# tramME: Mixed-Effects Transformation Models Using Template Model Builder

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#### Abstract

Linear transformation models constitute a general family of parametric regression models for discrete and continuous responses. To accommodate correlated responses, the model is extended by incorporating mixed-effects. This article presents the R package tramme, which builds on existing implementations of transformation models (mlt and tram packages) as well as Laplace approximation and automatic differentiation (using the TMB package), to calculate estimates and perform likelihood inference in mixed-effects transformation models. The resulting framework can be readily applied to a wide range of regression problems with grouped data structures.

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## 1 Introduction

Datasets with grouped observations are abundant in the applied statistical practice. Clustering, hierarchical designs, longitudinal studies or repeated measurements all can lead to grouped data structures. The common property of these data structures is that observations within groups defined by one or more grouping factors cannot be treated as independent. In order to draw valid inference, the statistical model has to address the issue of correlated observations. Mixed-effects models represent one of the main approaches dealing with this type of regression problems. In this approach the observations are assumed to be independent *conditionally* on a set of random effects that aim to capture unmodeled group-level heterogeneity. The reader is referred, for example, to the textbook by Demidenko (2013) for an exposition and examples of the usage of mixed-effects models. Several R packages exist that implement mixed-effects models for specific types of regression problems. The two most notable examples are nlme by Pinheiro et al. (2019) and lme4 by Bates et al. (2015) for linear, non-linear and generalized linear mixed-effects models, respectively.

Linear transformation models aim to directly specify the conditional distribution function of an outcome variable in a regression setting. Hothorn (2020b) proposed a fully parametric approach using a flexible monotone increasing transformation function that is estimated from the data. The resulting general model family can be applied to a wide range of problems with at least ordered discrete outcome variables. In fact, many of the popular regression models can be expressed as special cases of the linear transformation approach. Most recently, Tian et al. (2020) reviewed the approach followed in this study and compared to an alternative semiparametric formulation using extensive simulations. With introducing random effects in the linear transformation model framework, the model becomes applicable in a very diverse set of regression problems, where the observations are correlated due to repeated measurements or grouped designs.

# 2 Mixed-effects transformation models

The model class in the R package tramME is an extension of the transformation model approach described by Hothorn et al. (2018) and implemented in the R packages mlt and tram by Hothorn (2020b) and Hothorn

(2020a), respectively.

Formally, we are interested in models that parameterize the conditional distribution function directly,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq y \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}\right) = F_Z\left(h(y; \boldsymbol{\vartheta}) - \mathbf{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{u}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\gamma}\right) \qquad \boldsymbol{\gamma} \sim \mathcal{N}_q(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}),\tag{1}$$

where  $F_Z$  denotes an pre-specified error distribution function (or inverse-link function) which is monotone increasing and maps from the real numbers to the closed interval [0,1]. Typically,  $F_Z$  is set to the CDF of a simple continuous distribution, hence the name "error distribution".  $h(y; \vartheta)$  is the baseline transformation function, which is also a monotonic increasing function parameterized with the vector  $\vartheta$ .  $\mathbf{x}^{\top}$  and  $\mathbf{u}^{\top}$  are the suitable row vectors of fixed effects and random effects design matrices, respectively. The vector  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  contains the fixed effects, while  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  comprises of the stacked (possibly multiple) random effects. The distribution of the random effects is assumed to be multivariate Gaussian with zero mean and the covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ , which is typically has a sparse block structure.

As Table 1 shows, specific choices for the error distribution and the baseline transformation function lead to different types of regression models. In the R package tramME, seven main model types are distinguished, mainly based on the class of their outcome variable. Moreover, the functions SurvregME() and PolrME() allow to specify multiple error distributions or baseline transformations and hence increasing the number of available model types.

Table 1: Model types implemented in the tramME package.  $F_Z$  denotes the error distribution and the column  $h(y; \vartheta)$  lists the basis functions the baseline transformation function utilizes.

Function	Name	$F_Z$	$h(y; \boldsymbol{\vartheta})$
LmME()	Mixed-effects normal linear regression	Standard Gaussian	Linear basis
BoxCoxME()	Non-normal (Box-Cox-type) linear mixed-effects regression	Standard Gaussian	Bernstein basis
ColrME()	Mixed-effects continuous outcome logistic regression	Standard logistic	Bernstein basis
CoxphME()	Mixed-effects parametric Cox regression	Minimum extreme value	Bernstein basis
SurvregME()	Mixed-effects parametric survival models	Multiple options	Multiple options
PolrME()	Mixed-effects regression models for ordinal outcomes	Multiple options	Discrete basis
LehmannME()	Mixed-effects Lehmann-alternative linear regression	Maximum extreme value	Bernstein basis

As the table indicates, some of the models specify their transformation functions as general smooth functions, approximated with the use of Bernstein polynomials. The function  $h(y; \vartheta)$  has to be monotonic increasing, so that the conditional distribution function is also increasing. When using a set of order p Bernstein polynomials for the approximation of a general function, this restriction conveniently translates to the parameter restriction  $\vartheta_i \leq \vartheta_{i+1}$  for all  $i=0,\ldots,p-1$ .

The transformation model framework by Hothorn (2020a) allows for stratification, i.e defining separate transformation functions depending on the value of a stratification variable, s.  $h(y; \vartheta)$  then becomes  $h(y \mid s; \vartheta')$ . By stratifying to numeric variables, we are allowing for response-varying effect sizes. Note that stratification leads to a larger number of parameters in the baseline transformation function.

The observations are assumed to be conditionally independent, and hence the likelihood has the form

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\vartheta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^q} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\vartheta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \, d\boldsymbol{\gamma}$$
$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^q} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{L}_i(\boldsymbol{\vartheta}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \phi(\boldsymbol{\gamma}; \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \, d\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \tag{2}$$

where  $\mathcal{L}(\vartheta, \beta, \Sigma, \gamma)$  is the joint likelihood function, given the all observations, and  $\mathcal{L}_i(\vartheta, \beta \mid \gamma)$  denotes the individual *conditional* likelihood contributions.  $\phi(\gamma; \Sigma)$  stands for the probability density function of the multivariate normal distribution with vector zero mean and covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ . This latter function can be factorized further according to the covariance structure of the random effects.

One of the main advantages of working directly with the distribution function of the outcome is that it is simple to introduce (independent) censoring and truncation in the estimation process. The conditional likelihood contributions under different types of censoring can be written as

$$\mathcal{L}_{i}(\boldsymbol{\vartheta},\boldsymbol{\beta}\mid\boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \begin{cases} f_{Z}(h(y;\boldsymbol{\vartheta}) - \mathbf{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{u}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\gamma})h'(y;\boldsymbol{\vartheta}) & y \in \Xi & \text{``exact continuous''} \\ 1 - F_{Z}(h(\underline{y};\boldsymbol{\vartheta}) - \mathbf{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{u}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\gamma}) & y \in (\underline{y},\infty) \cap \Xi & \text{``right censored''} \\ F_{Z}(h(\bar{y};\boldsymbol{\vartheta}) - \mathbf{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{u}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\gamma}) & y \in (-\infty,\bar{y}] \cap \Xi & \text{``left censored''} \\ F_{Z}(h(\bar{y};\boldsymbol{\vartheta}) - \mathbf{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{u}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\gamma}) & y \in (\underline{y},\bar{y}] \cap \Xi & \text{``interval censored''}, \end{cases}$$

where  $f_Z()$  is the density function of the error distribution,  $h'(y; \vartheta)$  is the first derivative of the baseline transformation function with respect to y, and  $\Xi$  denotes the sample space of Y.

The multidimensional integral in Equation (2), in general, does not have an analytical solution, but its value can be approximated using numerical methods. The add-on package tramME applies the Laplace approximation to this problem, which relies on the quadratic Taylor expansion of the corresponding joint log-likelihood function.

The maximization of the logarithm of the likelihood function with respect to  $\vartheta$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\Sigma$ , under a set of suitable constraints on  $\vartheta$  to make  $h(y;\vartheta)$  monotone increasing, results in the maximum likelihood estimates of the model parameters. Standard likelihood theory, utilizing the ability to evaluate the log-likelihood function, the score function, and the Hessian, provides a basis for asymptotic inference in this family of models. See Hothorn et al. (2018) for more details on likelihood inference in transformation models.

The maximum likelihood estimation in tramME is done using the TMB package by Kristensen et al. (2016). Template Model Builder (TMB) allows the user to define and estimate general, non-linear mixed effects models. It was built on well-tested and high-performance C++ libraries, which results in a flexible yet efficient framework for estimating mixed models with possibly complex random effects structures. See for example Brooks et al. (2017) for performance comparisons in the context of the package glmmTMB. In tramME, TMB is used to evaluate the integral in Equation (2), using Laplace's method, and to calculate the derivatives of the log-likelihood function using automatic (or algorithmic) differentiation.

# 3 Applications

In this section several applications of the transformation mixed models are presented, and wherever it is possible, also compared to other existing implementations. The examples shown here are by no means intended as complete analyses. They demonstrate how mixed effects transformation models can be used in a broad range of regression problems, and showcase the most important features implemented in the package tramme.

#### 3.1 Normal linear mixed model

As a first example, we model the average reaction times to a specific task from a sleep deprivation study described in Belenky et al. (2003). Figure 1 presents the reaction times against days of sleep deprivation for each of the 18 participants.

In this first example, we model the distribution of the average reaction time using random intercepts and random slopes for the effects of days of sleep deprivation.

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\text{Reaction} \leq y \mid \text{Days}, \alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}\right) = \Phi\left(\vartheta_{1} + \vartheta_{2}y - \beta \text{Days} - \gamma_{1_{i}} - \gamma_{2_{i}} \text{Days}\right),$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{1_{i}} \\ \gamma_{2_{i}} \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}_{2} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \tau_{1}^{2} & \tau_{12} \\ \tau_{12} & \tau_{2}^{2} \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$(3)$$

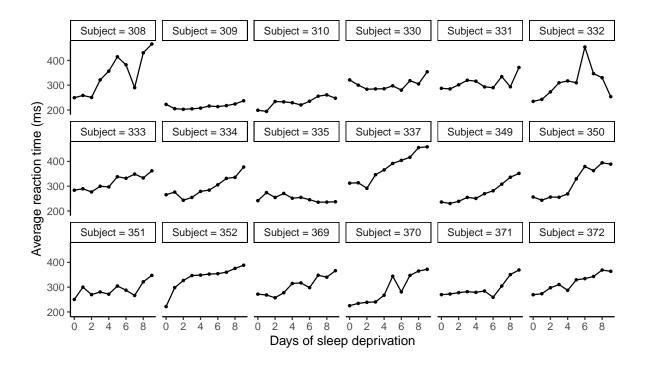


Figure 1: Sleep deprivation study: Average reaction times to a specific task of 18 participants after several days of sleep deprivation reported by Belenky et al. (2003).

Note that when the transformation function is assumed to be linear in the outcome variable, i.e.  $h(y) = \vartheta_1 + \vartheta_2 y$ , we arrive at a re-parameterized version of the normal linear mixed effects model, and hence the results from tramME::LmME() are directly comparable to estimates using other mixed effects regression packages such as lme4. Estimating the normal linear model with the tramME:

```
R> library("tramME")
R> sleep_lm <- LmME(Reaction ~ Days + (Days | Subject), data = sleepstudy)
R> logLik(sleep_lm)
'log Lik.' -876 (df=6)
```

To make the results from <code>lme4</code> comparable to the previous results, we set <code>REML = FALSE</code>, as the transformation mixed model implementation only supports the maximum likelihood estimation of the normal linear mixed model specification.

The as.lm = TRUE option of various methods in tramME facilitates the comparisons between the transformation model parametrization and the results of a linear mixed model parametrization. Coefficient estimates and their standard errors from the transformation model approach are

```
Days 10.5 1.50
```

while the results from lmer are

```
R> summary(sleep_lmer)$coefficients

Estimate Std. Error t value

(Intercept) 251.4 6.63 37.91

Days 10.5 1.50 6.97
```

Similarly, the standard deviations and correlations of the random effects, as well as the standard deviations of the error terms are essentially the same

```
R> VarCorr(sleep_lm, as.lm = TRUE) ## random effects
Grouping factor: Subject (18 levels)
Standard deviation:
(Intercept)
                   Days
      23.80
                   5.72
Correlations:
     (Intercept)
          0.0813
R> sigma(sleep_lm) ## residual SD
[1] 25.6
R> VarCorr(sleep_lmer)
 Groups
          Name
                       Std.Dev. Corr
 Subject
          (Intercept) 23.78
          Days
                        5.72
                                0.08
 Residual
                       25.59
```

As the results show, the transformation model approach implemented by LmME() leads to the same results as the maximum likelihood estimation of the traditional linear mixed model parametrization. The advantage using the package tramME, as opposed to other well established implementations, is that it allows for incorporating independently censored outcomes. Let us assume that the device used in the sleep deprivation study is only able to measure reaction times larger than 200 ms and only in 50 ms step sizes. If the want to take this reduced accuracy in measuring the reaction times into account, we have to deal with interval-censored observations, as ignoring the censored nature of the outcomes could lead to biased parameter estimates.

With the following code, we create the interval-censored outcome vector using the Surv function of the survival package by Therneau (2015).

```
R> library("survival")
R> ub <- ceiling(sleepstudy$Reaction / 50) * 50
R> lb <- floor(sleepstudy$Reaction / 50) * 50
R> lb[ub == 200] <- 0
R> sleepstudy$Reaction_ic <- Surv(lb, ub, type = "interval2")
R> head(sleepstudy$Reaction_ic)
[1] [200, 250] [250, 300] [250, 300] [300, 350] [350, 400] [400, 450]
```

Using the interval-censored outcomes in the LmME() function call will maximize the correct likelihood function.

```
R> sleep_lm2 <- LmME(Reaction_ic ~ Days + (Days | Subject), data = sleepstudy)
R> logLik(sleep_lm2)
'log Lik.' -201 (df=6)
```

The value of the log-likelihood is different, because we are now calculating log-probabilities instead of log-densities of a continuous distribution, but, despite the decreased precision of the measurements, the parameter estimates are similar to what we got from the exactly observed outcomes.

```
R> cbind(coef = coef(sleep_lm2, as.lm = TRUE),
         se = sqrt(diag(vcov(sleep_lm2, as.lm = TRUE, pargroup = "fixef"))))
             coef
(Intercept) 251.4 6.83
Days
             10.5 1.62
R> sigma(sleep_lm2)
Γ17 28
R> VarCorr(sleep_lm2, as.lm = TRUE)
Grouping factor: Subject (18 levels)
Standard deviation:
(Intercept)
                 Days
      22.30
                   5.94
Correlations:
     (Intercept)
          0.0536
Days
```

The small estimated value of the correlation coefficient between the random slope and intercept suggests that a model with independent random effects might be more appropriate. To estimate such a model, we can use the same notation as in lme4

```
R> sleep_lm3 <- LmME(Reaction_ic ~ Days + (Days || Subject), data = sleepstudy)
R> logLik(sleep_lm3)
'log Lik.' -201 (df=5)
```

Comparing the two models using a likelihood ratio test, we see no evidence against the more parsimonious model (sleep\_lm3).

```
R> anova(sleep_lm2, sleep_lm3)

Model comparison

Model 1: Reaction_ic ~ Days + (Days | Subject)

Model 2: Reaction_ic ~ Days + (Days || Subject)

Df logLik AIC BIC Chisq Chisq df Pr(>Chisq)

Model 2 5 -200 411 427

Model 1 6 -200 413 432 0.02 1 0.89
```

### 3.2 Box-Cox-type mixed effects models

Substituting the linear baseline transformation function,  $h(y) = \vartheta_1 + \vartheta_2 y$ , with a general, monotonic increasing smooth function, we can relax the conditional normality assumption of the model discussed in Section 3.1. The

transformation model approach proposed by Hothorn et al. (2018) uses Bernstein bases to approximate the this general increasing function in a fully parametric manner, i.e.  $h(y) = \mathbf{a}_{Bs,K+1}(y)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\vartheta}$ . The resulting model can be regarded as a version of the Box-Cox regression (Box and Cox, 1964), where the transformation of the response is estimated simultaneously with the model parameters.

A more flexible version of the model described in (3) will take the form

$$\mathbb{P}\left( \text{Reaction} \leq y \mid \text{Days}, \alpha_i, \beta_i \right) = \Phi\left( \mathbf{a}(y)^\top \boldsymbol{\vartheta} - \beta \text{Days} - \gamma_{1i} - \gamma_{2i} \text{Days} \right),$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{1i} \\ \gamma_{2i} \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}_2 \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \tau_1^2 & \tau_{12} \\ \tau_{12} & \tau_2^2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$(4)$$

The Box-Cox-type transformation mixed model can be estimated using the BoxCoxME() function of the tramME package.

```
R> sleep_bc <- BoxCoxME(Reaction ~ Days + (Days | Subject), data = sleepstudy)
R> logLik(sleep_bc)
'log Lik.' -860 (df=11)
```

Note that the log-likelihood of this model is higher than that of the normal linear model, because we are now approximating the baseline transformation function flexibly, at the expense of a larger number of parameters.

Plotting the baseline transformation ,  $h(y) = \mathbf{a}(y)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\vartheta}$ , in Figure 2 reveals a slight departure from the conditional normality of the outcome variable.

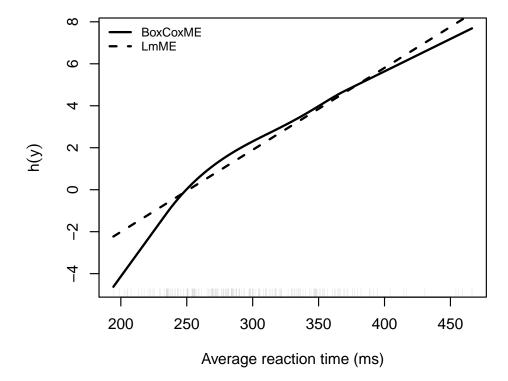


Figure 2: Comparison of baseline transformations from the normal linear (LmME) and the Box-Cox-type (BoxCoxME) mixed effects models fitted to the sleepstudy dataset.

In many cases, the goal of the analysis is to estimate the *marginal* distribution of the outcomes, i.e. integrating out the random effects from the conditional model (1). In the general case, there is no analytical solution of the

integral, but we can use numerical methods to approximate the marginal distributions at various values of the outcome. The following code utilizes the simulate and predict methods implemented in the tramME package to get Monte Carlo estimates of the outcome distribution implied by the model (4).

Figure 3 compares the conditional distributions obtained by integrating over the vector of random effects in models (3) and (4).

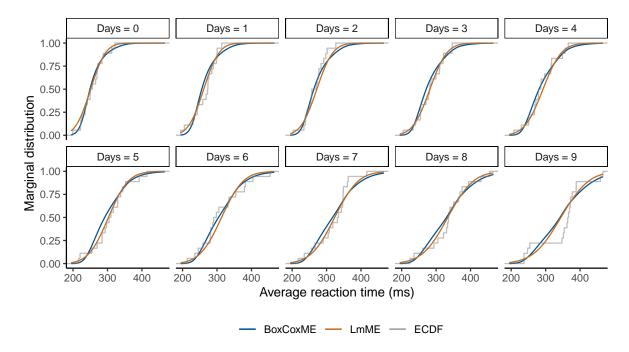


Figure 3: Comparison of the marginal distributions implied by the normal linear(LmME) and the Box-Cox-type (BoxCoxME) mixed effects models fitted to the sleep deprivation study dataset. The empirical cumulative distribution functions (ECDF) are also plotted conditionally on the days of sleep deprivation.

#### 3.3 Mixed-effects continuous outcome logistic regression

The increased flexibility of the Box-Cox-type model, i.e. using a general baseline transformation function instead of a linear one, comes with the price that the coefficient estimates will not be easily interpretable as expected changes in the mean in the conditional model. Switching to the standard logistic error distribution provides a solution to this problem, as the parameter estimates in the resulting model can be interpreted as log-odds

ratios. This continuous outcome logistic regression model was used by Lohse et al. (2017) to analyze body mass index (BMI) distributions.

Manuguerra and Heller (2010) proposed a mixed effects logistic regression model for bounded, continuous measurements of pain levels in a randomized, double-blind, placebo-contolled trial of low-level laser therapy for subjects with chronic neck pain presented by Chow et al. (2006). The levels of pain, measured on a visual analog scale, and normalized between 0 and 1, are plotted in Figure 4 for each subject at the different follow-up times.

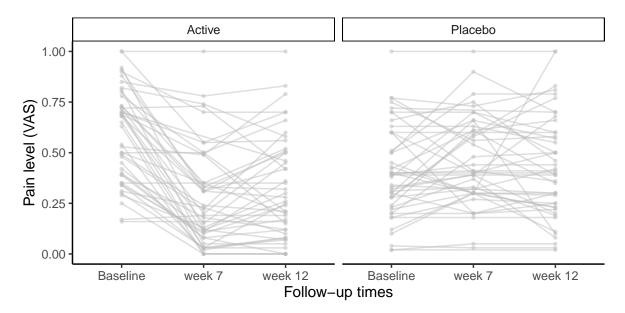


Figure 4: Neck pain dataset: Trajectories of pain levels measured on a visual analog scale (VAS) in the active treatment and placebo-controlled groups reported in Chow et al. (2006).

The mixed effects model suggested by Manuguerra and Heller (2010) parameterizes the logodds of experiencing smaller pain levels as a linear function of fixed and random effects and the baseline transformation. With the treatment group indicator, laser, and time denoting the follow-up times,

$$\log \left[ \frac{\mathbb{P}\left( \mathtt{pain} \leq y \mid \mathtt{laser}, \mathtt{time}, \alpha_i \right)}{\mathbb{P}\left( \mathtt{pain} > y \mid \mathtt{laser}, \mathtt{time}, \alpha_i \right)} \right] = h(y) + \beta_{\mathtt{Active}} + \beta_{\mathtt{7w}} + \beta_{\mathtt{12w}} + \beta_{\mathtt{7w}}, \, \mathtt{Active} + \beta_{\mathtt{12w}}, \, \mathtt{Active} + \alpha_i$$

$$\alpha_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2),$$

where h(y) is an increasing function of the outcome. Rearranging the terms in the model above reveals that this model is indeed a mixed-effects transformation model, with the distribution function of the standard logistic distribution ("expit" function) as  $F_Z$ 

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\text{pain} \leq y \mid \text{laser}, \text{time}, \alpha_{i}\right) = \text{expit}\left(h(y) + \beta_{\text{Active}} + \beta_{\text{7w}} + \beta_{12w} + \beta_{7w, \text{Active}} + \beta_{12w}, \text{Active} + \alpha_{i}\right)$$

$$\alpha_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^{2})$$
(5)

The ColrME() function of the tramME package estimates mixed-effects continuous outcome logistic regression models using Bernstein polynomials to approximate h(y). Applying this model to the neck\_pain dataset:

Notice that we explicitly set the bounds and the support of the outcome variable to [0,1] because the pain levels are measured on a bounded scale.

The ordinalCont package by Manuguerra and Heller (2019) implements an alternative formulation of the model (5) based on the method described in Manuguerra et al. (2017). In their approach, the baseline transformation is parameterized using B-splines and the estimation is carried out in a penalized likelihood framework.

```
R> library("ordinalCont")
R> neck_ocm <- ocm(vas ~ laser * time + (1 | id), data = neck_pain, scale = c(0, 1))</pre>
```

Figure 5 compares the results of the mixed-effects transformation model approach to the estimates obtained using the ordinalCont package. Because the two models are not exactly the same, we see some differences in the parameter estimates as well as in the fitted baseline transformation function, but the two model fits are reasonably close to each other.

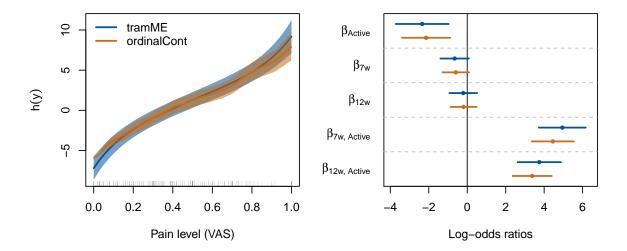


Figure 5: Left: Baseline transformations in continuous outcome logistic regressions estimated with the tramME and ordinalCont packages on the neck\_pain dataset. The solid lines denote the point estimates and the areas indicate the 95% point-wise confidence intervals. Right: Coefficient estimates from tramME and ordinalCont packages and their 95% Wald confidence intervals.

The odds ratio estimates of the model fitted by ColrME(),

as well as the results from the ordinalCont package, suggest that there is an imbalance in the sample at baseline, i.e. the odds of experiencing less pain in the active treatment group is only about 10% that of in the control group for any pain levels. **TODO:** is this a correct interpretation? Based on the estimates, the treatment has strong significant effect, especially at the seven-week follow-up, which seems to level off after 12 weeks.

If we want to compare the marginal distributions in the treatment and control groups directly, we have to average over the distribution of the random effects. Because in this example we only have a random intercept, we have to evaluate a one-dimensional integral. We could use the same Monte Carlo method as we did in Section 3.2, or we can apply the adaptive quadrature method implemented in the stats package of R. The example below uses this approach to demonstrate the multiple options the analyst has in dealing with such problems.

Figure 6 compares the marginal distributions at different time points, and confirms our previous conclusions on baseline imbalance and treatment effect dynamics.

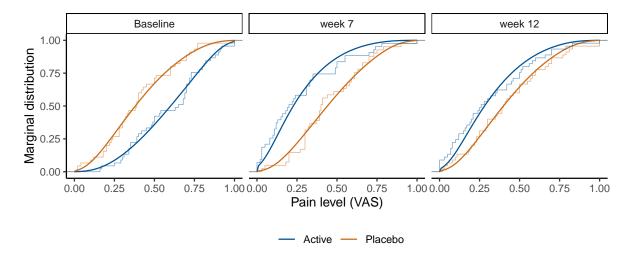


Figure 6: Comparison of marginal distributions, calculated from a mixed-effects continuous outcome logistic regression model, in the treatment (Active) and control (Placebo) groups at baseline and the two follow-up times. The step functions represent the empirical cumulative distribution functions of the specific groups.

#### 3.4 Mixed-effects transformation models for time-to-event outcomes

Consider the example dataset eortc in the coxme package by Therneau (2019). The simulated dataset emulates the structure of the outcomes of a breast cancer trial by the European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer, and consists of 2323, possibly right censored, data points from 37 enrolling centers. We define a proportional hazards mixed effects model with random center (i = 1, ..., 37) and treatment (trt) effects

(nested within centers and indexed by j = 0, 1).

$$\mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq y \mid \mathsf{trt}, \alpha_i, \beta_{j(i)}\right) = 1 - \exp\left(-\exp\left(h(y) + \beta_{\mathsf{trt}} + \alpha_i + \beta_{j(i)}\right)\right)$$

$$\alpha_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_1^2), \quad \beta_{j(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_2^2)$$
(6)

This model corresponds to a mixed effects transformation model with the *minimum extreme value distribution* as the error distribution. Treating the baseline transformation as a general smooth function, approximated using Bernstein polynomials, we get the fully parametric version of the Cox proportional hazards model with normally distributed random effects.

We can fit this model with the CoxphME() function of tramME.

```
R> data("eortc", package = "coxme")
R> eortc$trt <- factor(eortc$trt, levels = c(0, 1))
R> eortc_cp <- CoxphME(Surv(y, uncens) ~ trt + (1 | center/trt), data = eortc,
+ log_first = TRUE, order = 10)</pre>
```

The nested random effects structure is defined with the / operator. The log\_first = TRUE option casts the outcome variable to the log-scale before defining the Bernstein bases, which usually improves the model fit when dealing with skewed conditional distributions, while we explicitly set the order of the Bernstein polynomials with order = 10. The confidence interval for the treatment effect (transformed to the hazard ratio scale) suggests evidence for the effectiveness of the treatment

```
R> exp(confint(eortc_cp, parm = "trt1", estimate = TRUE))
    lwr upr est
trt1 1.8 2.51 2.12
```

while the profile intervals of the random effects standard deviations indicate similar magnitude of center-level and treatment-level (within center) variabilities.

To check visually the appropriateness of the proportional hazards assumption between treatment and control groups, we re-estimate the model stratifying for the treatment indicator, i.e. fitting baseline cumulative hazards for the treatment and control groups separately, and check whether the two baseline transformation functions, which are the log-cumulative baseline hazards when the error distribution is the minimum extreme value distribution, are parallel.

```
R> eortc_cp2 <- CoxphME(Surv(y, uncens) | 0 + trt ~ 0 + (1 | center/trt), data = eortc,
+ log_first = TRUE, order = 10)
R> tr <- trafo(eortc_cp2, confidence = "interval")</pre>
```

Figure 7 plots the stratified transformation functions against log-time. The two curves are very close to parallel, which indicates that the treatment effect is constant over time, i.e. the proportionality assumption is appropriate in the original model specification.

In addition to proportionality, Figure 7 reveals another important aspect of the data generating process: The fact that the baseline log-cumulative hazards are linear in log-time suggests that the conditional distributions are close to the Weibull distribution, i.e. we can substitute the general baseline transformation function with  $h(y) = \vartheta_1 + \vartheta_2 \log(y)$ . Flipping the signs of the fixed and random effects terms of (6) and substituting the log-linear function to the baseline transformation, we get the model

$$\mathbb{P}\left(Y \leq y \mid \mathsf{trt}, \alpha_i, \beta_{j(i)}\right) = 1 - \exp\left(-\exp\left(\vartheta_1 + \vartheta_2\log(y) - \beta_{\mathsf{trt}} - \alpha_i - \beta_{j(i)}\right)\right)$$
$$\alpha_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_1^2), \quad \beta_{j(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_2^2)$$

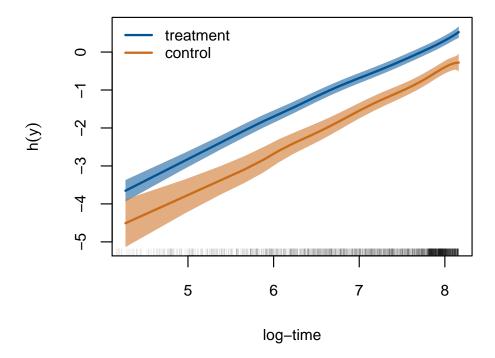


Figure 7: Comparison of baseline transfromation functions in treatment and control groups, estimated using a stratified parametric mixed-effects Cox proportional hazards model on the eortc dataset.

The SurvregME() function of the tramME package implements a variety of parametric mixed-effects models that represent specific choices of the error distribution and the baseline transformation function in the general formulation of Equation (1).

Fitting a mixed-effects Weibull model to the dataset eortc

```
R> eortc_w <- SurvregME(Surv(y, uncens) ~ trt + (1 | center/trt), data = eortc,
+ dist = "weibull")</pre>
```

Comparing the parameter estimates of the Cox proportional hazards model to those from the mixed effect Weibull model,

```
R> ## --- CoxphME
R> c(coef = coef(eortc_cp), se = sqrt(diag(vcov(eortc_cp, pargroup = "shift"))))
coef.trt1
          se.trt1
  0.7535
           0.0852
R> VarCorr(eortc_cp)
Grouping factor: trt:center (74 levels)
Standard deviation:
(Intercept)
     0.208
Grouping factor: center (37 levels)
Standard deviation:
(Intercept)
     0.254
R> ## --- SurvregME
R> c(coef = -coef(eortc_w), se = sqrt(diag(vcov(eortc_w, pargroup = "shift"))))
coef.trt1
          se.trt1
  0.7531
            0.0851
R> VarCorr(eortc_w)
Grouping factor: trt:center (74 levels)
Standard deviation:
(Intercept)
      0.208
Grouping factor: center (37 levels)
Standard deviation:
(Intercept)
0.255
```

as well as their log-likelihood values

```
R> c(logLik(eortc_cp), logLik(eortc_w))
[1] -13027 -13032
```

confirms our suspicion that the dataset was simulated from a conditional Weibull model.

Finally, we might want to compare the results from tramME to parameters estimated with the R package coxme.

```
R> library("coxme")
R> eortc_cm <- coxme(Surv(y, uncens) ~ trt + (1 | center/trt), data = eortc)
R> summary(eortc_cm)
Cox mixed-effects model fit by maximum likelihood
  Data: eortc
  events, n = 1463, 2323
  Iterations= 10 54
                 NULL Integrated Fitted
Log-likelihood -10639
                          -10518 -10464
                  Chisq
                        df p AIC
                                     BIC
Integrated loglik
                   242 3.0 0 236 220.4
Penalized loglik
                    349 39.3 0 270 62.6
Model: Surv(y, uncens) ~ trt + (1 | center/trt)
Fixed coefficients
      coef exp(coef) se(coef)
                 2.1
trt1 0.742
                       0.0827 8.97 0
Random effects
Group
            Variable
                        Std Dev Variance
center/trt (Intercept) 0.2045 0.0418
            (Intercept) 0.2627 0.0690
center
```

This package follows a different approach to estimate a mixed-effects Cox model by leaving the baseline hazards unspecified and maximizing the integrated partial likelihood. As a result, the parameter estimates are slightly different from the ones we got using the CoxphME() function, but the results are comparable and the conclusions are identical, nevertheless.

TODO: Should I include another example (e.g. kidney data) to demonstrate identical results from parfm and frailtypack?

#### 3.5 Mixed-effects transformation models for discrete ordinal outcomes

Our last example demonstrates how the mixed-effects transformation framework can be used in modeling correlated discrete ordinal outcomes. As an example, we take the soup tasting dataset by Christensen et al. (2011). The dataset contains 1847 observations from 185 respondents in a soup tasting experiment. The subjects were familiarized with a reference product prior the experiment, and, during the experiment, were asked to distinguish between samples from the reference product and test product using a six-level ordinal scale indicating their level of confidence. The scale ranges from "reference, sure" (sureness = 1) to "not reference, sure" (sureness = 6). Figure 8 presents the proportions of response categories for the test and reference samples, for respondent groups defined by how often they consume soup.

Let us assume that we are interested in comparing the distribution of sureness ratings for reference products and test products, while taking the repeated nature of the design into account. Moreover, in doing so, we also want to control for how often the respondents usually consume soup (denoted by the covariate freq). With  $k=1\ldots 5$ , indicating the sureness levels except the last one,  $i=1\ldots 185$  indexing of the respondents, and j=0,1 indexing the reference and test products (covariate prod), respectively, the regression model we estimate can be written as

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\text{sureness} \leq k \mid \text{prod}, \text{freq}, \alpha_i, \beta_{j(i)}\right) = \Phi\left(\vartheta_k - \beta_{\text{test}} - \beta_{1\text{-}4/\text{month}} - \beta_{<1/\text{month}} - \alpha_i - \beta_{j(i)}\right)$$

$$\alpha_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_1^2), \quad \beta_{j(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_2^2)$$
(7)

The PolrME() function of the tramME package estimates models for ordered discrete outcomes. Depending

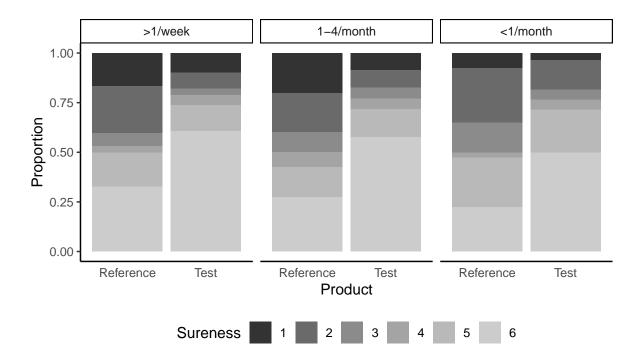


Figure 8: Data from the soup tasting study reported by Christensen et al. (2011): Proportions of responses of sureness levels (six levels, ranging from "reference, sure" to "not reference, sure") after tasting test and reference products. The datapoints are grouped by how often the respondent consume soup (more than once a week, one to four times a month, less than once a month).

on the choice of the error distribution, the user can fit proportional odds (logistic distribution), ordinal probit (standard normal distribution), proportional hazards (minimum extreme value distribution), or cumulative maximum extreme value models. In our example, we set method = 'probit' to estimate the probit model,

The R package ordinal by Christensen (2019) also implements mixed effects regression models for ordered discrete outcomes. As a cross-check can re-estimate the same model with the function clmm(),

Based on the likelihood values and the parameter estimates,

```
R> max(abs(coef(soup_or) - coef(soup_pr, with_baseline = TRUE)))
[1] 1.94e-05
```

the results are essentially the same.

We can introduce non-proportional effects in the transformation model framework by stratifying on a covariate. In our example, we might want to extend the model to allow for different effect sizes of the soup

consumption frequency covariate, depending on the level of the outcome variable. Rewriting model (7),

```
\begin{split} \mathbb{P}\left(\text{sureness} \leq k \mid \text{prod}, \text{freq}, \alpha_i, \beta_{j(i)}\right) &= \Phi\left(\vartheta_k - \beta_{\text{test}} - \beta_{1\text{-}4/\text{month},k} - \beta_{<1/\text{month},k} - \alpha_i - \beta_{j(i)}\right) \\ &\alpha_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_1^2), \quad \beta_{j(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau_2^2) \end{split}
```

and estimating it with tramME by stratifying for the soup frequency factor

The likelihood ratio test comparing the two specifications suggests that there is some evidence that the extended, partially proportional model fits the data better.

```
R> anova(soup_pr, soup_pr2)

Model comparison

Model 1: SURENESS ~ PROD + SOUPFREQ + (1 | RESP/PROD)

Model 2: SURENESS | SOUPFREQ ~ PROD + (1 | RESP/PROD)

Df logLik AIC BIC Chisq Chisq df Pr(>Chisq)

Model 1 10 -2666 5352 5408

Model 2 18 -2655 5347 5446 21.9 8 0.0051 **
---
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

#### 4 Discussion

Building the implementation of mixed effects transformation models on the package TMB leads to significant efficiency gains in the computationally intensive steps of the maximum likelihood estimation. However, a disadvantage of this approach is that TMB uses Laplace approximation to integrate over the vector of random effects. As several sources point out, Laplace's method can lead to biased estimates in some distributional settings. Pinheiro and Chao (2006) provides detailed numerical comparisons of the Laplacian approximation to adaptive Gaussian quadrature algorithms in the context of multilevel generalized models. Evaluating the method in the case of discrete outcome mixed effects models, Joe (2008) concludes that the inaccuracy increases with the amount of discreteness of the response variable, and decreases as the cluster sizes increase.

It is worth mentioning that the conditional approach of modeling the distribution of the outcome, which is the basis of the transformation models implemented in the tramE package is not the only way one could approach the problem of correlated outcomes in regression settings. The main alternative to a conditional (mixed effects) modeling approach is a marginal model that parameterizes the marginal distribution of the outcome and treats the covariance structure as nuisance parameters. Generalized estimating equations (GEE, Hardin and Hilbe, 2013) models constitute prominent examples of such an approach. Proponents of marginal models point out that the fixed effects parameter estimates cannot be interpreted as population averages which is usually of primary interest of a regression analysis. Lindsey and Lambert (1998) emphasize that marginal parameter estimates from longitudinal studies can only be interpreted as population averages when the participants are representative to their populations, which is usually not the case. Moreover, they argue that defining models based on marginal distribution very often lead to complicated and implausible conditional distributions, whereas conditional models can more easily express physiologically plausible mechanisms on the level of the individual. Lee and Nelder (2004) argue that conditional models are more fundamental as they allow for both marginal and conditional inferences, which is not true in the case of marginal models. As we demonstarted in Sections 3.2



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