STA 610L: Module 3.1

LINEAR MIXED EFFECTS MODELS

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Linear mixed effects models extend standard linear models to allow for random effects. They overlap with hierarchical models in many ways.

You can think about the (linear) hierarchical models we have covered so far as special cases .

We introduce the framework of the linear mixed effects model in the context of longitudinal data.

Something to keep in mind: the following are all related.

- mixed models
- mixed effects models
- random effects models
- two-stage models
- hierarchical models
- multilevel models
- Laird and Ware models



MIXED EFFECTS MODELS FOR LONGITUDINAL DATA

In (linear) mixed effects models, the response depends on the usual "fixed" population parameters β , as well as subject-specific random effects.

We have seen this already in context of the random effects ANCOVA model.

When dealing with longitudinal data, mixed effecs models are especially convenient when there are no set times for observation of outcomes, which makes it challenging to estimate a covariance matrix across time in a multivariate setting.

NOTE: In the setting of longitudinal data, indices are typically the opposite of those in the regular multilevel modeling setting.

That is, Y_{ij} often denotes the response at time j for subject i. This is standard notation in the context of mixed effects models.

This is just notation, so we can switch back and forth easily as needed.



MIXED EFFECTS MODELS FOR LONGITUDINAL DATA

Because of missing data, differential timing, and other factors, $\mathrm{Var}(Y_{ij})$ may depend on i and j.

Mixed effects models handle such structures naturally.

We have already a bit of this with the random effect models we have seen so far.

In addition, using random effects in the model is one way to model the covariance structure as a function of time.

That said, there are many other ways of handling these kinds of "complicated" covariance structures, so a mixed effects model might not be the way to go when, say, a dynamic model would be a much better fit.



In a longitudinal study, subjects are measured repeatedly over time.

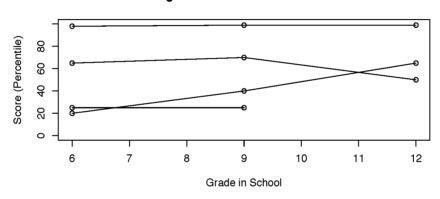
When these are the exact same "subjects" and variables over time, we have a panel study.

We can think of these as multilevel data, with repeated measures on each individual subject (so the subject is the group).

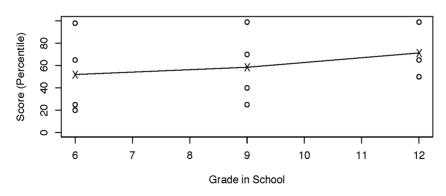
In a cross-sectional study, a single outcome is measured for each individual, though individuals may belong to different cohorts.



Longitudinal Student Performance



Cross-Sectional Student Performance





A key feature of the longitudinal design on the previous slide is that the same cohort of students, recruited in 6th grade, is followed until 12th grade (except in the case of *dropouts*).

The cross-sectional study can be completed at one point in time, with the 6th, 9th, and 12th grade cohorts tested concurrently.

In the cross-sectional study depicted, it is not possible to determine whether scores in 12th grade are better because for example, the teachers are better, students have learned more in earlier grades, the weaker students dropped out, etc.

A longitudinal design gives us much more information to assess the "reasons" for change.



In the cross-sectional design, we do not have any repeated scores from the same student.

Often, all observations may be treated as independent.

In a longitudinal analysis, we can investigate

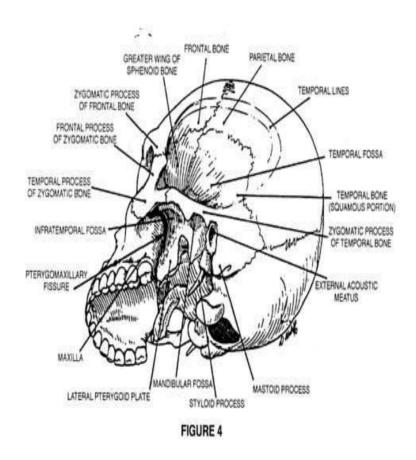
- changes over time within individuals
- differences among individuals in their response levels

Longitudinal data analysis requires special statistical methods (e.g., a multilevel model) because the observations on any one subject tend to be positively correlated.



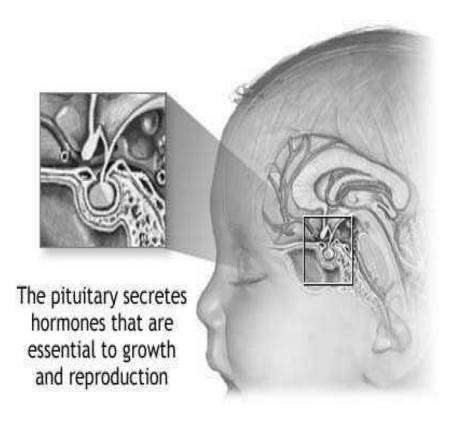
ORTHODONTICS DATA

Changes in the distance (measured in mm) from the center of the pituitary gland to the pterygomaxillary fissure are important in orthodontic therapy.





ORTHODONTICS DATA







POTHOFF AND ROY (1964) STUDY

This distance was measured at ages 8, 10, 12, and 14 in 27 children (16 boys and 11 girls)

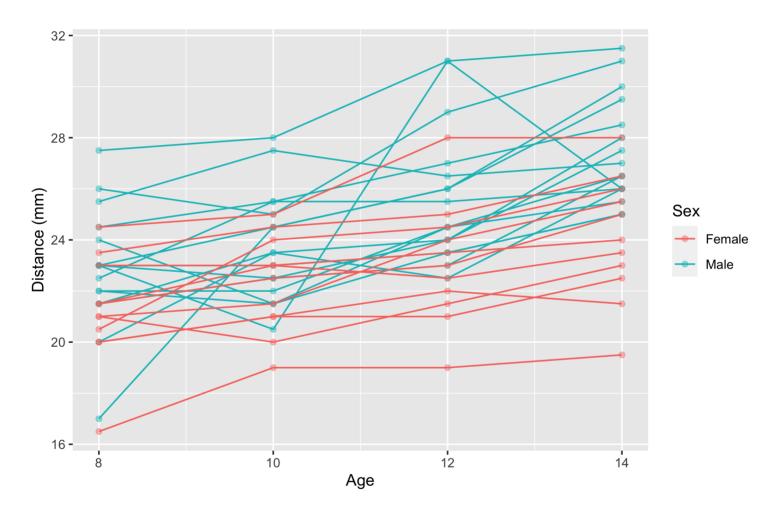
Questions of interest include the following:

- Does distance change over time?
- What is the pattern of change?
- Is the pattern of change different for boys and girls? How?

```
data(Orthodont,package="nlme")
head(Orthodont); dim(Orthodont)
## Grouped Data: distance ~ age | Subject
    distance age Subject Sex
        26.0
             8
## 1
                    M01 Male
       25.0 10
## 2
                   M01 Male
     29.0 12
                 M01 Male
## 3
    31.0 14
                M01 Male
## 4
    21.5 8
## 5
                M02 Male
       22.5 10
                M02 Male
## 6
## [1] 108
```



POTHOFF AND ROY (1964) STUDY





What kind of model might be appropriate?

MODELING GROWTH

To start, we might consider a linear model given by

$$Y_{ij}=eta_{0i}+eta_{1i}t_{ij}+arepsilon_{ij},$$

where i indexes the child and j indexes time j=1,2,3,4, and in this case, $t_{ij}=t_j$ as each child was measured at $t_1=8$, $t_2=10$, $t_3=12$, and $t_4=14$ years.

Recall our research questions:

- Does distance change over time? (main effect of age)
- What is the pattern of change? (linear age, categorical?)
- Is the pattern of change different for boys and girls? How? (age by gender interaction)

We might specify

$$egin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= eta_{0i} + eta_{1i}t_j + arepsilon_{ij} \ eta_{0i} &= lpha_{00} + lpha_{01}I(male)_i + b_{0i} \ eta_{1i} &= lpha_{10} + lpha_{11}I(male)_i + b_{1i}. \end{aligned}$$

The standard representation for a linear mixed effects model is

$$egin{aligned} Y_i &= X_i eta + Z_i b_i + arepsilon_i \ b_i \perp arepsilon_i & b_i \sim N_q(0,D) & arepsilon_i \sim N_{n_i}(0,R_i), \end{aligned}$$

where

- $lacksquare Y_i$ is a $n_i imes 1$ vector of outcomes for subject i
- X_i is a $n_i imes p$ design matrix of predictor variables corresponding to each outcome measurement occasion for subject i
- $lacksquare Z_i$ is a $n_i imes q$ design matrix corresponding to the random effects for subject i
- ullet is a p imes 1 vector of regression coefficients (fixed effects)
- lacksquare b_i is a q imes 1 vector of random effects for subject i
- lacksquare $arepsilon_i$ is a $n_i imes 1$ vector of errors for subject i

In this model,

$$E(Y_i) = X_i \beta$$

and

$$\operatorname{Var}(Y_i) = \operatorname{Var}(Z_i b_i + arepsilon_i) = Z_i D Z_i' + R_i.$$

Here, Z_i characterizes among-unit variation.

When the columns of Z_i are a subset of the columns of X_i , we can interpret Z_ib_i as the difference between subject i's conditional mean response trajectory and the mean response trajectory in the population (that is, b_i has mean zero).

Example: in a random intercept model, Z_i is a $n_i imes 1$ vector of 1's.

The subject-specific or conditional mean of Y_i given b_i is

$$E(Y_i \mid b_i) = X_i \beta + Z_i b_i.$$

The marginal or populatoin-averaged mean of Y_i , averaging over the distribution of random effects b_i is given by

$$E(E(Y_i \mid b_i)) = E(X_i \beta + Z_i b_i) = X_i \beta,$$

since b_i has mean zero.

If we have only a random intercept b_{0i} and ${
m Var}(b_{0i})= au^2$ and ${
m Var}(arepsilon_i)=\sigma^2 I$, then

$$\operatorname{Var}(Y_i) = au^2 Z_i Z_i' + \sigma^2 I = egin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 + au^2 & au 2 & \dots & au^2 \ au^2 & \sigma^2 + au^2 & \dots & au^2 \ dots & \dots & \ddots & dots \ au^2 & \dots & \dots & dots \ au^2 & \dots & \sigma^2 + au^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have already seen this.

This form is called *compound symmetry* or *exchangeable* and represents the simplest possible example of a mixed effects model.

Choices for $R_{\scriptscriptstyle I}$

The most common choice for the within-subject variation, $\mathrm{Var}(arepsilon_i)=R_i$, is $\sigma^2 I_{n_i}.$

This implies that the error variance is the same at all time points and that there is no autocorrelation in the random errors.

This may be appropriate if the main source of within-subject variation is measurement error.

We could, however, choose more elaborate structures for R_i .

For example, we may feel R_i depends on the value of a covariate or that an autoregressive structure is needed (observations made closer together in time may be more highly correlated than observations further apart in time).

This is a distinction between standard multilevel models that typically assume $R_i = \sigma^2 I_{n_i}$ and the linear mixed effects model, which allows a more general error variance.



Example: CHILDREN NESTED IN FAMILIES

Consider the model

$$egin{aligned} y_{ij} &= eta_{0,i} + eta_{1,i} x_{ij} + arepsilon_{ij} \ eta_{0,i} &= eta_0 + b_{0,i} \quad eta_{1,i} = eta_1 + b_{1,i} \ igg(rac{b_{0,i}}{b_{1,i}} igg) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N\left(igg(rac{0}{0} igg), igg(rac{ au_{11} \quad au_{12}}{ au_{12} \quad au_{22}} igg)
ight) \perp arepsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0,\sigma^2), \end{aligned}$$

where $i=1,\dots,m$ families (groups) and $j=1,\dots,n_i$ children within family i.

EXERCISES

Write this model as a linear mixed effects model of the form

$$Y_i = X_i eta + Z_i b_i + arepsilon_i,$$

clearly specifying the elements of Y_i , X_i , Z_i and β and the distributional assumptions on b_i and ε_i .

- Derive the general form of the correlation between:
 - two children in different families i and i', $\mathrm{Corr}(Y_{ij},Y_{i'j'})$
 - lacksquare two children in the same family i, $\operatorname{Corr}(Y_{ij},Y_{ij'})$

Tip: for the second part, you can either use the formula from a few slides back for $Var(Y_i)$, or you can derive from first principles as the covariance of two linear combinations of random variables.

DENTAL DATA AGAIN

In the dental data, the kids are all measured at age 8, 10, 12, and 14 (Really? Did they all come in for the study on their birthdays?).

Probably the kids were measured within a few months of each age, and maybe some were pretty late.

How can this model accommodate unequal or unbalanced measurement times?



Choices for D

 $Var(b_i) = D$ could be different for different groups if there is strong evidence different treatment conditions have a nonnegligible effect on variation as well as on the mean.

Typically D is unstructured.

Intercepts and slopes may tend to be large or small together, so that children with steeper slopes tend to "start out" larger at birth -- or the opposite may be true -- perhaps small kids tend to grow faster in order to catch up.

Either way, it's generally unwise to specify D as diagonal.



Choices for D

In a random intercepts and slopes model, we may have

$$\operatorname{Var}(b_i) = \operatorname{Var}\left(egin{array}{c} b_{0i} \ b_{1i} \end{array}
ight) = D = \left(egin{array}{cc} d_{11} & d_{12} \ d_{12} & d_{22} \end{array}
ight).$$

 $d_{11}=d_{22}$ (homogeneous variances) is generally unrealistic because the intercept is on the same measurement scale as Y, but the slope is on the scale of "response increment per unit change in predictor."

So unstructured D is usually the way to go.

Choices for D

One problem with trying to get "too fancy" in modeling D and R_i is that we may run into *identifiability* issues.

For example, it is not possible in a frequentist model to estimate both unstructured D and unstructured R_i as the number of free parameters in those matrices exceeds the number of free components in the matrix $\mathrm{Var}(Y_i)$.

For example, suppose Y_i contains 4 response measures for each participant in a study, with each participant measured at the same 4 times.

$$\mathrm{Cov}(Y_i) = \Sigma$$
 is a $4 imes 4$ matrix and has $rac{n(n+1)}{2} = 10$ unique elements.

How many covariance parameters would we need to estimate if we assume R_i is unstructured in a model with random intercepts and slopes?

DENTAL DATA AGAIN

Translating our model from the multilevel formulation

$$egin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= eta_{0i} + eta_{1i} t_j + arepsilon_{ij} \ eta_{0i} &= lpha_{00} + lpha_{01} I(male)_i + b_{0i} \ eta_{1i} &= lpha_{10} + lpha_{11} I(male)_i + b_{1i}. \end{aligned}$$

to a standard mixed model formulation (just rewriting and changing notation) we have

$$Y_{ij} = eta_0 + eta_1 I(ext{male})_i + eta_2 t_j + eta_3 I(ext{male})_i t_j + b_{0i} + b_{1i} t_j + arepsilon_{ij}$$

where

$$\left(egin{array}{c} b_{0i} \ b_{1i} \end{array}
ight) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N\left(0, \left(egin{array}{c} d_{11} & d_{12} \ d_{12} & d_{22} \end{array}
ight)
ight) \perp arepsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2).$$

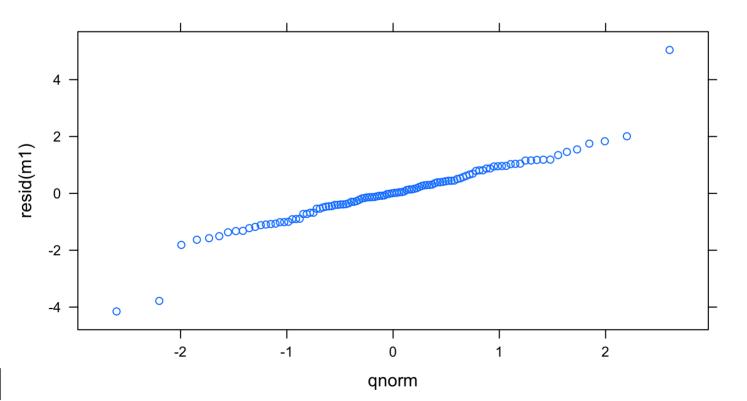
Let's fit and interpret this model!

```
m1 <- lmer(distance~ Sex*age+(1+age|Subject),data=Orthodont)</pre>
summary(m1)
## Linear mixed model fit by REML ['lmerMod']
## Formula: distance ~ Sex * age + (1 + age | Subject)
     Data: Orthodont
##
## REML criterion at convergence: 432.6
##
## Scaled residuals:
      Min
               10 Median
                               30
                                      Max
## -3.1694 -0.3862 0.0070 0.4454 3.8490
##
## Random effects:
## Groups
           Name
                        Variance Std.Dev. Corr
## Subject (Intercept) 5.77449 2.4030
##
                        0.03245 0.1801
                                          -0.67
## Residual
                        1.71663 1.3102
## Number of obs: 108, groups: Subject, 27
##
## Fixed effects:
##
              Estimate Std. Error t value
## (Intercept) 17.3727
                           1.2281 14.147
## SexMale
             -1.0321
                           1.5953 -0.647
## age
              0.4795
                           0.1037
                                  4.625
## SexMale:age 0.3048
                           0.1347 2.263
## Correlation of Fixed Effects:
             (Intr) SexMal age
## SexMale
            -0.770
            -0.880 0.678
## age
## SexMale:age 0.678 -0.880 -0.770
```

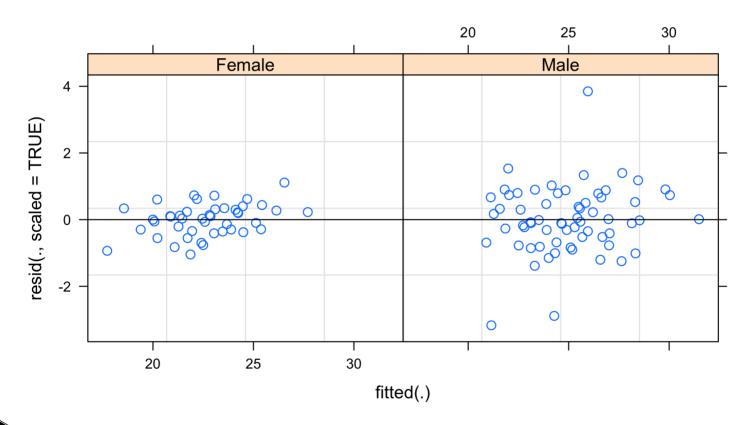


We'll get more into diagnostics shortly, but here's a start.

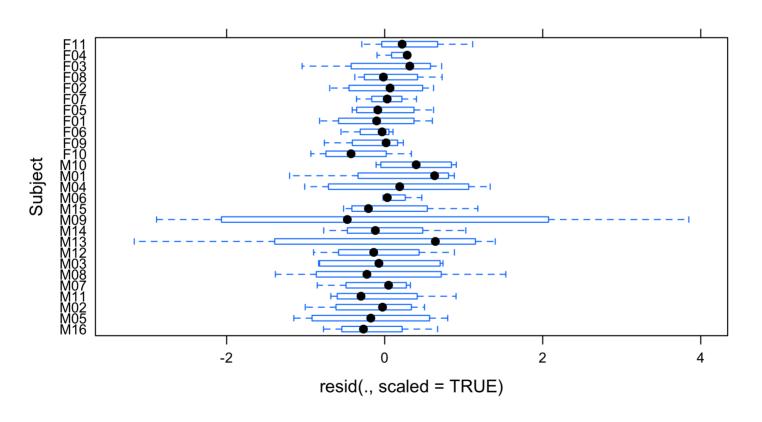
```
library(lattice)
#basic qqplot
qqmath(resid(m1))
```



#standardized residuals y-Xbeta-Zb versus fitted values by gender
#standardized by the estimate of sigma=sqrt(var(epsilon))
plot(m1,resid(.,scaled=TRUE)~fitted(.)|Sex,abline=0)

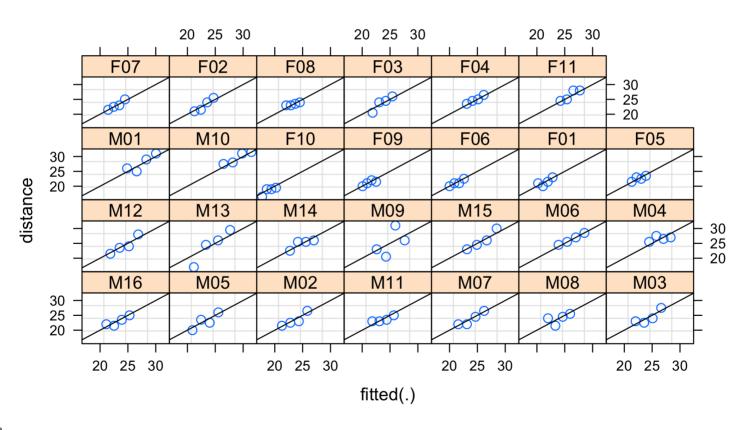


```
## boxplots of residuals by Subject
plot(m1, Subject ~ resid(., scaled=TRUE))
```



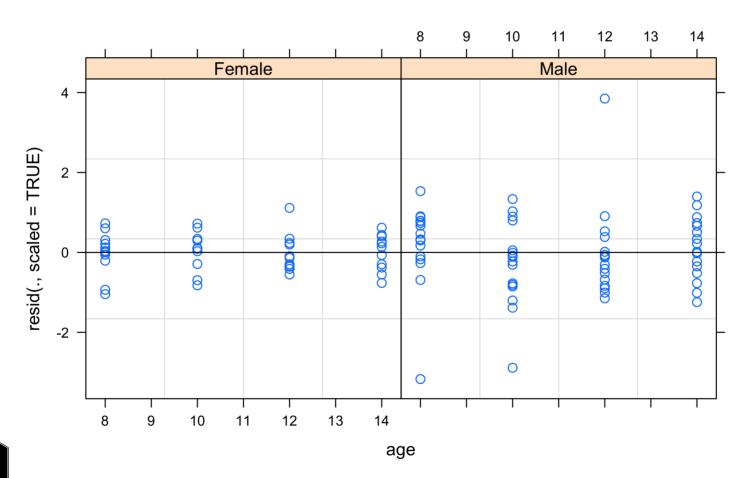


```
## observed versus fitted values by Subject
## fitted value is X_ibeta+Z_ib_i
plot(m1, distance ~ fitted(.) | Subject, abline = c(0,1))
```



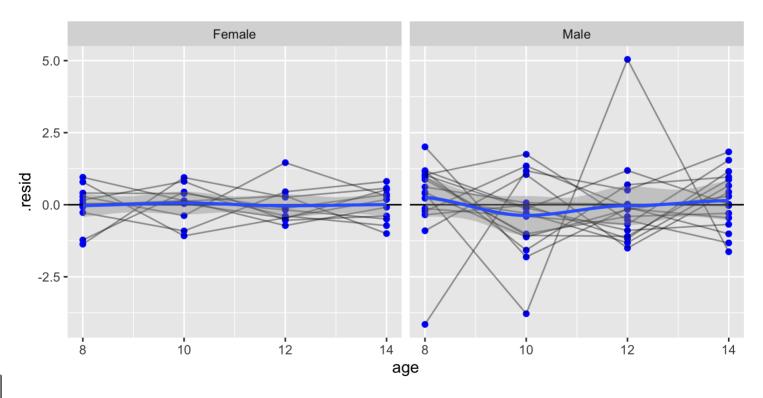


```
## residuals by age, separated by Subject
plot(m1, resid(., scaled=TRUE) ~ age | Sex, abline = 0)
```



```
m1F <- fortify.merMod(m1)
# plot of raw residuals, use .scresid for scaled
ggplot(m1F, aes(age,.resid)) + geom_point(colour="blue") + facet_grid(.~Sex) +
    geom_hline(yintercept=0)+geom_line(aes(group=Subject),alpha=0.4) +
    geom_smooth(method="loess")</pre>
```

`geom_smooth()` using formula 'y ~ x'



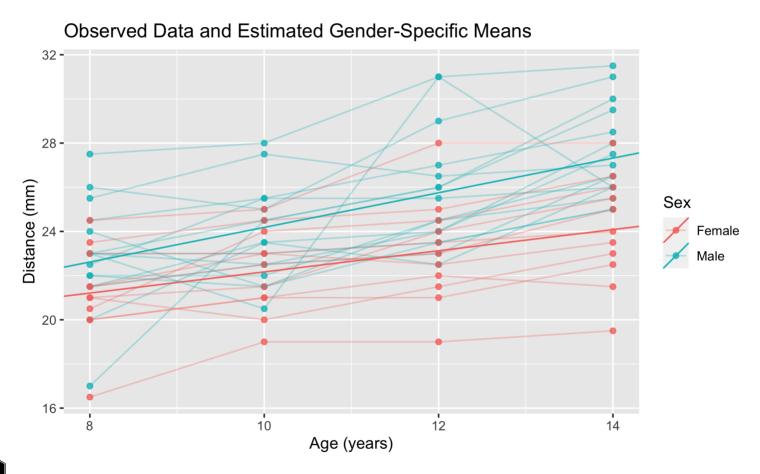
Note the t-statistic for the interaction is a pretty good size, so we'll keep that in the model.

Let's pick off intercepts and slopes for girls and boys along with 95% confidence intervals.

```
## [,1] [,2] [,3]
## [1,] 14.9657456 17.3727273 19.7797089
## [2,] 14.3448613 16.3406250 18.3363887
## [3,] 0.2763001 0.4795455 0.6827908
## [4,] 0.6158529 0.7843750 0.9528971
```

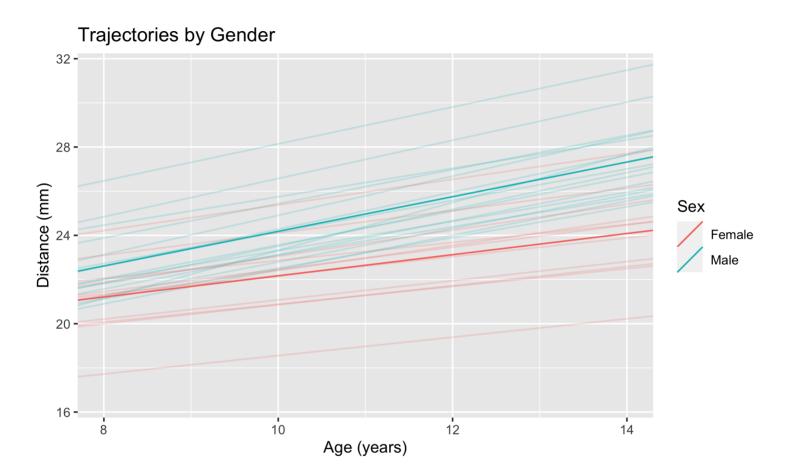


Here, we examine the gender-specific mean trends over time from the model along with the observed data points.





Now we look at individual-specific and mean estimated trajectories.





WHAT'S NEXT?

MOVE ON TO THE READINGS FOR THE NEXT MODULE!

