

# Multivariate: Linear Mixed Models

## Lecture 5: Power and GLMM

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Lecture 5

Good morning

- Coursework set at the end of this week.
- Revision/Q&A sessions likely to be in LG.07 lab, DHT, WB 8th April
  - TBC

- Example: Trial by person
- Generalized linear mixed models (GLMM)
- Examples: Logistic
- Power in LMM
- In closing... remembering why LMM are useful!

Questions up until now...

Example: Trial by person (off we go to Notebooks)

# Generalized linear mixed models (GLMM)

- Linear model requires our outcome variable to be continuous.
  - Often it is not.
  - Sometimes we ignore this
  - Sometimes we can not.
- When we can not, enter the generalized linear model.



- In a standard linear model, we assume:
  - The outcome is normally distributed
  - The predictors to have a linear relation to the expected value of the outcome
- But the normal (Gaussian) distribution is one of a large number of distributions our outcome could come from.
- In a generalized linear model we add a step.
  - This step states that the linear relation of the predictors to the outcome follows a particular functional form, that links to the underlying distribution of the outcome.
  - Hence the term “link functions”

# Some common link functions

<b>Outcome</b>	<b>Distribution</b>	<b>Link</b>
Continuous	Gaussian	Identity
Binary	Binomial	Logit or Probit
Count	Poisson	Log

- In the context of LMM, we can apply the same steps as we would for a LM in order to fit GLM.
- In which case, we are fitting a **G**eneralized **L**inear **M**ixed **M**odel, or GLMM.
- To fit these models we use the `glmer()` function instead of `lmer()`

Example: Logistic model (off we go to Notebooks)

## Power in LMM

- 4 components comprise “standard” analytic power calculations:
  - Type I error rate
  - Sample size
  - Effect size
  - Power level
- If we know 3 elements, we can work out the final one.

## Power for $t$ -tests: Analytic (pwr)

```
pwr.t.test(n = 20, d = 0.5, sig.level = .05,  
           type= "two.sample",  
           alternative = "two.sided")
```

# Power for $t$ -tests: Analytic

```
##  
##      Two-sample t test power calculation  
##  
##              n = 20  
##              d = 0.5  
##      sig.level = 0.05  
##      power = 0.337939  
##      alternative = two.sided  
##  
## NOTE: n is number in *each* group
```



# Power for $t$ -tests: Analytic

```
pwr.t.test(power = 0.95, d = 0.5, sig.level = .05,  
           type= "two.sample", alternative = "two.sided")
```

# Power for $t$ -tests: Analytic

```
##  
##      Two-sample t test power calculation  
##  
##              n = 104.9279  
##              d = 0.5  
##      sig.level = 0.05  
##      power = 0.95  
##      alternative = two.sided  
##  
## NOTE: n is number in each group
```

# Power via simulation (paramtest)

- Based on choosing a hypothesised model and true parameter values.
- Then draws a large number of samples and estimates the model in each sample.
- Then the parameter values and standard errors are averaged over the samples.
- The relevant outcomes are parameter estimate bias, standard error bias, coverage and power.

# Power for $t$ -test: Simulation

```
t_func <- function(simNum, N, d) {  
  x1 <- rnorm(N, 0, 1)  
  x2 <- rnorm(N, d, 1)  
  
  # runs t-tests on the simulated datasets  
  t <- t.test(x1, x2, var.equal=TRUE)  
  
  # extracts t-values from the t-tests  
  stat <- t$statistic  
  
  # extracts p-values from the t-tests  
  p <- t$p.value  
  
  # returns a named vector with the results we want to keep  
  return(c(t = stat, p = p, sig = (p < .05)))  
}
```

# Power for $t$ -test: Simulation

```
head(results(power_ttest <- run_test(  
  t_func, n.iter = 1000, output = 'data.frame',  
  N = 20, d = 0.5)))
```

## Running 1,000 tests...

##	iter	t.t	p	sig
## 1	1	-2.7431742	0.009232470	1
## 2	2	-2.5346744	0.015495088	1
## 3	3	-0.8661068	0.391867338	0
## 4	4	-1.4839723	0.146064309	0
## 5	5	-2.0288295	0.049524830	1
## 6	6	-2.8443590	0.007128224	1

# Power for $t$ -test: Simulation

```
table(power_ttest$results$sig)
```

```
##
```

```
##    0    1
```

```
## 654 346
```

- As has generally been the case, power in the LMM context is more complex.
- The factors effecting power are similar:
  - Number of clusters (Level 2 sample size)
  - Cluster size (Level 1 sample size)
  - ICC (relation between level 1 and 2 variance)
  - Effect size

- Fixed effects and their SE:
  - When N of groups is below 50, begin to see some bias in the estimation of SE.
- Random effects and SE:
  - Somewhat dependent on estimator
  - REML provides better estimates with fewer groups than ML



- Rules of thumb are hard to set.
- Power is based on a combination of the N at different levels.
- Dependent on interest, various suggestions have been made for the N's at L2/L1
  - General rule - 30/30
  - Cross-level interactions - 50/20
  - Variance-covariance - 100/10

- Gellman & Hill: Group  $N < 5$ , not enough information to estimate group-level variation.
  - Unlikely that MLM improves over no pooling models -However, same authors argue that even with as few as 2 observations per group we can use LMM.
  - Group level intercepts will be poorly estimated, but still contribute to the estimation of individual level effects.

- We have already spoken about some of the difficulties with quantities such as R-square.
- We also spoke about PRV as a local measure of effect size.
- With standardized variables we can also consider the size of the coefficients we would expect to see.
- The issue with all of the above is that LMM are large, multivariable models, and so there are lots of parameters to consider plausible values for.

# Practical approaches to power for LMM

- We could write a function to simulate data from an LMM and use `paramtest`
  - Lisa DeBruine @Glasgow Uni has done the first step for us.
  - <https://debruine.github.io/posts/>
- SIMR package
  - Arguably most flexible package.
  - Takes some getting used to!
- Another option is WebPower
  - <https://webpower.psychstat.org/wiki/>

Why LMM are useful!

# The take homes

- ① Single framework for modelling longitudinal, cross-sectional, experimental with a variety of dependent variable types.
- ② Explicitly model variation at multiple levels of nested and crossed structure.
- ③ Include predictors to explain that variance.
- ④ These predictors can be continuous or categorical without the need for additional assumptions (e.g. ANCOVA)
- ⑤ Handles unbalanced data better than ANOVA.
- ⑥ Fewer and less restrictive assumptions than ANOVA.

That's all for THE COURSE! :-)