# Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMM)

Subject specific  $\rightarrow$  Random effects  $\rightarrow$  GLMMs

# **Extending Linear Mixed Models**

#### Recall LMM:

$$Y = X\beta + Zb + \epsilon$$
,

where  $\mathbf{b} \sim N\{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$  and  $\epsilon \sim N\{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$ .

Question: How can we extend linear mixed models to correlated discrete data?

Answer: Add random effects to the GLM linear predictor.

⇒ Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMMs)

Reference: Breslow and Clayton, 1993, JASA.

# Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMMs)

Suppose  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n | \mathbf{b}$  are independent and follow a GLM with

$$\mu_i^b = E(Y_i|\mathbf{b}_i)$$

$$var(Y_i|\mathbf{b}_i) = \phi a_i^{-1} v(\mu_i^{\mathbf{b}_i})$$

and

$$g(\mu_i^{\mathbf{b}_i}) = \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{b}_i$$

where

$$\mathbf{b}_i \sim N\{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$$

# Quasi-likelihood of $(\beta, \theta)$

$$L(\beta, \theta) = \int L(Y|\mathbf{b}; \beta) L(\mathbf{b}; \theta) d\mathbf{b}$$

$$= e^{\ell(\beta, \theta)}$$

$$\propto |\mathbf{D}(\theta)|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \int exp^{\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_{i}(Y_{i}|\mathbf{b}; \beta) - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{D}(\theta)^{-1}\mathbf{b}\right\}} d\mathbf{b}$$
(often no closed form)

where

$$\ell_i(Y_i|\mathbf{b};\beta) \propto \int_{Y_i}^{\mu_i^{\mathbf{b}}} \frac{Y_i - u}{\phi a_i^{-1} v(u)} du$$

$$= \log \text{ quasi-likelihood of } \beta \text{ conditional on } \mathbf{b}$$

# Matrix notation (for single subject)

$$g(\mu_j^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_j^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_j^T \mathbf{b}$$

where

 $\beta$ :  $p \times 1$  vector of regression coefficients.

 $\mathbf{b}$ :  $q \times 1$  vector of random effects.

#### Matrix notation:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \boldsymbol{\mu^b} & = & (\boldsymbol{\mu_1^b}, \boldsymbol{\mu_2^b}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{\mu_n^b})^T \\ & \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{\mu^b}) & = & \{\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{\mu_1^b}), \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{\mu_2^b}) \cdots, \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{\mu_n^b})\}^T \\ \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_n^T \end{pmatrix} & , & \mathbf{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Z}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{Z}_n^T \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

 $\Rightarrow$ 

$$g(\mu^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}\beta + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{b}$$



## Example 1: LMM

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{b} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon},$$

where

$$\mathbf{b} \sim N\{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N\{\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\}$$

 $\Leftrightarrow$ 

$$Y_1, \cdots, Y_n | \mathbf{b}$$
 indep  $\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i^{\mathbf{b}}, \sigma^2)$   
 $\mu^{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{b}$  (identity link)

with

$$\mu_i^{\mathbf{b}} = E(Y_i|\mathbf{b})$$
  
 $var(Y_i|\mathbf{b}) = \sigma^2 \qquad (\phi = \sigma^2)$ 

# Example 2: GLMM for clustered/longitudinal data

- m clusters
- $\mathbf{Y}_i = (Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{in_i})^T$ : observations for cluster i  $(i = 1, \dots, m)$
- $\mathbf{Y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{Y}_m$  are independent.
- $\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}} = E(Y_{ij}|b_i)$  and  $var(Y_{ij}|b_i) = \phi a_{ij}^{-1} v(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}})$

 $\Downarrow$ 

$$g(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{i}$$

where

 $\mathbf{b}_i \sim N\{0, \mathbf{D}_0(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$  = cluster-specific random effects.

## Example 2: What do the matrices look like?

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{\mathbf{b}} &= \left( \begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{i1}^{\mathbf{b}} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{in_{i}}^{\mathbf{b}} \end{array} \right), \quad \mathbf{X}_{i} = \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{X}_{i1}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_{in_{i}}^{T} \end{array} \right), \quad \mathbf{Z}_{i} = \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Z}_{i1}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{Z}_{in_{i}}^{T} \end{array} \right) \\ \boldsymbol{\mu} &= \left( \begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{1}^{\mathbf{b}} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{m}^{\mathbf{b}} \end{array} \right), \quad \mathbf{X} = \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{X}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_{m} \end{array} \right), \quad \mathbf{Z} = \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Z}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{b}_{m} \end{array} \right), \mathbf{b} = \left( \begin{array}{c} b_{1} \\ \vdots \\ b_{m} \end{array} \right) \end{split}$$

$$g(\mu_i^b) = X_i\beta + Z_ib_i$$
  
 $g(\mu^b) = X\beta + Zb$ 

where

$$\mathbf{b} \sim \mathcal{N}\{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}(oldsymbol{ heta})\} \quad , \quad \mathbf{D}(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \left(egin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{D}_0(oldsymbol{ heta}) & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \mathbf{D}_0(oldsymbol{ heta}) \end{array}
ight).$$

## Example 2: Specific sub-examples

#### Examples:

• Random intercept:

$$g(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + b_{i}$$

where  $b_i \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} N(0, \theta)$ .

Random intercept and slope:

$$g(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + b_{1i} + t_{ij} b_{2i}$$

where

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}b_{1i}\\b_{2i}\end{array}\right)\stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} N\left\{\left(\begin{array}{c}0\\0\end{array}\right),\mathbf{D}_0(\theta)\right\}$$

This is familiar from discussion of LMM.

# Longitudinal Example A: Clustered normal data (CD4 counts)

Assume  $Y_{ij}|m{b}_i \sim \textit{N}(\mu^b_{ij},\sigma^2)$  and

$$\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i$$

\$

LMM:

$$Y_{ij} = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{i} + \epsilon_{ij}$$

where  $\epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

note: CD4 is is usually highly skewed. Y is either log(CD4) or  $\sqrt{CD4}$ 

# Longitudinal Example B: Clustered binomial data (infection (yes/no))

Assume  $N * Y_{ij} | \boldsymbol{b}_i \sim (overdispersed)$  Binomial $(N, \mu_{ij}^b)$  and

$$logit(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i$$

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

$$E(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{b}_i) = \mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}$$
  
$$var(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{b}_i) = \phi N^{-1}\mu_{ii}^{\mathbf{b}}(1-\mu_{ii}^{\mathbf{b}})$$

#### Remarks:

- if you have Bernoulli data,  $\phi$  is always 1.
- If you have grouped data, your  $\phi$  may be 1. (> 1  $\rightarrow$  overdispersion.

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# Longitudinal Example C: Clustered count data (# of seizures)

Assume  $Y_{ij}|\mathbf{b_i} \sim (overdispersed) \ Poisson(\mu^b_{ij})$  and

$$ln(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{i}$$

or

$$ln(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = ln(N_{ij}) + \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T}\mathbf{b}_{i}$$

where  $ln(N_{ij})$  is the offset if  $Y_{ij} = \#$  of cases.

$$\Downarrow$$

$$E(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{b}_i) = \mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}$$
$$var(Y_{ij}|\mathbf{b}_i) = \phi \mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}$$

Note:  $Y_{ij}$  is the incidence rate.

## Example 3: Hierarchical Data

C	DI	Dariana	D:
Center	Physician	Patient	Disease
1	1	1	1
1	1	2	0
1	2	3	0
1	2	4	0
2	3	5	1
2	3	6	1
2	4	7	0
2	4	8	1
:	:	:	:
•		•	

We have three levels in this data. But for longitudinal data, we only have two levels.

# Example 3: Hierarchical Data (2)

#### Model:

$$logit(\boldsymbol{\mu}^b) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{eta} + \mathbf{Z}_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{Z}_2\mathbf{b}_2$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{b}_1 &= (b_{11}, \cdots, b_{1q_1})^T \text{ is a } q_1 \times 1 \text{ vector of random center effect} \\ \text{and } \mathbf{b}_1 &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \theta_1 \mathbf{I}_{q_1}); \\ \mathbf{b}_2 &= (b_{21}, \cdots, b_{2q_2})^T \text{ is a } q_2 \times 1 \text{ vector of random physician effect} \\ \text{and } \mathbf{b}_2 &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \theta_2 \mathbf{I}_{q_2}). \end{aligned}$$

 $\Leftrightarrow$ 

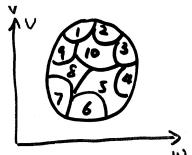
$$logit(\mu_i^b) = \mathbf{X}_i^T \beta + \mathbf{Z}_{i1}^T \mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{Z}_{i2}^T \mathbf{b}_2$$
$$= \mathbf{X}_i^T \beta + \mathbf{Z}_i^T \mathbf{b}$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{Z}_{i} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{Z}_{i1} \\ \boldsymbol{Z}_{i2} \end{array}\right), \boldsymbol{b} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{b}_{1} \\ \boldsymbol{b}_{2} \end{array}\right) \sim N \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{0} \end{array}\right), \left(\begin{array}{cc} \theta_{1} \boldsymbol{I}_{q_{1}} & \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \theta_{2} \boldsymbol{I}_{q_{2}} \end{array}\right) \right\}$$

# Example 4: Spatial Data

county	# of D	PY	b
1 2	$Y_1$ $Y_2$	$N_1$ $N_2$	$egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{b}_1 \ oldsymbol{b}_2 \end{array}$
:	:	:	:
n	$Y_n$	$N_n$	$\mathbf{b}_n$



# Example 4: Spatial Data (2)

$$ln(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}^{\mathbf{b}}) = ln(N_{i}) + \mathbf{X}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta} + b_{i}$$
  

$$\Leftrightarrow ln(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = ln(\mathbf{N}) + \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}$$

where

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left\{ \mathbf{0}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho^{|\mathbf{d}_1 - \mathbf{d}_2|} & \rho^{|\mathbf{d}_1 - \mathbf{d}_3|} & \dots & \rho^{|\mathbf{d}_1 - \mathbf{d}_n|} \\ & 1 & \rho^{|\mathbf{d}_2 - \mathbf{d}_3|} & \dots & \rho^{|\mathbf{d}_2 - \mathbf{d}_n|} \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & * & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

and  $\mathbf{d}_i = (w_i, v_i)$  and  $w_i$  is the longitude and  $v_i$  is the latitude.

#### Remarks

- ullet Subject-specific models o Random effects models o GLMM
- GLMM is a natural combination of LMM and GLM.
- Can use a multi-stage formulation (useful for Bayesian inference)
- GLMM is a possible alternative approach to GEEs for modeling longitudinal data:

Question: Does  $\beta$  in GLMM have the same interpretation as  $\beta$  in GEE?

# Relationship and Interpretation Difference of Regression Coefficients in GEE and GLMM in Clustered Data

#### **GEEs**

#### Recall GEE:

$$E(Y_{ij}) = \mu_{ij}$$

$$var(Y_{ij}) = \phi a_{ij}^{-1} v(\mu_{ij})$$

## Marginal Model:

$$g(\mu_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

### Estimation using GEE:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{D}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1} (\mathbf{Y}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}) = 0$$

### **GLMMs**

#### Recall GLMM:

Conditional on cluster specific random effects  $b_i$ ,

$$E(Y_{ij}|b_i) = \mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}$$
  
$$var(Y_{ij}|b_i) = \phi a_{ij}^{-1} v(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}})$$

#### Random Effects Model:

$$g(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{i}$$

where

$$\mathbf{b}_i \sim N\{0, \mathbf{D}_0(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$$

### Estimation using MLE

$$e^{\ell(oldsymbol{eta},oldsymbol{ heta})} \propto |\mathbf{D}|^{-rac{1}{2}} \int exp^{\{\sum_{i=1}^n \ell_i(Y_i|\mathbf{b};oldsymbol{eta}) - rac{1}{2}\mathbf{b}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{b}\}} d\mathbf{b}$$

## Some Questions

**Question 1:** How is  $\beta$  in the GEE model related  $\beta$  in the GLMM? Are they the same?

**Question 2:** Do they have the same interpretation?

#### References

- Zeger, Liang and Albert (1988). Biometrics, 1049-60.
- Neuhaus, Kalbfleisch and Hauck (1991). Int. Stat. Rev, 25-35.
- Zeger and Liang (1992) Stat. in Med,1825-39.

# Relationship between $\beta$ in GLMM and GEE

Under the GLMM,

$$\mu_{ij} = E(Y_{ij}) = E\{g^{-1}(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T\mathbf{b}_i)\}$$

⇒ Question 1 is identical to asking

$$\mu_{ij} = E\{g^{-1}(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i)\} \stackrel{?}{=} g^{-1}(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta})$$

or

$$g[E\{g^{-1}(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^T\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T\mathbf{b}_i)\}] \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

**Answer 1:** Often no.  $\beta$ s from GEE and GLMM are typically not the same.

# When do the $\beta$ s coincide?

#### Recall GEE:

$$g(\mu_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Recall GLMM:

$$g(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{i}$$

We need to check whether the marginal mean of  $Y_{ij}$  in GLMM  $\mu_{ij} = E[g^{-1}(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i)]$  satisfies  $g(\mu_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$ .

Let's see some examples.

# Linear (Identity) Link (e.g. Normal data)

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T}\mathbf{b}_{i}$$
 
$$\Downarrow$$

$$\mu_{ij} = E(Y_{ij}) = E[E(Y_{ij}|b_i)]$$

$$= E(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = E(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{b}_i)$$

$$= \mathbf{X}_{ij}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Thus,  $\beta$  in the GEE and the GLMM are the same!

# Probit Link (Binary data)

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i$$

Then

$$\mu_{ij} = E(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = E[\Phi(\mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T}\mathbf{b}_{i})]$$

$$= \Phi\{(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}_{ij})^{-\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T}\boldsymbol{\beta}\}$$

$$\Phi^{-1}(\mu_{ij}) = \frac{1}{(1 + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_{ij})^{\frac{1}{2}}} \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

$$\neq \mathbf{X}_{ii}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} \quad \text{if } \mathbf{D} \neq \mathbf{0}$$

Hence  $\beta_{GEE}$  is often attenuated compared to the  $\beta_{GLMM}$ .

# Logit Link (Binary data)

$$logit(\mu_{ii}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ii}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ii}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{i}$$

Note

$$egin{array}{ll} \mu_{ij} &=& E(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = E[rac{e^{\mathbf{X}_{ij}^Teta + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T\mathbf{b}_i}}{1 + e^{\mathbf{X}_{ij}^Teta + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T\mathbf{b}_i}}] \ &pprox &F(rac{1}{(1 + c^2\mathbf{Z}_{ii}^T\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}_{ij})^{rac{1}{2}}}\mathbf{X}_{ij}^Teta) \end{array}$$

where F is the logistic cdf,  $c=16\times\sqrt{3}/15\pi=0.58$ , and  $c^2=0.35$ .

Hence  $\beta_{GEE}$  is often attenuated compared to the  $\beta_{GLMM}$ :

# Log Link (Count, Poisson data)

$$ln(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i$$

Note

$$\mu_{ij} = E(\mu_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = E[e^{\mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T}\beta + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T}\mathbf{b}_{i}}]$$
$$= e^{\mathbf{X}_{ij}^{T}\beta + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{Z}_{ij}^{T}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}_{ij}}$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$ln(\mu_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_{ij}$$

$$\downarrow$$
offset

So  $\beta_{\it GEE}$  and  $\beta_{\it GLMM}$  differ by an intercept if **X** and **Z** do not overlap except for the intercept.

## Some MORE Questions

### **Outstanding Questions:**

Question 2: Do they have the same interpretation?

**Question 3:** Which is correct?

Question 4: Which should I use?

# Interpretation of $\beta$ in GEE and GLMM (1)

Recall GEE:

$$g(\mu_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

Recall GLMM:

$$g(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ij}^{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{X}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{ij}^T \mathbf{b}_i$$

Question 2: Do they have the same interpretation?

Answer 2: Sometimes, but often not.

- For normal and count data (log-linear model with intercept),  $\beta$  has the same interpretation in GEEs and GLMMs.
- For binary data,  $\beta$  has different interpretations in GEEs and GLMMs.

# Interpretation of $\beta$ in GEE and GLMM (2)

#### Outside of special cases:

## $\beta$ in GEEs

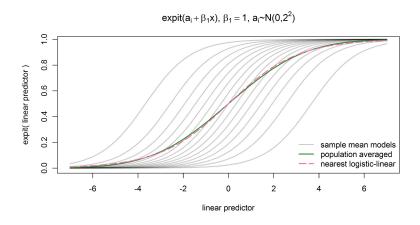
- ullet has population-average interpretation
  - Average evolution of the outcome
- We are asking: What is the log(OR) comparing the exposed population with the unexposed population?

## $oldsymbol{eta}$ in GLMMs

- eta has subject specific interpretation
- The interpretation is conditional on the subject-specific random effects, b<sub>i</sub>
  - ullet eta models evolution of each individual subject separately
- We are asking: What is the log(OR) if the same person were to change from unexposed to exposed?



## Logistic Example of Marginal vs. Conditional



Shamelessly borrowed from Adam

# More on Differences in Interpretation (1)

### Example: Neuhaus, Kalbfleish, and Hauck (1991):

- Study of whether a sample of breast fluid could (Y = 1) or could not (Y = 0) be obtained
- Covariates:

```
X_1 = Dysplasia (breast specific)
```

 $X_2 = Age$ 

 $X_3$  = Age at menarche

 $X_4$  = Indicator for parous (given birth before)

# More on Differences in Interpretation (2)

Example continued: Candidate Modelling Strategies:

Logistic Mixed Model:

$$logitP(Y_{ij} = 1 | \alpha_i, \mathbf{X}_{ij}) = \alpha_i + \beta \mathbf{X}_{ij}$$

 $\beta$  is change in conditional logit of the probability of response with covariate X for individuals in each of the underlying risk groups described by  $\alpha_i$ 

Marginal Model:

$$logitP(Y_{ij} = 1 | \mathbf{X}_{ij}) = \alpha^* + \beta^* \mathbf{X}_{ij}$$

 $\beta^*$  is change in logit of probability of response

# More on Differences in Interpretation (3)

Example continued: Analysis results:

Point estimates (standard errors) of regression coefficients for cluster-specific and population-averaged approaches applied to data on the availability of breast fluid.

Variable	Mixed effects, $\beta_{CS}$	Liang-Zeger, $\beta_{PA}$	Ratio, $\beta_{PA}/\beta_{CS}$
Intercept	-1.951 (2.49)	-0.620 (0.908)	
Dysplasia	0.609 (0.462)	0.208 (0.155)	0.351
Age	0.146 (0.044)	0.050 (0.015)	0.343
Age at menarche	-0·414 (0·172)	-0·147 (0·059)	0.355
Full term birth	1.249 (0.610)	0.435 (0.216)	0.348
std. dev. ( $\alpha_i$ )	4.218 (0.511)	` ,	

# More on Differences in Interpretation (4)

Example continued: Discussion:

"Although the cluster-specific model seems to provide the more unified approach, parameter interpretation in these models is difficult. The cluster-specific model presupposes the existence of latent risk groups indexed by  $b_i$ , and parameter interpretation is with reference to these groups. No empirical verification of this statement can be available from the data unless the latent risk groups can be identified. Since each individual is assumed to have her own latent risk  $b_i$ , the model almost invites an unjustified causal statement about the change in odds of fluid availability for a given woman who ceases to be nulliparous."

# More on Differences in Interpretation (5)

Example continued: Discussion:

"With covariates that vary within clusters, such as dysplasia, the mixed effect model provides a more satisfactory interpretation. The estimated coefficient for dysplasia, however, involves both a within cluster comparison based on differences between breasts for the same woman, and a between cluster comparison of average levels. An alternative and perhaps preferable analysis would partition dysplasia into average level of dysplasia for between cluster comparisions and departures from average for within cluster comparisons and allow separate coefficients for these two covariates. Population-averaged comparisons, on the other hand. make no specific use of within cluster comparisons for cluster varying covariates and substantially underestimate within cluster risks."

# More on Differences in Interpretation (6)

#### Example continued: More Discussion:

- "In population-averaged models, the effects are based on averaging over subpopulations defined in the specific covariates in the model. As one adds covariates the attenuation... will be reduced; the averaging is done over ever-smaller groups with a particular risk group and the corresponding cluster-specific measure of effect as the limit."
- "Cluster-specific models are best equipped to address questions relating to modification of a particular cluster (and hence must be used with caution unless the variable of is cluster varying and experimentally manipulated) since population-averaged models not estimate this effect"

# More on Differences in Interpretation (6)

#### Example continued: More Discussion:

- "The odds ratios cluster-specific and population-averaged models, although quite different in magnitude, are in fact describing exactly the same dependence of risk on the covariates. Neither truly be interpreted or understood without reference to the baseline risk."
- "In the population-averaged case, the baseline risk is simply the proportion of positive responses at the standard level of the covariate"
- "in the cluster-specific case, the baseline risk is in fact a distribution of risks"
- "With this convention, the two analyses provide the same qualitative assessment"