Models for longitudinal data

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Studying changes over time

- Longitudinal data: Studying changes over time.
- Exploratory data analysis.
- Introduction to multilevel models.
- Formulation and interpretation of the models.
- Implementation in R.
- Statistical inference
 - Fixed effects
 - Random effects

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Studying changes over time

- Changes over time play pivotal role in science.
- Original ideas
 - \Rightarrow British astronomer George Biddel Airy 1861.
 - ⇒ Laird and Ware (1982): Life sciences.
 - ⇒ Goldstein (1979): Humanities.
- Computing power and software available in the 1990s.
- Synthesis: Intra and inter individual changes need to be modeled.

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Different names similar models

- Individual growth models.
- Random coefficient models.
- Multilevel models.
- Mixed models.
- Hierarchical (linear) models.
- Growth curve models.

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Why multilevel?

- Level 1: Changes within individuals.
 - \Rightarrow Can we describe the time evolution for each individual with a linear function?
- Level 2: Changes between individuals.
 - \Rightarrow Are the individuals different at the beginning of the study?
 - ⇒ Do they evolve differently over time?

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Distinguishing quality

Longitudinal Studies: Repeated measurements over time (Waves)

- \Rightarrow Metric: Time, age, weeks since treated...
- \Rightarrow Spacing: Equal time intervals?
- ⇒ Time structure: All individual measured at the same time points?
- ⇒ Balanced: Same number of measurements for all individuals?

Cross-Sectional Studies: Only one measurement per subject. Nothing can be concluded about time changes.

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Effect of early dietary intervention on children IQ



- 103 African American, low income families. Randomized to
 - 58 early intervention program.
 - 45 control group.
- Evaluated on ages 12, 18, and 24 months.
- Research question: Effect of the early intervention on the evolution of cognitive performance?

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Effect of early dietary intervention on children IQ

id	program	age	cog
1	1	1.00	106.98
1	1	1.50	98.31
1	1	2.00	92.91
2	1	1.00	108.86
2	1	1.50	100.29
2	1	2.00	85.30
3	1	1.00	112.52
3	1	1.50	96.77
3	1	2.00	83.43
4	1	1.00	90.24
4	1	1.50	85.27
4	1	2.00	76.41
5	1	1.00	105.71
5	1	1.50	102.40
5	1	2.00	88.79
6	1	1.00	93.89
6	1	1.50	85.10
6	1	2.00	76.66
7	1	1.00	109.94
:	:	:	:

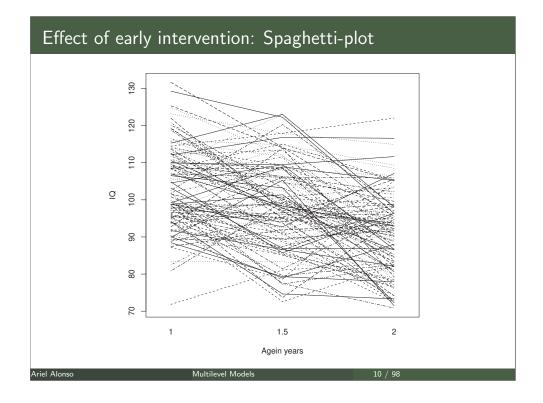
- Fully balanced: Age=1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 years.
- PROGRAM: 1-intervention, 0-control.
- COG is a nationally normed scale.

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Exploratory analysis

- Spaghettiplot: Individual profiles. Points are joined with lines.
- Descriptive tables.
- Box plots.
- Mean plots.
- Individual regressions.

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Spaghettiplot: R code

```
Let us get started with R:

> ## Reading in the early.int data
>
> early.int1 <- read.table("earlyint.txt", header=T, sep=",")
>
> ## Attach data to the search path
>
> attach(early.int1)
>
> ## Spaghettiplot
>
> n=length(unique(id))
> interaction.plot(age,id,cog, xlab="Agein years", ylab="IQ", + legend=F)
>
```

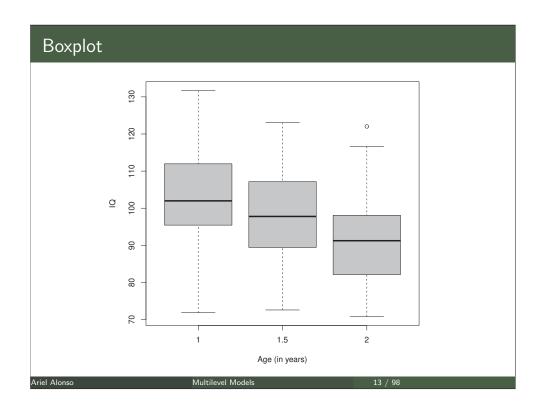
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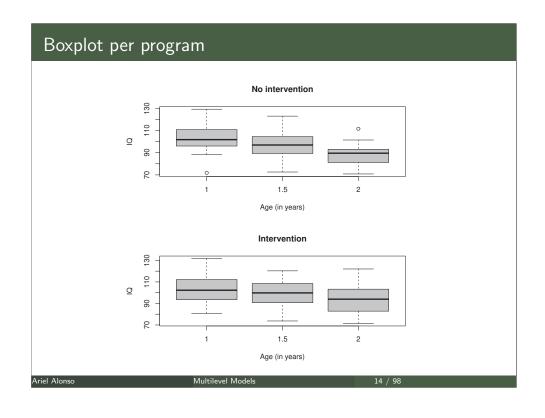
Means per time point and group

			Program	
			0	1
Age	Resp	Statistics		
1	IQ	n Mean Sd	45 103.93 11.01	58 102.93 11.78
1.5	IQ	n Mean Sd	45 96.91 11.93	58 99.18 12.02
2	IQ	n Mean Sd	45 87.68 9.05	58 92.99 12.13

```
> ## Descriptives
>
## Mean:
> early.mean=tapply(cog,list(age,program),mean)
>
> ## Standard deviation:
> early.sd=tapply(cog,list(age,program),sd)
>
> ## Variance:
> early.var=tapply(cog,list(age,program),var)
>
> ## Frequency:
> early.n=table(age,program)
>
```

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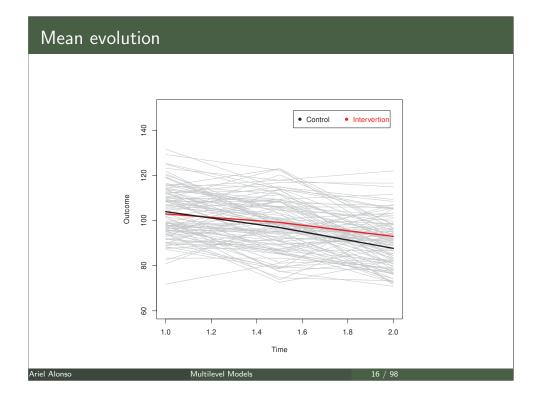


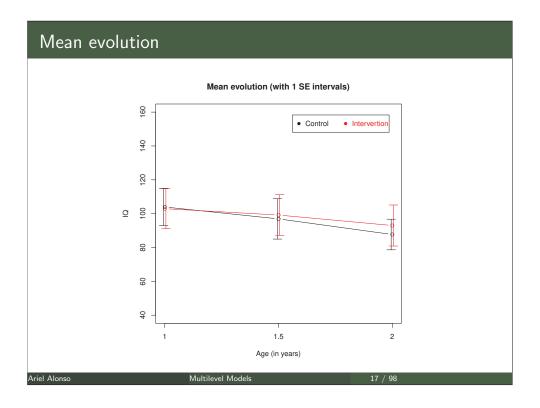


R code

```
> ## Boxplots:
> boxplot(cog~age,xlab="Age (in years)",ylab="IQ")
> ## Boxplots per program
> par(mfrow=c(2,1))
> boxplot(cog[program==0]~age[program==0],main="No intervention", + main="No intervention",xlab="Age (in years)",ylab="IQ")
> boxplot(cog[program==1]~age[program==1],main="Intervention", + main="No intervention",xlab="Age (in years)",ylab="IQ")
>
```

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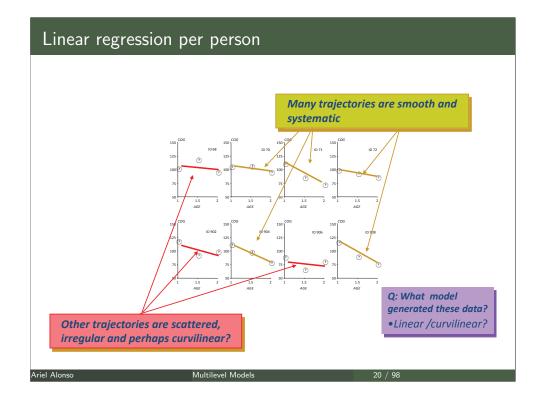




R code

```
General function to plot error bars
  errbar=function(x,y,height,width,lty=1,col="black")
  arrows(x,y,x,y+height,angle=90,length=width,lty=lty,
  arrows(x,y,x,y-height,angle=90,length=width,lty=lty,
  col=col)
  > ## Plotting mean evolutions
  > plot(age[id==1],early.mean[,1],type="b",xlim=c(1,2),
  + ylim=c(40,160),xlab="Age (in years)",ylab="IQ",axes=F,
  + main="Mean evolution (with 1 SE intervals)")
  > axis(side=1,at=c(1,1.5,2),labels=c(1,1.5,2))
  > axis(side=2,at=seq(40,160,20))
 > box()
  > points(age[id==1],early.mean[,2],type="b",col="red")
  > errbar(age[id==1]-.005,early.mean[,1],early.sd[,1],.1)
  > errbar(age[id==1]+.005,early.mean[,2],early.sd[,2],.1,col="red")
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```

```
Correlations: R code
  > ## Reshaping the data into a wide form
  > early.int2 <- reshape(early.int1,
  + timevar = "age", idvar = c("id", "program"), direction = "wide")
  > early.int2
                      cog.1 cog.1.5
                                          cog.2
       id program
       1 1 106.98289 98.31060 92.91342
2 1 108.86019 100.29307 85.29502
  1
               1 112.52438 96.76684 83.42649
               1 90.24428 85.27380 76.41052
  4
               1 105.70738 102.39839 88.78872
1 93.88987 85.09601 76.66209
       6
  > ## Correlation between the IQ scores at different ages
  > cor(early.int2[,3:5])
              cog.1 cog.1.5
                                 cog.2
  cog.1 1.0000000 0.5816070 0.3263912
  cog.1.5 0.5816070 1.0000000 0.4371109
  cog.2 0.3263912 0.4371109 1.0000000
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```



Linear regression per person

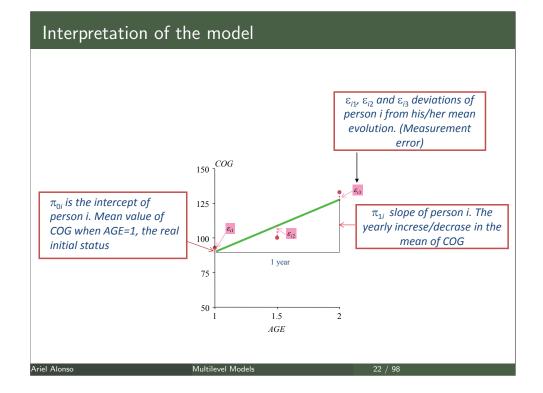
Model

Model for subject i

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

- Y_{ij} denotes COG for subject i at Age_{ij} .
- π_{0i} intercept for subject i at $Age_{ij} = 1$.
- π_{1i} slope for subject i.
- ε_{ij} error term $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$.

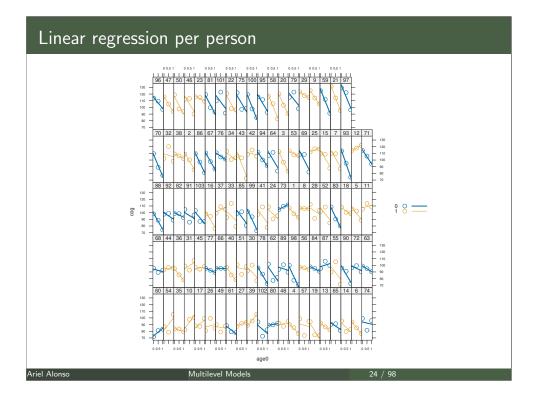
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Linear regression per person: Trellis graph

- The aspect ratio of the panels (ratio of the height to the width) chosen according to an algorithm described in Cleveland (1993) to facilitate comparison of slopes
- \bullet The effect is to have the slopes of the lines on the page distributed around $\pm 45,$ thereby making it easier to detect systematic changes in slopes
- The panels have been ordered (from left to right starting at the bottom row) by increasing intercept
- If there were a correlation between initial status (intercept) and rate of change (slope) then slopes would show an increasing trend (or a decreasing trend) in the left to right, bottom to top ordering.

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Linear regression per person: R code

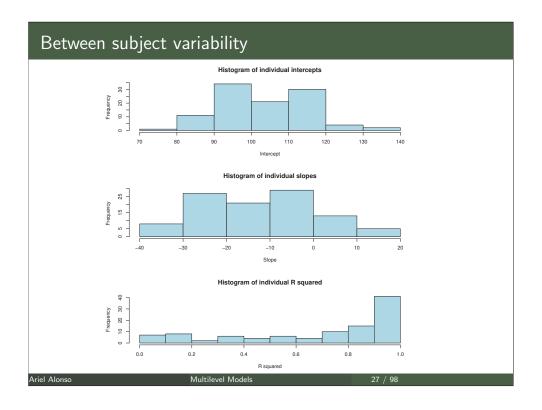
```
>## Creating the time variable
>
early.int1$age0<-early.int1$age-1
>
    ## Displaying the linear regression per person
>
    coef(lm(cog~age0, data=subset(early.int1, id==x))))
>
    Sx<-reorder(early.int1$id, cf[1,])
>
    xyplot(cog~age0|Sx,groups=program,data=early.int1, type=c('p','r'),auto.key=T,aspect="xy", par.settings=list(axis.text=list(cex=0.6), fontsize=list(text=8, points=10)), scales=list(
    x=list(
    at=c(0,0.5,1), labels=c("0","0.5","1")))
}
```

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Linear regression per person: R code

```
> ## Linear regression per participant of cog on age
>
> ## Coefficients
> lin.reg.coef <- by(early.int1, early.int1$id,
+ function(data) coef(lm(cog ~ age0, data=data)))
> lin.reg.coef1 <- unlist(lin.reg.coef)
> names(lin.reg.coef1) <- NULL
> lin.reg.coef2=matrix(lin.reg.coef1,length(lin.reg.coef1)/2,2,byrow = TRUE)
> ## R squared
> lin.reg.r.squared <- by(early.int1, early.int1$id,
+ function(data) summary(lm(cog ~ age, data=data))$r.squared )
lin.reg.r.squared1<- as.vector(unlist(lin.reg.r.squared))
> ## Histograms
> par(mfrow=c(3,1))
> hist(lin.reg.coef2[,1],xlab="Intercept",col="lightblue",main="Histogram of individual intercepts")
> hist(lin.reg.coef2[,2],xlab="Slope",col="lightblue",main="Histogram of individual R squared")
> hist(lin.reg.r.squared1,xlab="R squared",col="lightblue",main="Histogram of individual R squared")
```

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Multilevel models

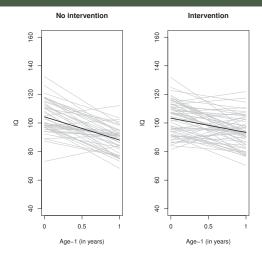
Level 1

$$Y_{ij} = \boxed{\pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1)} + \boxed{\varepsilon_{ij}}$$

- ⇒ Structural part of the level 1. How individuals evolve.
- \Rightarrow Random part of Level 1. How individuals deviate from their own evolution.
- \Rightarrow Why do π_{0i} and π_{1i} vary?
- \Rightarrow Is due to the effect of the intervention program?

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Multilevel models



- \Rightarrow Program is not the entire story.
- ⇒ How can we handle the unexplained variability?

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Linear regression per person and group: R code

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Multilevel models

Level 1

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$
 $arepsilon_{ij} \sim \textit{N}(0, \sigma_{arepsilon}^2)$

Level 2

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} PROG_i + b_{0i} & \text{explaining the intercept} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} PROG_i + b_{1i} & \text{explaining the slope} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_0^2 & \sigma_{01} \\ \sigma_{01} & \sigma_1^2 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Parameters interpretation

Symbol Definition

- σ_0^2 Level 2 residual variance in true intercept π_{0i} across all individuals in the population, after controlling for program participation
- σ_1^2 Level 2 residual variance in true slope π_{1i} across all individuals in the population, after controlling for program participation
- σ_{01} Level 2 residual covariance between true intercept π_{0i} and slope π_{1i} across all individuals in the population, after controlling for program participation

Explaining variation:

$$\begin{cases} \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} PROG_i + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} PROG_i + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

Control Group $PROG_i = 0$

$$\begin{cases} \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

Intervention Group $PROG_i = 1$

$$\begin{cases} \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

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Parameters interpretation

Symbol	Definition
--------	------------

- σ_0^2 Level 2 residual variance in true intercept π_{0i} across all individuals in the population, after controlling for program participation
- $\sigma_1^2 \quad \text{Level 2 residual variance in true} \\ \text{slope } \pi_{1i} \text{ across all individuals} \\ \text{in the population, after controlling for program participation}$
- σ_{01} Level 2 residual covariance between true intercept π_{0i} and slope π_{1i} across all individuals in the population, after controlling for program participation

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix} \sim \textit{N} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_0^2 & \sigma_{01} \\ \sigma_{01} & \sigma_1^2 \end{pmatrix} \right]$$

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Final model

Hierarchical model

$$\begin{cases} Y_{ij} = & \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij} \\ \pi_{0i} = & \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}PROG_{i} + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = & \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}PROG_{i} + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

Distributional assumptions

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \varepsilon_{ij} \sim & \textit{N}(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2) \\ \begin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix} \sim & \textit{N}\left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{0}^2 & \sigma_{01} \\ \sigma_{01} & \sigma_{1}^2 \end{pmatrix}\right] \end{array} \right.$$

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One single model

Model

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} PROG_i + \gamma_{10} (Age_{ij} - 1) + \gamma_{11} PROG_i (Age_{ij} - 1) + b_{0i} + b_{1i} (Age_{ij} - 1) +$$
 $arepsilon_{ij}$

Distributional Assumptions

$$egin{aligned} arepsilon_{ij} \sim & \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma_{arepsilon}^2) \ egin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix} \sim & \mathcal{N}\left[egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}, egin{pmatrix} \sigma_0^2 & \sigma_{01} \ \sigma_{01} & \sigma_1^2 \end{pmatrix}
ight] \end{aligned}$$

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One single model

Model

Fixed effects
$$Y_{ij} = \overbrace{\gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} PROG_i + \gamma_{10} (Age_{ij} - 1) + \gamma_{11} PROG_i (Age_{ij} - 1)}_{\text{Fixed effects}} + b_{0i} + b_{1i} (Age_{ij} - 1) + \rightarrow \text{Random effects}$$

$$\varepsilon_{ij} \rightarrow \text{Error}$$

Distributional Assumptions

$$\begin{split} \varepsilon_{ij} \sim & N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2) \\ \begin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix} \sim & N \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{0}^2 & \sigma_{01} \\ \sigma_{01} & \sigma_{1}^2 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

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Expected evolution: Control

Control group $PROG_i = 0$

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(Age_{ij} - 1) + b_{0i} + b_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$\mathsf{E}(Y_{ii}|PROG_i = 0) = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(Age_{ii} - 1)$$

Intervention group $PROG_i = 1$

$$Y_{ij} = (\gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}) + (\gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11})(Age_{ij} - 1) + b_{0i} + b_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$\mathsf{E}\left(Y_{ij}|PROG_i = 1\right) = (\gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}) + (\gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11})(Age_{ij} - 1)$$

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Hypotheses of interest

Hierarchical model

$$\begin{cases} Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij} \\ \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}PROG_{i} + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}PROG_{i} + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

Hypotheses of interest

$$H_0: \gamma_{01} = 0 \quad H_1: \gamma_{01} \neq 0$$

$$H_0: \gamma_{11} = 0 \quad H_1: \gamma_{11} \neq 0$$

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Fitting the model

Model

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}PROG_i + \gamma_{10}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \gamma_{11}PROG_i(Age_{ij} - 1) + b_{0i} + b_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

- ⇒ Parameters are estimated via
 - Maximum likelihood (ML).
 - Restricted maximum likelihood (REML).
 - What is that?
- ⇒ R: Imer (packages: nlme, lme4 or arm)

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A 2-stage Model Formulation: A bit of theory

Stage 1

- Response Y_{ij} for ith subject, measured at time t_{ij} , $i=1,\ldots,N$, $j=1,\ldots,n_i$
- Response vector Y_i for ith subject: $Y_i = (Y_{i1}, Y_{i2}, \dots, Y_{in_i})^t$
- Stage 1 model:

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$$

- Z_i is a $(n_i \times q)$ matrix of known covariates
- ullet eta_i is a q-dimensional vector of subject-specific regression coefficients
- $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \Sigma_i)$, often $\Sigma_i = \sigma^2 I_{n_i}$
- Note that the above model describes the observed variability within subjects

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Dietary intervention example

The 1-stage model

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

can be rewritten in matrix form as

$$\mathbf{Y}_{i} = \mathbf{Z}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{i} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{i}$$

where

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} Y_{i1} \\ Y_{i2} \\ Y_{i3} \end{pmatrix}}_{i} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & Age_{i1} - 1 \\ 1 & Age_{i2} - 1 \\ 1 & Age_{i3} - 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{i} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \pi_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} \end{pmatrix}}_{i} + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_{i1} \\ \epsilon_{i2} \\ \epsilon_{i3} \end{pmatrix}}_{i}$$

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A 2-stage Model Formulation: A bit of theory

Stage 2

- ullet Between-subject variability can now be studied from relating the eta_i to known covariates
- Stage 2 model:

$$\boldsymbol{eta}_i = \boldsymbol{K}_i \boldsymbol{eta} + \boldsymbol{b}_i$$

- K_i is a $(q \times p)$ matrix of known covariates
- ullet eta is a p-dimensional vector of unknown regression parameters
- $b_i \sim N(0, D)$

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Dietary intervention example

The 2-stage model

$$\begin{cases} \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} PROG_i + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} PROG_i + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

can be rewritten in matrix form as

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_i = \boldsymbol{K}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{b}_i$$

where

$$\frac{\beta_{i}}{\begin{pmatrix} \pi_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} \end{pmatrix}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & PROG_{i} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & PROG_{i} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{K}_{i}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{00} \\ \gamma_{01} \\ \gamma_{10} \\ \gamma_{11} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{K}_{i}} + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{K}_{i}}$$

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The general linear mixed-effects model

- A 2-stage approach can be performed explicitly in the analysis
- Combining the two stages into one model leads to:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{Y}_i &= \mathbf{Z}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_i &= \mathbf{K}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}_i \end{cases}$$

ullet and plugging eta_i into the expression for $oldsymbol{Y}_i$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{Y}_{i} = \underbrace{\mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{K}_{i}}_{\mathbf{X}_{i}}\beta + \mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{b}_{i} + \varepsilon_{i} = \mathbf{X}_{i}\beta + \mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{b}_{i} + \varepsilon_{i}$$

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The general linear mixed-effects model

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \boldsymbol{Y}_i = \boldsymbol{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{Z}_i\boldsymbol{b}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_i} \\ \\ \boldsymbol{b}_i \sim N(0,\boldsymbol{D}), \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_i} \sim N(0,\boldsymbol{\Sigma_i}), \\ \\ \boldsymbol{b}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{b}_N,\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_1},\ldots,\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_N} \text{ independent} \end{array} \right.$$

- Terminology:
 - Fixed effects: β
 - Random effects: **b**_i
 - Variance components: elements in D and Σ_i

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Hierarchical versus marginal model

• The general linear mixed model (LMM) is given by:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \boldsymbol{Y}_i = \boldsymbol{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{Z}_i \boldsymbol{b}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_i} \\ \\ \boldsymbol{b}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{D}), \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma_i}), \\ \\ \boldsymbol{b}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{b}_N, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_N} \text{ independent} \end{array} \right.$$

• It can be rewritten as:

$$f(\mathbf{Y}_i|\mathbf{b}_i) = N(\mathbf{X}_i\beta + \mathbf{Z}_i\mathbf{b}_i, \Sigma_i),$$

 $f(\mathbf{b}_i) = N(0, \mathbf{D})$

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Hierarchical versus marginal model

• It is therefore also called a hierarchical model:

• A model for Y_i given b_i : $f(Y_i|b_i)$

• A model for b_i : $f(b_i)$

• Marginally, we have that Y_i is distributed as:

$$f(\boldsymbol{Y}_i) = \int f(\boldsymbol{Y}_i|\boldsymbol{b}_i)f(\boldsymbol{b}_i) d\boldsymbol{b}_i = N(\boldsymbol{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{Z}_i\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{Z}_i' + \Sigma_i)$$

• Hence, very specific assumptions are made about the dependence of the mean and covariance on the covariates X_i and Z_i :

• Implied mean : $X_i\beta$

• Implied covariance : $V_i = Z_i D Z'_i + \Sigma_i$

• The hierarchical model always implies a marginal one, NOT vice versa

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Estimation of the Marginal Model

• Recall that the general linear mixed model equals

$$\mathbf{Y}_{i} = \mathbf{X}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{b}_{i} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{i}$$

$$\left. egin{aligned} m{b}_i &\sim N(0, m{D}) \ m{arepsilon}_i &\sim N(0, m{\Sigma}_i) \end{aligned}
ight.
ight. \ ext{independent}$$

• The implied marginal model equals

$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim N(\mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_i' + \Sigma_i)$$

 Inferences based on the marginal model do not explicitly assume the presence of random effects representing the natural heterogeneity between subjects

Ariel Alonso Multilevel Models 4

Estimation of the Marginal Model

- Notation:
 - β : vector of fixed effects (as before)
 - α : vector of all variance components in **D** and Σ_i
 - $oldsymbol{ heta} heta = (oldsymbol{eta}', lpha')'$: vector of all parameters in marginal model
- Marginal likelihood function:

$$L_{ML}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ (2\pi)^{-n_i/2} \left| \boldsymbol{V}_i(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) \right|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\boldsymbol{Y}_i - \boldsymbol{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} \right)' \boldsymbol{V}_i^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) \left(\boldsymbol{Y}_i - \boldsymbol{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} \right) \right] \right\}$$

ullet If lpha were known, MLE of eta equals

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(\alpha) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{X}_{i}' \boldsymbol{W}_{i} \boldsymbol{X}_{i}\right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{X}_{i}' \boldsymbol{W}_{i} \boldsymbol{y}_{i},$$

where \boldsymbol{W}_i equals \boldsymbol{V}_i^{-1} .

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Estimation of the Marginal Model

- ullet In most cases, lpha is not known, and needs to be replaced by an estimate \widehat{lpha}
- Two frequently used estimation methods for α :
 - Maximum likelihood
 - Restricted maximum likelihood

Ariel Alonso Multilevel Models 49 / 98

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (ML)

ullet \widehat{lpha}_{ML} obtained from maximizing

$$L_{ML}(\alpha, \widehat{eta}(lpha))$$

with respect to lpha

- ullet The resulting estimate $\widehat{eta}(\widehat{lpha}_{\mathit{ML}})$ for eta will be denoted by $\widehat{eta}_{\mathit{ML}}$
- $\widehat{\alpha}_{ML}$ and $\widehat{\beta}_{ML}$ can also be obtained from maximizing $L_{ML}(\theta)$ with respect to θ , i.e., with respect to α and β simultaneously.

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Restricted Maximum Likelihood Estimation (REML)

• We first combine all models

$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim N(\mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{V}_i)$$

into one model

$$Y \sim N(X\beta, V)$$

in which

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{Y}_N \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_N \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{V}(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{V}_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \mathbf{V}_N \end{pmatrix}$$

• The data are transformed orthogonal to \boldsymbol{X} ($\boldsymbol{A}'\boldsymbol{X}=0$):

$$\boldsymbol{U} = \boldsymbol{A}' \boldsymbol{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{A}' \boldsymbol{V}(\alpha) \boldsymbol{A})$$

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Restricted Maximum Likelihood Estimation (REML)

- ullet The MLE of lpha, based on \emph{U} , is called the REML estimate and is denoted by $\widehat{lpha}_{\it REML}$
- ullet The resulting estimate $\widehat{eta}(\widehat{lpha}_{\it REML})$ for eta will be denoted by $\widehat{eta}_{\it REML}$
- ullet \widehat{lpha}_{REML} and \widehat{eta}_{REML} can also be obtained from maximizing

$$L_{REML}(\theta) = \left| \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{X}_{i}' \mathbf{W}_{i}(\alpha) \mathbf{X}_{i} \right|^{-\frac{1}{2}} L_{ML}(\theta)$$

with respect to θ , i.e., with respect to α and β simultaneously.

• $L_{REML}\left(\alpha,\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(\alpha)\right)$ is the likelihood of the error contrasts \boldsymbol{U} , and is often called the REML likelihood function. It is **NOT** the likelihood for the original data \boldsymbol{Y}

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Restricted versus Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- The MLE is negatively biased for the estimation of variance components, but the bias gets smaller for larger sample sizes (asymptotically unbiased)
- **REML** is **unbiased** for the estimation of **variance components** and, therefore, it may be a better option for small sample sizes
- Likelihood ratio tests (LRT) based on REML require exactly the same fixed effects specification in both models (Why?). So, comparing models with different fixed effects (a common scenario) using an LRT, requires ML

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Fitting the model: R code

```
> ## Installing the packages
> install.packages("lme4")
> install.packages("arm")
> install.packages("nlme")
> ## Loading the packages
> library(lme4)
> library(lme4)
> library(nlme)
> library(car)
> library(car)
> ## Creating the time variable
> early.int1$age0<-early.int1$age-1
> ## Fitting the model with ML
> early.lmer1<-lmer(cog~1+age0*program+(1 + age0|id), REML = FALSE, data=early.int1)</pre>
```

R code: Remarks

- (1 + age0|id) subject specific part: $b_{0i} + b_{1i}(Age_{ij} 1)$
- Intercept is default: (age0|id)
- age0 * program: Fixed effects

$$\gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} PROG_i + \gamma_{10} (Age_{ij} - 1) + \gamma_{11} PROG_i (Age_{ij} - 1)$$

- Default estimation procedure is REML.
- *REML* = *FALSE* calculates MLE!

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```
> summary(early.lmer1)
Linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood ['lmerMod']
Formula: cog ~ 1 + age0 * program + (1 + age0 | id)
Data: early.int1

AIC BIC logLik deviance df.resid
2332.5 2362.4 -1158.3 2316.5 301

Scaled residuals:

Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-2.25361 -0.59088 0.02132 0.56849 2.29366

Random effects:
Groups Name Variance Std.Dev. Corr
id (Intercept) 84.02 9.166
age0 39.44 6.280 -0.55
Residual 60.31 7.766
Number of obs: 309, groups: id, 103

Fixed effects:

Estimate Std. Error t value
(Intercept) 104.3007 1.7274 60.38
age0 -16.2555 1.8860 -8.62
program -0.9646 2.3020 -0.42
age0:program 6.3187 2.5133 2.51
```

Correlation of Fixed Effects:

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R Output

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Inference for the Fixed Effects

• Estimate for β :

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{X}_{i}' \boldsymbol{W}_{i} \boldsymbol{X}_{i}\right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{X}_{i}' \boldsymbol{W}_{i} \boldsymbol{y}_{i},$$

where $oldsymbol{W}_i = oldsymbol{V}_i^{-1}(lpha)$ and lpha replaced by its ML or REML estimate

• Conditional on α , $\widehat{\beta}(\alpha)$ is asymptotically multivariate normal with mean β and covariance

$$\mathsf{Var}(\widehat{oldsymbol{eta}}(oldsymbol{lpha})) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} oldsymbol{X}_i' oldsymbol{W}_i oldsymbol{X}_i
ight)^{-1}$$

ullet In practice one again replaces lpha by its ML or REML estimate

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Approximate Wald Test

• For any known matrix L, consider testing

$$H_0: \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} = 0$$
, versus $H_A: \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} \neq 0$

• Wald test statistic:

$$G = \widehat{\beta}' \mathbf{L}' \left[\mathbf{L} \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{X}_{i}' \mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1}(\alpha) \mathbf{X}_{i} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{L}'}_{\text{Var}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^{-1}} \mathbf{L}' \right]^{-1} \mathbf{L} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

 \bullet Conditional on α the asymptotic null distribution of G is χ^2 with ${\rm rank}(L)$ degrees of freedom

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Approximate t-test and F-test

Wald test based on

$$\mathsf{Var}(\widehat{oldsymbol{eta}}(oldsymbol{lpha})) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} oldsymbol{X}_i' oldsymbol{W}_i oldsymbol{X}_i
ight)^{-1}$$

- ullet In practice lpha is replaced by an estimate but...
- ullet The variability introduced from replacing lpha by some estimate is not taken into account in Wald tests
- Therefore, Wald tests will only provide valid inferences in sufficiently large samples
- This is often solved by replacing the χ^2 distribution by an appropriate F-distribution (and the normal by a t).

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Approximate t-test and F-test

• For any known matrix L, consider testing

$$H_0: \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} = 0$$
, versus $H_A: \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} \neq 0$

• F test statistic:

$$F = \frac{\widehat{\beta}' \mathbf{L}' \left[\mathbf{L} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{X}'_{i} \mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1}(\widehat{\alpha}) \mathbf{X}_{i} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{L}' \right]^{-1} \mathbf{L} \widehat{\beta}}{\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{L})}.$$

 Approximate null-distribution of F is F with numerator degrees of freedom equal to rank(L)

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Approximate *t*-test and *F*-test

- Approximate null-distribution of F is F with numerator degrees of freedom equal to rank(L)
- Denominator degrees of freedom to be estimated from the data:
 - Satterthwaite approximation
 - Kenward and Roger approximation
 - . . .
- In the context of longitudinal data, all methods typically lead to large numbers of degrees of freedom, and therefore also to very similar p-values.
- For univariate hypotheses (rank(L) = 1) the F-test reduces to a t-test

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Testing fixed effects in LMM

Perhaps I can try again to explain why I don't quote p-values or, more to the point, why I do not take the "obviously correct" approach of attempting to reproduce the results provided by SAS. Let me just say that, although there are those who feel that the purpose of the R Project - indeed the purpose of any statistical computing whatsoever - is to reproduce the p-values provided by SAS, I am not a member of that group.

Douglas Bates at $\left[R\right]$ Imer, p-values and all that

https://stat.ethz.ch/pipermail/r-help/2006-May/094765.html

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Testing fixed effects in LMM

Most of the research on tests for the fixed-effects specification in a mixed model begin with the **assumption** that these statistics will have an F distribution with a known numerator degrees of freedom and the only purpose of the research is to decide how to obtain an approximate denominator degrees of freedom. I don't agree.

Douglas Bates at [R] Imer, p-values and all that

https://stat.ethz.ch/pipermail/r-help/2006-May/094765.html

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Testing fixed effects in LMM

- In general it is **not** clear that the null distribution of the computed ratio of sums of squares is really an F distribution, for any choice of denominator degrees of freedom.
- When the responses are normally distributed and the design is balanced, nested etc. (i.e. the classical LMM situation), the scaled deviances and differences in deviances are exactly F-distributed and looking at the experimental design (i.e., which treatments vary/are replicated at which levels) tells us what the relevant degrees of freedom are.

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Testing fixed effects in LMM

- When the data are not classical (crossed, unbalanced), we might still assume that the deviances are approximately F-distributed but that we don't know the real degrees of freedom. This is what the Satterthwaite, Kenward-Roger, Fai-Cornelius, among other approximations are supposed to do
- Situation worsens when dealing with discrete responses (binary, Poisson, etc)

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Testing the effects in R

```
> ## Calculating confidence intervals for the fixed effects via Wald, bootstrap and profile likelihood
> confint(early.lmer1,par=5:8,method="Wald",oldNames = FALSE) # Only for fixed effects vc will return NA
                                     2.0 % 97.0 %
100.915099 107.686389
-19.951908 -12.559005 ## Significant
-5.476393 3.547128 ## Not significant
     (Intercept)
     age0
     program
                                        1.392766 11.244657 ## Significant
     age0:program
     > confint(early.lmer1,method="boot",boot.type ="perc",oldNames = FALSE,nsim=500)
    0.7563938 9.45484576
6.7327885 8.78499590
     sd_age0|id
    sigma
(Intercept)
                          6.7327885 8.78499590
100.5754354 108.09445268
-20.3249215 -12.16307504 ## Significant
-5.4742982 4.03860091 ## Not significant
1.8325498 11.24816569 ## Significant
    program
     age0:program
     > confint(early.lmer1, level = 0.95,method="profile",oldNames = FALSE)
                                                        97.5 %
                                           2.5 %
     sd_(Intercept)|id
                                        7.009249 11.406182
    cor_age0.(Intercept)|id
sd_age0|id
                                      -1 1
0.000000 9.975352
     sigma
(Intercept)
                                         6.814978
                                                        8.953279
                                      100.883287 107.718200
                                      -19.986640 -12.524273 ## Significant

-5.518786 3.589521 ## Not significant

1.346481 11.290942 ## Significant
    age0
program
     age0:program
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```

Getting p-values

Getting p-values with ImerTest

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```
## Another way to get the p-values require(lmerTest) and refit the model
> require(lmerTest)
> early.lmer1<-lmer(cog~1+age0*program+(1 + age0|id), REML = FALSE, data=early.int1)
> summary(early.lmer1)

Linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood . t-tests use Satterthwaite's method [
lmerModLmerTest]

Formula: cog~1 + age0 * program + (1 + age0 | id)
Data: early.int1

Random effects:

Groups Name Variance Std.Dev. Corr
id (Intercept) 84.02 9.166
age0 39.44 6.281 -0.55
Residual 60.31 7.766
Number of obs: 309, groups: id, 103

Fixed effects:

Estimate Std. Error df t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 104.3007 1.7274 102.9999 60.380 < 2e-16 ***
age0 -16.2555 1.8860 103.0001 -8.619 8.55e-14 ***
program -0.9646 2.3020 102.9999 -0.419 0.6761
age0:program 6.3187 2.5133 103.0001 2.514 0.0135 *
---
>
```

ImerTest: anova function

```
## Another way to get the p-values require(lmerTest) and refit the model

> require(lmerTest)

> ## Type III analysis the same as the one obtained with the summary function

> anova(early.lmer1)

> Type III Analysis of Variance Table with Satterthwaite's method

Sum Sq Mean Sq NumDF DenDF F value Pr(>F)

age0 4480.2 1 103 74.2889 8.547e-14 ***

program 10.6 10.6 1 103 0.1756 0.67605

age0:program 381.2 381.2 1 103 6.3208 0.01348 *

---

> ## Type I sequential model building

> anova(early.lmer1, type=1)

> Type I Analysis of Variance Table with Satterthwaite's method

Sum Sq Mean Sq NumDF DenDF F value Pr(>F)

age0 6256.8 6256.8 1 103 103.7471 < 2e-16 ***

program 89.7 89.7 1 103 1.4869 0.22549

age0:program 381.2 381.2 1 103 6.3208 0.01348 *

---

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1

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```

Getting p-values with Ime

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Testing the effects in R with Ime

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Likelihood ratio test

$$H_0: \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \Theta_0 \quad H_1: \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \Theta_0^{\boldsymbol{C}}$$

- Notation:
 - L_{ML}: Likelihood function
 - ullet $\widehat{eta}_{\mathit{ML}0}$: Point in Θ_0 that maximizes L_{ML}
 - ullet $\widehat{eta}_{\mathit{ML}}$: Point in $\Theta=\Theta_0\cup\Theta_0^{\mathit{C}}$ that maximizes L_{ML}
- Test statistic:

$$-2\ln\lambda_N = -2\ln\left[\frac{L_{ML}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ML0})}{L_{ML}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ML})}\right] \stackrel{H_0}{\to} \chi^2(df)$$

• $df = \dim(\Theta) - \dim(\Theta_0)$.

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Early dietary intervention study

Hierarchical model

$$\begin{cases} Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(Age_{ij} - 1) + \varepsilon_{ij} \\ \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}PROG_{i} + b_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}PROG_{i} + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

Three models considered for the second level

- ullet No effect of program $\gamma_{01}=\gamma_{11}=0$ (early.lmer1.noprog)
- Program has an effect only on the intercept $\gamma_{11}=0$ (early.lmer1.intprog)
- Program has an effect on both intercept and slope (early.lmer1)

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Likelihood ratio tests in R

Ariel Alonso Multilevel Models 75 / 98

Effect of early dietary intervention on children IQ

Conclusions level 2 model

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\pi}_{0i} = 103.758 + b_{0i} \\ \hat{\pi}_{1i} = -15.882 + 5.656 PROG_i + b_{1i} \end{cases}$$

- \Rightarrow Children in the intervention and control group have the same average initial scores. Expected?
- \Rightarrow The average cognitive performance decreased in both groups but less in the intervention group.

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Assessing the random effects

- Empirical Bayes inference
- Best linear unbiased prediction
- Example: Early dietary intervention
- Shrinkage
- Example: Early dietary intervention
- A theoretical illustration

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Assessing the random effects

• Recall that the general linear mixed model equals

$$\mathbf{Y}_i | \mathbf{b}_i \sim N(\mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{b}_i, \Sigma_i), \quad \mathbf{b}_i \sim N(0, \mathbf{D})$$

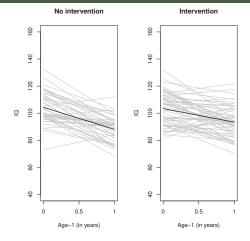
Marginally,

$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim N(\mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_i' + \Sigma_i)$$

- Thus, random effects \boldsymbol{b}_i reflect how the evolution of the *i*th subject deviates from the expected evolution $\boldsymbol{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$, i.e., how the evolution of the *i*th subject deviates from the average evolution in the population
- ullet Estimation of $oldsymbol{b}_i$ helpful for detecting outlying profiles or predicting individual trajectories

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Assessing the random effects



- \Rightarrow b_i reflect how the evolution for the *i*th subject deviates from the average
- \Rightarrow Some subjects are above/below the average at the beginning of the study
- ⇒ The evolution of individual subjects differs from the average evolution

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Assessing the random effects

- The term "estimates" of the random effects is some times used in the literature
- Random effects are not, strictly speaking, parameters but unobserved random variables
- One does not estimate the random effects in the same sense that one estimates parameters
- $f(\mathbf{b}_i) = N(0, \mathbf{D})$ can be interpreted as the prior distribution of \mathbf{b}_i , i.e., its distribution before the data are collected
- Hence, it is natural to base the prediction of \boldsymbol{b}_i on the posterior distribution $f(\boldsymbol{b}_i|\boldsymbol{Y}_i)$ using Bayesian methods

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Assessing the random effects

• Applying Bayes theorem the posterior density of b_i is

$$f(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}|\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}) = \frac{f(\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}) f(\boldsymbol{b}_{i})}{\int f(\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}) f(\boldsymbol{b}_{i}) d\boldsymbol{b}_{i}} \propto f(\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}|\boldsymbol{b}_{i}) f(\boldsymbol{b}_{i})$$

$$\propto \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i} - \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{Z}_{i}'\boldsymbol{W}_{i}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{i} - \boldsymbol{X}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right)' \Lambda_{i}^{-1} \left(\boldsymbol{b}_{i} - \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{Z}_{i}'\boldsymbol{W}_{i}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{i} - \boldsymbol{X}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right)\right\}$$

for some positive definite matrix Λ_i

Posterior distribution:

$$oldsymbol{b}_i | oldsymbol{Y}_i \sim N\left(oldsymbol{DZ}_i' oldsymbol{W}_i (oldsymbol{Y}_i - oldsymbol{X}_i eta), \Lambda_i
ight)$$

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Assessing the random effects

• Posterior mean $E[\boldsymbol{b}_i|\boldsymbol{Y}_i]$ used to predict \boldsymbol{b}_i

$$\widehat{m{b}}_i(m{ heta}) = E\left[m{b}_i|m{Y}_i
ight] = \int m{b}_i f(m{b}_i|m{Y}_i) \, dm{b}_i = m{D}m{Z}_i'm{W}_i(lpha)(m{Y}_i-m{X}_ieta)$$

 $oldsymbol{\hat{b}}_i(oldsymbol{ heta})$ is normally distributed with covariance matrix

$$\operatorname{var}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{b}_i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})) = \boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{Z}_i' \left\{ \boldsymbol{W}_i - \boldsymbol{W}_i \boldsymbol{X}_i \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \boldsymbol{X}_i' \boldsymbol{W}_i \boldsymbol{X}_i \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_i' \boldsymbol{W}_i \right\} \boldsymbol{Z}_i \boldsymbol{D}$$

ullet Inferences for $oldsymbol{b}_i$ should account for the variability in $\widehat{oldsymbol{b}}_i$

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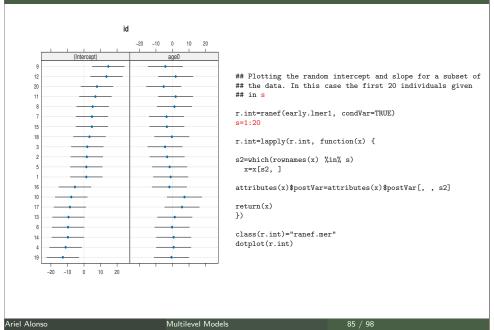
Assessing the random effects

- \bullet Parameters in θ are replaced by their ML or REML estimates, obtained from fitting the marginal model
- $m{m{\phi}} \ \widehat{m{b}_i} = \widehat{m{b}_i}(\widehat{m{ heta}})$ is called the Empirical Bayes estimate/prediction of $m{b}_i$

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R Output

Effect of early dietary intervention on children IQ



```
R Output
```

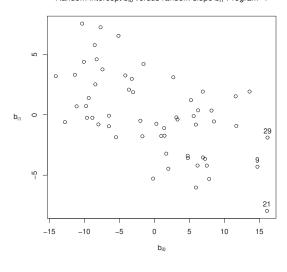
```
> ## Random effects covariance matrix
> D.early=unclass(VarCorr(early.lmer1))$id
> D.early
           (Intercept)
                          age0
            84.01915 -31.89344
(Intercept)
            -31.89344 39.44432
attr(,"stddev")
(Intercept)
                age0
  9.166196 6.280471
attr(,"correlation")
          (Intercept)
                            age0
(Intercept) 1.0000000 -0.5540131
age0
            -0.5540131 1.0000000
```

Predicting the random effects in R

```
> ## Predicted random effects
> early.lmer1.re=ranef(early.lmer1)$id
> head(early.lmer1.re,10)
   (Intercept)
    1.406077 -1.0998359
1
    1.700796 -3.2167090
    1.996373 -4.4674210
4 -11.103346 0.6994383
    1.444727 -1.7280502
   -9.633042 -0.2478932
    4.787545 -3.5797912
7
    5.221731 1.2096573
8
   14.723746 -4.3027959
9
10 -7.682804 7.2427588
> plot(early.lmer1.re[1:58,],
+ main="Random intercept (b0i) versus random slope (b1i).Program=1")
```

Random intercept (\widehat{b}_{0i}) versus random slope (\widehat{b}_{1i})

Random intercept bio versus random slope bi1 Program=1



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Best Linear Unbiased Prediction (BLUP)

- Often, parameters of interest are linear combinations of fixed effects in β and random effects in b_i
- For example, a subject-specific slope is the sum of the average slope and the subject-specific random slope. In the case study a child that did not receive the intervention has slope

$$\pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + b_{1i}$$

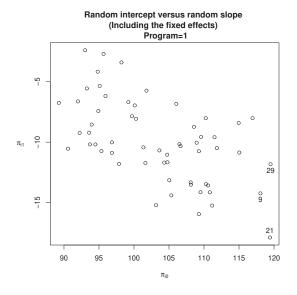
- ullet In general, suppose $oldsymbol{u} = oldsymbol{\lambda}_{eta}'oldsymbol{eta} + oldsymbol{\lambda}_{b}'oldsymbol{b}_{i}$ is of interest
- ullet Conditionally on lpha, $\widehat{m{u}}=m{\lambda}_{eta}'\widehat{m{eta}}+m{\lambda}_{m{b}}'\widehat{m{b}}_{m{i}}$ is BLUP:
 - Linear in the observations Y_i
 - Unbiased for u
 - Minimum variance among all unbiased linear estimators

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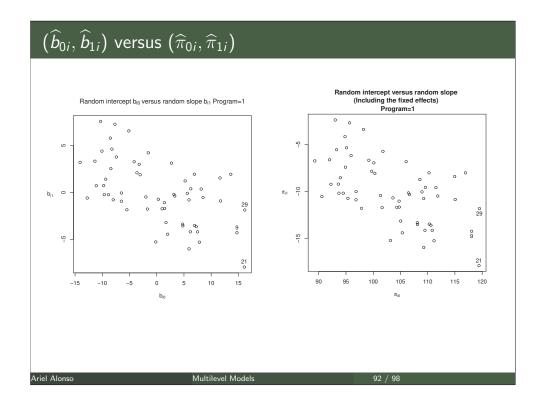
Intercept and slope: OLS versus LMM estimates

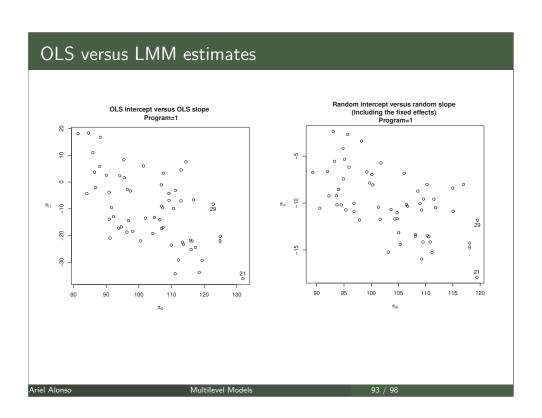
```
> ## Creating the subject specific intercepts and slopes
> ## Here we have to use the model fitted with lme
> ind.coef=coef(early.lme1)
> head(ind.coef)
                           program age0:program
                   age0
  (Intercept)
   105.70683 -17.35531 -0.9646326
                                       6.318711
    106.00156 -19.47223 -0.9646326
                                       6.318711
   106.29715 -20.72297 -0.9646326
                                       6.318711
    93.19743 -15.55611 -0.9646326
                                       6.318711
   105.74548 -17.98354 -0.9646326
                                       6.318711
    94.66773 -16.50345 -0.9646326
                                       6.318711
> prog=early.int1[early.int1$age0==0,]$program
> int.subject=ind.coef[,1]+ind.coef[,3]*prog
> slope.subject=ind.coef[,2]+ind.coef[,4]*prog
> plot(int.subject[1:58],slope.subject[1:58], xlab=expression(pi[i0]), ylab="",
+ main="Random intercept versus random slope (Including the fixed effects)
+ Program=1")
> mtext(expression(pi[i1]), side = 2, line = 3, las = 1)
                          Multilevel Models
```

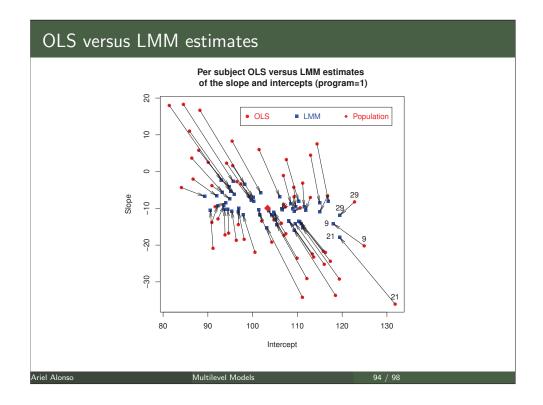
Random intercept $(\widehat{\pi}_{0i})$ versus random slope $(\widehat{\pi}_{1i})$



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OLS versus LMM estimates

- In general, the per-subject slopes and intercepts from the mixed-effects model (LMM) are closer to the population estimates than are the within-subject OLS estimates
- This pattern is sometimes described as a shrinkage of coefficients toward the population values
- John Tukey chose to characterize this process in terms of the estimates for individual subjects "borrowing strength" from each other
- In a mixed-effects model we assume that the levels of a grouping factor are a selection from a population and, as a result, can be expected to share characteristics to some degree

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Shrinkage Estimators $\widehat{m{b}_i}$

• Consider the prediction of the evolution of the *i*th subject:

$$\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}_{i} \equiv \mathbf{X}_{i}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \mathbf{Z}_{i}\widehat{\mathbf{b}}_{i}
= \mathbf{X}_{i}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}_{i}'\mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1}(\mathbf{Y}_{i} - \mathbf{X}_{i}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})
= (\mathbf{I}_{n_{i}} - \mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}_{i}'\mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1})\mathbf{X}_{i}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + \mathbf{Z}_{i}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}_{i}'\mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}_{i}
= \Sigma_{i}\mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1}\mathbf{X}_{i}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} + (\mathbf{I}_{n_{i}} - \Sigma_{i}\mathbf{V}_{i}^{-1})\mathbf{Y}_{i}$$

• Let us look more closely at this expression

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Shrinkage Estimators $\widehat{\boldsymbol{b}}_i$

 $\widehat{Y_i}$ is a weighted mean of two factors

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{Y}}_{i} \equiv \boxed{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{i} \boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}_{i} \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} + \boxed{\left(\boldsymbol{I}_{n_{i}} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{i} \boldsymbol{V}_{i}^{-1}\right) \boldsymbol{Y}_{i}}$$

- \Rightarrow Factor 1: Population-averaged profile $m{X}_i\widehat{m{eta}}$ with weight $\Sigma_im{V}_i^{-1}$
- \Rightarrow Factor 2: Individual data $m{Y}_i$ with weight $m{I}_{n_i} m{\Sigma}_i m{V}_i^{-1} m{I}$

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Shrinkage Estimators $\widehat{m{b}_i}$

- Note that the population average $X_i \widehat{\beta}$ gets much weight if the residual variability Σ_i is 'large' in comparison to the total variability V_i .
- This phenomenon is usually called shrinkage

The observed data are shrunk towards the prior average profile $X_i\beta$.

• This is also reflected in the fact that for any linear combination $\lambda' \boldsymbol{b}_i$ of random effects,

$$\operatorname{var}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}'\widehat{\boldsymbol{b}}_i) \leq \operatorname{var}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}'\boldsymbol{b}_i).$$

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Models for cluster data

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