposes a series of three tests on the variance components of an LME model. For these tests, four candidate models are fitted to the data, each differing by various constraints applied to the variance covariance matrices.

Three tests of hypothesis are provided, appropriate for evaluating the agreement between the two methods of measurement under this sampling scheme.

Variability Test 1

The first test determines whether or not both methods A and B have the same between-subject variability, further to the second of Roy's criteria.

$$H_0 : d_1 = d_2$$

$$H_A : d_1 \neq d_2$$

This test is facilitated by constructing a model specifying a symmetric form for D (i.e. the alternative model) and comparing it with a model that has compound symmetric form for D (i.e. the null model). For this test $\hat{\Sigma}$ has a symmetric form for both models, and will be the same for both.

The first candidate model is compared to each of the three other models successively. It is the alternative model in each of the three tests, with the other three models acting as the respective null models. The models are compared using the likelihood ratio test, a general method for comparing nested models fitted by ML (?).

The first test allows of the comparison the begin-subject variability of two methods. Similarly, the second test assesses the within-subject variability of two methods. A

third test is a test that compares the overall variability of the two methods. Other important aspects of the method comparison study are consequent. The limits of agreement are computed using the results of the first model.

$$H_3 : \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$$

$$K_3 : \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$$

Variability Test 2

This test determines whether or not both methods have the same within-subject variability, thus enabling a decision on the third of Roy's criteria.

$$H_0 : \sigma_1 = \sigma_2$$

$$H_A : \sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2$$

This model is performed in the same manner as the first test, only reversing the roles of $l\hat{D}$ and $l\hat{\Sigma}$. The null model is constructed a symmetric form for $\hat{\Sigma}$ while the alternative model uses a compound symmetry form. This time $l\hat{D}$ has a symmetric form for both models, and will be the same for both.

As the within-subject variabilities are fundamental to the coefficient of repeatability, this variability test likelihood ratio test is equivalent to testing the equality of two coefficients of repeatability of two methods. In presenting the results of this test, Roy (2009) includes the coefficients of repeatability for both methods.

Variability Test 3

Roy also integrates H_2 and H_3 into a single testable hypothesis $H_4 : \omega_1^2 = \omega_2^2$, where $\omega_m^2 = \sigma_m^2 + d_m^2$ represent the overall variability of method m . Roy (2009) further proposes examination of the the overall variability by considering the second and third criteria be examined jointly. Should both the second and third criteria be fulfilled, then the overall variabilities of both methods would be equal. An examination of this topic is useful because a method for computing Limits of Agreement follows from here.

A formal test for the equality of overall variances is also presented.

$$H_4 : \omega_1^2 = \omega_2^2$$

$$K_4 : \omega_1^2 \neq \omega_2^2$$

Two methods can be considered to be in agreement if criteria based upon these techniques are met. Additionally Roy makes reference to the overall correlation coefficient of the two methods, which is determinable from variance estimates.

Conversely, the tests of variability required detailed explanation. Each test is performed by fitting two candidate models, according with the null and alternative hypothesis respectively. The distinction between the models arise in the specification in one, or both, of the variance-covariance matrices.

Disagreement in overall variability may be caused by different between-item variabilities, by different within-item variabilities, or by both. If the exact cause of disagreement between the two methods is not of interest, then the overall variability test H_4 is an alternative to testing H_2 and H_3 separately.

The estimated overall variance covariance matrix ‘Block Ω_i ’ is the addition of estimate of the between-subject variance covariance matrix \hat{D} and the within-subject variance covariance matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$.

$$\text{Block } \Omega_i = \hat{D} + \hat{\Sigma} \tag{15}$$

Overall variability between the two methods (Ω) is sum of between-subject (D) and within-subject variability (Σ), Roy (2009) denotes the overall variability as Block - Ω_i .

The overall variation for methods 1 and 2 are given by

$$\text{Block } \Omega_i = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_1^2 & \omega_{12} \\ \omega_{12} & \omega_2^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1^2 & d_{12} \\ d_{12} & d_2^2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The last of the variability test examines whether or not both methods have the same overall variability. This enables the joint consideration of second and third criteria.

$$H_0 : \omega_1 = \omega_2$$

$$H_A : \omega_1 \neq \omega_2$$

The null model is constructed a symmetric form for both $\hat{\mathbf{D}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{\Lambda}}$ while the alternative model uses a compound symmetry form for both.

0.2 Comparing MCS Approaches

Roy's tests afford the opportunity to expand upon Carstensen's approach.

Importantly, Carstensen's underlying model differs from Roy's model in some key respects, and therefore a prior discussion of Carstensen's model is required. The method of computation is the same as Roy's model, but with the covariance estimates set to zero.

There is a substantial difference in the number of fixed parameters used by the respective models; the model in (14) requires two fixed effect parameters, i.e. the means of the two methods, for any number of items N , whereas the model in (8) requires $N + 2$ fixed effects.

In cases where there is negligible covariance between methods, the limits of agreement computed using Roy's model accord with those computed using Carstensen's model. In cases where some degree of covariance is present between the two methods, the limits of agreement computed using models will differ. In the presented example, it is shown that Roy's LOAs are lower than those of Carstensen, when covariance is present.

The presence of the true value term μ_i gives rise to an important difference between Carstensen's and Roys's models. The fixed effect of Roy's model comprise of an intercept term and fixed effect terms for both methods, with no reference to the true value of any individual item. In other words, Roy considers the group of items being

measured as a sample taken from a population. Therefore a distinction can be made between the two models: Roy’s model is a standard LME model, whereas Carstensen’s model is a more complex additive model.

Allocating fixed effects to each item i by (8) accords with earlier work on comparing methods of measurement, such as Grubbs (1948). However allocation of fixed effects in ANOVA models suggests that the group of items is itself of particular interest, rather than as a representative sample used of the overall population. However this approach seems contrary to the purpose of LOAs as a prediction interval for a population of items. Conversely, Roy (2009) uses a more intuitive approach, treating the observations as a random sample population, and allocating random effects accordingly.

Finally, to complement the blood pressure (i.e. ‘J vs S’) method comparison from the previous section (i.e. ‘J vs S’), the limits of agreement are $15.62 \pm 1.96 \times 20.33 = (-24.22, 55.46)$.

Carstensen presents two models. One for the case where the replicates, and a second for when they are linked. Carstensen’s model does not take into account either between-item or within-item covariance between methods.

In the presented example, it is shown that Roys’s LoAs are lower than those of Carstensen.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_2^1 & 0 \\ 0 & \omega_2^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tau^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \tau^2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Carstensen’s approach is that of a standard two-way mixed effects ANOVA with replicate measurements.

In contrast to roy’s model, Carstensen’s model requires that commonly used assumptions be applied, specifically that the off-diagonal elements of the between-item and within-item variability matrices are zero. By extension the overall variability off-diagonal elements are also zero. Also, implementation requires that the between-item variances are estimated as the same value: $g_1^2 = g_2^2 = g^2$. As a consequence, Carstensen’s method does not allow for a formal test of the between-item variability.

0.3 Agreement Criteria for Replicate Measurements

Varying degrees of importances should be attached to each the three agreement criteria listed by Barnhart et al. (2007). Between-item variance d_i^2 is fundamentally a measure of the variability of the item-wise means, as measured by method i , but it does contain limited information on the precision of that method.

For conventional method comparison problems, both methods measures the same set of items using the same unit of measurement. Convergence to equality of between-item variance is inevitable as the number of items n increases. Significantly different estimates for d_1^2 and d_2^2 should not be expected for any practical problem.

Therefore a violation of third criterium (i.e. different between-item variances) criterium is contingent upon, and a possible consequence of, the violation of the other two agreement criteria. However, a violation of the third criterium will not occur in isolation. As noted elsewhere, the matter of inter-method bias can be easily accounted for, once detected. Both between-items and within-items variances must be calculated such that sources of variances are properly assigned, and to compute limits of agreement. However, testing the within-item criterium is the most informative analysis and therefore requires the most attention.

Bibliography

- Barnhart, H., M. Haber, and L. Lin (2007). An overview of assessing agreement with continuous measurements. *Journal of Biopharmaceutical Statistics* 17, 529–569.
- Bland, J. and D. Altman (1986). Statistical methods for assessing agreement between two methods of clinical measurement. *The Lancet* i, 307–310.
- Bland, J. and D. Altman (1999). Measuring agreement in method comparison studies. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research* 8(2), 135–160.
- Carstensen, B. (2004). Comparing and predicting between several methods of measurement. *Biostatistics* 5(3), 399–413.
- Carstensen, B. (2010). Comparing methods of measurement: Extending the loa by regression. *Statistics in medicine* 29(3), 401–410.
- Carstensen, B., J. Simpson, and L. C. Gurrin (2008). Statistical models for assessing agreement in method comparison studies with replicate measurements. *The International Journal of Biostatistics* 4(1).
- Choudhary, P. K. and H. Nagaraja (2006). Assessment of agreement under non-standard conditions using regression models for mean and variance. *Biometrics* 62, 288–29.
- Christensen, R., L. M. Pearson, and W. Johnson (1992). Case-deletion diagnostics for mixed models. *Technometrics* 34(1), 38–45.

- Cook, R. (1986). Assessment of local influence. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)* 48(2), 133–169.
- Dunn, G. (2002). *Statistical Evaluation of Measurement Error* (Second ed.). Stanford: American Mathematical Society and Digital Press.
- Grubbs, F. (1948). On estimating precision of measuring instruments and product variability. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 43, 243–264.
- Lai, D. and S.-Y. P. K. Shiao (2005). Comparing two clinical measurements: a linear mixed model approach. *Journal of Applied Statistics* 32(8), 855–860.
- Lam, M., K. Webb, and D. O’Donnell (1999). Correlation between two variables in repeated measurements. *American Statistical Association, Proceedings of the Biometric Session*, 213–218.
- Roy, A. (2009). An application of the linear mixed effects model to ass the agreement between two methods with replicated observations. *Journal of Biopharmaceutical Statistics* 19, 150–173.
- Schabenberger, O. (2004). Mixed model influence diagnostics. 189-29.
- West, B., K. Welch, and A. Galecki (2007). *Linear Mixed Models: a Practical Guide Using Statistical Software*. Chapman and Hall CRC.