Statistical Methods for Correlated Data

Inference for Random Effects

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Inference for Random effects

- Not the major focus of inference; however, it may be important to predict individual trajectories (e.g., new patient in a trial) and for model checking
- Several approaches; here we follow an Empirical Bayes approach
- Starting point: "Mixed effects" is a misnomer in a Bayesian approach, we can look at the marginal posterior of b_i

• Consider the LMM,

$$y_i = x_i \beta + z_i b_i + \epsilon_i$$

with \boldsymbol{b}_i and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$ independent, $\boldsymbol{b}_i | \boldsymbol{D} \sim_{iid} \mathbf{N}_{q+1}(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{D})$ and $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \sim_{ind} \mathbf{N}_{n_i} \left(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \mathbf{I} \right), \ \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \left[\sigma_{\epsilon}^2, \boldsymbol{D} \right].$

• Then, the posterior

$$p(\boldsymbol{b}|\boldsymbol{y}) = \iint p(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}|\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{\beta} d\boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

In the expression within the integral, we focus first on the (full) conditional of b_i ,

$$p\left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{y}_{i},\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{\alpha}\right) \propto p\left(\boldsymbol{y}_{i}|\boldsymbol{b}_{i},\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{\alpha}\right) \times \pi\left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}\right)$$

$$\propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\epsilon}^{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{y}_{i}^{\star}-\boldsymbol{z}_{i}\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}\left(\boldsymbol{y}_{i}^{\star}-\boldsymbol{z}_{i}\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\right)-\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{b}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{D}^{-1}\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\right]$$

where $\boldsymbol{y}_{i}^{\star} = \boldsymbol{y}_{i} - \boldsymbol{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}$, so that

$$\boldsymbol{b}_{i} | \boldsymbol{y}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \sim \mathbf{N}_{q+1} \left[\mathbf{E} \left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i} | \boldsymbol{y}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \right), \text{var} \left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i} | \boldsymbol{y}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} \right) \right]$$

One can show

$$\hat{m{b}}_i = \mathrm{E}\left[m{b}_i|m{y}_i,m{eta},m{lpha}
ight] = m{D}m{z}_i^{\mathrm{T}}m{V}_i^{-1}\left(m{y}_i-m{x}_im{eta}
ight)$$

and

$$\operatorname{var}\left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{y}_{i},\boldsymbol{eta},\boldsymbol{lpha}\right)=\boldsymbol{D}-\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}\boldsymbol{D}$$

- See Problem 8.4 in the textbook
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{b}}_i$ can be derived under many different formulations
- Here we note that a maximizer (MAP estimate) of $p(\boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\alpha} | \boldsymbol{y})$ is also a maximizer of $p(\boldsymbol{b} | \boldsymbol{y})$

Empirical Bayes Approach for prediction of random effects

- We can predict b_i using empirical estimates for β, α
- For β we can take the GLS estimator $\hat{\beta}_G$ (justified as the maximizer of the posterior when β is given an improper flat prior)
- Then,

$$egin{aligned} \hat{m{b}}_i &= \mathrm{E}\left[m{b}_i|m{y},m{lpha}
ight] = \mathrm{E}_{eta|m{y},m{lpha}}\left[\mathrm{E}\left(m{b}_i|m{eta},m{y},m{lpha}
ight)
ight] \ &= m{D}m{z}_i^{\mathrm{T}}m{V}_i^{-1}\left(m{y}_i-m{x}_i\widehat{m{eta}}_{\mathrm{G}}
ight) \end{aligned}$$

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ight] \ &= m{D}m{z}_i^{\mathrm{T}}m{V}_i^{-1}\left(m{y}_i - m{x}_i\widehat{m{eta}}_{\mathrm{G}}
ight) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{var}\left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{\alpha}\right) &= \mathbf{E}_{\beta|y,\alpha}\left[\operatorname{var}\left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{\alpha}\right)\right] + \operatorname{var}_{\beta|y,\alpha}\left(\mathbf{E}\left[\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{\beta},\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{\alpha}\right]\right) \\ &= \mathbf{E}_{\beta|y,\alpha}\left[\boldsymbol{D} - \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}\boldsymbol{D}\right] + \operatorname{var}_{\beta|y,\alpha}\left(\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\left(\boldsymbol{y}_{i} - \boldsymbol{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}\right)\right) \\ &= \boldsymbol{D} - \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}\boldsymbol{D} + \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}\right)^{-1}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\boldsymbol{z}_{i}\boldsymbol{D} \end{aligned}$$

• For α we use a consistent estimator, say $\hat{\alpha}$ so that one can substitute $\hat{D} = D(\hat{\alpha})$ and $\hat{V} = V(\hat{\alpha})$ in the previous expressions.



- The implications of the substitution of $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_G$ are not consequential, since it is an unbiased estimator and appears in the previous expressions in a linear fashion.
- Given correct specification of the marginal variance model, $var(Y|\alpha) = V(\alpha)$, and a consistent estimator of α , then \hat{b}_i is asymptotically normal
- From a frequentist perspective, \hat{b}_i is known as the best (empirical) linear unbiased predictor (empirical BLUP), where unbiased refers to it satisfying $\mathrm{E}\left[\hat{b}_i\right] = \mathrm{E}\left[b_i\right]$.

• Consider the expression for the predicted response profile of the *i*-th individual:

$$egin{aligned} \hat{m{Y}}_i &= m{x}_i\,\hat{m{eta}} + m{z}_i\,\hat{m{b}}_i \ &= m{x}_i\,\hat{m{eta}}_G + m{z}_i\hat{m{D}}m{z}_i^{
m T}\hat{m{V}}_i^{-1}\left(m{y}_i - m{x}_i\widehat{m{eta}}_G
ight) \ &= \left(I_{n_i} - m{z}_i\hat{m{D}}m{z}_i^{
m T}\hat{m{V}}_i^{-1}
ight)m{x}_i\hat{m{eta}}_G + m{z}_i\hat{m{D}}m{z}_i^{
m T}\hat{m{V}}_i^{-1}m{y}_i \end{aligned}$$

Let $\hat{\mathbf{V}}_i = \mathbf{z}_i \hat{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{z}_i^T + \Sigma_i$ with $\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_i = \hat{\sigma}^2 I_{n_i}$ typically or $\Sigma_i = \sigma^2 R_i$ more in general. The term $\mathbf{z}_i \hat{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{z}_i^T$ explains the heterogeneity across individuals, while the term Σ_i explains within-individual measurement error and serial correlation. Then,

$$\hat{m{V}_i} \hat{m{V}_i}^{-1} = I_{n_i} = (m{z}_i \hat{m{D}} m{z}_i^T + \hat{\sigma}^2 \, I_{n_i}) \, \hat{m{V}_i}^{-1} = m{z}_i \hat{m{D}} m{z}_i^T \, \hat{m{V}_i}^{-1} + \hat{\sigma}^2 \, \hat{m{V}_i}^{-1}$$

• So,

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{Y}}_i = \hat{\sigma}^2 \, \hat{\boldsymbol{V}}_i^{-1} \boldsymbol{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_G + \left(I_{n_i} - \hat{\sigma}^2 \, \hat{\boldsymbol{V}}_i^{-1} \right) \boldsymbol{Y}_i$$



$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_i = \hat{\sigma}^2 \, \hat{\mathbf{V}}_i^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_G + \left(I_{n_i} - \hat{\sigma}^2 \, \hat{\mathbf{V}}_i^{-1} \right) \mathbf{Y}_i$$

- The BLUP estimator shrinks the *i*-the subject response profile toward the population-averaged mean response profile.
- The amount of "shrinkage" toward the population depends on the relative magnitude of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (more, in general, R_i , within-subject variability) and \hat{V}_i which incorporates both within-subject and between-subject sources of variability.
- If R_i is relatively "large," the within-subject variability is greater than the between-subject variability, more weight is assigned to $X_i\widehat{\beta}_G$, the estimated population-averaged mean response profile, than to the i^{th} -individual's observed responses.
- If the between-subject variability is large relative to the within-subject variability, more weight is given to the i^{th} -subject's observed responses, Y_i .

- Intuitively, this weighting scheme is quite sensible since greater weight should be given to the i^{th} -individual's observed responses when any within-subject variability in the longitudinal responses (e.g., due to measurement error) is relatively small when compared to the natural heterogeneity in the individual-specific longitudinal response trajectories.
- On the other hand, less weight should be given to the i^{th} individual's observed responses when the within-subject variability is relatively large and the population is relatively homogeneous.
- Finally, the amount of "shrinkage" toward the population mean depends also on n_i the number of observation on the i^{th} subject. In general, there is more shrinkage toward the population mean curve when n_i is small. Intuitively, this is also quite sensible since less weight should be given to the i^{th} individual's observed responses when fewer data points are available.