

8 General linear models for longitudinal data

8.1 Introduction

We have seen that the classical methods of **univariate** and **multivariate** repeated measures analysis of variance may be thought of as being based on a **statistical model** for a data vector from the i th individual, $i = 1, \dots, m$. So far, we have written this model in different ways. Following convention, we wrote the model as

$$\mathbf{Y}'_i = \mathbf{a}'_i \mathbf{M} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}'_i,$$

where \mathbf{M} is the $(q \times n)$ matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{11} & \cdots & \mu_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mu_{q1} & \cdots & \mu_{qn} \end{pmatrix},$$

and the individual means $\mu_{\ell j}$ are for the ℓ th group at the j th time.

We could equally well write this model as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \boldsymbol{\mu}_\ell + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$$

for unit i coming from the ℓ th population, $\ell = 1, \dots, q$. Regardless of how we write the model, we note that it represents \mathbf{Y}_i as having two components:

- a **systematic** component, which describes the **mean** response over time (depending on group membership). The individual elements of $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\ell$, $\mu_{\ell j}$ for the ℓ th group at the j th time, are further represented in terms of an overall mean and deviations as

$$\mu_{\ell j} = \mu + \tau_\ell + \gamma_j + (\tau\gamma)_{\ell j}$$

along with constraints $\sum_{\ell=1}^q \tau_\ell = 0$, etc in order to give a unique representation.

As noted in the last chapter, this representation

- Requires that the length of each data vector \mathbf{Y}_i be the **same**, n .
- Does not **explicitly** incorporate the actual **times** of measurement or other information.

- an overall **random deviation** ϵ_i which describes how observations within a data vector **vary** about the mean and **covary** among each other. Both univariate and multivariate ANOVA models assume that

$$\text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \Sigma$$

is the **same** ($n \times n$) matrix for all data vectors. Furthermore,

- (i) Σ is assumed to have the **compound symmetry** structure in the univariate model. This came from the assumption that each element of ϵ_i is actually the sum of two random terms, i.e.

$$\epsilon_{ij} = b_i + e_{ij},$$

where the **random effect** b_i has to do with variation among units and e_{ij} has to do with variation within units.

- (ii) Σ is assumed to have **no particular structure** in the multivariate model.

We also noted in Chapter 5 that this model could be written in an alternative way. Specifically, we defined β as the column vector containing all of $\mu, \tau_\ell, \gamma_j, (\tau\gamma)_{\ell j}$ stacked and \mathbf{X}_i to be a matrix of 0's and 1's with n rows that “picks” off the appropriate elements of β for each element of \mathbf{Y}_i . We wrote the model in the alternative form

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i\beta + \epsilon_i, \tag{8.1}$$

where again ϵ_i is the “overall deviation” vector with $\text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \Sigma$. Note that both the univariate and multivariate ANOVA models could be written in this way; what would distinguish them would again be the assumption on Σ . This model, along with the usual constraints, has the flavor of a “regression” model for the i th unit.

Regardless of how we write the model, it says that, for a unit in group ℓ ,

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \tau_\ell + \gamma_j + (\tau\gamma)_{\ell j} + \epsilon_{ij}, \tag{8.2}$$

so that $E(Y_{ij})$ is taken to have this specific form.

As we will now discuss, a representation like (8.1) offers a convenient framework for thinking about more general model for longitudinal data. In this chapter, we will discuss such a model, writing it in the form (8.1). We will see that we will be able to address several of the issues raised in the last chapter:

- Alternative definitions of \mathbf{X}_i and β will allow for **unbalanced** data and explicit incorporation of time and other covariates

- Refined consideration of the form of $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$ will allow more realistic and general assumptions about covariance, including the possibility of different covariance matrices for different groups.

8.2 Simplest case – one group, balanced data

To fix ideas, we first consider a very simple special case of the longitudinal data situation, focusing mainly on the issue of allowing the model to contain explicitly information on the times of observation on each individual. For this purpose, we will continue to assume that the data are **balanced**.

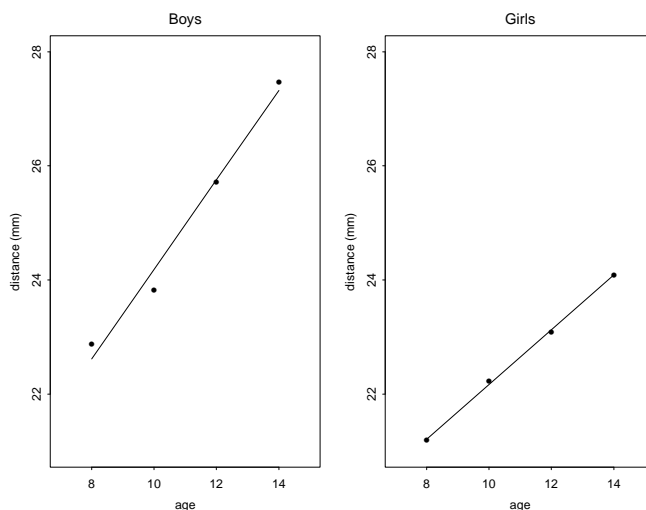
Formally, consider the following situation:

- Suppose \mathbf{Y}_i , $i = 1, \dots, m$ are all $(n \times 1)$, where the j th element Y_{ij} is observed at time t_j . Here, the times t_1, \dots, t_n are the **same** for all units.
- Suppose that there is only **one** group, so that all units are thought to behave similarly. The mean vector is thus simply (no group subscript necessary)

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)'$$

We observed in the dental study that the **sample means** for girls and for boys seem to follow an approximate smooth, **straight-line** trajectory. Figure 1 illustrates; the figure shows the sample means at each time (age) and an estimated straight line (to be discussed later) for the data for each group (gender).

Figure 1: *Dental data: Sample means at each time across children compared with straight line fits*



The sample means suggest that the **true means** μ_j at each time point may very well fall on a straight line.

This observation suggests that we may be able to **refine** our view about the means. Rather than thinking of the mean vector as simply as set of n unrelated means μ_j , we might think of these means as satisfying

$$\mu_j = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_j;$$

that is, the means fall on the line with **intercept** β_0 and **slope** β_1 .

This suggests replacing (8.2) by

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_j + \epsilon_{ij}. \quad (8.3)$$

Model (8.3) says that, at the j th time t_j , Y_{ij} values we might see have mean $\beta_0 + \beta_1 t_j$ and vary about it according to the overall deviations ϵ_{ij} .

- In contrast to (8.2), this model represents the mean as **explicitly** depending on the **time** of measurement t_j . (With just one group, ℓ and hence τ_ℓ would be the same for all units in that model, and the mean depends on time through γ_j and $(\tau\gamma)_{\ell j}$.)
- Instead of requiring $n=4$ separate **parameters** μ_j , $j = 1, \dots, n$ to describe the means at each time, (8.3) requires only **two** (the intercept and slope). Thus, if we are willing to believe that the true means do indeed fall on a **straight line**, (8.3) is a more **parsimonious** representation of the **systematic component**.
- Under the new model (8.3), we are automatically including the belief that the trajectory of means **should be** a straight line. Our best guess (estimate) for this trajectory would be, intuitively, found by **estimating** the intercept and slope β_0 and β_1 (coming up).
- An additional possible advantage would be as follows. If we wanted to use these data to learn about, for example, mean distance at age **11 years**, the straight line provides us with a natural estimate, while it is not clear what to do with the sample means to get such an estimate (connect the dots?). How would we assess the quality of such an estimate (e.g. provide a standard error)?

To summarize, if we **really believe** that the mean trajectory follows a straight line, model (8.3) seems more appropriate, because it exploits this assumption.

MATRIX REPRESENTATION: The model (8.3) may be written in matrix form. With \mathbf{Y}_i as usual the $(n \times 1)$ data vector, defining

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 \\ 1 & t_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix},$$

we can write the model as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i. \quad (8.4)$$

This has the form of model (8.1). Because all units are seen at the **same** n times, the matrix \mathbf{X} is the same for all units.

COVARIANCE MATRIX: The above development offers an alternative way to represent mean response. To complete the model, we need to also make an assumption about the covariance matrix of the random vector $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$. For example, as in the classical models, we could assume that this matrix is the **same** for all data vectors, i.e.

$$\text{var}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma},$$

for some matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. Momentarily, we will address the issue of specification of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ more carefully; for now, as we consider the situation of only a single population, it is natural to take this matrix to be the same for all units.

MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY: Suppose we further assume that the responses Y_{ij} are normally distributed at each time point, so that the \mathbf{Y}_i are multivariate normal. Thus, we may summarize the model as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}),$$

where \mathbf{X} and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ are as above.

8.3 General case – several groups, unbalanced data, covariates

The modeling strategy for the mean above may be generalized. We consider several possibilities:

- units from more than one group
- different numbers/times of observations for each unit
- other covariates

MORE THAN ONE GROUP: For definiteness, suppose there are $q = 2$ groups, as in the dental study example. From Figure 1, the data support a model that says, for each group, the means at each age fall on a straight line, but perhaps the straight line is **different** depending on group (gender). This suggests that if unit i is a girl, we might have

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0,G} + \beta_{1,G}t_j + \epsilon_{ij}, \quad (8.5)$$

where $\beta_{0,G}$ and $\beta_{1,G}$ are the intercept and slope, respectively, describing the means at each time for girls as a function of time. Similarly, if unit i is a boy, we might have

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_j + \epsilon_{ij}, \quad (8.6)$$

where $\beta_{0,B}$ and $\beta_{1,B}$ are the intercept and slope, possibly different from $\beta_{0,G}$ and $\beta_{1,G}$.

Defining for the i th unit

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_i &= 0 \text{ if unit } i \text{ is a girl} \\ &= 1 \text{ if unit } i \text{ is a boy,} \end{aligned}$$

note that we can write (8.5) and (8.6) together as

$$Y_{ij} = (1 - \delta_i)\beta_{0,G} + \delta_i\beta_{0,B} + (1 - \delta_i)t_j\beta_{1,G} + \delta_it_j\beta_{1,B} + \epsilon_{ij} \quad (8.7)$$

This may be summarized in matrix form as follows. The full set of intercept and slopes $\beta_{0,G}$, $\beta_{1,G}$, $\beta_{0,B}$, and $\beta_{1,B}$ characterize the means under these models for both groups. Define the **parameter vector** summarizing these:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,G} \\ \beta_{1,G} \\ \beta_{0,B} \\ \beta_{1,B} \end{pmatrix} \quad (8.8)$$

Then define

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \begin{pmatrix} (1 - \delta_i) & (1 - \delta_i)t_1 & \delta_i & \delta_it_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (1 - \delta_i) & (1 - \delta_i)t_n & \delta_i & \delta_it_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (8.9)$$

It is straightforward to see that this is a slick way of noting that if i is a girl or boy, respectively, we are defining

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & t_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_n \end{pmatrix},$$

respectively.

With these definitions, it is a simple matrix exercise to verify that $\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$ yields the $(n \times 1)$ vector whose elements are $\beta_{0,G} + \beta_{1,G}t_j$ or $\beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_j$, depending on whether i is a boy or girl. We may thus write the model succinctly as

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

where $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and \mathbf{X}_i are defined in (8.8) and (8.9), respectively.

- Note that the matrix \mathbf{X}_i is different depending group membership.
- Note that \mathbf{X}_i is not of **full rank** (a boy does not have information about the mean for girls, and vice versa).
- Note that $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ contains all parameters describing the mean trajectory for both groups.

MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY: With the additional assumption of normality, each \mathbf{Y}_i under this model is n -variate normal with mean $\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$, where \mathbf{X}_i depends on group membership. With some additional assumption about the covariance matrix, e.g. $\text{var}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ for all i , we have

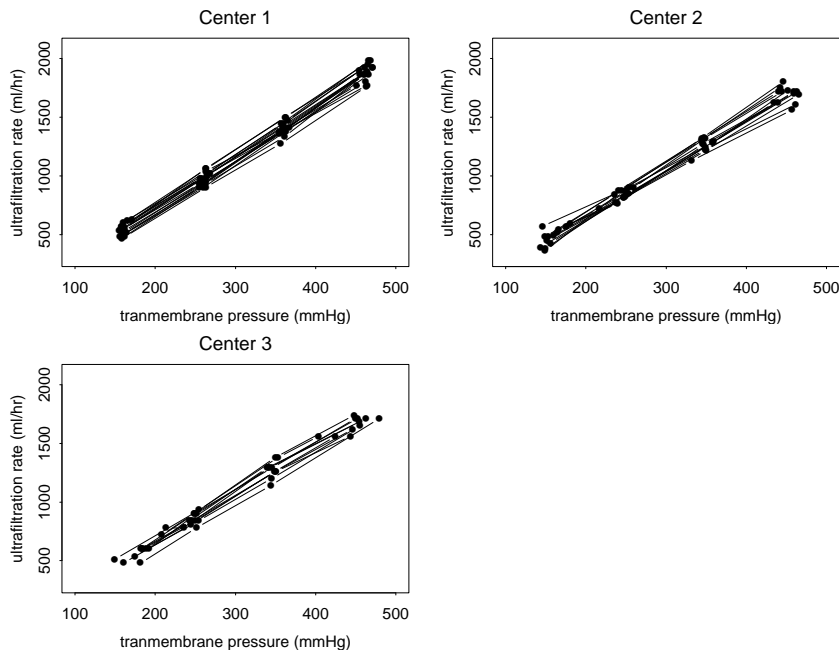
$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_n(\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}).$$

IMBALANCE: It is possible to be even more general. For definiteness, we consider two examples.

ULTRAFILTRATION DATA FOR LOW FLUX DIALYZERS: These data are given in Vonesh and Chinchilli (1997, section 6.6). Low flux dialyzers are used to treat patients with end stage renal disease to remove excess fluid and waste from their blood. In low flux hemodialysis, the ultrafiltration rate (ml/hr) at which fluid is removed is thought to follow a straight line relationship with the transmembrane pressure (mmHg) applied across the dialyzer membrane. A study was conducted to compare the average ultrafiltration rate (the response) of such dialyzers across three dialysis centers where they are used on patients. A total of $m = 41$ dialyzers (units) were involved. The experiment involved recording the ultrafiltration rate at several transmembrane pressures for each dialyzer.

Figure 2 shows individual dialyzer profiles for the dialyzers in each center. A notable feature of the figure is that the 4 pressures (“time” here) at which each dialyzer was observed are not necessarily **the same**. Thus, the i th dialyzer has its own set of times t_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, n = 4$. Hence, we **cannot** calculate sample means, because each dialyzer is seen at potentially different pressures. However, if we envision taking means in each panel of the figure across all time points, it seems reasonable that the means would very likely fall approximately on a **straight line**.

Figure 2: *Dialyzer profiles (ultrafiltration rate vs. transmembrane pressure) for 41 dialyzers in 3 centers*



With the modeling strategy we have adopted, this does not really pose any additional difficulty. From the figure, a reasonable model for the i th dialyzer is

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_{ij} &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ dialyzer } i \text{ in center 1} \\
 Y_{ij} &= \beta_3 + \beta_4 t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ dialyzer } i \text{ in center 2} \\
 Y_{ij} &= \beta_5 + \beta_6 t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ dialyzer } i \text{ in center 3}
 \end{aligned} \tag{8.10}$$

Here, $\beta_1, \beta_3, \beta_5$ are the intercepts and $\beta_2, \beta_4, \beta_6$ are the slopes for the means (straight lines) for each center.

Defining

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_6)',$$

we can define a separate $(n \times 1)$ \mathbf{X}_i matrix for each unit, based on its group membership and unique set of times t_{ij} ; for example, for unit i from the first center,

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_{i1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \\ 1 & t_{in} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We may thus again write the model (8.10) as

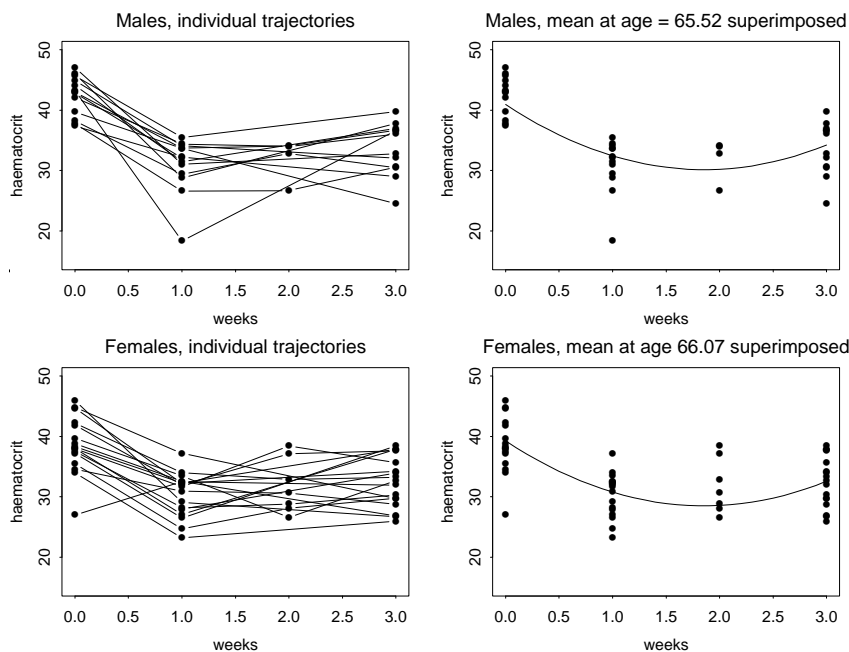
$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i,$$

where \mathbf{X}_i is defined appropriately for each unit and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is defined as above.

HIP-REPLACEMENT STUDY: These data are adapted from Crowder and Hand (1990, section 5.2). 30 patients underwent hip-replacement surgery, 13 males and 17 females. Hæmatocrit, the ratio of volume packed red blood cells relative to volume of whole blood recorded on a percentage basis, was supposed to be measured for each patient at week 0, before the replacement, and then at weeks 1, 2, and 3, after the replacement.

The primary interest was to determine whether there are possible differences in mean response following replacement for men and women. Spaghetti plots of the profiles for each patient are shown in the left-hand panels of Figure 3. (We will discuss the right-hand panels later.)

Figure 3: *Hæmatocrit trajectories for hip replacement patients. The left hand panels are individual profiles by gender; the right hand panels show a fitted quadratic model for the mean superimposed.*



It may be seen from the figure that a number of both male and female patients are missing the measurement at week 2; in fact, there is one female missing the pre-replacement measurement and week 2. The reason for this is not given by Crowder and Hand; however, because it is so systematic, happening only at this occasion and for about half of the male and half of the female patients, it suggests that the reason has nothing to do with the patients' health or recovery from the replacement. Perhaps the centrifuge used to obtain hæmatocrit values went on the blink that week before all patients' values could be obtained! We will assume that the reason for these **missing observations** has nothing to do with the thing of primary interest, gender; this seems reasonable in light of the pattern of missingness for week 2.

Thus, we have a situation where the data vectors \mathbf{Y}_i are of possibly **different lengths** for different units. In particular, we now have that \mathbf{Y}_i is $(n_i \times 1)$, where n_i is the number of observations on unit i . Thus, the total number of observations from all units is

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^m n_i.$$

To determine an appropriate parsimonious representation for the mean of a data vector for each group, we could calculate the sample means at each time point for males and females. We must be a bit careful, however; because of the **missingness**, the sample means at different times will be of **different quality**.

Nonetheless, it seems clear from the figure that a model that says the means fall on a straight line for either gender would be inappropriate. For almost all patients, the pre-replacement reading is high; then, following replacement, the hæmatocrit goes down and then slowly rebounds over the next 3 weeks. This suggests that the relationship of the means with time might look more like a **quadratic** function of time. These observations suggest the following model:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 t_{ij} + \beta_3 t_{ij}^2 + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ males} \\ Y_{ij} &= \beta_4 + \beta_5 t_{ij} + \beta_6 t_{ij}^2 + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ females.} \end{aligned} \quad (8.11)$$

In (8.11), we have allowed for the possibility that the times for each i are not the same, writing t_{ij} . For this data set, the times that are potentially available for each individual are the same; however, as we saw in the dialyzer example above, this need not be the case.

To write the model in matrix form, define

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_6)'$$

Clearly, the matrix \mathbf{X}_i for a given unit will depend on the times of observation for that unit **and** will have number of rows n_i , each row corresponding to one of the n_i elements of Y_{ij} . For example, for a male with n_i observations, we have

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_{i1} & t_{i1}^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_{in_i} & t_{in_i}^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We may thus summarize the model as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \quad (n_i \times 1),$$

where \mathbf{X}_i is the $(n_i \times 6)$ matrix defined appropriately for individual i .

COVARIANCE MATRIX: We have to be a little more careful here. Because now we are dealing with data vectors \mathbf{Y}_i of **different lengths** n_i , note that the corresponding covariance matrices **must** be of dimension $(n_i \times n_i)$. Thus, it is **not possible** to assume that the covariance matrix of all data vectors is **identical** across i . For now, we will write

$$\text{var}(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$$

to recognize this issue – the i subscript indicates that, at the very least, the covariance matrix depends on i through its dimension n_i .

For example, suppose we believed that the assumption of **compound symmetry** was reasonable such that all observations Y_{ij} have the same overall variance σ^2 , say, and all are **equally correlated**, no matter where they are taken in time. Thus, this would be a valid choice even for a situation where the times are different somehow on different units, either as in the dialyzer example or because of missing observations. As in Chapter 4, to represent this, we would have a second parameter ρ . For a data vector of length n_i , then, no matter where its n_i observations in time were taken, the matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ would be the $(n_i \times n_i)$ matrix

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho & \cdots & \rho \\ \rho & 1 & \cdots & \rho \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho & \cdots & \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

No matter what the dimension or the time points, under this assumption, the matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ would depend on the 2 parameters σ^2 and ρ for all i , and depend only on i because of the dimension.

We will discuss covariance matrices more shortly.

MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY: With the assumption of normality, we can thus write the model succinctly as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_{n_i}(\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i).$$

ADDITIONAL COVARIATES: We in fact can write even more general models, which allow for the possibility that we may wish to incorporate the effect of other covariates. In reality, this does not represent a further extension of the type of models we have already considered, as **group membership** is of course itself a covariate. Recall that we wrote in (8.9) the \mathbf{X}_i matrix in terms of a group membership indicator δ_i ; technically, this is just a covariate like any other. The point we emphasize here is that there is nothing preventing us from incorporating **several** covariates into a model for the mean. These covariates may be indicators of other things or continuous.

HIP REPLACEMENT, CONTINUED: In the hip replacement study, the **age** of each participant was also recorded, and in fact an objective of the investigators was not only to understand differences in hæmatocrit response across genders but also to elucidate whether the age of the patient has an effect on response. It turns out that the sample mean age for males was 65.52 years and that for females was 66.07 years. From Figure 3, the patterns look pretty similar for both genders; of course, there is no easy way of discerning from the plot whether age affects the response.

To illustrate inclusion of the age covariate, consider the following modified model, where a_i is the age of the i th patient:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 t_{ij} + \beta_3 t_{ij}^2 + \beta_7 a_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ males} \\ Y_{ij} &= \beta_4 + \beta_5 t_{ij} + \beta_6 t_{ij}^2 + \beta_7 a_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ females.} \end{aligned} \quad (8.12)$$

Model (8.12) says that, regardless of whether a person is male or female, the mean hæmatocrit response at any time increases by β_7 for every year increase in age (keep in mind that β_7 could be negative). One can envision fancier models where this also depends on gender. It is straightforward to write this in matrix notation as before; with

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_7)',$$

we can define appropriate \mathbf{X}_i matrices, i.e. for a male of age a_i

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_{i1} & t_{i1}^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a_i \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\ 1 & t_{in_i} & t_{in_i}^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

PARAMETERIZATION: It is possible to represent models like those above in different ways. For definiteness, consider the dialyzer example. We wrote the model in (8.10) as

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ dialyzer } i \text{ in center 1} \\ Y_{ij} &= \beta_3 + \beta_4 t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ dialyzer } i \text{ in center 2} \\ Y_{ij} &= \beta_5 + \beta_6 t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ dialyzer } i \text{ in center 3} \end{aligned}$$

It is sometimes more convenient, although entirely equivalent, to write the model in an alternative parameterization. As we have discussed, a question of interest is often to compare the **rate of change** of the mean response over time (pressure here) among groups. In this situation, we would like to compare the three **slopes** β_2 , β_4 , and β_6 .

Define

$$\delta_{i1} = 1 \text{ unit } i \text{ from center 1; } = 0 \text{ o.w.}$$

$$\delta_{i2} = 1 \text{ unit } i \text{ from center 2; } = 0 \text{ o.w.}$$

Then write the model as

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_1 + \beta_2\delta_{i1} + \beta_3\delta_{i2} + \beta_4t_{ij} + \beta_5\delta_{i1}t_{ij} + \beta_6\delta_{i2}t_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} \quad (8.13)$$

There are still 6 parameters overall, but the ones in (8.13) have an entirely **different** interpretation from those in the first model.

It is straightforward to observe by simply plugging in the values of δ_{i1} and δ_{i2} for each center that the following is true:

Center	Intercept	Slope
1	$\beta_1 + \beta_2$	$\beta_4 + \beta_5$
2	$\beta_1 + \beta_3$	$\beta_4 + \beta_6$
3	β_1	β_4

Note that β_2 and β_3 have the interpretation of the difference in intercept between Centers 1 and 3 and Centers 2 and 3, respectively, and β_1 is the intercept for Center 3. Similarly, β_5 and β_6 have the interpretation of the difference in slope between Centers 1 and 3 and Centers 2 and 3, respectively, and β_4 is the slope for Center 3. This parameterization allows us to **estimate**, as we will talk about shortly, the **differences** of interest **directly**. This same type of parameterization is used in ordinary linear regression for similar reasons.

This type of parameterization is the default used by SAS PROC GLM and PROC MIXED, which we will use to implement the analyses we will discuss shortly. The different parameterizations yield **equivalent** models; the only thing that differs is the interpretation of the parameters.

8.4 Models for covariance

In the last section, we noted in gory detail how one may model the mean of each element of a data vector in very flexible and general ways. We did not say much about the assumption on covariance matrix, except to note that, when the data are unbalanced with possibly different numbers of observations for each i , it is not possible to think in terms of an assumption where the covariance matrix is strictly **identical** for all i , at least in terms of its dimension.

We have noted previously that the classical methods make assumptions about the covariance matrix in the balanced case that are either **too restrictive** or **too vague**. For the approach we are taking in this chapter, in contrast to the “classical” models and methods, as we will soon see, there is nothing really stopping us from making **other assumptions** about the covariance matrix in the sense that we will be able to **estimate** parameters of interest, obtain (approximate) sampling distributions for the estimators, and carry out tests of hypotheses regardless of the assumption we make.

In Chapter 4 we reviewed a number of covariance structures. Here, we consider using these as possible models for $\text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \Sigma_i$. We will be using SAS PROC MIXED to fit the models in this chapter using the method of **maximum likelihood** to be discussed in section 8.5. Thus, it is useful to recall these structures and note how they are accessed in PROC MIXED.

Note that by modeling $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$ directly, we do not explicitly distinguish between **among-unit** and **within-unit** sources of variation. In this strategy, we just consider models for the **aggregate** of all sources. In the next two chapters, we will discuss a refined version of our regression model for longitudinal data that **explicitly acknowledges** these sources.

BALANCED CASE: It is easiest to discuss first the case of **balanced** data. Suppose we have a model

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i, \quad (n \times 1).$$

Under these conditions, we may certainly consider the same assumptions of covariance matrix as in the classical case. That is, assume that the covariance matrix $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$ is the same for all i and equal to Σ , where Σ has the form of

- **Compound symmetry.** SAS PROC MIXED uses the designation `type = cs` to refer to this assumption.
- **Completely unstructured.** SAS PROC MIXED uses the designation `type = un` to refer to this assumption.

ALTERNATIVE MODELS: We now recall the other models. Actually, there is nothing stopping us from allowing $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$ to be **different** for different groups; e.g., in the dental study, allow different covariance matrices for each gender. We discuss this further below.

- **One-dependent.** Recall that it seems reasonable that observations taken more closely together in time might tend to be “more alike” than those taken farther apart. If the observation times are spaced so that the time between 2 nonconsecutive observations is fairly long, we might conjecture that correlation is likely to be the largest among observations that are **adjacent** in time; that is, occur at consecutive times. Relative to the magnitude of this correlation, the correlation between observations separated by two time intervals might for all practical purposes be **negligible**.

An example of a one-dependent model embodying this assumption is

$$\Sigma = \text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & \rho\sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \rho\sigma^2 & \sigma^2 & \rho\sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \rho\sigma^2 & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This model would make sense even if the times are not **equally-spaced** in time (as they are, for example, in the dental study: 8, 10, 12, 14). It is possible to extend this to a **two-dependent** or higher dependent model or to heterogeneous variances over time, as discussed in Chapter 4.

SAS PROC MIXED uses the designation `type = toep(2)` (for “Toeplitz” with 2 diagonal bands) to refer to this assumption with the same variance at all times.

With groups, we could believe the one-dependent assumption holds for each group, but allow the possibility that the variance σ^2 and correlation ρ are different in each group. The same holds true for the rest of the models we consider.

- **Autoregressive of order 1 (equally-spaced in time).** This model says that correlation **drops off** as observations get farther apart from each other in time. The following model really only makes sense if the times of observation are **equally-spaced**. The so-called **AR(1)** model with homogeneous variance over time is

$$\Sigma = \text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho^2 & \cdots & \rho^{n-1} \\ \rho & 1 & \rho & \cdots & \rho^{n-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho^{n-1} & \rho^{n-2} & \cdots & \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

SAS PROC MIXED uses the designation `type = ar(1)` to refer to this assumption.

- **Markov (unequally spaced in time)**. The AR(1) model may be generalized to times that are **unequally-spaced**. (e.g. 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 as in the guinea pig diet data). The powers of ρ are taken to be the **distances** in time between the observations. That is, if

$$d_{jk} = |t_{ij} - t_{ik}|, \quad j, k = 1, \dots, n,$$

then the model is

$$\Sigma = \text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho^{d_{12}} & \dots & \rho^{d_{1n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho^{d_{n1}} & \rho^{d_{n2}} & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

SAS PROC MIXED allows this type of model to be implemented in more than one way, e.g with the `type = sp(pow)(.)` designation.

We will consider examples of fitting these structures to several of our examples in section 8.8. The SAS PROC MIXED documentation, as well as the books by Diggle, Heagerty, Liang, and Zeger (2002) and Vonesh and Chinchilli (1997), discuss other assumptions.

DECIDING AMONG COVARIANCE STRUCTURES: In the **balanced** case, one may use the techniques discussed in Chapter 4 to gain informal insight into the structure of $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$. Inspection of sample covariance matrices, scatterplot matrices, autocorrelation functions, and lag plots can aid the analyst in identifying possible reasonable models.

These methods can be modified to take into account the fact that one believes that the mean vectors follow smooth trajectories over time, such as a straight line. For instance, instead of using the sample means for “centering” in these approaches, one might **estimate** β somehow; e.g. by **least squares** treating all the individual responses from all units as if they were **independent** (even though we know they are probably **not**). Least squares is clearly not the best way to estimate β (recall our discussion in Chapter 3); however, this estimator may be “good enough” to provide reasonable estimates of the means at each time t_j that take advantage of our willingness to believe they follow a smooth trajectory, so might be preferred to using sample means at each j on this account. In particular, if

$$\mu_j = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_j,$$

say, for a single group, we would estimate μ_j by $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 t_j$ and use this in place of the sample mean.

A complete discussion of graphical and other techniques along these lines may be found in Diggle, Heagerty, Liang, and Zeger (2002).

It is also possible to use other methods to deduce which structure might give an appropriate model; we will see this shortly. Later in the course, we will discuss a popular way of thinking about the problem of modeling covariance and a popular way of taking into account the possibility that we might be **wrong** when adopting a particular covariance model.

UNBALANCED CASE: Suppose first that we are in a situation like that of the hip-replacement data; i.e., all times of observation are the **same** for all units; however, some observations are missing on some units. For definiteness, suppose as in the hip data we have times $(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4) = (0, 1, 2, 3)$, and suppose we have a unit i for which the observation at time t_3 is not available. Thus, the vector \mathbf{Y}_i for this unit is of length $n_i = 3$. We could represent this situation notationally two different ways:

- (i) For this unit, write $\mathbf{Y}_i = (Y_{i1}, Y_{i2}, Y_{i3})'$ to denote the observations at times $(t_{i1}, t_{i2}, t_{i3})' = (0, 1, 3)'$. Thus, in this notation, j indexes the number of observations within the unit, regardless of the actual values of the times. There are 3 times for this unit, so $j = 1, 2, 3$. This is the standard way of representing things generically.
- (ii) To think more productively about covariance modeling, consider an alternative. Here, let j index the **intended** times of observation. This unit is missing time $j = 3$; thus, represent things as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = (Y_{i1}, Y_{i2}, Y_{i4})', \quad \text{at times } (t_1, t_2, t_4)' = (0, 1, 3). \quad (8.14)$$

Now consider the models discussed above and the alternative notation. Assume we believe that $\text{var}(Y_{ij}) = \sigma^2$ for all j . We thus want a model for

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i = \text{var}(\mathbf{Y}_i) = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & \text{cov}(Y_{i1}, Y_{i2}) & \text{cov}(Y_{i1}, Y_{i4}) \\ \text{cov}(Y_{i2}, Y_{i1}) & \sigma^2 & \text{cov}(Y_{i2}, Y_{i4}) \\ \text{cov}(Y_{i4}, Y_{i1}) & \text{cov}(Y_{i4}, Y_{i2}) & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- The **compound symmetry** assumption would be represented in the same way regardless of the missing value; all it says is that observations **any** distance apart have the **same** correlation. Thus, under this assumption, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ would be the (3×3) version of this matrix.
- Under an **unstructured** assumption, this matrix becomes (convince yourself!)

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{14} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_2^2 & \sigma_{24} \\ \sigma_{14} & \sigma_{24} & \sigma_4^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Under the **one-dependent** model, which says that only observations adjacent in time are correlated, this matrix becomes (convince yourself!)

$$\Sigma_i = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & \rho\sigma^2 & 0 \\ \rho\sigma^2 & \sigma^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Under the **AR(1)** model, this matrix becomes (convince yourself!)

$$\Sigma_i = \sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho^3 \\ \rho & 1 & \rho^2 \\ \rho^3 & \rho^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

These examples illustrate the main point – if all observations were intended to be taken at the same times, but some are not available, the covariance matrix must be carefully constructed according to the particular time pattern for each unit, using the convention of the assumed covariance model.

Now consider the situation of the ultrafiltration data. Here, the actual times of observation are **different** for each unit. Consider again the above models.

- Here, the **unstructured** assumptions are difficult to justify. Because each unit was seen at a different set of times, they cannot share the same covariance parameters, so the matrix Σ_i must depend on entirely different quantities for each i .
- The **compound symmetry** assumption could still be used, as it does not pay attention to the actual values of the times. Of course, it still suffers from the drawbacks for longitudinal data we have already noted.
- We might still be willing to adopt something like the **one-dependent** assumption in the same spirit as with compound symmetry, saying that observations that are adjacent in time, **regardless** of how far apart they might be, are correlated, but those farther are not. However, it is possible that the distance in time for adjacent observations for one unit might be **longer** than the distance for nonconsecutive observations for another unit, making this seem pretty nonsensical!
- The AR(1) assumption is clearly inappropriate by the same type of reasoning.
- The so-called **Markov** assumption seems more promising in this situation – the correlation among observations within a unit would depend on the **time distances** between observations within a unit.

Clearly, with different times for different units, modeling covariance is more challenging! In fact, it is even hard to investigate the issue informally, because the information from each unit is **different**. In the next two chapters of the course, we will talk about another approach to modeling longitudinal data that obviates the need to think quite so hard about all of this!

INDEPENDENCE ASSUMPTION: An alternative to all of the above, in both cases of balanced and unbalanced data, is the assumption that observations within a unit are **uncorrelated**, which, with the assumption of multivariate normality implies that they are **independent**. That is, if we believe that all observations have **constant variance** $\text{var}(Y_{ij}) = \sigma^2$, take

$$\Sigma_i = \text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}.$$

- This assumption seems incredibly unrealistic for longitudinal data. It says that observations on the same unit are no more alike than those compared across units! In a practical sense, it implies variation **among units** must be negligible; otherwise, we would expect observations on the same individual to be **correlated** due to this source.
- It also says that there is **no correlation** induced by within-unit fluctuations over time. This might be okay if the observations are all taken sufficiently far apart in time from one another, however, may be unrealistic if they are close in time.
- Occasionally, this model might be sensible, e.g. suppose the units are genetically-engineered mice, bred specifically to be as alike as possible. Under such conditions, we might expect that the component of variation due to variation among mice might indeed be so small as to be regarded as negligible. If furthermore the observations on a given mouse are all far apart in time, then we would expect no correlation for this reason, either.
- In most situations, however, this assumption represents an obvious **model misspecification**, i.e. the model almost certainly does not accurately represent the truth.
- However, sometimes, this assumption is adopted nonetheless, even though the data analyst is **fully aware** it is likely to be incorrect. The rationale will be discussed later in the course.

SUMMARY: The important message is that, by thinking about the situation at hand, it is possible to specify models for covariance that represent the main features in terms of a few **parameters**. Thus, just as we model the **systematic component** in terms of a **regression parameter** β , we may model the **random component**.

With models like those above, this is accomplished through a few **covariance parameters** (sometimes called **variance** or **covariance** components), which are the **distinct** elements of the covariance matrix or matrices assumed in the model.

8.5 Inference by maximum likelihood

We have devoted considerable discussion to the idea of **modeling** longitudinal data directly. However, we have not tackled the issue of how to address questions of scientific interest within the context of such a model:

- With a more flexible representation of mean response, we have more latitude for stating such questions, as we have already mentioned.
- For example, consider the dental study. A question of interest has to do with the **rate of change** of distance over time – is it the **same** for boys and girls? In the context of the **classical** ANOVA models discussed earlier, we phrased this question as one of whether or not the mean profiles are **parallel**, and expressed this in terms of the $(\tau\gamma)_{\ell j}$. Of course, in the context of the model given in (8.5) and (8.6), the assumption of **parallelism** is still the focus, but it may be stated more clearly directly in terms of **slope** parameters, i.e.

$$H_0 : \beta_{1,G} = \beta_{1,B}.$$

- Furthermore, we can do more. Because we have an **explicit** representation of the notion of “rate of change” in these slopes, we can also **estimate** the slopes for each gender and provide an estimate of the difference! If the evidence in the data is not strong enough to conclude the need for 2 separate slopes, we could **estimate** a **common** slope.
- Even more than this is possible. Because we have a representation for the **entire** trajectory as a function of time, we can **estimate** the mean distance at **any age** for a boy or girl.

To carry out these analyses formally, then, we need to develop a framework for **estimation** in our model and a procedure to do hypothesis testing. The standard approach under the assumption of multivariate normality is to use the method of **maximum likelihood**.

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD: This is a general method, although we state it here specifically for our model. Maximum likelihood inference is the cornerstone of much of statistical methodology.

The basic premise of maximum likelihood is as follows. We would like to estimate the **parameters** that characterize our model based on the data we have. One approach would be to use as the estimator a value that “best explains” the data we saw. To formalize this

- Find the parameter value that maximizes the probability, or “likelihood” that the observations we might see for a situation like the one of interest would be end up being equal to the data we saw.
- That is, find the value of the parameter that is **best supported** by the data we saw.

Recall that we have a general model of the form

$$\mathbf{Y}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_{n_i}(\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i),$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ is a $(n_i \times n_i)$ **covariance model** depending on some parameters.

- The **regression parameter** $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ characterizes the mean. Suppose it has dimension p .
- Denote the parameters that characterize $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ as $\boldsymbol{\omega}$.
- For example, in the AR(1) model, $\boldsymbol{\omega} = (\sigma^2, \rho)$.

For us, the **data** are the collection of data vectors \mathbf{Y}_i , $i = 1, \dots, m$, one from each unit. It will prove convenient to summarize all the data together in a single, long vector of length N (recall N is the total number of observations $\sum_{i=1}^m n_i$), which “stacks” them on one another:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_1 \\ \mathbf{Y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{Y}_m \end{pmatrix}.$$

INDEPENDENCE ACROSS UNITS: Recall that we have argued that a reasonable assumption is that the way the data turn out for one unit should be unrelated to how they turn out for another. Formally, this may be represented as the assumption that the \mathbf{Y}_i , $i = 1, \dots, m$ are **independent**.

- This assumption is standard in the context of longitudinal data, and we will adopt it for the rest of the course.
- Recall that this assumption also underlied the univariate and multivariate classical methods.

JOINT DENSITY OF \mathbf{Y} : We may represent the probability of seeing data we saw as a function of the values of the **parameters** $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ by appealing to our multivariate normal assumption. Specifically, recall that if we believe $\mathbf{Y}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_{n_i}(\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i)$, then the probability that this data vector takes on the particular value \mathbf{y}_i is represented by the **joint density** function for the multivariate normal (recall Chapter 3).

For our model, this is

$$f_i(\mathbf{y}_i) = (2\pi)^{-n_i/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|^{-1/2} \exp\{-(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})/2\} \quad (8.15)$$

Because the \mathbf{Y}_i are **independent**, the joint density function for \mathbf{Y} is the **product** of the m individual joint densities (8.15); i.e. letting $f(\mathbf{y})$ be the joint density function for all the data \mathbf{Y} (thus representing probabilities of all the data vectors taking on the values in \mathbf{y} together)

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^m f_i(\mathbf{y}_i) = \prod_{i=1}^m (2\pi)^{-n_i/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|^{-1/2} \exp\{-(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})/2\}. \quad (8.16)$$

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATORS: The method of maximum likelihood for our problem thus boils down to **maximizing** $f(\mathbf{y})$ (evaluated at the data values we saw) in the **unknown parameters** $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$. The maximizing values will be functions of \mathbf{y} . These functions applied to the random vector \mathbf{Y} yield the so-called **maximum likelihood (ML) estimators**.

- (8.16) is a complicated function of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$. Thus, finding the values that maximize it for a given set of data is not something that can be done in **closed form** in general. Rather, fancy numerical algorithms, the details of which are beyond the scope of this course, are used. These algorithms form the “guts” of software for this purpose, such as SAS PROC MIXED and others.

SPECIAL CASE – $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ KNOWN: We first consider an “ideal” situation unlikely to occur in practice. Suppose we were lucky enough to **know** $\boldsymbol{\omega}$; e.g., if the covariance model were AR(1), this means we **know** σ^2 and ρ . In this case, all the elements of the matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ for all i are known. In this case, it is possible to show using matrix calculus that the maximizer of $f(\mathbf{y})$ in $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, evaluated at \mathbf{Y} , is

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}_i' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}_i' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_i. \quad (8.17)$$

WEIGHTED LEAST SQUARES: Note that this has a similar flavor to the **weighted least squares** estimator we discussed in Chapter 3. In fact, the estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is usually called **weighted least squares estimator** in this context as well!

- In fact, it may be shown that **maximizing** the **likelihood** (8.16) evaluated at \mathbf{Y} is equivalent to **minimizing** the sum of **quadratic forms**

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{Y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{Y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}). \quad (8.18)$$

ALTERNATIVE REPRESENTATION: The following alternative representation makes this even more clear. Define

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad (N \times p).$$

With this definition, and defining $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ as the N -vector of $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$ stacked as in \mathbf{Y} , we may write the model succinctly as (convince yourself)

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}.$$

Note that we thus have $E(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$.

- This way of representing the general model is standard and is used in most texts on longitudinal data analysis. It is also used in SAS documentation.

Also define the $(N \times N)$ matrix

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_m \end{pmatrix},$$

the **block diagonal matrix** with the m $(n_i \times n_i)$ covariance matrices along the “diagonal.”

- It is a matrix exercise to realize that we may thus write the assumption on the covariance matrices of all m \mathbf{Y}_i succinctly as (try it)

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{Y}) = \tilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}.$$

- It may then be shown that the weighted least squares estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ may be written (try it!)

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}.$$

Compare this to the form for usual regression in Chapter 3.

- It may be shown in this notation that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ **minimizes** the **quadratic form** (rewrite (8.18))

$$(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}).$$

INTERPRETATION: In either form, the weighted least squares estimator $\hat{\beta}$ has the same interpretation. Consider (8.17). Note that the contribution of each data vector to $\hat{\beta}$ is being **weighted** in accordance with its covariance matrix. Data vectors with “**more variation**” as measured through the covariance matrix get weighted less, and conversely. The same interpretation may be made from inspection of the alternative representation. Here, we see how this weighting is occurring across the entire data set; each part of \mathbf{Y} is getting weighted by its covariance matrix, so that the data vector as a whole is being weighted by the **overall** covariance matrix $\tilde{\Sigma}$.

SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION: By identical arguments as used in Chapter 3, it may thus be shown that $\hat{\beta}$ is **unbiased** and the **sampling distribution** of $\hat{\beta}$ is multivariate normal, i.e.

$$E(\hat{\beta}) = (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X}\beta = \beta.$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\beta}) = (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\tilde{\Sigma}\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1} = (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}.$$

It thus follows that

$$\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}_p\{\beta, (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\}.$$

- This fact could be used to construct standard errors for the elements of $\hat{\beta}$. For example, we could attach a standard error to the estimate of the slope of the distance-age relationship for boys in the dental study.

ω *UNKNOWN:* Of course, the chances that we would actually **know** ω are pretty remote. The more relevant case is where both β and ω are **unknown**. In this situation, we would have to maximize (8.16) in both to obtain the ML estimators. Unlike the case above, it is not possible to write down nice expressions for the estimators; rather, their values must be found by numerical algorithms. However, it is possible to show that the ML estimator for $\hat{\beta}$ may be written, in the original notation

$$\hat{\beta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_i$$

where $\hat{\Sigma}_i$ is the covariance matrix for \mathbf{Y}_i with the estimator for ω plugged in.

- It is not possible to write down an expression for the estimator for ω , $\hat{\omega}$; thus, the expression for $\hat{\beta}$ is really not a closed form expression, either, despite its tidy appearance.
- This estimator is often called the (estimated) **generalized least squares** estimator for β . The designation “generalized” emphasizes that Σ_i is not known and its parameters estimated.

LARGE SAMPLE THEORY: It is a standard problem in statistical methodology that estimators for complicated models often cannot be written down in a nice compact, closed form. There is a further implication.

- In our problem, note that when $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ was **known**, it was possible to derive the **sampling distribution** of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ **exactly** and to show that it is an **unbiased** estimator for $\boldsymbol{\beta}$.
- With $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ unknown, the matrices $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ are replaced by $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i$ in the form of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$. The result is that it is no longer possible to calculate the mean, covariance matrix, or anything else for $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ exactly; e.g.

$$E(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = E \left\{ \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_i \right\}.$$

Because $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_i$ depends on $\hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}$, which in turn depends on the data \mathbf{Y}_i , it is generally the case that it is not possible to do this calculation in closed form. Similarly, it is no longer necessarily the case that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ has **exactly** a p -variate normal sampling distribution.

In situations such as these, it is hopeless to try to derive these needed quantities. The best that can be hoped for is to try to **approximate** them under some **simplifying** conditions. The usual simplifying conditions involve letting the **sample size** (i.e. number of units m in our case) get **large**. That is, the behavior of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is evaluated under the mathematical condition that

$$m \rightarrow \infty.$$

- It turns out that, mathematically, under this condition, it is possible to evaluate the sampling distribution of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ and show that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is “unbiased” in a certain sense.
- Such results are **not exact**. Rather, they are **approximations** in the following sense. We find what happens in the “ideal” situation where the sample size grows **infinitely** large. We then hope that this will be **approximately** true if the sample size m is **finite**. Often, if m is moderately large, the approximation is very good; however, how “large” is “large” is difficult to determine.

Such arguments are far beyond our scope here, but be aware that all but the most basic statistical methodology relies on them. We now state the **large sample theory** results applicable to our problem. It may be shown that, **approximately**, for m “large,”

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim \mathcal{N}_p\{\boldsymbol{\beta}, (\mathbf{X}'\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\}. \quad (8.19)$$

That is, the **sampling distribution** of $\hat{\beta}$ may be **approximated** by a multivariate normal distribution with mean β and covariance matrix $(\mathbf{X}'\hat{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$, which may be written in the alternative form

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \Sigma_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i\right)^{-1}.$$

- Note that the form of the covariance matrix **depends on** the true values of the Σ_i matrices, which in turn depend on the **unknown** parameter ω .
- Thus, for practical use, a **further** approximation is made. The covariance matrix of the sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}$ is approximated by

$$\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i\right)^{-1}, \quad (8.20)$$

where as before $\hat{\Sigma}_i$ denote the matrices Σ_i with the estimated value for ω plugged in. We will use the symbol $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}$ in the sequel to refer to this estimator for the covariance matrix of the sampling distribution of $\hat{\beta}$.

- Standard errors for the components of $\hat{\beta}$ are then found in practice by evaluating (8.20) at the data and taking the square roots of the diagonal elements.
- It is important to recognize that these standard errors and other inferences based on this approximation are exactly that, **approximate**! Thus, one should not get too carried away – as we now discuss, if a test statistic gives **borderline** evidence of a difference for a particular level of significance α (e.g. = 0.05), it is best to state that the evidence is inconclusive. This is in fact true even for statistical methods where the sampling distributions are known exactly. In any case, the data may not really satisfy **all** assumptions exactly, so it is always best to interpret borderline evidence with care.

It is also possible to derive an approximate sampling distribution for $\hat{\omega}$; however, usually, interest focuses on hypotheses about β and its elements, so this is not often done. Moreover, any inference on parameters that describe covariance matrices, exact or approximate, is usually quite **sensitive** to the assumption of multivariate normality being **exactly correct**. If it is not, the tests can be quite misleading. For these reasons, we will focus on inference about β .

QUESTIONS OF INTEREST: Often, questions of interest may be phrased in terms of a **linear function** of the elements of β . For example, consider the dental study data.

- Suppose we wish to investigate the difference between the slopes $\beta_{1,G}$ and $\beta_{1,B}$ for boys and girls and have parameterized the model explicitly in terms of these values. Then we are interested in the quantity

$$\beta_{1,G} - \beta_{1,B}.$$

With $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ defined as in (8.8),

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,G} \\ \beta_{1,G} \\ \beta_{0,B} \\ \beta_{1,B} \end{pmatrix},$$

we may write this as $\mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta}$, where $\mathbf{L} = (0, 1, 0, -1)$ (verify).

- Suppose we want to investigate whether the two lines **coincide**; that is, both intercepts and slopes are the same for both genders. We are thus interested in the two **contrasts**

$$\beta_{0,G} - \beta_{0,B}, \quad \beta_{1,G} - \beta_{1,B}$$

simultaneously. We may state this as $\mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta}$, where \mathbf{L} is the (2×4) matrix

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Suppose we are interested in the mean distance for a boy 11 years of age; that is, we are interested in the quantity

$$\beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_0, \quad t_0 = 11.$$

We can write this in the form $\mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ by defining

$$\mathbf{L} = (0, 0, 1, t_0).$$

It should be clear that, given knowledge of how a model has been **parameterized**, one may specify appropriate matrices \mathbf{L} of dimension $(r \times p)$ to represent various questions of interest.

ESTIMATION: The natural estimate of a quantity or quantities represented as $\mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is to substitute the estimator for $\boldsymbol{\beta}$; i.e. $\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$.

- For example, in the final example above, we may wish to obtain an estimate of the mean distance for a boy 11 years of age.
- To accompany the estimate, we would like an estimated standard error. This would also allow us to construct confidence intervals for the quantity of interest.

If we treat the approximate covariance matrix (8.20) and the multivariate normality of $\hat{\beta}$ as **exactly correct**, then we may apply standard results to obtain the following:

- The approximate covariance matrix of $\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta}$ is given by

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta}) = \mathbf{L}\text{var}(\hat{\beta})\mathbf{L}' = \mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}\mathbf{L}'.$$

- Thus, we approximate the sampling distribution of the linear function $\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta}$ as

$$\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}_r(\mathbf{L}\beta, \mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}\mathbf{L}'). \quad (8.21)$$

The approximation (8.21) may be used as follows:

- If \mathbf{L} is a single row vector ($r = 1$), as in the case of estimating the mean for 11 year old boys, then $\mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}\mathbf{L}'$ is a **scalar**, and is thus the estimated sampling variance of $\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta}$. The square root of this quantity is thus an estimated standard error for $\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta}$. Based on the approximate normality, we might form a **confidence interval** in the usual way; letting $SE(\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta})$ be the estimated standard error, form the interval as

$$\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta} \pm z_{\alpha/2}SE(\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta})$$

where $z_{\alpha/2}$ is the value with with $\alpha/2$ area to the right under the standard normal probability density curve. Some people use a t critical value in place of the normal critical value, with degrees of freedom chosen in various ways. Because of the large sample approximation, it is not clear which method gives the most accurate intervals for any given problem.

WALD TESTS OF STATISTICAL HYPOTHESES: For a given choice of \mathbf{L} , we might be interested in a test of the issue addressed by \mathbf{L} ; e.g. testing whether the girl and boy slopes are different.

In general, we may interested in a test of the hypotheses

$$H_0 : \mathbf{L}\beta = \mathbf{h} \text{ vs. } H_1 : \mathbf{L}\beta \neq \mathbf{h},$$

where \mathbf{h} is a specified ($r \times 1$) vector. Most often, \mathbf{h} will be equal to $\mathbf{0}$.

- If $r = 1$ so that \mathbf{L} is a row vector, then the obvious approach (approximate, of course) is to form the test statistic

$$z = \frac{\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta} - \mathbf{h}}{SE(\mathbf{L}\hat{\beta})}$$

and compare z to the critical values of the standard normal distribution. (Some people compare z to the t distribution with degrees of freedom picked in different ways.)

- Recall that if Z is a standard normal random variable, then Z^2 has a χ^2 distribution with one degree of freedom. Thus, we could conduct the identical test by comparing z^2 to the appropriate χ_1^2 critical value. In fact, we can write z^2 equivalently as

$$(\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{h})'(\mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}\mathbf{L}')^{-1}(\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{h}).$$

- This may be generalized to \mathbf{L} of row dimension r , representing simultaneous testing of r separate **contrasts**. If \mathbf{L} is of **full rank** (so that none of the contrasts duplicates the others) then

$$T_L = (\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{h})'(\mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}\mathbf{L}')^{-1}(\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{h})$$

is still a scalar, of course. Because $\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is approximately normally distributed, it may be argued that a generic statistic of form T_L has approximately a χ^2 distribution with r degrees of freedom. Thus, a test of such hypotheses may be conducted by comparing T_L to the appropriate χ_r^2 critical value: Reject H_0 in favor of H_1 at level α if $T_L > \chi_{r,1-\alpha}^2$, where $\chi_{r,1-\alpha}^2$ is the value such that the area under the χ^2 distribution to the right is equal to α .

The above methods exploit the multivariate normal approximation (8.19) to the sampling distribution of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ (and hence $\mathbf{L}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$). These approaches treat this approximation as **exact** and then construct familiar test statistics that would have a χ^2 distribution if it were. This is usually referred to in this context as **Wald inference**. Unfortunately, Wald inferential methods may have a drawback.

- When the sample size m is not too large, the resulting inferences may not be too reliable. This is because they rely on a normal approximation to the sampling distribution that may be a lousy approximation unless m is relatively large.
- Sometimes, the χ^2 distribution is replaced with an F distribution to make the test more reliable in small samples (PROC MIXED implements this).

LIKELIHOOD RATIO TEST: An alternative to Wald approximate methods is that of the **likelihood ratio test**. This is also an **approximate** method, also based on large sample theory (i.e large m); however, it has been observed that this approach tends to be more reliable when m is not too large than the Wald approach.

The likelihood ratio test is applicable in the situation in which we wish to test what are often called “reduced” versus “full” model hypotheses. For example, consider the dental data. Suppose we are interested in testing whether the slopes for boys and girls are the same, i.e.

$$H_0 : \beta_{1,G} - \beta_{1,B} = 0 \text{ versus } H_1 : \beta_{1,G} - \beta_{1,B} \neq 0.$$

These hypotheses allow the intercepts to be anything, focusing only on the slopes. If we think of the alternative hypothesis H_1 as specifying the “full” model, i.e. with no restrictions on any of the values of intercepts or slopes, then the null hypothesis H_0 represents a “reduced” model in the sense that it requires two of the parameters (the **slopes**) to be the **same**.

- The “reduced” model is just a special instance of the “full” model. Thus, the “reduced” model and the null hypothesis are said to be **nested** within the “full” model and alternative hypothesis.

When hypotheses are **nested** in this way, so that we may think naturally of a “full” (H_1) and “reduced” (H_0) model, a fundamental result of statistical theory is that one may construct an approximate test of H_0 vs. H_1 based on the **likelihoods** for the two nested models under consideration. Suppose the model for the mean of a data vector \mathbf{Y}_i under the “full” model is $\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$. Recall that the **likelihood** is

$$L_{\text{full}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) = \prod_{i=1}^m (2\pi)^{-n_i/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|^{-1/2} \exp\{-(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})/2\}.$$

Under the “reduced” model, the likelihood is the same **except** that the mean of a data vector is **restricted** to have the form specified under H_0 . For our dental example, the restriction is that the two slope parameters are the **same**; thus, the **regression parameter** $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ for the reduced model contains **one less** element than does the full model, and the matrices \mathbf{X}_i must be adjusted accordingly; e.g. if β_1 equals the **common** slope value, then

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0,G} + \beta_1 t_j + e_{ij} \text{ for girls,}$$

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0,B} + \beta_1 t_j + e_{ij} \text{ for boys.}$$

Let $\boldsymbol{\beta}_0$ denote the new definition of regression parameter if the restriction of H_0 is imposed. Then let

$$L_{\text{red}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \boldsymbol{\omega})$$

denote the likelihood for this reduced model.

Suppose now that we **fit** each model by the method of maximum likelihood by maximizing the likelihoods

$$L_{\text{full}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\omega}) \text{ and } L_{\text{red}}(\boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \boldsymbol{\omega}),$$

respectively. For the reduced model, this means estimating $\boldsymbol{\beta}_0$ and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ corresponding to the reduced model. Let \hat{L}_{full} and \hat{L}_{red} denote the values of the likelihoods with the estimates plugged in:

$$\hat{L}_{\text{full}} = L_{\text{full}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}) \text{ and } \hat{L}_{\text{red}} = L_{\text{red}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_0, \hat{\boldsymbol{\omega}}).$$

Then the **likelihood ratio statistic** is given by

$$T_{LRT} = -2\{\log \hat{L}_{\text{red}} - \log \hat{L}_{\text{full}}\} = -2\log \hat{L}_{\text{red}} + 2\log \hat{L}_{\text{full}} \quad (8.22)$$

Technical arguments may be used to show that, for $m \rightarrow \infty$, T_{LRT} has approximately a χ^2 distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in number of parameters in two models ($\#$ in full model $- \#$ in reduced model). Thus, if this difference is equal to r , say, then we reject H_0 in favor of H_1 at level of significance α if

$$T_{LRT} > \chi_{r,1-\alpha}^2.$$

- The likelihood ratio test is an **approximate** test, as it is based on using the large sample approximation. Thus, it is unwise to get too excited about “borderline” evidence on the basis of this test.
- The test is often thought to be more reliable than Wald-type tests when m is not too large.
- It is in fact the case that **Wilks’ lambda** is the likelihood ratio test statistic for the MANOVA model.

ALTERNATIVE METHODS FOR MODEL COMPARISON: One drawback of the likelihood ratio test is that it requires the model under the null hypothesis to be **nested** within that of the alternative. Other approaches to comparing models have been proposed that do not require this restriction. These are based on the notion of comparing **penalized** versions of the logarithm of the likelihoods obtained under H_0 and H_1 , where that “penalty” adjusts each log-likelihood according to the number of parameters that must be fitted. It is a fact that, the more parameters we add to a model, the larger the (log) likelihood becomes. Thus, if we wish to compare two models with different numbers of parameters fairly, it seems we must take this fact into account. Then, one compares the “penalized” versions of the log-likelihoods. Depending on how these “penalized” versions are defined, one prefers the model that gives either the **smaller** or **larger** value.

Let $\log \hat{L}$ denote a log-likelihood for a fitted model. Two such “penalized” versions of the log-likelihood are

- **Akaike’s information criterion (AIC)**. The penalty is to subtract the number of parameters fitted for each model. That is, if s is the number of parameters in the model,

$$AIC = \log \hat{L} - s;$$

one would prefer the model with the **larger** AIC value.

- **Schwarz’s Bayesian information criterion (BIC)**. The penalty is to subtract the number of parameters fitted further adjusted for the number of observations. If as before N is the total number of observations,

$$BIC = \log \hat{L} - s \log N/2.$$

One would prefer the model with the **larger** BIC value.

In the current version of SAS PROC MIXED, a **negative** version of these is used, so that one prefers the model with the **smaller** value instead; see Section 8.8.

A full discussion of this approach and the theory underlying these methods is beyond our scope. Comparison of AIC and BIC values is often used as follows: one might fit the same mean model with several different covariance models, and choose the covariance model the seems to “do best” in terms of giving the “largest” AIC , BIC , and (\log) likelihood values overall. Here, s would be the number of covariance parameters. It is customary to consider the logarithm of the likelihood rather than the likelihood itself, partly because of the form of the likelihood ratio test. Because \log is a **monotone** transformation (meaning it preserves order), operating on the log scale instead doesn’t change anything.

8.6 Restricted maximum likelihood

A widely acknowledged problem with maximum likelihood estimation has to do with the estimation of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ that characterize the covariance structure. Although the ML estimates of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ for a particular model are (approximately) unbiased, the estimators for $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ have been observed to be **biased** when m is not too large; for parameters that represent **variances**, it is usually the case that the estimated values are too **small**, thus giving an optimistic picture of how variable things really are.

LINEAR REGRESSION: The problem may be appreciated by recalling the simpler problem of linear regression; here, we use the notation in the way it was used in Chapter 3. Recall in this model that we the data \mathbf{y} ($n \times 1$) are assumed to have covariance matrix $\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$, so that the elements of \mathbf{y} are assumed independent, each with variance σ^2 . If $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is the least squares estimator for the $(p \times 1)$ regression parameter, then the usual estimator for σ^2 is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = (n - p)^{-1} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}).$$

- Thus, $\hat{\sigma}^2$ has the form of the **average** of a sum of n squared deviations, with the exception that we divide by $(n - p)$ rather than n to form the average. We showed in Chapter 3 that this is done so that the estimator is **unbiased**; recall we showed

$$E(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = (n - p)\sigma^2.$$

- If we divided by n instead, note that we would be dividing by something that is **too big**, leading to an estimator that is **too small**
- Informally, the reason for this **bias** has to do with the fact that we have replaced $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ with the estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ in the quadratic form above. It is straightforward to see that if we **knew** $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and replaced $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ by $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ in the quadratic form, we have

$$E(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = n\sigma^2$$

(convince yourself). Thus, the fact that we don't know $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ requires us to divide the quadratic form by $(n - p)$ rather than n .

It is not surprising that it is desirable to do something similar when estimating **covariance parameters** $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ in our more complicated regression models for longitudinal data. A detailed treatment of the more technical aspects may be found in Diggle, Heagerty, Liang, and Zeger (2002). Here, we just give a heuristic rationale for an “adjusted” form of maximum likelihood that acts in the same spirit as “using $(n - p)$ rather than n ” in the ordinary regression model.

- It turns out that the ML estimator for $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ in our longitudinal data regression model has the form we would use if we **knew** $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. Thus, it does not acknowledge the fact that $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ must be estimated along with $\boldsymbol{\omega}$. The result is the biased estimation mentioned above.
- The “adjustment” involves replacing the usual likelihood

$$\prod_{i=1}^m (2\pi)^{-n_i/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|^{-1/2} \exp\{-(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})/2\}$$

by

$$\prod_{i=1}^m (2\pi)^{-n_i/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|^{-1/2} |\mathbf{X}_i' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i|^{-1/2} \exp\{-(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta})/2\}. \quad (8.23)$$

The “extra” determinant term in (8.23) serves to “automatically” introduce the necessary correction in a manner similar to changing the divisor as in linear regression above.

- It may be shown by matrix calculus that the form estimator for β found by maximizing (8.23) is identical to that before; i.e.

$$\hat{\beta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_i$$

where now $\hat{\Sigma}_i$ is the covariance matrix for \mathbf{Y}_i with the estimator for ω found by maximizing (8.23) jointly plugged in.

- The difference is that the estimator for ω found by maximizing (8.23) jointly with β instead of the usual likelihood is used.
- The resulting estimator for ω has been observed to be less biased for finite values of m than the ML estimator.

The **objective function** (8.23) and the resulting estimation method are known as **restricted maximum likelihood**, or **REML**.

- Estimates of ω obtained by this approach are often preferred in practice. In fact, PROC MIXED in SAS uses this method as the **default** method for finding estimates if the user does not specify otherwise (see section 8.8).
- Formulæ for standard errors for $\hat{\beta}$ obtained this way are identical to those for the ML estimator, except that the REML estimator is used to form Σ_i instead. Wald tests may be constructed in the same way and are valid tests (except for the concern about the quality of the large sample approximation just as for tests based on ML).
- Some people use the REML function in place of the usual likelihood to form likelihood ratio tests and the AIC and BIC criteria. If the test concerns different mean models, this is generally not recommended, as it is not clear that the “restricted likelihood ratio” statistic ought to have a χ^2 distribution when m is large. Thus, it has been advocated to carry out tests involving the components of β using ML to fit the model. However, if one’s main interest is in **estimates** of the covariance parameters ω (e.g. estimating σ^2 and ρ in the AR(1) model), then REML estimators should be employed because of they are likely to be less biased.
- Use of the AIC and BIC criteria based on the REML objective function to choose among covariance models for the **same** mean model is often used. In this case, the number of parameters s is equal to the number of covariance parameters only.
- There is really no “right” or “wrong” approach; most of what is done in practice is based on *ad hoc* procedures and some subjectivity. We will exhibit this in section 8.8.

8.7 Discussion

We have given a brief overview of the main features of taking a more direct regression modeling approach to longitudinal data. In this approach, we are able to incorporate information in a straightforward fashion. A key aspect is the flexibility allowed in choosing models for the covariance structure. Inference within this model framework may be conducted using the standard techniques of maximum likelihood, which gives **approximate** tests and standard errors.

Here, we comment on additional features, advantages, and disadvantages of this approach;

BALANCED DATA: When the data are **balanced**, so that each unit is seen at the same time points, it turns out that, under certain conditions for certain models, the **weighted** and **generalized** least squares estimators for β are **identical** to the estimator obtained by simply taking $\Sigma_i = \Sigma = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$ for all i .

- This estimator may be thought of as the ordinary least squares estimator treating the combined data vector \mathbf{y} of all the data ($N \times 1$) as if they came from one **huge** individual. That is, all the N observations **within and across** all the \mathbf{Y}_i are being treated independent under the normality assumption! In the sequel, we will call this estimator $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$.

- Formally,

$$\hat{\beta}_{OLS} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \mathbf{Y}_i.$$

Thus, the weighted and generalized least squares estimators reduce to being the same as an estimator that does **no weighting** by covariance matrices at all!

- This feature is exhibited in the dental study example analysis in section 8.8.
- It may seem curious that this is the case; we will say more about this curiosity in the next two chapters. It turns out that when the covariance model has a certain form, this correspondence is to be expected.

- This feature might make one question the need to bother with worrying about covariance modeling **at all** under these conditions! Why not just pretend the issue doesn't exist, as the estimates of β are the same? **However**, although the **estimates** of β have the same value, the **standard errors** we calculate for them will **not!** I.e., the estimated covariance matrix calculated as if the data were all independent would be

$$\sigma^2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \sigma^2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1}$$

while that calculated using an assumed covariance structure acknowledging correlation would be

$$\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \widehat{\Sigma}_i^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1}.$$

Wald tests conducted using the first matrix to compute standard errors will be **incorrect** if the data really are correlated as we expect.

- The same comment is true for likelihood and restricted likelihood inferences such as the likelihood ratio test. If the data **really are** correlated within units as we expect, basing inferences on a model that explicitly acknowledges this is preferred.

CHOOSING AN APPROPRIATE COVARIANCE MODEL: Because we are dealing with longitudinal data, we fully expect that the covariance matrix of a data vector to be something that incorporates correlations among observations within a vector that are thought to arise because of

- Variation **among** units – observations on the same unit are “more alike” than those compared across units simply because they are from the same unit.
- Variation due to the way the observations **within** a unit were collected. A main feature is, of course, that they are collected over **time**.

In the approach we have discussed here, a **covariance model** is to be chosen that hopefully characterizes well the **aggregate** variation from both of these sources. We have discussed several covariance models; many of these, such as the AR(1) model, seemed to focus primarily on the longitudinal aspect (how data **within** a unit are collected). Obviously, identifying an appropriate model will be difficult, particularly when it is supposed to represent **all** of the variation.

- Thus, choosing among models is to some extent an “art form.” Formal techniques, such as inspection of the AIC and BIC criteria may be used to aid in this, but a good dose of subjectivity is also involved.

- Informal **graphical** and other techniques may be used based on a **preliminary fit** using ordinary least squares, as described earlier. In the next chapter we will discuss a special class of models that make the job of specifying covariance a bit easier.
- It may be that **none** of the models we have discussed is truly appropriate to capture all the sources of variation. The models of the next chapters offer another approach.

We now summarize the main features of the general regression approach and its advantages over the classical techniques. We also point out some of the possible pitfalls.

ADVANTAGES:

- The regression approach gives the analyst much flexibility in representing the form of the mean response. The fact that the mean may be modeled as smoothly changing functions of time and other covariates means that it is straightforward to obtain meaningful **estimates** of quantities of interest, such as slopes representing rates of change and estimates of precision (standard errors) for them. Tests of hypotheses are also straightforward. Moreover, this type of modeling readily allows estimation of the mean response at **any** time point and covariate setting, not just those in the experiment (as long as we think the model is reasonable).
- The approach does not require **balance**. Data vectors may be of different lengths, and observations may have been made a different times for each unit. It is, however, important to note that if imbalance is caused by data intended to be collected but **missing** at some time points, then there may still be problems. If the missingness is completely unrelated to the issues under study (e.g. a sample for a certain subject at a certain time is mistakenly destroyed or misplaced in the lab), then the fact that the data are imbalanced does not raise any concerns – analysis using the methods we have discussed will be valid. However, if missingness is suspected to be **related** to the issues under study (e.g. in a study to compare 2 treatments for AIDS a subject does not show up for scheduled visits because he is too sick to come to the clinic), then the fact that the data are imbalanced itself has information in it about the issues! In this case, fancier methods that acknowledge this may be needed. Such methods are an area of active statistical research and are beyond our scope here. We discuss the issue of missing data again later in the course.

- The regression approach offers the analyst much latitude in modeling the covariance matrix of a data vector. The analyst may select from a variety of possible models based on knowledge of the situation and the evidence in the data. In contrast, the classical methods “force” certain structures to be assumed.

DISADVANTAGES:

- Although there is flexibility in modeling covariance, the approach forces the analyst to model the **aggregate** variation from **all** sources together. The analyst is forced to think about this in the context of specifying a single covariance matrix form for each unit. The standard models, such as AR(1), seem to focus mainly on the part of correlation we might expect because of the way the data were collected (over time). It is not clear how correlation induced because of among-unit variation is captured in these models. The problem is that statistical model itself does not acknowledge explicitly the two main sources of variation **separately**: within and among units. The univariate ANOVA model **does** acknowledge these, but the form of the model assumed results in a very restrictive form for the covariance matrices Σ_i (compound symmetry). In future chapters we study models that **do** account for these sources in the model separately, but are more flexible than the ANOVA model.
- The regression approach involves direct modeling of the **mean response vector**. That is, the analyst focuses attention on the the means at each time point, and then how these **means** change over time, and does not consider individual unit trajectories. However, an alternative perspective arises from thinking about the conceptual model in Chapter 4. In particular, one might **start** from the view that each unit has its **own** “inherent trajetory” over time and develop a model on this basis. In the dental study, these might be thought of as straight lines, which may vary in placement and steepness across children. Thinking about individual trajectories rather natural, and leads to another class of models, covered in the next few chapters. The univariate ANOVA model actually represents a crude way of trying to do this; the models we will discuss are more sophisticated.

- In fact, In some situations, scientific interest may not focus only on characterizing the mean vector describing the “typical” response vector or covariance parameters describing the nature of variation in the response. Investigators may be interested in characterizing trajectories for **individual units**; we will discuss examples in the next chapters. The models we have discussed up to now do not offer any framework for doing this. Those we consider next do.
- The inferences carried out on the basis of the model rely on **large sample approximations**. It is in fact true that most inferential methods for complex statistical models are based on large sample approximations, so this is not at all unusual. However, one is always concerned that the approximation is not too good for the finite sample sizes of real life; thus, one has to be cautious and pragmatic when interpreting results. The classical methods often produce **exact** tests; e.g. F statistics have **exactly** F distributions for any sample size. However, these results are only true if the assumptions, such as that of multivariate normality, hold **exactly**; otherwise, the results may be unreliable. In contrast, the large sample results are a good approximation even if the assumption of normality does not hold! The bottom line is that the complexity of modeling and need for assumptions may make **all** methods subject to the disadvantage of possibly erroneous conclusions!

8.8 Implementation with SAS

We illustrate how to carry out analyses based on general regression models for the three examples discussed in this section:

1. The dental study data
2. The ultrafiltration data
3. The hip replacement study data

For each data set, we state some particular questions of interest, statistical models (e.g. “full” and “reduced” models), give examples of how to carry out inferences on the regression parameter β and the covariance parameter ω .

In all cases, we use SAS PROC MIXED with the REPEATED statement to fit several regression models for these data with different assumptions about the covariance structure. The capabilities of PROC MIXED are much broader than illustrated here – the options available are much more extensive, and the procedure is capable of fitting a much larger class of statistical models, including those we consider in the next two chapters. Thus, the examples here only begin to show the possibilities.

IMPORTANT: Version 8.2 of SAS, used here, defines AIC and BIC as -2 times the definitions given in Sections 8.5 and 8.6. Thus, one would prefer the **smaller** value. Older versions of SAS are different; the user can deduce the differences by examining the output.

EXAMPLE 1 – DENTAL STUDY DATA: In the following program, we consider the following issues:

- Recall that these data are **balanced**. We remarked in the last section that for balanced data under certain conditions for certain models, the generalized least squares estimator for β will be identical to the ordinary least squares estimator. We thus obtain both to illustrate this phenomenon and give a hint about the “certain conditions” that apply.
- Based on our previous observations, we consider a model that says the mean response vector is a **straight line** over time. We first consider the “full” model that says this line is different for different genders. This model may be written using different parameterizations as either

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ boys} \\ &= \beta_{0,G} + \beta_{1,G}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ girls} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ boys} \\ &= (\beta_{0,B} + \beta_{0,G-B}) + (\beta_{1,B} + \beta_{1,G-B})t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ girls} \end{aligned} \tag{8.24}$$

- We fit the “full” model for several different candidate covariance structures and use AIC and BIC criteria to aid in selection.
- We then consider Wald, likelihood ratio tests, and the information criteria using the preferred covariance structure. We compare the “full” model to a “reduced” model that says the **slopes** are the same for both genders (we do this in the context of parameterization (8.24)). We use ML for all fits, but show the REML fit of one of the models for comparison. We also consider estimation of the mean response for a boy of 11 years of age under the preferred model.

PROGRAM: The following program carries out many of these analyses and prints out information enabling others to be carried out separately by hand. See the documentation for PROC MIXED for fancy ways to do more of this in SAS.

```

/*****
CHAPTER 8, EXAMPLE 1

Analysis of the dental study data by fitting a general linear
regression model in time and gender structures using PROC MIXED.

- the repeated measurement factor is age (time)
- there is one "treatment" factor, gender

For each gender, the "full" mean model is a straight line in time.

We use the REPEATED statement of PROC MIXED with the
TYPE= options to fit the model assuming several different
covariance structures.
*****/

options ls=80 ps=59 nodate; run;

/*****
Read in the data set (See Example 1 of Chapter 4)
*****/

data dent1; infile 'dental.dat';
  input obsno child age distance gender;
  ag = age*gender;
run;

/*****
Sort the data so we can do gender-by-gender fits.
*****/

proc sort data=dent1; by gender; run;

/*****
First the straight line model separately for each gender and
simultaneously for both genders assuming that the covariance
structure of a data vector is diagonal with constant variance; that
is, use ordinary least squares for each gender separately and
then together.
*****/

title "ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES FITS BY GENDER";
proc reg data=dent1; by gender;
  model distance = age;
run;

title "ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES FIT WITH BOTH GENDERS";
proc reg data=dent1;
  model distance = gender age ag;
run;

/*****

Now use PROC MIXED to fit the more general regression model with
assumptions about the covariance matrix of a data vector. For all
of the fits, we use usual normal maximum likelihood (ML) rather
than restricted maximum likelihood (REML), which is the default.

We do this for each gender separately first using the unstructured
assumption. The main goal is to get insight into whether it might
be the case that the covariance matrix is different for each gender
(e.g. variation is different for each).

The SOLUTION option in the MODEL statement requests that the
estimates of the regression parameters be printed.

The R option in the REPEATED statement as used here requests that
the covariance matrix estimate be printed in matrix form. The
RCORR option requests that the corresponding correlation matrix
be printed.
*****/

```

```

* unstructured covariance matrix;

title "FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1; by gender;
  class child;
  model distance = age / solution;
  repeated / type = un subject=child r rcorr;
run;

/*****

Now do the same analyses with both genders simultaneously.
Consider several models, allowing the covariance matrix to
be either the same or different for each gender using the
GROUP = option, which allows for different covariance
parameters for each GROUP (genders here).

For the fit using TYPE = CS (Compound symmetry) assumed the
same for each group, we illustrate how to fit the two
different parameterizations of the full model. For all other
fits, we just use the second parameterization.

The CHISQ option in the MODEL statement requests that the Wald chi-square
test statistics be printed for certain contrasts of the regression
parameters (see the discussion of the OUTPUT). We only use this for
the second parameterization -- the TESTS OF FIXED EFFECTS are tests
of interest (different intercepts, slopes) in this case.

*****/

* compound symmetry with separate intercept and slope for;
* each gender;

title "COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution ;
  repeated / type = cs subject = child r rcorr;
run;

* compound symmetry with the "difference" parameterization;
* same for each gender;

title "COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender age gender*age / solution chisq;
  repeated / type = cs subject = child r rcorr;
run;

* ar(1) same for each gender;

title "COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child ;
  model distance = gender age age*gender / solution chisq;
  repeated / type = ar(1) subject=child r rcorr;
run;

* one-dependent same for each gender;

title "COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child ;
  model distance = gender age age*gender / solution chisq;
  repeated / type = toep(2) subject=child r rcorr;
run;

* compound symmetry, different for each gender;

title "SEPARATE COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child ;
  model distance = gender age age*gender / solution chisq;
  repeated / type = cs subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
run;

* ar(1), different for each gender;

title "SEPARATE AR(1) FOR EACH GENDER";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child ;
  model distance = gender age age*gender / solution chisq;
  repeated / type = ar(1) subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
run;

```

```

* one-dependent, different for each gender;
title "SEPARATE ONE-DEPENDENT FOR EACH GENDER";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender age age*gender / solution chisq;
  repeated / type = toep(2) subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
run;

/*****

  Examination of the AIC, BIC, and loglikelihood ratios from the
  above fits indicates that

  - a model that allows a separate covariance matrix of the same
    type for each gender is preferred

  - the compound symmetry structure for each gender is preferred

  Thus, for this model, we fit

  - the full model again, now asking for the covariance matrix
    of beta-hat to be printed using the COVB option;

  - the reduced model (equal slopes)

  - the full model using REML

  This will allow a "full" vs. "reduced" likelihood ratio test of
  equal slopes to be performed (by hand from the output).

  We fit the first parameterization this time, so that the estimates
  are interpreted as the gender-specific intercepts and slopes.
  Thus, the TESTS OF FIXED EFFECTS in the output should be disregarded.

*****/

* full model again with covariance matrix of betahat printed;
title "FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution covb;
  repeated / type=cs subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
run;

* reduced model;
title "REDUCED MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender age / noint solution covb;
  repeated / type=cs subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
run;

* full model using REML (the default, so no METHOD= is specified);
* use ESTIMATE statement to estimate the mean for a boy of age 11;
title "FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER, REML";
proc mixed data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution covb;
  repeated / type=cs subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
  estimate 'boy at 11' gender 0 1 gender*age 0 11;
run;

* also fit full model in first parameterization to get chi-square tests;
title "FULL MODEL, DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION";
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child;
  model distance = gender age gender*age / solution chisq covb;
  repeated / type=cs subject=child r rcorr group=gender;
run;

```

OUTPUT: First we display the output; following this, we interpret the output.

```

ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES FITS BY GENDER                                1
----- gender=0 -----
      The REG Procedure
      Model: MODEL1
      Dependent Variable: distance

      Number of Observations Read      44
      Number of Observations Used     44

      Analysis of Variance

Source                DF          Sum of Squares          Mean Square          F Value          Pr > F
Model                  1          50.59205              50.59205            10.80           0.0021
Error                  42          196.69773              4.68328
Corrected Total       43          247.28977

      Root MSE          2.16409          R-Square          0.2046
      Dependent Mean   22.64773          Adj R-Sq         0.1856
      Coeff Var        9.55543

      Parameter Estimates

Variable      DF          Parameter Estimate          Standard Error          t Value          Pr > |t|
Intercept    1          17.37273              1.63776              10.61           <.0001
age          1          0.47955              0.14590              3.29            0.0021

ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES FITS BY GENDER                                2
----- gender=1 -----
      The REG Procedure
      Model: MODEL1
      Dependent Variable: distance

      Number of Observations Read      64
      Number of Observations Used     64

      Analysis of Variance

Source                DF          Sum of Squares          Mean Square          F Value          Pr > F
Model                  1          196.87813              196.87813            36.65           <.0001
Error                  62          333.05938              5.37193
Corrected Total       63          529.93750

      Root MSE          2.31774          R-Square          0.3715
      Dependent Mean   24.96875          Adj R-Sq         0.3614
      Coeff Var        9.28257

      Parameter Estimates

Variable      DF          Parameter Estimate          Standard Error          t Value          Pr > |t|
Intercept    1          16.34063              1.45437              11.24           <.0001
age          1          0.78438              0.12957              6.05            <.0001

ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES FIT WITH BOTH GENDERS                        3
-----
      The REG Procedure
      Model: MODEL1
      Dependent Variable: distance

      Number of Observations Read     108
      Number of Observations Used    108

      Analysis of Variance

Source                DF          Sum of Squares          Mean Square          F Value          Pr > F
Model                  3          387.93503              129.31168            25.39           <.0001
Error                  104         529.75710              5.09382
Corrected Total       107         917.69213

      Root MSE          2.25695          R-Square          0.4227
      Dependent Mean   24.02315          Adj R-Sq         0.4061
      Coeff Var        9.39489

      Parameter Estimates

```

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept	1	17.37273	1.70803	10.17	<.0001
gender	1	-1.03210	2.21880	-0.47	0.6428
age	1	0.47955	0.15216	3.15	0.0021
ag	1	0.30483	0.19767	1.54	0.1261

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER 4

----- gender=0 -----

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Unstructured
Subject Effect	child
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	None
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
child	11	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	10
Columns in X	2
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	11
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	44
Number of Observations Used	44
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	190.75564656	
1	2	130.64154698	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.1129	3.0512	3.9496	3.9689
2	3.0512	3.2894	3.6632	3.7080
3	3.9496	3.6632	5.0966	4.9788

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER 5

----- gender=0 -----

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
4	3.9689	3.7080	4.9788	5.4076

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8295	0.8627	0.8416
2	0.8295	1.0000	0.8946	0.8792
3	0.8627	0.8946	1.0000	0.9484
4	0.8416	0.8792	0.9484	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child	4.1129
UN(2,1)	child	3.0512

UN(2,2)	child	3.2894
UN(3,1)	child	3.9496
UN(3,2)	child	3.6632
UN(3,3)	child	5.0966
UN(4,1)	child	3.9689
UN(4,2)	child	3.7080
UN(4,3)	child	4.9788
UN(4,4)	child	5.4076

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	130.6
AIC (smaller is better)	154.6
AICC (smaller is better)	164.7
BIC (smaller is better)	159.4

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
9	60.11	<.0001

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER 6

----- gender=0 -----

The Mixed Procedure

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept	17.4220	0.6930	10	25.14	<.0001
age	0.4823	0.06144	10	7.85	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
age	1	10	61.62	<.0001

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER 7

----- gender=1 -----

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Unstructured
Subject Effect	child
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	None
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
child	16	12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	10
Columns in X	2
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	16
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	64
Number of Observations Used	64
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	287.18814467	
1	2	264.37833982	0.00000565
2	1	264.37792193	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER 8

----- gender=1 -----

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	5.7813	2.0152	3.3585	1.4987
2	2.0152	4.4035	2.0982	2.6472
3	3.3585	2.0982	6.6064	3.0421
4	1.4987	2.6472	3.0421	4.0783

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.3994	0.5434	0.3086
2	0.3994	1.0000	0.3890	0.6247
3	0.5434	0.3890	1.0000	0.5861
4	0.3086	0.6247	0.5861	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child	5.7813
UN(2,1)	child	2.0152
UN(2,2)	child	4.4035
UN(3,1)	child	3.3585
UN(3,2)	child	2.0982
UN(3,3)	child	6.6064
UN(4,1)	child	1.4987
UN(4,2)	child	2.6472
UN(4,3)	child	3.0421
UN(4,4)	child	4.0783

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	264.4
AIC (smaller is better)	288.4
AICC (smaller is better)	294.5
BIC (smaller is better)	297.6

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
9	22.81	0.0066

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COVARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER 9

----- gender=1 -----

The Mixed Procedure

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept	15.8282	1.1179	15	14.16	<.0001
age	0.8340	0.09274	15	8.99	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
age	1	15	80.86	<.0001

COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE 10

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Compound Symmetry
Subject Effect	child
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within


```

Class Level Information
Class      Levels      Values
gender     2          0 1
child     27          1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13
              14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
              24 25 26 27

Dimensions
Covariance Parameters      2
Columns in X                4
Columns in Z                0
Subjects                    27
Max Obs Per Subject        4

Number of Observations
Number of Observations Read      108
Number of Observations Used      108
Number of Observations Not Used  0

Iteration History
Iteration  Evaluations      -2 Log Like      Criterion
0          1          478.24175986
1          1          428.63905802      0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1
Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
1        4.9052    3.0306    3.0306    3.0306
2        3.0306    4.9052    3.0306    3.0306

COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE      11

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1
Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
3        3.0306    3.0306    4.9052    3.0306
4        3.0306    3.0306    3.0306    4.9052

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1
Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
1        1.0000    0.6178    0.6178    0.6178
2        0.6178    1.0000    0.6178    0.6178
3        0.6178    0.6178    1.0000    0.6178
4        0.6178    0.6178    0.6178    1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates
Cov Parm      Subject      Estimate
CS            child        3.0306
Residual                    1.8746

Fit Statistics
-2 Log Likelihood      428.6
AIC (smaller is better) 440.6
AICC (smaller is better) 441.5
BIC (smaller is better) 448.4

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test
DF      Chi-Square      Pr > ChiSq
1          49.60          <.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects
Effect      gender      Estimate      Standard Error      DF      t Value      Pr > |t|
gender     0          17.3727      1.1615          25          14.96          <.0001
gender     1          16.3406      0.9631          25          16.97          <.0001
age*gender 0          0.4795      0.09231         79          5.20          <.0001
age*gender 1          0.7844      0.07654         79          10.25         <.0001

COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE      12

```

The Mixed Procedure
Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	25	255.79	<.0001
age*gender	2	79	66.01	<.0001

COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE

13

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Compound Symmetry
Subject Effect	child
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	2
Columns in X	6
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	27
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	108
Number of Observations Used	108
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	478.24175986	
1	1	428.63905802	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.9052	3.0306	3.0306	3.0306
2	3.0306	4.9052	3.0306	3.0306

COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE

14

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
3	3.0306	3.0306	4.9052	3.0306
4	3.0306	3.0306	3.0306	4.9052

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.6178	0.6178	0.6178
2	0.6178	1.0000	0.6178	0.6178
3	0.6178	0.6178	1.0000	0.6178
4	0.6178	0.6178	0.6178	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
CS	child	3.0306

```

Residual                                1.8746

Fit Statistics
-2 Log Likelihood                        428.6
AIC (smaller is better)                  440.6
AICC (smaller is better)                  441.5
BIC (smaller is better)                   448.4

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test
DF      Chi-Square      Pr > ChiSq
1          49.60          <.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect      gender      Estimate      Standard      DF      t Value      Pr > |t|
            gender      Estimate      Error
Intercept          16.3406      0.9631      25      16.97      <.0001
gender            0          1.0321      1.5089      25       0.68      0.5003
gender            1           0           .           .           .           .
age              0          0.7844      0.07654     79      10.25      <.0001
age*gender       0         -0.3048      0.1199      79      -2.54      0.0130
age*gender       1           0           .           .           .           .

COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY STRUCTURE                                15

The Mixed Procedure

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect      Num      Den      Chi-Square      F Value      Pr > ChiSq      Pr > F
            DF      DF
gender            1      25          0.47          0.47          0.4940          0.5003
age              1      79         111.10         111.10         <.0001          <.0001
age*gender       1      79          6.46          6.46          0.0110          0.0130

COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE                                16

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set                WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable      distance
Covariance Structure    Autoregressive
Subject Effect          child
Estimation Method       ML
Residual Variance Method Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class      Levels      Values
gender            2          0 1
child            27         1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13
                14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
                24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters      2
Columns in X                6
Columns in Z                0
Subjects                    27
Max Obs Per Subject         4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read      108
Number of Observations Used      108
Number of Observations Not Used   0

Iteration History

Iteration      Evaluations      -2 Log Like      Criterion
0              1              478.24175986
1              2              440.68100623      0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4

```

1 4.8910 2.9696 1.8030 1.0947
 2 2.9696 4.8910 2.9696 1.8030

COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE 17

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
3	1.8030	2.9696	4.8910	2.9696
4	1.0947	1.8030	2.9696	4.8910

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.6071	0.3686	0.2238
2	0.6071	1.0000	0.6071	0.3686
3	0.3686	0.6071	1.0000	0.6071
4	0.2238	0.3686	0.6071	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
AR(1)	child	0.6071
Residual		4.8910

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	440.7
AIC (smaller is better)	452.7
AICC (smaller is better)	453.5
BIC (smaller is better)	460.5

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	37.56	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.5920	1.3299	25	12.48	<.0001
gender	0	0.7297	2.0836	25	0.35	0.7291
gender	1	0
age		0.7696	0.1147	79	6.71	<.0001
age*gender	0	-0.2858	0.1797	79	-1.59	0.1157
age*gender	1	0

COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE 18

The Mixed Procedure

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	1	25	0.12	0.12	0.7262	0.7291
age	1	79	48.63	48.63	<.0001	<.0001
age*gender	1	79	2.53	2.53	0.1117	0.1157

COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE 19

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Toeplitz
Subject Effect	child
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters 2
Columns in X 6
Columns in Z 0
Subjects 27
Max Obs Per Subject 4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read 108
Number of Observations Used 108
Number of Observations Not Used 0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	478.24175986	
1	2	589.03603775	0.16283093
2	1	545.67380444	0.15138564
3	1	510.19059372	0.12467398
4	1	484.30189351	0.08645876
5	1	468.14463315	0.04649605
6	1	460.20520640	0.01592441
7	1	457.72394860	0.00214984
8	1	457.42200558	0.00004120
9	1	457.41660393	0.00000002
10	1	457.41660197	0.00000000

COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE 20

The Mixed Procedure

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.5294	1.6120		
2	1.6120	4.5294	1.6120	
3		1.6120	4.5294	1.6120
4			1.6120	4.5294

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.3559		
2	0.3559	1.0000	0.3559	
3		0.3559	1.0000	0.3559
4			0.3559	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
TOEP(2)	child	1.6120
Residual		4.5294

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood 457.4
AIC (smaller is better) 469.4
AICC (smaller is better) 470.2
BIC (smaller is better) 477.2

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	20.83	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.6208	1.4167	25	11.73	<.0001
gender	0	0.6827	2.2195	25	0.31	0.7609
gender	1	0				
age		0.7629	0.1253	79	6.09	<.0001

COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE 21

The Mixed Procedure

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
age*gender	0	-0.2773	0.1964	79	-1.41	0.1619
age*gender	1	0

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	1	25	0.09	0.09	0.7584	0.7609
age	1	79	40.42	40.42	<.0001	<.0001
age*gender	1	79	1.99	1.99	0.1580	0.1619

SEPARATE COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER 22

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.DENT1
 Dependent Variable distance
 Covariance Structure Compound Symmetry
 Subject Effect child
 Group Effect gender
 Estimation Method ML
 Residual Variance Method None
 Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	4
Columns in X	6
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	27
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	108
Number of Observations Used	108
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	478.24175986	
1	1	408.81297228	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

SEPARATE COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER 23

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.4704	3.8804	3.8804	3.8804
2	3.8804	4.4704	3.8804	3.8804
3	3.8804	3.8804	4.4704	3.8804
4	3.8804	3.8804	3.8804	4.4704

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8680	0.8680	0.8680
2	0.8680	1.0000	0.8680	0.8680
3	0.8680	0.8680	1.0000	0.8680
4	0.8680	0.8680	0.8680	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	5.2041	2.4463	2.4463	2.4463
2	2.4463	5.2041	2.4463	2.4463
3	2.4463	2.4463	5.2041	2.4463
4	2.4463	2.4463	2.4463	5.2041

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.4701	0.4701	0.4701
2	0.4701	1.0000	0.4701	0.4701
3	0.4701	0.4701	1.0000	0.4701
4	0.4701	0.4701	0.4701	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
Variance	child	gender 0	0.5900
CS	child	gender 0	3.8804
Variance	child	gender 1	2.7577
CS	child	gender 1	2.4463

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	408.8
AIC (smaller is better)	424.8
AICC (smaller is better)	426.3

SEPARATE COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER

24

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

BIC (smaller is better)	435.2
-------------------------	-------

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	69.43	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.3406	1.1130	25	14.68	<.0001
gender	0	1.0321	1.3890	25	0.74	0.4644
gender	1	0
age		0.7844	0.09283	79	8.45	<.0001
age*gender	0	-0.3048	0.1063	79	-2.87	0.0053
age*gender	1	0

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	1	25	0.55	0.55	0.4575	0.4644
age	1	79	141.37	141.37	<.0001	<.0001
age*gender	1	79	8.22	8.22	0.0041	0.0053

SEPARATE AR(1) FOR EACH GENDER

25

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Autoregressive
Subject Effect	child
Group Effect	gender
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	None
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23

24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	4
Columns in X	6
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	27
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	108
Number of Observations Used	108
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	478.24175986	
1	2	475.71968065	0.20025573
2	1	440.38814030	0.08967756
3	1	426.69925492	0.04134123
4	1	420.38697948	0.02792114
5	1	416.67736557	0.00923733
6	1	415.50565786	0.00083428
7	1	415.41014131	0.00000671
8	1	415.40940946	0.00000000

SEPARATE AR(1) FOR EACH GENDER

26

The Mixed Procedure

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.6591	4.1730	3.7377	3.3477
2	4.1730	4.6591	4.1730	3.7377
3	3.7377	4.1730	4.6591	4.1730
4	3.3477	3.7377	4.1730	4.6591

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8957	0.8022	0.7185
2	0.8957	1.0000	0.8957	0.8022
3	0.8022	0.8957	1.0000	0.8957
4	0.7185	0.8022	0.8957	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	5.1724	2.2912	1.0149	0.4496
2	2.2912	5.1724	2.2912	1.0149
3	1.0149	2.2912	5.1724	2.2912
4	0.4496	1.0149	2.2912	5.1724

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.4430	0.1962	0.08692
2	0.4430	1.0000	0.4430	0.1962
3	0.1962	0.4430	1.0000	0.4430
4	0.08692	0.1962	0.4430	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
Variance	child	gender 0	4.6591
AR(1)	child	gender 0	0.8957
Variance	child	gender 1	5.1724
AR(1)	child	gender 1	0.4430

SEPARATE AR(1) FOR EACH GENDER

27

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	415.4
AIC (smaller is better)	431.4
AICC (smaller is better)	432.9

BIC (smaller is better) 441.8

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	62.83	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.5245	1.4558	25	11.35	<.0001
gender	0	0.7817	1.8123	25	0.43	0.6699
gender	1	0
age		0.7729	0.1276	79	6.06	<.0001
age*gender	0	-0.2882	0.1513	79	-1.90	0.0605
age*gender	1	0

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	1	25	0.19	0.19	0.6662	0.6699
age	1	79	69.07	69.07	<.0001	<.0001
age*gender	1	79	3.63	3.63	0.0569	0.0605

SEPARATE ONE-DEPENDENT FOR EACH GENDER 28

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Toeplitz
Subject Effect	child
Group Effect	gender
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	None
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	4
Columns in X	6
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	27
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	108
Number of Observations Used	108
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	478.24175986	
1	2	465.00494081	280.11418099
2	1	458.88438919	49.85385575
3	1	453.61695810	7.33335163
4	1	445.15025755	0.00347991
5	1	444.66243888	0.00028171
6	1	444.62522997	0.00000436
7	1	444.62468768	0.00000000

SEPARATE ONE-DEPENDENT FOR EACH GENDER 29

The Mixed Procedure

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
-----	------	------	------	------

1	3.7093	2.0415		
2	2.0415	3.7093	2.0415	
3		2.0415	3.7093	2.0415
4			2.0415	3.7093

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5504		
2	0.5504	1.0000	0.5504	
3		0.5504	1.0000	0.5504
4			0.5504	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.9891	1.3289		
2	1.3289	4.9891	1.3289	
3		1.3289	4.9891	1.3289
4			1.3289	4.9891

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.2664		
2	0.2664	1.0000	0.2664	
3		0.2664	1.0000	0.2664
4			0.2664	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
Variance	child	gender 0	3.7093
TOEP(2)	child	gender 0	2.0415
Variance	child	gender 1	4.9891
TOEP(2)	child	gender 1	1.3289

SEPARATE ONE-DEPENDENT FOR EACH GENDER

30

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	444.6
AIC (smaller is better)	460.6
AICC (smaller is better)	462.1
BIC (smaller is better)	471.0

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	33.62	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.5091	1.4797	25	11.16	<.0001
gender	0	0.5832	2.0126	25	0.29	0.7744
gender	1	0
age		0.7719	0.1312	79	5.88	<.0001
age*gender	0	-0.2673	0.1772	79	-1.51	0.1354
age*gender	1	0

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	1	25	0.08	0.08	0.7720	0.7744
age	1	79	51.92	51.92	<.0001	<.0001
age*gender	1	79	2.28	2.28	0.1314	0.1354

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER

31

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Compound Symmetry
Subject Effect	child

```

Group Effect          gender
Estimation Method    ML
Residual Variance Method  None
Fixed Effects SE Method  Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method  Between-Within

```

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

```

Covariance Parameters      4
Columns in X                4
Columns in Z                0
Subjects                    27
Max Obs Per Subject        4

```

Number of Observations

```

Number of Observations Read      108
Number of Observations Used      108
Number of Observations Not Used   0

```

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	478.24175986	
1	1	408.81297228	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER

32

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.4704	3.8804	3.8804	3.8804
2	3.8804	4.4704	3.8804	3.8804
3	3.8804	3.8804	4.4704	3.8804
4	3.8804	3.8804	3.8804	4.4704

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8680	0.8680	0.8680
2	0.8680	1.0000	0.8680	0.8680
3	0.8680	0.8680	1.0000	0.8680
4	0.8680	0.8680	0.8680	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	5.2041	2.4463	2.4463	2.4463
2	2.4463	5.2041	2.4463	2.4463
3	2.4463	2.4463	5.2041	2.4463
4	2.4463	2.4463	2.4463	5.2041

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.4701	0.4701	0.4701
2	0.4701	1.0000	0.4701	0.4701
3	0.4701	0.4701	1.0000	0.4701
4	0.4701	0.4701	0.4701	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
Variance	child	gender 0	0.5900
CS	child	gender 0	3.8804
Variance	child	gender 1	2.7577
CS	child	gender 1	2.4463

Fit Statistics

```

-2 Log Likelihood      408.8

```

AIC (smaller is better) 424.8
 AICC (smaller is better) 426.3

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER 33

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

BIC (smaller is better) 435.2

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	69.43	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.3727	0.8311	25	20.90	<.0001
gender	1	16.3406	1.1130	25	14.68	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4795	0.05179	79	9.26	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7844	0.09283	79	8.45	<.0001

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	gender	0	0.6907		-0.02950	
2	gender	1		1.2388		-0.09480
3	age*gender	0	-0.02950		0.002682	
4	age*gender	1		-0.09480		0.008618

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	25	326.26	<.0001
age*gender	2	79	78.57	<.0001

REDUCED MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER 34

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.DENT1
 Dependent Variable distance
 Covariance Structure Compound Symmetry
 Subject Effect child
 Group Effect gender
 Estimation Method ML
 Residual Variance Method None
 Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters 4
 Columns in X 3
 Columns in Z 0
 Subjects 27
 Max Obs Per Subject 4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read 108
 Number of Observations Used 108
 Number of Observations Not Used 0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	480.68362161	
1	4	416.64891361	0.00045640
2	1	416.59716984	0.00000276

3 1 416.59686755 0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

REDUCED MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER 35

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.4937	3.8726	3.8726	3.8726
2	3.8726	4.4937	3.8726	3.8726
3	3.8726	3.8726	4.4937	3.8726
4	3.8726	3.8726	3.8726	4.4937

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8618	0.8618	0.8618
2	0.8618	1.0000	0.8618	0.8618
3	0.8618	0.8618	1.0000	0.8618
4	0.8618	0.8618	0.8618	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	5.4838	2.3530	2.3530	2.3530
2	2.3530	5.4838	2.3530	2.3530
3	2.3530	2.3530	5.4838	2.3530
4	2.3530	2.3530	2.3530	5.4838

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.4291	0.4291	0.4291
2	0.4291	1.0000	0.4291	0.4291
3	0.4291	0.4291	1.0000	0.4291
4	0.4291	0.4291	0.4291	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
Variance	child	gender 0	0.6211
CS	child	gender 0	3.8726
Variance	child	gender 1	3.1308
CS	child	gender 1	2.3530

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	416.6
AIC (smaller is better)	430.6
AICC (smaller is better)	431.7

REDUCED MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER 36

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

BIC (smaller is better) 439.7

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	64.09	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	16.6218	0.7945	25	20.92	<.0001
gender	1	18.9429	0.6790	25	27.90	<.0001
age		0.5478	0.04681	80	11.70	<.0001

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3
1	gender	0	0.6313	0.2651	-0.02410
2	gender	1	0.2651	0.4611	-0.02410
3	age		-0.02410	-0.02410	0.002191

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	25	423.41	<.0001
age	1	80	136.97	<.0001

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER, REML

37

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Compound Symmetry
Subject Effect	child
Group Effect	gender
Estimation Method	REML
Residual Variance Method	None
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
gender	2	0 1
child	27	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	4
Columns in X	4
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	27
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	108
Number of Observations Used	108
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Res Log Like	Criterion
0	1	483.55911746	
1	1	414.66636550	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER, REML

38

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.8870	4.2786	4.2786	4.2786
2	4.2786	4.8870	4.2786	4.2786
3	4.2786	4.2786	4.8870	4.2786
4	4.2786	4.2786	4.2786	4.8870

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8755	0.8755	0.8755
2	0.8755	1.0000	0.8755	0.8755
3	0.8755	0.8755	1.0000	0.8755
4	0.8755	0.8755	0.8755	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	5.4571	2.6407	2.6407	2.6407
2	2.6407	5.4571	2.6407	2.6407
3	2.6407	2.6407	5.4571	2.6407
4	2.6407	2.6407	2.6407	5.4571

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
-----	------	------	------	------

1	1.0000	0.4839	0.4839	0.4839
2	0.4839	1.0000	0.4839	0.4839
3	0.4839	0.4839	1.0000	0.4839
4	0.4839	0.4839	0.4839	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
Variance	child	gender 0	0.6085
CS	child	gender 0	4.2786
Variance	child	gender 1	2.8164
CS	child	gender 1	2.6407

Fit Statistics

-2 Res Log Likelihood	414.7
AIC (smaller is better)	422.7
AICC (smaller is better)	423.1

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER, REML 39

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

BIC (smaller is better)	427.8
-------------------------	-------

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	68.89	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.3727	0.8587	25	20.23	<.0001
gender	1	16.3406	1.1287	25	14.48	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4795	0.05259	79	9.12	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7844	0.09382	79	8.36	<.0001

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	gender	0	0.7374		-0.03042	
2	gender	1		1.2740		-0.09681
3	age*gender	0	-0.03042		0.002766	
4	age*gender	1		-0.09681		0.008801

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	25	309.43	<.0001
age*gender	2	79	76.53	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
boy at 11	24.9688	0.4572	79	54.61	<.0001

FULL MODEL WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY FOR EACH GENDER, REML 40

The Mixed Procedure

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
both diff	2	79	16.84	8.42	0.0002	0.0005

FULL MODEL, DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION 41

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable	distance
Covariance Structure	Compound Symmetry
Subject Effect	child

```

Group Effect          gender
Estimation Method    ML
Residual Variance Method  None
Fixed Effects SE Method  Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method  Between-Within

```

Class Level Information

```

Class      Levels  Values
gender          2    0 1
child          27    1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13
                   14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
                   24 25 26 27

```

Dimensions

```

Covariance Parameters      4
Columns in X                6
Columns in Z                0
Subjects                    27
Max Obs Per Subject        4

```

Number of Observations

```

Number of Observations Read      108
Number of Observations Used      108
Number of Observations Not Used   0

```

Iteration History

```

Iteration  Evaluations  -2 Log Like  Criterion
0          1           478.24175986
1          1           408.81297228  0.00000000

```

Convergence criteria met.

FULL MODEL, DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION

42

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for child 1

```

Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
1        4.4704    3.8804    3.8804    3.8804
2        3.8804    4.4704    3.8804    3.8804
3        3.8804    3.8804    4.4704    3.8804
4        3.8804    3.8804    3.8804    4.4704

```

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

```

Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
1        1.0000    0.8680    0.8680    0.8680
2        0.8680    1.0000    0.8680    0.8680
3        0.8680    0.8680    1.0000    0.8680
4        0.8680    0.8680    0.8680    1.0000

```

Estimated R Matrix for child 12

```

Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
1        5.2041    2.4463    2.4463    2.4463
2        2.4463    5.2041    2.4463    2.4463
3        2.4463    2.4463    5.2041    2.4463
4        2.4463    2.4463    2.4463    5.2041

```

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 12

```

Row      Col1      Col2      Col3      Col4
1        1.0000    0.4701    0.4701    0.4701
2        0.4701    1.0000    0.4701    0.4701
3        0.4701    0.4701    1.0000    0.4701
4        0.4701    0.4701    0.4701    1.0000

```

Covariance Parameter Estimates

```

Cov Parm  Subject  Group  Estimate
Variance  child   gender 0    0.5900
CS        child   gender 0    3.8804
Variance  child   gender 1    2.7577
CS        child   gender 1    2.4463

```

Fit Statistics

```

-2 Log Likelihood      408.8

```


AIC (smaller is better) 424.8
 AICC (smaller is better) 426.3

FULL MODEL, DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION 43

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

BIC (smaller is better) 435.2

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	69.43	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.3406	1.1130	25	14.68	<.0001
gender	0	1.0321	1.3890	25	0.74	0.4644
gender	1	0
age		0.7844	0.09283	79	8.45	<.0001
age*gender	0	-0.3048	0.1063	79	-2.87	0.0053
age*gender	1	0

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4	Col5
1	Intercept		1.2388	-1.2388		-0.09480	0.09480
2	gender	0	-1.2388	1.9294		0.09480	-0.1243
3	gender	1					
4	age		-0.09480	0.09480		0.008618	-0.00862
5	age*gender	0	0.09480	-0.1243		-0.00862	0.01130
6	age*gender	1					

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Col6
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

FULL MODEL, DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION 44

The Mixed Procedure

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	1	25	0.55	0.55	0.4575	0.4644
age	1	79	141.37	141.37	<.0001	<.0001
age*gender	1	79	8.22	8.22	0.0041	0.0053

INTERPRETATION:

- **Comparison with ordinary least squares (independence assumption).** Pages 1–3 of the output show the results of fitting the straight line model separately for each gender and then for both genders together using ordinary least squares. Thus, these fits **do not** take correlation into account, but rather assume that all observations across all children are independent. Because the information on the straight line for each gender comes only from the data from that gender, the estimates of intercept and slope for each are the same regardless of whether the model is fitted separately or simultaneously. The ordinary least squares estimates are

$$\hat{\beta}_{0,G,OLS} = 17.3273, \quad \hat{\beta}_{1,G,OLS} = 0.4795, \quad \hat{\beta}_{0,B,OLS} = 16.3406, \quad \hat{\beta}_{1,B,OLS} = 0.7844.$$

Pages 10–11 show the results of fitting the model with both genders simultaneously but assuming the same compound symmetry structure for both genders. Note that the estimates of β are identical to the ordinary least squares estimates. Pages 22–24 show the results of fitting the same model, but in the second “difference” parameterization and assuming a separate compound symmetry structure for each gender. Again, the estimates for β are identical to the ordinary least squares estimates. Both of these fits were carried out using maximum likelihood estimation (`method=ml`).

Inspection of fits with other covariance structures shows that these lead to estimates for β that are **different** from ordinary least squares. This reflects a result we will see later, that when the covariance structure is of a certain form (of which compound symmetry is a special case), estimates of β are the same as ordinary least squares. **However**, the **standard errors** computed under the independence assumption will differ from those computed under the compound symmetry, so that tests about β could lead to different conclusions. See the output to verify that the standard error estimates are indeed different.

- **Choice of covariance structure.** Pages 4–9 show the results of fitting the straight line model separately for each gender assuming that the covariance matrix is unstructured. This allows the analyst to examine the “raw” evidence for whether it seems reasonable to assume that the structure is the same for each gender or different. Page 4 shows the estimate for girls, page 8 for boys (**R Matrix for CHILD 1 or 12**). **PROC MIXED** prints out the estimate for the first child in each group; these are balanced data, so the matrix is the same for all other children. The corresponding correlation matrices (**R Correlation Matrix**) are also printed. Comparison of these shows that the estimated pattern of correlation appears quite different for the two genders; observations on girls seem to be more highly correlated.

Pages 11–30 show the results of fits of several different covariance structures using maximum likelihood. In the following table, we summarize the results (see the output for each fit):

Model	$-2 \log\text{like}$	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>
Compound symmetry, same	428.6	440.6	448.4
AR(1), same	440.7	452.7	460.5
One-dependent, same	457.4	469.4	477.2
Compound symmetry, different	408.8	424.8	435.2
AR(1), different	415.4	431.4	441.8
One-dependent, different	444.6	460.6	471.0

Inspection of the *AIC* and *BIC* values reveals that those for models where the covariance structure is allowed to differ across genders are mostly smaller than those for models where the structure is assumed to be the same. Both criteria are smallest in a fairly convincing way for the choice of separate compound symmetry structures for each gender. As both criteria agree, a sensible approach would be to choose this model to represent the covariance structure.

- **Hypothesis of common slopes.** Having decided upon the covariance model, we now turn to hypotheses of interest. Tests of these hypotheses will be based on the fit of this model. On pages 31–33, the fit of the full model using the first parameterization is shown. The `covb` option results in printing of the estimated covariance matrix $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}$ for this fit (**Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects** on page 33). The matrix is

$$\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.6907 & 0.0000 & -0.0295 & 0.0000 \\ 0.0000 & 1.2388 & 0.0000 & -0.0948 \\ -0.0295 & 0.0000 & 0.0027 & 0.0000 \\ 0.0000 & -0.0948 & 0.0000 & 0.0086 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It is straightforward to verify that the estimated standard errors printed in the table **Solution for Fixed Effects** are the square roots of the diagonal elements of this matrix. Also from the output, we find that -2 times the log-likelihood is equal to 408.8.

On pages 34–36, we fit the “reduced” model which assumes the slope is the **same** and equal to β_1 for both genders:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_{0,B} + \beta_1 t_{ij} + e_{ij} \text{ for boys} \\ &= \beta_{0,G} + \beta_1 t_{ij} + e_{ij} \text{ for girls} \end{aligned}$$

The estimate of β_1 is 0.5478. The log-likelihood multiplied by -2 is 416.6.

The likelihood ratio test statistic for testing the null hypothesis that the slopes are the **same** is $416.6 - 408.8 = 7.8$. The difference in number of parameters between the “full” and “reduced” models is $r = 1$. Thus, we compare the test statistic value to $\chi_{1,0.95}^2 = 3.84$. As the statistic is much larger than the critical value, we have strong evidence to suggest that the slopes are indeed different; we reject the null hypothesis at level $\alpha = 0.05$.

We may also conduct this test using Wald methods. Define

$$\mathbf{L} = (0, 0, 1, -1).$$

Then it may be verified (try it!) that, using $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}$ above from the full model fit on p.33 ,

$$T_L = 8.22.$$

This test statistic also has a sampling distribution that is χ_1^2 ; thus, we compare 8.22 to 3.84 and reject the null hypothesis on the basis of this procedure as well. For this parameterization, the table **Tests of Fixed Effects** on page 39 in fact computes this test statistic (from the `chisq` option); for a model with several straight lines and the “difference” parameterization, the “interaction” test (`AGE*GENDER` here) is a test for equal slopes (the test for equal intercepts is the “main effect” test for `GENDER` here). `PROC MIXED` by default produces an “adjusted” version of the χ^2 Wald statistic that is to be compared to an F distribution. This statistic is identical to the Wald statistic when there are only 2 groups, as here. This table of **Tests of Fixed Effects** is meaningless for this model in the first parameterization.

Alternatively, we see that `PROC MIXED` will compute this test for us in another place, too. On pages 41–44, the results of fitting the full model using the second “difference” parameterization are shown. In the table **Solution for Fixed Effects**, the estimate of $\beta_{1,G-B} = -0.3048$ with estimated standard error 0.1063. Note that when we parameterize the model this way, SAS displays the results as if the model were overparameterized. One can reconstruct the estimates of intercept and slope for girls from this table. The null hypothesis of common slope is $H_0 : \beta_{1,G-B} = 0$ in this parameterization. We may construct a Wald test statistic as $-0.3048/0.1063 = -2.87$; actually, SAS does this for us in the table.

- **Estimation of mean for boys at age 11.** In the analysis using REML on pages 37–40, we use an `estimate` statement to ask PROC MIXED to compute an estimate of the mean distance for a boy of 11 years of age. The estimate and its standard error are 24.9688 (0.4572). This may be verified manually; from the output,

$$\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7374 & 0.0000 & -0.0304 & 0.0000 \\ 0.0000 & 1.2740 & 0.0000 & -0.09681 \\ -0.0304 & 0.0000 & 0.00276 & 0.0000 \\ 0.0000 & -0.0968 & 0.0000 & 0.0088 \end{pmatrix}.$$

With

$$\mathbf{L} = (0, 1, 0, 11),$$

$\mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}(11)$, the desired quantity. It may be verified that the matrix multiplication $\mathbf{L}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ leads to the estimate above. Furthermore, the estimated standard error for $\mathbf{L}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is given by $(\mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_{\beta}\mathbf{L}')^{1/2}$, which may be verified to give the value above.

EXAMPLE 2 – DIALYZER DATA: In the following program, we consider the model that assumes that the mean response is a straight line as a function of time for each center.

- As with the dental data, we may parameterize this model with either (1) a separate intercept and slope for each center as in equation (8.10) or (2) with the “difference” parameterization with each center’s intercept and slope represented with a parameter that is the difference between the intercept or slope for that center measured against that for center 3.
- This mean model is fitted using ordinary least squares (so assuming the independence covariance structure) and then by restricted maximum likelihood (the default method used by PROC MIXED) assuming the compound symmetry and Markov covariance structures. Recall that these data are unbalanced in the sense that the “times” (transmembrane pressures in this case) are different for each dialyzer; thus, it is not possible to consider a completely unstructured covariance structure nor some of the models for covariance that only make sense if the data are balanced.
- The preferred covariance structure according to inspection of the *AIC* and *BIC* values is fitted using both parameterizations (1) and (2); from the output for the latter fit, the Wald test statistics may be examined to investigate whether rate of change of ultrafiltration rate with pressure differs across centers.
- The variable `tmp` representing transmembrane pressure is rescaled by dividing its value by 100. This is carried out to allow sensible and stable fitting of the Markov covariance structure. Recall that for this structure, the correlation parameter ρ is raised to a power equal to the difference between adjacent “times” within each unit. Because the pressures here are on the order of 100s, these differences may be quite large (=100 or more). Computationally, raising a small number to a power this large is not feasible, and will cause numerical algorithms used to carry out maximization of likelihoods or restricted likelihoods to fail. By rescaling the pressures, and hence the differences, we alleviate this difficulty. This does not alter the problem or our ability to draw valid conclusions; all it does is put slope parameters on a scale of 100 mmHg/unit pressure rather than mmHg/unit pressure.

PROGRAM:

```

/*****
CHAPTER 8, EXAMPLE 2

Analysis of the ultrafiltration data by fitting a general linear
regression model in transmembrane pressure (mmHg)

- the repeated measurement factor is transmembrane pressure (tmp)
- there is one "treatment" factor, center
- the response is ultrafiltration rate (ufr, ml/hr)

For each center, the mean model is a straight line in time.

We use the REPEATED statement of PROC MIXED with the
TYPE= options to fit the model assuming various covariance structures.

These data are unbalanced both in the sense that the pressures
under which each dialyzer is observed are different.
*****/
options ls=80 ps=59 nodate; run;
/*****
Read in the data set
*****/
data ultra; infile 'ultra.dat';
input subject tmp ufr center;
* rescale the pressures;
tmp=tmp/100;
run;
/*****
Fit the straight line model assuming that the covariance
structure of a data vector is diagonal with constant variance;
i.e. using ordinary least squares.

We use PROC GLM with the SOLUTION and NOINT options to fit
the three separate intercepts/slopes parameterization.
*****/
title "FIT USING ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES";
proc glm data=ultra;
class center;
model ufr = center center*tmp / noint solution;
run;
/*****
Now use PROC MIXED to fit the more general regression model with
assumptions about the covariance matrix of a data vector. We show
two, assuming the covariance is similar across centers.

The SOLUTION option in the MODEL statement requests that the
estimates of the regression parameters be printed.

The R option in the REPEATED statement as used here requests that
the covariance matrix estimate be printed in matrix form. We also
print the correlation matrix using the RCORR option.
*****/
* compound symmetry;
title "FIT WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY";
proc mixed data=ultra method=ml;
class subject center ;
model ufr = center center*tmp / noint solution covb;
repeated / type = cs subject=subject r rcorr;
run;
* Markov;
title "FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE";
proc mixed data=ultra method=ml;
class subject center ;

```

```

model ufr = center center*tmp / noint solution covb;
repeated / type = sp(pow)(tmp) subject=subject r rcorr;
run;

* using the alternative parameterization to get the chi-square tests;

title "FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE AND DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION";
proc mixed data=ultra method=ml;
class subject center ;
model ufr = center tmp center*tmp / solution covb chisq;
repeated / type = sp(pow)(tmp) subject=subject r rcorr;
run;

```

OUTPUT: First we display the output; following this is a brief interpretation.

FIT USING ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES						1
The GLM Procedure						
Class Level Information						
Class	Levels	Values				
center	3	1 2 3				
		Number of Observations Read			164	
		Number of Observations Used			164	
FIT USING ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES						2
The GLM Procedure						
Dependent Variable: ufr						
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F	
Model	6	243256296.5	40542716.1	14328.2	<.0001	
Error	158	447071.5	2829.6			
Uncorrected Total		164	243703368.0			
R-Square		Coeff Var	Root MSE	ufr Mean		
0.987565		4.726174	53.19367	1125.512		
Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F	
center	3	208388808.8	69462936.3	24549.0	<.0001	
tmp*center	3	34867487.8	11622495.9	4107.52	<.0001	
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F	
center	3	514475.40	171491.80	60.61	<.0001	
tmp*center	3	34867487.76	11622495.92	4107.52	<.0001	
Parameter		Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > t	
center 1		-175.1259559	18.97989383	-9.23	<.0001	
center 2		-168.7697782	21.19872031	-7.96	<.0001	
center 3		-148.0350885	25.65223883	-5.77	<.0001	
tmp*center 1		441.1821984	5.73604724	76.91	<.0001	
tmp*center 2		411.5087473	6.66672020	61.73	<.0001	
tmp*center 3		405.5340253	7.95819811	50.96	<.0001	
FIT WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY						3
The Mixed Procedure						
Model Information						
Data Set		WORK.ULTRA				
Dependent Variable		ufr				
Covariance Structure		Compound Symmetry				
Subject Effect		subject				
Estimation Method		ML				
Residual Variance Method		Profile				
Fixed Effects SE Method		Model-Based				
Degrees of Freedom Method		Between-Within				
Class Level Information						
Class	Levels	Values				


```

subject      41   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13
              14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
              24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33
center      3    1 2 3

```

Dimensions

```

Covariance Parameters      2
Columns in X                6
Columns in Z                0
Subjects                    41
Max Obs Per Subject        5

```

Number of Observations

```

Number of Observations Read      164
Number of Observations Used      164
Number of Observations Not Used   0

```

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	1762.75143525	
1	2	1697.47817418	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY

4

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	2723.81	1576.70	1576.70	1576.70
2	1576.70	2723.81	1576.70	1576.70
3	1576.70	1576.70	2723.81	1576.70
4	1576.70	1576.70	1576.70	2723.81

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5789	0.5789	0.5789
2	0.5789	1.0000	0.5789	0.5789
3	0.5789	0.5789	1.0000	0.5789
4	0.5789	0.5789	0.5789	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
CS	subject	1576.70
Residual		1147.12

Fit Statistics

```

-2 Log Likelihood      1697.5
AIC (smaller is better) 1713.5
AICC (smaller is better) 1714.4
BIC (smaller is better) 1727.2

```

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	65.27	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
center	1	-174.32	15.4542	38	-11.28	<.0001
center	2	-171.51	17.4378	38	-9.84	<.0001
center	3	-150.40	20.2761	38	-7.42	<.0001
tmp*center	1	440.92	3.6528	120	120.71	<.0001
tmp*center	2	412.24	4.2494	120	97.01	<.0001
tmp*center	3	406.31	5.0777	120	80.02	<.0001

FIT WITH COMPOUND SYMMETRY

5

The Mixed Procedure

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	center	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4	Col5
-----	--------	--------	------	------	------	------	------

1	center	1	238.83			-41.5232	
2	center	2		304.08			-53.8425
3	center	3			411.12		
4	tmp*center	1	-41.5232			13.3433	
5	tmp*center	2		-53.8425			18.0574
6	tmp*center	3			-78.9443		

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Col6
1	
2	
3	-78.9443
4	
5	
6	25.7835

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
center	3	38	93.00	<.0001
tmp*center	3	120	10128.0	<.0001

FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE

6

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.ULTRA
Dependent Variable	ufr
Covariance Structure	Spatial Power
Subject Effect	subject
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
subject	41	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13
		14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23
		24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33
		34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41
center	3	1 2 3

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	2
Columns in X	6
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	41
Max Obs Per Subject	5

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	164
Number of Observations Used	164
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	1762.75143525	
1	2	1689.99200625	0.00000320
2	1	1689.98977683	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE

7

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	2913.20	1954.28	1336.16	952.56
2	1954.28	2913.20	1991.78	1419.97
3	1336.16	1991.78	2913.20	2076.86
4	952.56	1419.97	2076.86	2913.20

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.6708	0.4587	0.3270
2	0.6708	1.0000	0.6837	0.4874
3	0.4587	0.6837	1.0000	0.7129
4	0.3270	0.4874	0.7129	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
SP(POW)	subject	0.6837
Residual		2913.20

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	1690.0
AIC (smaller is better)	1706.0
AICC (smaller is better)	1706.9
BIC (smaller is better)	1719.7

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	72.76	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
center	1	-171.68	18.9175	38	-9.08	<.0001
center	2	-166.60	21.5922	38	-7.72	<.0001
center	3	-144.92	25.5328	38	-5.68	<.0001
tmp*center	1	441.34	5.0608	120	87.21	<.0001
tmp*center	2	410.91	5.9007	120	69.64	<.0001
tmp*center	3	403.23	6.9137	120	58.32	<.0001

FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE

8

The Mixed Procedure

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	center	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4	Col5
1	center	1	357.87			-79.7841	
2	center	2		466.22			-105.84
3	center	3			651.93		
4	tmp*center	1	-79.7841			25.6113	
5	tmp*center	2		-105.84			34.8182
6	tmp*center	3			-150.66		

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Col6
1	
2	
3	-150.66
4	
5	
6	47.7993

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
center	3	38	58.04	<.0001
tmp*center	3	120	5285.40	<.0001

FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE AND DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION

9

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.ULTRA
Dependent Variable	ufr
Covariance Structure	Spatial Power
Subject Effect	subject
Estimation Method	ML
Residual Variance Method	Profile

Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
subject	41	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41
center	3	1 2 3

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	2
Columns in X	8
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	41
Max Obs Per Subject	5

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	164
Number of Observations Used	164
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
0	1	1762.75143525	
1	2	1689.99200625	0.00000320
2	1	1689.98977683	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE AND DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION 10

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	2913.20	1954.28	1336.16	952.56
2	1954.28	2913.20	1991.78	1419.97
3	1336.16	1991.78	2913.20	2076.86
4	952.56	1419.97	2076.86	2913.20

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.6708	0.4587	0.3270
2	0.6708	1.0000	0.6837	0.4874
3	0.4587	0.6837	1.0000	0.7129
4	0.3270	0.4874	0.7129	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
SP(POW)	subject	0.6837
Residual		2913.20

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	1690.0
AIC (smaller is better)	1706.0
AICC (smaller is better)	1706.9
BIC (smaller is better)	1719.7

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	72.76	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		-144.92	25.5328	38	-5.68	<.0001
center	1	-26.7663	31.7773	38	-0.84	0.4049
center	2	-21.6836	33.4387	38	-0.65	0.5206
center	3	0	.		.	.
tmp		403.23	6.9137	120	58.32	<.0001
tmp*center	1	38.1138	8.5680	120	4.45	<.0001

```
tmp*center    2          7.6822    9.0894    120      0.85    0.3997
```

```
FIT WITH MARKOV STRUCTURE AND DIFFERENCE PARAMETERIZATION    11
```

```
The Mixed Procedure
```

```
Solution for Fixed Effects
```

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
tmp*center	3	0

```
Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects
```

Row	Effect	center	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4	Col5
1	Intercept		651.93	-651.93	-651.93		-150.66
2	center	1	-651.93	1009.80	651.93		150.66
3	center	2	-651.93	651.93	1118.15		150.66
4	center	3					
5	tmp		-150.66	150.66	150.66		47.7993
6	tmp*center	1	150.66	-230.44	-150.66		-47.7993
7	tmp*center	2	150.66	-150.66	-256.49		-47.7993
8	tmp*center	3					

```
Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects
```

Row	Col6	Col7	Col8
1	150.66	150.66	
2	-230.44	-150.66	
3	-150.66	-256.49	
4			
5	-47.7993	-47.7993	
6	73.4106	47.7993	
7	47.7993	82.6175	
8			

```
Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects
```

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
center	2	38	0.74	0.37	0.6917	0.6941
tmp	1	120	14563.8	14563.8	<.0001	<.0001
tmp*center	2	120	25.49	12.74	<.0001	<.0001

INTERPRETATION:

- **Comparison with ordinary least squares:** Note that, because these data are **not** balanced, none of the estimates of the mean parameters β are exactly the same across methods. However, note from pages 2, 4, and 7 of the output that the estimates are similar across methods, and the ordering of the size of slopes and intercepts is in the same direction for each. Because these are longitudinal data, however, the estimates that are based on a model that take into account the likely correlation among observations within the same unit is more credible, and the tests and standard errors derived from such a model are more reliable.
- **Choice of covariance structure:** Inspection of the *AIC* and *BIC* values for each of the compound symmetry and Markov fits shows that both criteria are smaller when the Markov structure is assumed. This gives a rationale for preferring this covariance model, given the choice between the two. Note that in this case we have fitted the models using ML; the same mean model is used in each case.
- **Hypothesis tests.** The final call to PROC MIXED fits the “difference” parameterization with the Markov structure. As discussed in the interpretation of the dental study analysis, the result is that the **Tests of Fixed Effects** given on page 11 of the output provide a test of the null hypothesis that the slopes are the same for all centers (TMP*CENTER). Here, we have used the `chisq` option to ask PROC MIXED to calculate the Wald statistic T_L and the p-value obtained by comparing this to the appropriate χ^2 distribution. Here, the degrees of freedom is $r = 2$; under the null hypothesis, there is only 1 common slope versus 3 separate slopes for the “full” model that has been fitted. From the output $T_L = 25.49$, with an associated p-value of 0.0001. Thus, there is strong evidence to suggest that at least one of the slopes differs from the others. The test associated with **CENTER** considers the same question with respect to intercepts; as seen from the output, T_L for this test is 0.74, with a p-value of 0.69, suggesting that there is not enough evidence in these data to conclude that the intercepts are different across centers.

From page 10, the **Solution for Fixed Effects** table shows that the estimate of difference in slope between centers 3 and 1 is 38.114, with a estimated standard error of 8.57. The corresponding Wald test statistic is 4.45, which compared to a standard normal (or t as in the output) distribution yields a p-value of 0.0001. The comparison between slopes for centers 3 and 2 has an estimated difference of 7.68 (9.09); the corresponding Wald test statistic is 0.85, with a large p-value.

These results seem to suggest that the rate of change in ultrafiltration rate with transmembrane pressure is similar for centers 2 and 3, but is faster for center 1. One could also construct a test of whether slope differs between centers 1 and 2 from the fit of parameterization (1) on page 7, using the \mathbf{L} matrix

$$\mathbf{L} = (0, 0, 0, 1, -1, 0)$$

and the estimated covariance matrix for $\hat{\beta}$ given on page 8; this could be done manually from the output or by using the `estimate` statement

```
estimate 'slope 1 vs. 2' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 -1 0;
```

(see the analysis of the dental data for an example).

EXAMPLE 3 – HIP REPLACEMENT DATA: In the following program, we consider the model in (8.12),

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 t_{ij} + \beta_3 t_{ij}^2 + \beta_7 a_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ males}$$

$$Y_{i,j} = \beta_4 + \beta_5 t_{ij} + \beta_6 t_{ij}^2 + \beta_7 a_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ females.}$$

- The model is parameterized exactly as it is shown above. Each gender has its own intercept and its own linear and quadratic coefficients, and there is a common effect of age regardless of gender. We fit this model for illustrative purposes; one could entertain several other models and do “full” versus “reduced” tests to zero in on an appropriate model.
- With this mean model, several covariance structures are considered: unstructured, compound symmetry, AR(1), and one-dependence. Recall that these data are **imbalanced** in the sense that, although all individuals were supposed to be seen at the same times (at 1, 2, 3, and 4 weeks), some were missing at the least the week 3 measurement. To communicate this to PROC MIXED, the time factor is incorporated as `week` in the mean model in the `model` statement **and** as a classification factor `time` in the `repeated` statement (see the program below). Adding the `class` variable `time` to the `repeated` statement has the effect of providing SAS with the information it needs about the **intended** times of data collection so that it can set up each individual’s covariance matrix appropriately. To see that this is indeed the case, the `r` and `rcorr` options of the `repeated` statement are used to print out the covariance matrices for individuals 1, 10, and 15 (who have different numbers of observations).

- We show use of the `contrast` and `estimate` statements in the one-dependent fit; here, we ask PROC MIXED to estimate the difference in mean response between females and males at week 3 and test whether it is different from 0; in the notation above, this is

$$\beta_4 + \beta_5(3) + \beta_6(9) - \beta_1 - \beta_2(3) - \beta_3(9).$$

The appropriate L matrix would be

$$L = (-1, -3, -9, 1, 3, 9, 0).$$

In the program, females and males are coded 0 and 1, respectively; one may examine the output from the fits to determine how SAS has represented the model and thus how this contrast should be represented in the `contrast` and `estimate` statements.

- For all fits, we use the default REML method. We compare the *AIC* and *BIC* values for this same mean model using this method to determine a suitable covariance model.

PROGRAM:

```

/*****
CHAPTER 8, EXAMPLE 3
Analysis of the hip replacement data using a general
regression model in time and age
- the repeated measurement factor is time (weeks)
- there is one "treatment" factor, gender (0=female, 1 = male)
- an additional covariate, age, is also available
- the response is haematocrit
We use the REPEATED statement of PROC MIXED with the
TYPE= options to fit the model assuming different covariate
structures.
These data are unbalanced both in the sense that some patients
were not observed at all times.
*****/
options ls=80 ps=59 nodate; run;
/*****
Read in the data set
*****/
data hips; infile 'hips.dat';
input patient gender age week h;
week2=week*week;
time=week;
/*****
Use PROC MIXED to fit the general quadratic regression model with
assumptions about the covariance matrix of a data vector.
The SOLUTION option in the MODEL statement requests that the
estimates of the regression parameters be printed.
The R option in the REPEATED statement as used here requests that
the covariance matrix estimate be printed in matrix form. Here,
because the data have unequal numbers of observations, we ask

```


to see the matrices for 2 individuals with different numbers. Similarly for the RCORR option, which prints the corresponding correlation matrix.

With the ar(1) and one-dependent structures, we have to be careful to communicate to PROC MIXED the fact that the data are imbalanced in the sense that the times are all the same for all patients, but some patients are not observed at some of the times. In our mean model, we want WEEK, the time factor, to be continuous; however, PROC MIXED needs also for the time factor to be a classification factor so that it can properly figure out the missingness pattern. We give it this information by defining TIME = WEEK and letting TIME be a classification factor in the REPEATED statement.

```
*****/
* unstructured;

title "FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COMMON COVARIANCE";
proc mixed data=hips;
  class patient time gender;
  model h = gender gender*week gender*week2 age / noint solution chisq;
  repeated time / type = un subject=patient r= 1,10,15 rcorr=1,10,15;
run;

* compound symmetry;

title "FIT WITH COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY";
proc mixed data=hips;
  class patient time gender;
  model h = gender gender*week gender*week2 age / noint solution chisq;
  repeated time / type = cs subject=patient rcorr=1,10,15;
run;

* ar(1);

title "FIT WITH COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE";
proc mixed data=hips;
  class patient time gender;
  model h = gender gender*week gender*week2 age / noint solution chisq;
  repeated time / type = ar(1) subject=patient rcorr=1,10,15;
run;

* one-dependent;
* and show use of CONTRAST statement;

title "FIT WITH COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE";
proc mixed data=hips;
  class patient time gender;
  model h = gender gender*week gender*week2 age / noint solution chisq covb;
  repeated time / type = toep(2) subject=patient rcorr=1,10,15;
  contrast 'f vs m, wk 3' gender 1 -1
                                gender*week 3 -3 gender*week2 9 -9 /chisq;
  estimate 'f vs m, wk 3' gender 1 -1
                                gender*week 3 -3 gender*week2 9 -9;
run;
```

OUTPUT:

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COMMON COVARIANCE

1

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.HIPS
Dependent Variable	h
Covariance Structure	Unstructured
Subject Effect	patient
Estimation Method	REML
Residual Variance Method	None
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
patient	30	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
time	4	0 1 2 3
gender	2	0 1

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	10
Columns in X	7
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	30
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	99
Number of Observations Used	99
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Res Log Like	Criterion
0	1	561.12155003	
1	2	551.06018998	0.00059380
2	1	549.70264000	0.01093915
3	1	546.99589520	0.00622014
4	1	545.54535711	0.00291074
5	1	544.84740510	0.00113789
6	1	544.58650911	0.00027063
7	1	544.52750285	0.00002504
8	1	544.52249433	0.00000029
9	1	544.52243938	0.00000000

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COMMON COVARIANCE

2

The Mixed Procedure

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Matrix for patient 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3
1	18.0680	4.6364	5.0947
2	4.6364	16.5021	0.4870
3	5.0947	0.4870	19.2076

Estimated R Correlation
Matrix for patient 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3
1	1.0000	0.2685	0.2735
2	0.2685	1.0000	0.02735
3	0.2735	0.02735	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix for patient 10

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	18.0680	4.6364	-13.9213	5.0947
2	4.6364	16.5021	2.8483	0.4870
3	-13.9213	2.8483	67.8805	25.1818
4	5.0947	0.4870	25.1818	19.2076

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for patient 10

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.2685	-0.3975	0.2735
2	0.2685	1.0000	0.08510	0.02735
3	-0.3975	0.08510	1.0000	0.6974
4	0.2735	0.02735	0.6974	1.0000

Estimated R Matrix
for patient 15

Row	Col1	Col2
1	16.5021	0.4870
2	0.4870	19.2076

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COMMON COVARIANCE

3

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Correlation
Matrix for patient 15

Row	Col1	Col2
1	1.0000	0.02735
2	0.02735	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	patient	18.0680
UN(2,1)	patient	4.6364
UN(2,2)	patient	16.5021
UN(3,1)	patient	-13.9213
UN(3,2)	patient	2.8483
UN(3,3)	patient	67.8805
UN(4,1)	patient	5.0947
UN(4,2)	patient	0.4870
UN(4,3)	patient	25.1818
UN(4,4)	patient	19.2076

Fit Statistics

-2 Res Log Likelihood	544.5
AIC (smaller is better)	564.5
AICC (smaller is better)	567.2
BIC (smaller is better)	578.5

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
9	16.60	0.0554

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	42.2823	3.1835	28	13.28	<.0001
gender	1	45.5650	3.1116	28	14.64	<.0001
week*gender	0	-11.4526	1.8018	28	-6.36	<.0001
week*gender	1	-15.8799	2.0222	28	-7.85	<.0001
week2*gender	0	2.9269	0.5640	28	5.19	<.0001
week2*gender	1	4.2369	0.6368	28	6.65	<.0001
age		-0.04330	0.04465	28	-0.97	0.3405

FIT WITH UNSTRUCTURED COMMON COVARIANCE

4

The Mixed Procedure

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	2	28	214.58	107.29	<.0001	<.0001
week*gender	2	28	102.07	51.03	<.0001	<.0001
week2*gender	2	28	71.20	35.60	<.0001	<.0001
age	1	28	0.94	0.94	0.3322	0.3405

FIT WITH COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY

5

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.HIPS
Dependent Variable	h
Covariance Structure	Compound Symmetry
Subject Effect	patient
Estimation Method	REML
Residual Variance Method	Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
patient	30	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
time	4	0 1 2 3
gender	2	0 1

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	2
Columns in X	7
Columns in Z	0
Subjects	30
Max Obs Per Subject	4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read	99
Number of Observations Used	99
Number of Observations Not Used	0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Res Log Like	Criterion
0	1	561.12155003	
1	2	556.70472691	0.00000275
2	1	556.70418983	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY

6

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Correlation
Matrix for patient 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3
1	1.0000	0.2079	0.2079
2	0.2079	1.0000	0.2079
3	0.2079	0.2079	1.0000

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for patient 10

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.2079	0.2079	0.2079
2	0.2079	1.0000	0.2079	0.2079
3	0.2079	0.2079	1.0000	0.2079
4	0.2079	0.2079	0.2079	1.0000

Estimated R Correlation
Matrix for patient 15

Row	Col1	Col2
1	1.0000	0.2079
2	0.2079	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
CS	patient	3.8016
Residual		14.4824

Fit Statistics

-2 Res Log Likelihood	556.7
AIC (smaller is better)	560.7
AICC (smaller is better)	560.8
BIC (smaller is better)	563.5

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF Chi-Square Pr > ChiSq
 1 4.42 0.0356

FIT WITH COMMON COMPOUND SYMMETRY 7

The Mixed Procedure

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	35.7027	3.8826	28	9.20	<.0001
gender	1	39.6756	3.8088	28	10.42	<.0001
week*gender	0	-9.5954	1.6604	64	-5.78	<.0001
week*gender	1	-14.2653	1.9229	64	-7.42	<.0001
week2*gender	0	2.5899	0.5180	64	5.00	<.0001
week2*gender	1	3.8392	0.6046	64	6.35	<.0001
age		0.03853	0.05562	64	0.69	0.4910

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	2	28	109.24	54.62	<.0001	<.0001
week*gender	2	64	88.53	44.26	<.0001	<.0001
week2*gender	2	64	65.36	32.68	<.0001	<.0001
age	1	64	0.48	0.48	0.4884	0.4910

FIT WITH COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE 8

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.HIPS
 Dependent Variable h
 Covariance Structure Autoregressive
 Subject Effect patient
 Estimation Method REML
 Residual Variance Method Profile
 Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
patient	30	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
time	4	0 1 2 3
gender	2	0 1

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters 2
 Columns in X 7
 Columns in Z 0
 Subjects 30
 Max Obs Per Subject 4

Number of Observations

Number of Observations Read 99
 Number of Observations Used 99
 Number of Observations Not Used 0

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Res Log Like	Criterion
0	1	561.12155003	
1	2	556.48035628	0.00000015
2	1	556.48032672	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE 9

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for patient 1

Row Col1 Col2 Col3

1	1.0000	0.2910	0.02465
2	0.2910	1.0000	0.08469
3	0.02465	0.08469	1.0000

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for patient 10

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.2910	0.08469	0.02465
2	0.2910	1.0000	0.2910	0.08469
3	0.08469	0.2910	1.0000	0.2910
4	0.02465	0.08469	0.2910	1.0000

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for patient 15

Row	Col1	Col2
1	1.0000	0.08469
2	0.08469	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
AR(1)	patient	0.2910
Residual		18.3070

Fit Statistics

-2 Res Log Likelihood	556.5
AIC (smaller is better)	560.5
AICC (smaller is better)	560.6
BIC (smaller is better)	563.3

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	4.64	0.0312

FIT WITH COMMON AR(1) STRUCTURE

10

The Mixed Procedure

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	35.8838	3.7661	28	9.53	<.0001
gender	1	39.8949	3.6947	28	10.80	<.0001
week*gender	0	-9.8043	1.6356	64	-5.99	<.0001
week*gender	1	-14.6020	1.8736	64	-7.79	<.0001
week2*gender	0	2.6313	0.5094	64	5.17	<.0001
week2*gender	1	3.9150	0.5904	64	6.63	<.0001
age		0.03749	0.05369	64	0.70	0.4875

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	2	28	117.06	58.53	<.0001	<.0001
week*gender	2	64	96.75	48.37	<.0001	<.0001
week2*gender	2	64	70.68	35.34	<.0001	<.0001
age	1	64	0.49	0.49	0.4850	0.4875

FIT WITH COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE

11

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	WORK.HIPS
Dependent Variable	h
Covariance Structure	Banded Toeplitz
Subject Effect	patient
Estimation Method	REML
Residual Variance Method	Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method	Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method	Between-Within

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
patient	30	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30

```

time          4    0 1 2 3
gender        2    0 1

```

Dimensions

```

Covariance Parameters      2
Columns in X                7
Columns in Z                0
Subjects                   30
Max Obs Per Subject        4

```

Number of Observations

```

Number of Observations Read      99
Number of Observations Used      99
Number of Observations Not Used   0

```

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Res Log Like	Criterion
0	1	561.12155003	
1	2	556.12352167	0.00000002
2	1	556.12351849	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

FIT WITH COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE 12

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Correlation
Matrix for patient 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3
1	1.0000	0.3247	
2	0.3247	1.0000	
3			1.0000

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for patient 10

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.3247		
2	0.3247	1.0000	0.3247	
3		0.3247	1.0000	0.3247
4			0.3247	1.0000

Estimated R Correlation
Matrix for patient 15

Row	Col1	Col2
1	1.0000	
2		1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
TOEP(2)	patient	6.0104
Residual		18.5118

Fit Statistics

```

-2 Res Log Likelihood      556.1
AIC (smaller is better)   560.1
AICC (smaller is better)  560.3
BIC (smaller is better)   562.9

```

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	5.00	0.0254

FIT WITH COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE 13

The Mixed Procedure

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	36.2941	3.7164	28	9.77	<.0001
gender	1	40.2860	3.6474	28	11.05	<.0001
week*gender	0	-9.9910	1.6592	64	-6.02	<.0001
week*gender	1	-14.8308	1.8879	64	-7.86	<.0001

week2*gender	0	2.6610	0.5222	64	5.10	<.0001
week2*gender	1	3.9601	0.6025	64	6.57	<.0001
age		0.03354	0.05284	64	0.63	0.5279

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Effect	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4	Col5
1	gender	0	13.8117	12.2645	-1.4234	0.05482	0.3004
2	gender	1	12.2645	13.3033	-0.4160	-1.1484	0.09378
3	week*gender	0	-1.4234	-0.4160	2.7531	-0.00186	-0.8263
4	week*gender	1	0.05482	-1.1484	-0.00186	3.5640	0.000419
5	week2*gender	0	0.3004	0.09378	-0.8263	0.000419	0.2727
6	week2*gender	1	-0.01425	0.2285	0.000483	-1.0835	-0.00011
7	age		-0.1880	-0.1821	0.006377	-0.00081	-0.00144

Covariance Matrix for Fixed Effects

Row	Col6	Col7
1	-0.01425	-0.1880
2	0.2285	-0.1821
3	0.000483	0.006377
4	-1.0835	-0.00081
5	-0.00011	-0.00144
6	0.3630	0.000212
7	0.000212	0.002792

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
gender	2	28	122.28	61.14	<.0001	<.0001
week*gender	2	64	98.03	49.01	<.0001	<.0001
week2*gender	2	64	69.19	34.60	<.0001	<.0001
age	1	64	0.40	0.40	0.5257	0.5279

FIT WITH COMMON ONE-DEPENDENT STRUCTURE

14

The Mixed Procedure

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
f vs m, wk 3	-1.1649	1.6223	64	-0.72	0.4753

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
f vs m, wk 3	1	64	0.52	0.52	0.4727	0.4753

INTERPRETATION:

- **Choice of covariance structure:** From the output, we have the following results on pages 3, 6, 9, and 12:

Model	-2 res loglike	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>
Unstructured	544.5	564.5	578.5
Compound symmetry	556.7	560.7	563.5
AR(1)	556.5	560.5	563.3
One-dependent	556.1	560.1	562.9

From the *AIC* and *BIC* values, it appears that assuming some kind of structure is better than none (unstructured); however, the evidence is inconclusive about which structure, compound symmetry, AR(1), or one-dependent provides a better characterization of covariance. Differences in the criteria are small; because each fit requires a numerical method of finding the solution, the values might end up slightly differently if a slightly different algorithm or machine had been used. Thus, it is not sensible to make too much of these differences. We thus conclude that any of these structures is probably capturing reasonably well the most important features of the covariance structure; there is some correlation among observations, but the evidence is inconclusive about how it “falls off” as they become farther apart in time. From the **Solution for Fixed Effects** for each fit on pages 7, 10, and 13, the estimates of β differ very little across the different assumptions.

- **Estimation of difference in mean response between males and females at week 3.** We illustrate use of the **contrast** and **estimate** statements for the one-dependent fit. On page 14, we have that the estimated mean difference is -1.165 with an estimated standard error of 1.622 , so that the standard error exceeds the actual estimated difference in magnitude. The Wald statistic of the form estimate divided by standard error is given in the result of the **estimate** statement and is equal to -0.72 . **PROC MIXED** compares this to a t distribution; alternatively, a normal distribution could be used. The **contrast** statement with the **chisq** option produces the identical test, but printing the statistic $T_L = 0.52 = (-0.72)^2$ instead. This is compared to a χ^2 distribution with 1 degree of freedom (standard normal squared), as our contrast has one degree of freedom. An alternative F test is also given by default, which involves an adjustment for finite samples as discussed earlier.

From the results, there is not enough evidence to suggest that there is a difference in mean response between the genders at the third week. Given the small estimate, which is very small compared to a typical response value in the 30's to almost 50, it appears that we would be safe to conclude that there is no practical difference in mean response.

FURTHER INFORMATION ON PROC MIXED: See the SAS documentation and the book *SAS System for Mixed Models* by Littell, Milliken, Stroup, and Wolfinger (1996) for much more on the capabilities of PROC MIXED for fitting general regression models for longitudinal data. We will see that PROC MIXED can do much more in the next few chapters.

8.9 Parameterizing models in SAS: Use of the `noint` option in SAS model statements in PROC GLM and PROC MIXED

An important skill using “canned” software such as `proc glm` or `proc mixed` in SAS is understanding how the software allows the user to specify models for mean response in the `model` statement. Here, we give more detail on the principles behind specifying `model` statements in order to obtain desired mean models in different parameterizations.

To fix ideas, consider the dental data and the analyses in *EXAMPLE 1*. In particular, consider the two models for mean response on page 248.

Model in the “explicit” parameterization:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ boys} \\ &= \beta_{0,G} + \beta_{1,G}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ girls} \end{aligned} \tag{8.25}$$

Model in the “difference” parameterization:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \beta_{0,B} + \beta_{1,B}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ boys} \\ &= (\beta_{0,B} + \beta_{0,G-B}) + (\beta_{1,B} + \beta_{1,G-B})t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \text{ girls} \end{aligned} \tag{8.26}$$

In all of the following, we use expressions like β_0 , β_1 , etc. as just “placeholders” to denote generic terms in models.

Consider the program. Recall that the variable `gender` takes on the numerical values 0 or 1 as a child is a girl (0) or a boy (1). The variable `age` is a numerical value representing the time condition, and the response is `distance`. The variable `child` is the unit indicator, and is ordinarily declared to be a `class` variable (as SAS classifies observations as belonging to particular units on this basis).

It is demonstrated in the program and its output that the following statements lead to parameterization of the model using the “difference” parameterization (8.26).

```
class gender child;
model distance = gender age gender*age / solution;
```

Here, notice that `gender` is also declared to be a `class` variable. Thus, SAS will treat `gender` as two (in this case) categories corresponding to girls (`gender 0`) and boys (`gender 1`).

Representative output from such a call (in the `Solution for Fixed Effects` table) looks like:

Solution for Fixed Effects						
Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept		16.3406	0.9631	25	16.97	<.0001
gender	0	1.0321	1.5089	25	0.68	0.5003
gender	1	0
age		0.7844	0.07654	79	10.25	<.0001
age*gender	0	-0.3048	0.1199	79	-2.54	0.0130
age*gender	1	0

Let us consider more carefully what the `model` statement above is instructing SAS to do. In general, in any `model` statement in `proc glm` or `proc mixed`, the presence of any effect (e.g. `gender`) causes SAS to create a term or terms in the mean model. In this specific case, here is how this works.

As the `noint` option is **not** present, SAS automatically constructs an intercept term, call it β_0 for now.

The presence of the `gender` effect causes SAS to create some terms as follows: **because gender is declared to be a class variable**, SAS will create a term for **each classification** (or category) determined by `gender`. Here, there are **two**, girls (`gender 0`) and boys (`gender 1`). So including `gender` in the `model` statement with `gender` has the effect of creating terms in the model as follows:

$$\beta_1 I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_2 I(\text{gender}=1),$$

where, here, the notation “ $I(\text{gender}=x)$ ” means “this term is present if `gender=x`” for $x=0, 1$.

Now `age` is **not** a `class` variable, but just a variable that takes on numerical values (8,10,12,14 in this case). As it is not a `class` variable, SAS simply creates a term of the form $\beta_3 t$, where we are using t to represent the numerical values of `age`. Note that with numerical variables, SAS creates only a single such term; it does **not** create a separate term for each value that t takes on.

Because `gender` is a `class` variable, the `gender*age` effect causes SAS to do something similar to the above. In particular, SAS will again create a term for **each classification** (or category) determined by `gender` (times `age` now). That is, including `gender*age` has the effect of creating terms in the model as follows:

$$\beta_4 t I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_5 t I(\text{gender}=1) \text{ (age)}.$$

Putting this all together, we have that the mean model created looks like

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_2 I(\text{gender}=1) + \beta_3 t + \beta_4 t I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_5 t I(\text{gender}=1).$$

Note then that for a girl, the model is

$$(\beta_0 + \beta_1) + (\beta_3 + \beta_4)t,$$

and for a boy, the model is

$$(\beta_0 + \beta_2) + (\beta_3 + \beta_5)t.$$

In the table of `Solution for Fixed Effects`, we have the following correspondences:

Intercept	β_0
gender 0	β_1
gender 1	β_2
age	β_3
age*gender 0	β_4
age*gender 1	β_5

Note that this is **over-parameterized** – there are only two intercepts and two slopes (**four** parameters) that need to be described, but there are **six** parameters in the model! That is, it is not possible to estimate all of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_5$ from data that only tell us about two intercepts and two slopes. We really don't need all of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ to determine two intercepts, and likewise we don't need all of $\beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ to determine two slopes.

SAS recognizes this automatically and imposes some **constraints** to get the number of parameters down to a number that can be estimated. Practically speaking, by default, the way it chooses to do this is to disregard one of $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ for the intercepts and $\beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ for the slopes. From the **Solution for Fixed Effects** table, the “0” followed by dots corresponding to **gender 1** and **age*gender 1** indicate that it chooses to disregard what we have called β_2 and β_5 , essentially setting these equal to 0.

The result is that the implied model is, for a girl,

$$(\beta_0 + \beta_1) + (\beta_3 + \beta_4)t,$$

and for a boy,

$$\beta_0 + \beta_3t.$$

That is, SAS defaults to the “difference” parameterization, which may be seen by identifying β_0 with $\beta_{0,B}$, β_1 with $\beta_{0,G-B}$, β_3 with $\beta_{1,B}$, β_4 with $\beta_{1,G-B}$ in (8.26).

Now consider the case of the “explicit” parameterization. It is demonstrated in the program and its output that the following statements lead to parameterization of the model using the “explicit” parameterization (8.25).

```
class gender child;
model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution;
```

Again, **gender** is declared to be a **class** variable, so SAS will treat **gender** as two (in this case) categories corresponding to girls (**gender 0**) and boys (**gender 1**). Note the use now of the **noint** option. Note also that we **do not** include an **age** effect here; we will see why momentarily.

Representative output from such a call (in the `Solution for Fixed Effects` table) looks like:

Solution for Fixed Effects						
Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.3727	1.1615	25	14.96	<.0001
gender	1	16.3406	0.9631	25	16.97	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4795	0.09231	79	5.20	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7844	0.07654	79	10.25	<.0001

Let us consider more carefully what the `model` statement here is instructing SAS to do. As above, in any `model` statement in `proc glm` or `proc mixed`, the presence of any effect (e.g. `gender`) causes SAS to create a term in the mean model. As the `noint` option is present, SAS will **not** automatically construct an intercept term. The presence of the `gender` effect causes SAS to create the same type of terms as before; that is, **because gender is declared to be a class variable**, SAS will create a term for **each classification** (or category) determined by `gender`, leading to terms of the form

$$\beta_1 I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_2 I(\text{gender}=1).$$

As before, `age` is not a `class` variable, but just a variable that takes on numerical values (8,10,12,14 in this case). As it is not a `class` variable, SAS simply creates a term of the form $\beta_3 t$.

Also as before, because `gender` is a `class` variable, the `gender*age` effect causes SAS to create a term for **each classification** (or category) determined by `gender` (times `age` now); that is

$$\beta_3 t I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_4 t I(\text{gender}=1).$$

Putting this all together, we have that the mean model created looks like

$$\beta_1 I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_2 I(\text{gender}=1) + \beta_3 t I(\text{gender}=0) + \beta_4 t I(\text{gender}=1).$$

Note then that for a girl, the model is

$$\beta_1 + \beta_3 t,$$

and for a boy, the model is

$$\beta_2 + \beta_4 t.$$

That is, the model as specified contains four parameters, two intercepts and two slopes, exactly what is needed! It is **not** overparameterized.

In the table of `Solution for Fixed Effects`, we have the following correspondences:

<code>gender 0</code>	β_1
<code>gender 1</code>	β_2
<code>age*gender 0</code>	β_3
<code>age*gender 1</code>	β_4

There are no “zeroed out” elements, because each corresponding term is something that can be estimated.

Thus, with an understanding of how SAS creates terms from effects specified in a `model` statement, we see that this results in the parameterization of the model in (8.25), identifying β_1 with $\beta_{0,G}$, β_2 with $\beta_{0,B}$, β_3 with $\beta_{1,G}$, β_4 with $\beta_{1,B}$.

Note that including the effect `age` in the `model` statement would have resulted in an overparameterization – we do not need a single term of the form βt , as we already have all the parameters we need to characterize the model. Knowing the way SAS constructs effects, the user can anticipate this and leave the `age` term out. (Fun exercise: try putting it in and see what happens!)

Thus, note that, in either `model` statement, the way in which SAS creates terms is identical – including a term in a `model` statement always has the same effect – it is the **choice** of terms to include that dictates the resulting model and parameterization.

In general, then, the following principles apply:

- If a variable is declared to be a `class` variable and the variable appears in effects in a `model` statement, SAS creates a term for that effect corresponding to each level (value taken on by) the variable. In this example, `gender` has two such levels (girl and boy), so there are two terms.
- If a variable is **not** declared to be a `class` variable and the variable appears in a `model` statement, it is treated as numeric. In this case, SAS creates a single term as in the example with `age`.

The above principles extend to more than two groups. For example, the dialyzer (ultrafiltration) data discussed in *EXAMPLE 2* have three groups (centers 1,2,3).

Here, `center` is equal to 1, 2, or 3 depending on center, and `tmp` is the (numerical) “time” variable.

The two competing model statements are

```
class subject center;
model ufr = center tmp center*tmp / solution;
```

to obtain the “difference” parameterization and

```
class subject center;
model ufr = center center*tmp / noint solution;
```

to obtain the “explicit” parameterization. In either case, `center` will cause SAS to construct terms like

$$\beta_1 I(\text{center}=1) + \beta_2 I(\text{center}=2) + \beta_3 I(\text{center}=3)$$

and, similarly, `center*age` will imply

$$\beta_{4t} I(\text{center}=1) + \beta_{5t} I(\text{center}=2) + \beta_{6t} I(\text{center}=3)$$

You can go through the same reasoning as for the dental data to identify the parameterization each `model` statement implies.

All of the above has to do with the declaration of the group variable as a `class` variable. In the case of two groups, it is possible to obtain the same parameterizations fairly easily without such a declaration as long as one makes sure the group variable is such that it takes on the values 0 and 1 (as for the dental data).

To see this, consider the following model statement:

```
class child;
model distance = gender age gender*age / solution;
```


Note we have not used the `noint` option. Here, `gender` is **not** declared to be a `class` variable; thus, SAS interprets it as taking on numerical values (0 and 1 in this case). By the general principles, SAS will create a term corresponding to each of the effects `gender`, `age`, and `gender*age`. But, because `gender` is **not** a `class` variable, it will simply treat it the same way as `age` and create a single term rather than terms for each category as it would if it were a `class` variable. That is, letting g be the numerical value of `gender`, this model statement will result in

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 g + \beta_2 t + \beta_3 g t,$$

where the β_0 is the “automatic” intercept. Thus, we see that the implied model here is

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 + (\beta_2 + \beta_3)t$$

for $g = 0$ (girl) and

$$\beta_0 + \beta_2 t$$

for $g = 1$ (boy). This is, of course, exactly in the form of the “difference” parameterization in (8.26).

We can in fact also get the “explicit” parameterization without treating `gender` as a `class` variable by being clever as follows. Create a new variable `revgender = 1-gender`. Thus, `revgender` takes on the value 1 for girls and 0 for boys (the “reverse” of `gender`). Consider the following `model` statement (note we use the `noint` option here).

```
class child;
model distance = gender revgender gender*age revgender*age / noint solution;
```

By the above principles, as `gender` and `revgender` are just treated as variables taking numerical values, SAS creates the following terms:

$$\beta_1 g + \beta_2(1 - g) + \beta_3 t g + \beta_4 t(1 - g).$$

Thus, we see that the implied model here is

$$\beta_2 + \beta_4 t$$

for $g = 0$ (girl) and

$$\beta_1 + \beta_3 t$$

for $g = 1$ (boy). This is, of course, in exactly the form of the “explicit” parameterization (8.25), making the appropriate correspondences.

In the case of more than two groups, one may do the same thing, but it gets messier. One needs to create “dummy” variables taking on values 0 or 1 for each group; thus, for the dialyzer data, we might create variables as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{c1} &= 1 \text{ if } \text{center}=1 \\ &0 \text{ otherwise} \\ \text{c2} &= 1 \text{ if } \text{center}=2 \\ &0 \text{ otherwise} \\ \text{c3} &= 1 \text{ if } \text{center}=3 \\ &0 \text{ otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

To convince yourself of the following, just write out the implied models for each `model` statement:

You may verify that the “difference” parameterization may be obtained by the following code:

```
model ufr = c1 c2 tmp c1*tmp c2*tmp / solution;
```

Note that, here, we chose not to include `c3` in the `model` statement. The effect of this is to make `center` 3 the “reference” center. We could have equally well have chosen another `center` as the “reference.” We left out one of the center dummy variables (`c3` here) because we knew in advance that to include them all would lead to an **overparameterization**. You might want to try running the following code to see what happens:

```
model ufr = c1 c2 c3 tmp c1*tmp c2*tmp c3*tmp / solution;
```

You should be able to see that, using the same considerations as above, this leads to an overparameterized model.

The “explicit” parameterization may be obtained by

```
model ufr = c1 c2 c3 c1*tmp c2*tmp c3*tmp / noint solution;
```

Note that, here, the model is **not** overparameterized.

It should be obvious that, as the number of groups grows, it becomes less and less convenient to define all these variables. The `class` statement in SAS essentially does this for us.

8.10 Using SAS `model`, `contrast`, and `estimate` statements

This section gives more information how to use these statements with `PROC MIXED` in the context of *EXAMPLES 1–3*. You may wish to add these statements to the example programs to see what output they produce. We demonstrate the use of `contrast` and `estimate` statements more in the next chapter.

EXAMPLE 1 – DENTAL DATA. Consider the call to `proc mixed` for the fit of the “full model” with the “explicit parameterization” using a separate compound symmetric covariance structure for each gender on page 251.

From the `Solution for Fixed Effects` table in the output of this statement, β is defined as

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,G} \\ \beta_{0,B} \\ \beta_{1,G} \\ \beta_{1,B} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The null hypothesis of equal slopes may be written as $H_0 : \mathbf{L}\beta = 0$, where

$$\mathbf{L} = (0, 0, 1, -1).$$

To obtain the Wald test (and default F approximation), use the following `contrast` statement, placed **after** the `repeated` statement:

```
contrast 'slp diff' gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1 / chisq;
```

The null hypothesis of coincident lines (same intercepts and slopes in both groups) may be written as $H_0 : \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{0}$, where

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To obtain the Wald test (and default F approximation), use the following `contrast` statement, placed *after* the `repeated` statement:

```
contrast 'both diff' gender 1 -1 gender*age 0 0,
          gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1 / chisq;
```

The results of such `contrast` statements appears in the output in a section labeled “**Contrasts.**”

EXAMPLE 2 – DIALYZER DATA. The call to `proc mixed` for the fit using the “explicit parameterization” with the Markov covariance model is at the bottom of page 278.

From the `Solution for Fixed Effects` table in the output, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is defined as, in obvious notation,

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,1} \\ \beta_{0,2} \\ \beta_{0,3} \\ \beta_{1,1} \\ \beta_{1,2} \\ \beta_{1,3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The null hypothesis of equal slopes across all three centers may be written as $H_0 : \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{0}$, where

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To obtain the Wald test (and default F approximation), use the following `contrast` statement, placed *after* the `repeated` statement:

```
contrast 'slp diff' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 -1 0,
          center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 0 -1 / chisq;
```

EXAMPLE 3 – HIP REPLACEMENT DATA. The `model` statement syntax for fitting the model on page 286 is given in the calls to `proc mixed` on page 288 – here, the “explicit parameterization” is used.

What if we wanted to fit a more complicated model? For example, consider the model

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= (\beta_1 + \beta_7 a_i) + (\beta_2 + \beta_8 a_i) t_{ij} + (\beta_3 + \beta_9 a_i) t_{ij}^2 + e_{ij} \text{ for males} \\ &= (\beta_4 + \beta_{10} a_i) + (\beta_5 + \beta_{11} a_i) t_{ij} + (\beta_6 + \beta_{12} a_i) t_{ij}^2 + e_{ij} \text{ for females} \end{aligned}$$

This model says that the week-zero mean, the linear component, and the quadratic effect is different for males and females, and, further, the way in which each of these depends on age is linear and different for males and females. This is a rather complicated model.

The appropriate syntax may be found by multiplying out each expression; e.g., for males, the mean expression is

$$\beta_1 + \beta_7 a_i + \beta_2 t_{ij} + \beta_8 a_i t_{ij} + \beta_3 t_{ij}^2 + \beta_9 a_i t_{ij}^2,$$

and there is a corresponding expression for females, where each term has a different coefficient; i.e.

$$\beta_4 + \beta_{10} a_i + \beta_5 t_{ij} + \beta_{11} a_i t_{ij} + \beta_6 t_{ij}^2 + \beta_{12} a_i t_{ij}^2,$$

Multiplying things out makes the `model` syntax clear. We use the `noint` option, so that we can construct the “intercept terms” β_1 and β_4 for males and females ourselves. The syntax is

```
model h = gender gender*age gender*week gender*age*week
        gender*week2 gender*age*week2 /noint solution;
```

That is, there is a term corresponding to each term in the multiplied-out expression. The `gender` part of each term ensures that the model includes different such terms for males and females.