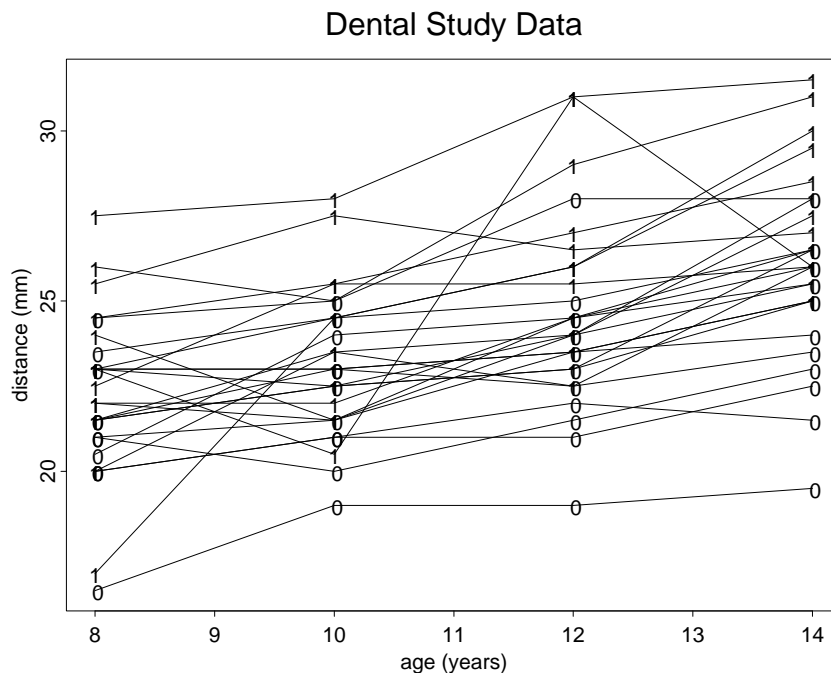


9 Random coefficient models for multivariate normal data

9.1 Introduction

In the last chapter, we noted that an alternative perspective on explicit modeling of longitudinal response is to think directly of the fact that each unit appears to have its **own trajectory** or **inherent trend** with its own peculiar features. For example, in the dental study, if we focus on a particular child, the trajectory looks to be approximately like a straight line (with some variation about it, of course). The data are reproduced below for convenience in Figure 1. A similar statement could be made about the dialyzer data in the last chapter.

Figure 1: *Dental data revisited.*



The general regression modeling approach takes the standard perspective in much of statistical modeling of focusing directly on the **mean responses** and how they change over time. In this chapter, we consider an alternative approach to building a model based on thinking first about individual trajectories.

- For trajectories that may be represented by **linear functions** of a design matrix and parameters, this approach will lead us to the same type of mean models as the general regression approach.

- **However**, the modeling approach acknowledges **explicitly** the two separate sources of variation we have discussed. As a result, it “automatically” leads to covariance models that also acknowledge these sources.
- The resulting statistical model, called a **random coefficient model** for reasons that will be clear shortly, will be seen to imply a model like the general linear regression models of the last chapter with a particular covariance structure for each data vector. Thus, the inferential methods of that chapter, namely maximum and restricted maximum likelihood, will apply immediately.
- In addition, this modeling strategy will allow us to address questions of scientific interest about trajectories for **individual units**, either ones in the study or **future** units. For example, in a study of AIDS patients, it may be of interest to physicians attending the patients to have an **estimate** of a patient’s individual apparent trajectory, so that they may make clinical decisions about his or her future care. There is no apparent way of doing this in the general modeling approach we have just considered.

9.2 Random coefficient model

SUBJECT-SPECIFIC TRAJECTORY: Recall the conceptual model discussed in Chapter 4. For definiteness, again consider the dental study data. We take the view that each child has his/her own underlying straight line **inherent trend**. Focusing on the i th child, this says that s/he has his/her own **intercept** and **slope**, β_{0i} and β_{1i} , say, respectively, that determine this trend. This intercept and slope are unique to child i .

WITHIN-INDIVIDUAL VARIATION: Continuing with conceptual perspective, the actual responses observed for a given child do not fall **exactly** on a straight line (the inherent trajectory) due to

- The fact that the response cannot be measured perfectly, but is instead subject to measurement error due to the measuring device.
- Individual “fluctuations;” although the overall **trend** for a given child is a straight line, the **actual responses**, if we could observe them continuously over time, tend to fluctuate about the trend.

AMONG-INDIVIDUAL VARIATION: The inherent trajectories are “high” or “low” with different steepness across children, suggesting that the child-specific **intercepts** β_{0i} and **slopes** β_{1i} **vary** across children.

To formalize this thinking, a model is developed in two **stages**.

“*INDIVIDUAL (FIRST STAGE)*” *MODEL*: The first stage involves describing what we believe at the level the i th child; specifically, we write a model for the random variables Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{in_i} for the i th child taken at time points t_{i1}, \dots, t_{in_i} . Although the particular dental study example is **balanced**, we write things more generally to allow the possibility of imbalance. The model for child i is, $i = 1, \dots, m$ is

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}t_{ij} + e_{ij}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n_i. \quad (9.1)$$

In model (9.1), the observations on the i th child follow a straight line with child-specific intercept and slope β_{0i} and β_{1i} . That actual observations vary about this inherent line due to within-unit sources is represented explicitly by the deviation e_{ij} with mean 0. We say more about these deviations shortly.

- Thus, model (9.1) has the form of a straight line regression model **unique** to the i th child. Each child has such a model.

- Each child has a **regression parameter** vector $\beta_i = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0i} \\ \beta_{1i} \end{pmatrix}$.

- We may write the model (9.1) concisely. Define \mathbf{Y}_i and \mathbf{e}_i as usual, and let

$$\mathbf{Z}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_{i1} \\ 1 & t_{i2} \\ \vdots & \\ 1 & t_{in_i} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We may then write the model as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i\beta_i + \mathbf{e}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m. \quad (9.2)$$

“*POPULATION (SECOND STAGE)*” *MODEL*: Model (9.1) only tells part of the story; it describes what happens at the level of an individual child, and includes explicit mention (through e_{ij}) of **within-child** variation. However, it does not by itself acknowledge **among-child** variation. We have recognized that the inherent trends differ across children; for example, some children have a steeper slope for their apparent trajectory than do others. For now, we downplay the fact that children are of two genders; we will tackle this issue momentarily.

We may think of the children observed as arising from a **population** of all such children. Each child has its **own** intercept and slope; thus, we may think abstractly of this population in terms of **random vectors** β_i , one for each child, as it is the unique intercept and slope for each child that distinguishes his/her trajectory.

- It is natural to think of this **population** as being “centered” about a “typical” value of intercept and slope, with variation about this center value – some children have shallower or steeper slopes, for example.
- More formally, we may think of the **mean** value of intercept and slope of the population of all such β_i vectors. Individual intercept/slope vectors vary about this mean. Thus, we may think of a **joint probability distribution** of all possible values that a random vector of regression parameters β_i could take on. More on this momentarily.

This way of thinking suggests a **model** for this population as follows. Let β_0 and β_1 represent the **mean** values of intercept and slope, and define

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (9.3)$$

Thus $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the **mean vector** of the population of all β_i . Then write

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_i = \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}_i, \quad \mathbf{b}_i = \begin{pmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (9.4)$$

which is a shorthand way of saying

$$\beta_{0i} = \beta_0 + b_{0i}, \quad \beta_{1i} = \beta_1 + b_{1i}.$$

- Here, \mathbf{b}_i is a vector of **random effects** describing how the intercept and slope for the i th child deviates from the mean value.
- Thus, (9.4) has the flavor of a regression-type model for the child-specific regression parameters, with a **systematic** component, the **mean**, and a **random** component summarizing how things vary about it.
- More formally, the vectors \mathbf{b}_i are assumed to have mean $\mathbf{0}$ and some **covariance matrix** that describes the nature of this variation – how intercepts and slopes vary **among** children **and** how they **covary** (e.g. do large intercepts and slopes tend to occur together?) In fact, as we discuss shortly, the \mathbf{b}_i are assumed to have a **multivariate probability distribution** with this mean and covariance matrix.

- Thus, whereas the **individual** child model summarizes how things happen **within** a child, this model characterizes variation **among** children, representing the population through intercepts and slopes. Putting the models (9.1) and (9.4) **together** thus gives a complete description of what we believe about each child and the population of children, acknowledging the two sources of variation **explicitly**.
- Note that we may substitute the expressions for β_{0i} and β_{1i} in (9.1) to obtain

$$Y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + b_{0i}) + (\beta_1 + b_{1i})t_{ij} + e_{ij}.$$

This shows clearly what we are assuming: each child has intercept and slope that varies about the “typical,” or **mean** intercept and slope β_0 and β_1 .

ACKNOWLEDGING GENDER: We can refine our model to allow for the fact that children are of different genders as follows. We may think of children as coming from two **populations**, males and females, each population with its own **mean** values of intercept and slope and possibly **different** pattern of variation in these intercepts and slopes. Each child would still have his/her own individual regression model as in (9.1), so this would not change. What would change to incorporate this refinement is the **population model**. For example, if child i is a boy, then we might believe

$$\beta_{0i} = \beta_{0,B} + b_{0i}. \quad \beta_{1i} = \beta_{1,B} + b_{1i},$$

while if i is a girl,

$$\beta_{0i} = \beta_{0,G} + b_{0i}. \quad \beta_{1i} = \beta_{1,G} + b_{1i}.$$

- Here, the **fixed** parameters $\beta_{0,B}, \beta_{1,B}$ represent the mean intercept and slope for boys; similarly, $\beta_{0,G}, \beta_{1,G}$ represent the same for girls.
- $\mathbf{b}_i = (b_{0i}, b_{1i})'$ represents the **random effect** for child i with mean $\mathbf{0}$. We may believe that the populations of β_i for boys and girls have different means but have similar variation. In this case, we might say that the \mathbf{b}_i all have the **same** covariance matrix regardless of whether i is a boy or girl. On the other hand, if we believe that the populations have different variation, we might think of the \mathbf{b}_i of being of two types, with a different covariance matrix depending on the gender. We will be more formal shortly.

- Let

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

Define for each child a matrix \mathbf{A}_i such that

$$\mathbf{A}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ if child } i \text{ is a girl}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ if child } i \text{ is a boy}$$

Then it is straightforward to verify that we may write the model concisely for each child as

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_i = \mathbf{A}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}_i. \quad (9.5)$$

- Note that the simpler (“one-population”) model (9.4) could also be written in this way with $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ defined as in (9.3) and $\mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{I}_2$ for all i (try it!)

Let us now be more specific about the nature of the two sources of variation being acknowledged explicitly in this modeling approach.

WITHIN-UNIT VARIATION: In the “individual” model (9.2), the **within-unit** random vector \mathbf{e}_i has mean zero and represents the deviations introduced **solely by** sources within an individual. This includes measurement error, biological “fluctuations,” or both. Thus, following the conceptual framework in Chapter 4, we may think of \mathbf{e}_i as being decomposed as

$$\mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{e}_{1i} + \mathbf{e}_{2i},$$

where \mathbf{e}_{1i} represents the deviations due to within-subject fluctuations and \mathbf{e}_{2i} those due to measurement error.

To characterize within-subject variation **and** correlation due to within-subject sources (fluctuations), the approach is to specify a **covariance structure model** for $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i)$. In general, write

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i),$$

where \mathbf{R}_i is a $(n_i \times n_i)$ covariance matrix. We now discuss through review of some typical scenarios considerations involved in identifying an appropriate \mathbf{R}_i .

- Suppose we believe that, although there may be biological fluctuations over time, the observation times are sufficiently far apart that correlation due to within-subject sources among the Y_{ij} may be regarded as **negligible**.

In this case, it is reasonable to assume that $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i})$ is a **diagonal** matrix. If we furthermore believe that the magnitude of fluctuations is **similar** across time and units, we may represent this by the assumption that $\text{var}(e_{1ij}) = \sigma_1^2$, say, for all i and j , so that

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i}) = \sigma_1^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}.$$

The assumption that this is similar across units may be viewed as reflecting the belief that the e_{1ij} are **independent** of β_i and hence \mathbf{b}_i , which dictate how “large” the unit-specific trend is, so that the magnitude of fluctuations is unrelated to any unit-specific response characteristics.

- As we have discussed previously, it may be reasonable to assume that errors in measurement are **uncorrelated** over time; thus, taking $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{2i})$ to be a diagonal matrix would be appropriate.

Suppose we also believe that errors committed by the measuring device are of similar magnitude regardless of the true size of the thing being measured, and are similar for all units (because the same device is used). This suggests that $\text{var}(e_{2ij}) = \sigma_2^2$, say, for all j , so that

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{2i}) = \sigma_2^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}.$$

Now the **true** size of the thing being measured at time t_{ij} is

$$\beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}t_{ij} + e_{1ij};$$

i.e. the actual response uncontaminated by measurement error. Under this belief, it is reasonable to assume that the e_{2ij} are **independent** of β_i and thus \mathbf{b}_i .

- Putting this together, we would take

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i}) + \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{2i}) = \sigma_1^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i} + \sigma_2^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i},$$

where σ^2 is the aggregate variance reflecting variation due to both within-unit sources.

- The assumption that \mathbf{e}_{1i} and \mathbf{e}_{2i} are **independent** is **standard**, as is the assumption that \mathbf{e}_{1i} and \mathbf{e}_{2i} (and hence \mathbf{e}_i) are **independent** of \mathbf{b}_i . We say more about these assumptions shortly.
- We may think of other situations. For example, suppose that the response is something like **height**, which in all likelihood we can measure with very little if any error. Under this condition, we may effectively **eliminate** \mathbf{e}_{2i} from the model and assume that $\mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{e}_{1i}$; i.e. all within-unit variation is due to things like “fluctuations.” In the model above, $\sigma^2 = \sigma_1^2$ would then represent the variance due to this sole source.

- Similarly, we may have a rather “noisy” measuring device such that, relative to errors in measurement, deviations due to within-unit subjects are virtually negligible. Under this condition, as long as we believe the times are far enough apart to render within-unit correlation negligible as well, we may as well take $\mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{e}_{2i}$, in which case $\sigma^2 = \sigma_2^2$ in the above model represents solely measurement error variance.
- Now suppose that the times of observation are sufficiently close that correlation due to within-unit sources cannot be viewed as negligible. In this event, it would be unreasonable to take $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i})$ to be **diagonal**. It would instead be more realistic to adopt a model for $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i})$ that represents correlation that decays as observations become farther apart. For example, with equally-spaced observations and variance assumed constant as above, the AR(1) structure may be a suitable model; i.e.

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i}) = \sigma_1^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho^2 & \cdots & \rho^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \rho^{n-1} & \rho^{n-2} & \cdots & \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In general, maintaining the common variance assumption, we might entertain models $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i}) = \sigma_1^2 \mathbf{\Gamma}_i$, where $\mathbf{\Gamma}_i$ is a suitable $(n_i \times n_i)$ correlation matrix.

- In this case, with the same assumptions on measurement error and independence as above, we would instead have

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \sigma_1^2 \mathbf{\Gamma}_i + \sigma_2^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}. \quad (9.6)$$

If measurement error were deemed negligible, this would be reduced to the assumption that

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{\Gamma}_i,$$

where $\sigma^2 = \sigma_2^2$ represents variance due solely to within-unit fluctuations.

- We could also modify the above models to incorporate the possibility that, for example, one or both variances **changes** over time. In this situation, one could postulate a **heterogeneous** covariance model, as described in Chapter 4. I.e., if we believed fluctuation variances are still similar across subjects but change in magnitude over time, replace the assumption $\sigma_1^2 \mathbf{\Gamma}_i$ above by the heterogeneous version of the correlation matrix.

If we believe that there is a different variance at every time, this would make the most sense when all units are seen potentially at the same time points, as in the hip replacement study of the last chapter, so that there would be a finite number of variances to estimate. In this case, supposing there are n potential times at which units are seen, let $\text{var}(e_{1ij}) = \sigma_{1j}^2$ for the j th such time, $j = 1, \dots, n$. Then for a unit seen at all n times, define

$$\mathbf{T}_i^{1/2} = \text{diag}(\sigma_{11}, \sigma_{12}, \dots, \sigma_{1n}), \quad (n \times n),$$

where “diag” means a diagonal matrix with these values on the diagonal. We can then express the covariance matrix of the fluctuation deviation as

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i}) = \mathbf{T}_i^{1/2} \mathbf{\Gamma}_i \mathbf{T}_i^{1/2}$$

using the notation defined on page 45 in Chapter 3. For a unit with some time points missing, the considerations in the last chapter for specifying covariance matrices with unbalanced data would be used to write down the model for $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_{1i})$ for each subject.

- Alternatively, it is conceivable that if there are several populations, \mathbf{R}_i could be different for each. As an example, we could have

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_G^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i} \quad \text{if } i \text{ is a girl}$$

and $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_B^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}$ if i is a boy, perhaps reflecting the belief that the magnitude of fluctuations is different for each gender.

- It should be clear that, in specifying the matrix \mathbf{R}_i , the analyst must consider carefully the features of the situation at hand in regard to within-unit sources of variation and correlation. Ideally, s/he would want to adopt a model that accurately characterizes the anticipated features.
- However, it turns out that, although not impossible, it may be difficult to fit a postulated model, particularly if it is rather complicated.

For example, it is often problematic to fit models like (9.6) where **both** measurement error and “fluctuation” are assumed nonnegligible. This is often because there is not sufficient information to **identify** all the components of the model. A simplifying assumption that is thus often made is that one of the two sources tends to **dominate** the other. Under this assumption, modeling of \mathbf{R}_i and fitting are simplified. The hope is that this may be a sufficiently good approximation to provide reliable inferences.

This sort of assumption is often made **unknowingly**; the analyst will choose a model for \mathbf{R}_i that embodies certain assumptions and emphasizes one source or another by default without having thought about considerations like those above. In fact, the most common assumption is $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}$, where σ^2 is the same for all units and groups, is usually made in this way (and is the **default** in SAS PROC MIXED).

We discuss the consequences of a “wrong” model specification for \mathbf{R}_i shortly.

- In general, \mathbf{R}_i is a $(n_i \times n_i)$ matrix depending on a few variance and correlation parameters; e.g. σ^2 and ρ in the example above, chosen to at least approximate the anticipated features of within-unit sources of variation and correlation.
- If we just focus on the response for individual i at any time point t_{ij} , if we believe a **normal distribution** is a reasonable way to represent the population of responses we might see **on this individual** at t_{ij} , then it would make sense to assume that each e_{ij} were normally distributed. This of course implies that we assume

$$e_i \sim \mathcal{N}_{n_i}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_i).$$

AMONG-UNIT VARIATION: In the “population” model (9.5), the **random effects** \mathbf{b}_i have mean $\mathbf{0}$ and represent variation resulting from the fact that individual units **differ**; i.e. exhibit **biological** or other variation. The model says that this variation **among individuals** manifests itself by causing the individual unit trajectories to be different (have different intercepts and slopes). Thus, $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ characterizes this variation.

- Intercepts and slopes may tend to be large or small **together**, so that children with steeper slopes tend to “start out” larger at age 0. Alternatively, large intercepts may tend to happen with small slopes and vice versa; perhaps children who “start out” smaller experience a steeper growth pattern to “catch up.” In either case, this suggests that it would **not necessarily** be prudent to think of $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ as a **diagonal matrix**. Rather, we expect there to be some **correlation** between intercepts and slopes, the nature of this correlation depending on what is being studied.
- As noted above, we may believe that the populations of intercept/slopes for boys and girls have possibly different **means**, but that the variation in each population about the mean is similar. Formally, we can represent this by assuming that

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}$$

for some covariance matrix \mathbf{D} **regardless** of whether i is a boy or girl.

- Here, \mathbf{D} is (2×2) , and an **unstructured** model is really the only one that makes sense. In particular, writing

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} D_{11} & D_{12} \\ D_{12} & D_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

we have

$$\text{var}(\beta_{0i}) = \text{var}(b_{0i}) = D_{11}, \quad \text{var}(\beta_{1i}) = \text{var}(b_{1i}) = D_{22}, \quad \text{cov}(\beta_{0i}, \beta_{1i}) = \text{cov}(b_{0i}, b_{1i}) = D_{12}.$$

It should be clear that we would not expect $D_{12} = 0$ in general; e.g., steep slopes may be associated with “high” intercepts.

It should also be clear that $D_{11} = D_{22}$ would be **unrealistic**. The **intercept** is on the same **scale** of measurement as the response, while the **slope** is on the scale “response scale per unit time.” Thus, these parameters are representing variances that would be **expected** to be **different** because they correspond to phenomena that are on different scales.

- If we believed that these populations exhibit possibly different variation, we can represent this by assuming that

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}_B \text{ if } i \text{ is a boy,} \quad \text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}_G \text{ if } i \text{ is a girl,}$$

where \mathbf{D}_B and \mathbf{D}_G are two (unstructured) covariance matrices.

- In either case, the assumption on $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ reflects **solely** the nature of variation at the level of the **population(s)** of units; that is, that caused **solely** by variation among units due to biology or other features. This is formally represented through the \mathbf{b}_i .
- It is often reasonable to assume that populations of intercepts and slopes are approximately **normally distributed**; e.g. this says that slopes vary **symmetrically** about the mean, some steeper, some shallower. Thus, a standard assumption is that the \mathbf{b}_i have a **multivariate normal** distribution; e.g. in the case where the covariance matrix is assumed the same and equal to \mathbf{D} regardless of gender, the assumption would be

$$\mathbf{b}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_k(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}),$$

where k is the dimension of \mathbf{b}_i ($k = 2$ here).

REMARKS:

- As noted previously, it is usually assumed that e_i and b_i are **independent**. This says that the magnitude of variation **within** a unit does not depend on the magnitude of β_i for that unit.

As we have also discussed, if the device used to measure individual responses causes errors of similar magnitude all the time, and fluctuations are of similar magnitude regardless of the characteristics of the units, then this seems reasonable.

However, if measurement errors tend to get larger as the response being measured gets larger, which is a characteristic of some measuring systems, then this may not be reasonable. In this case, we would expect the deviations in e_{2i} to be **related** to $Z_i\beta_i$ which dictates how large the responses on a particular unit are; we would also expect them to be related to the deviations in e_{1i} .

Similarly, if the magnitude of fluctuations is related to inherent unit characteristics (e.g., “high” units tend to have larger fluctuations), the assumption would also be violated.

- We will assume for now that this assumption is reasonable, and take b_i and e_i to be **independent**, as is customary. Later, we will discuss situations where this is definitely unreasonable in more detail.
- We have also noted that specification of the within-units covariance matrix R_i to reflect reality is desirable. However, computational issues and a tendency to not consider the issue carefully can lead to choice of an unrealistic model.
- As we will see in a moment, the specifications on $\text{var}(b_i)$ and $\text{var}(e_i)$ **combine** to produce an **overall model** for $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$ that describes the aggregate effects of both sources of variation. The hope is that this model is **rich** and **flexible** enough that it can still represent the true pattern of overall variation even if one or both components are **incorrectly** modeled.

If interest focuses only on β , this may be adequate. However, if there is interest in how units **vary in the population**, represented by $\text{var}(b_i)$, it seems clear that getting this model correct is **essential**. We will say more later.

SUMMARY: We now summarize the model suggested by these considerations. The model may be thought of as a **two-stage hierarchy**: For $i = 1, \dots, m$,

Stage 1 – individual

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}_i + \mathbf{e}_i \quad (n_i \times 1), \quad \mathbf{e}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_{n_i}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_i) \quad (9.7)$$

This is like a “regression model” for the i th unit, with “design matrix” \mathbf{Z}_i and $(k \times 1)$ “regression parameter” $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$.

Stage 2 – population

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_i = \mathbf{A}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}_i \quad (k \times 1), \quad \mathbf{b}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_k(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}). \quad (9.8)$$

Here, we have taken $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}$ to be the **same** for all i , and we will continue to do so for definiteness in our subsequent development. However, this could be relaxed as described above, and the features of the model we point out shortly would still be valid. The matrix \mathbf{A}_i summarizes information like group membership, allowing the **mean** of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$ to be different for different groups.

Variation in the model is explicitly acknowledged to come from **two** sources:

- Due to features **within** units, represented through the covariance matrix \mathbf{R}_i .
- Due to biological variation **among** units, represented to the covariance matrix \mathbf{D} .
- This is in marked contrast to the models of the previous chapter. These models required the analyst to think of a **single** covariance matrix for a data vector, representing the aggregate effect of **both sources**. The models that are typically used tend to focus on the time-ordered aspect.

IMPLICATION: We now see the contrast with the models of the last chapter more directly. Suppose that we **combine** two parts of the model into a single representation by substituting the expression for $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$ in (9.8) into (9.7); i.e.

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i(\mathbf{A}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}_i) + \mathbf{e}_i = (\mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{A}_i) \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{b}_i + \mathbf{e}_i.$$

- Suppose first that there is only one group, so that $\mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{I}_k$. Then we see that the model implied is

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{b}_i + \mathbf{e}_i.$$

Note that we can write this in a more familiar form by letting $\mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{b}_i + \mathbf{e}_i$. With these identifications, we have

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

This has exactly the form of the regression models of the previous chapter!

- The difference is that, here, the way we arrived at this model requires that the error vector ϵ_i have the **particular** form above. Note that this implies that, using the independence of \mathbf{b}_i and \mathbf{e}_i (and taking $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}$ for definiteness),

$$\text{var}(\epsilon_i) = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_i' + \mathbf{R}_i = \Sigma_i. \quad (9.9)$$

Thus, the model implied by thinking in two stages implies that the covariance matrix of a data vector is the sum of **two** pieces representing the **separate** effects of among-and within-unit variation.

- If there is more than one group, the same interpretation holds. Suppose β is $(p \times 1)$; $p = 4$ in the dental example. With β_i ($k \times 1$), then \mathbf{A}_i a $(k \times p)$ matrix; $k = 2$ in the dental example. Then we see that the model implied is

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i \beta + \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{b}_i + \mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{X}_i \beta + \epsilon_i,$$

where $\mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{A}_i$. As above, $\text{var}(\epsilon_i)$ is as in (9.9). In the dental example, note that for boys

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{A}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_{i1} \\ 1 & t_{i2} \\ \vdots & \\ 1 & t_{in_i} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & t_{i1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_{in_i} \end{pmatrix}$$

and similarly for girls,

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

Compare these with (8.9); they are **the same**.

RESULT: By thinking about individual trajectories, we see that we ultimately arrive at a regression model that is of the **same form** as those in the last chapter.

- The **similarity** is that the **mean** of a data vector is of the same **linear** form; i.e.

$$E(\mathbf{Y}_i) = \mathbf{X}_i \beta,$$

where the form of the matrices \mathbf{X}_i is dictated by the thinking above ($\mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{A}_i$).

The **critical difference** is that the covariance matrix of a data vector has the very specific form (9.9) that explicitly acknowledges **both** sources of variation and allows them to be thought about **separately**. Further features of note:

- The model does **not** allow the covariance matrix of a data vector to be the **same** for all units in general. The only way that this matrix may be of the same form for all units is $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ and $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i)$ are the same for all units and the data are **balanced** (more on this shortly).
- The covariance matrix **depends** on the times of observation through the matrix \mathbf{Z}_i . Thus, if different units are seen at different times, this information is **automatically** incorporated into the model.
- Recall that we have noted that we expect observations on the same unit to be correlated **even if** the repeated observations are taken very far apart in time; this is due to the simple fact that they are from the **same unit**. Note that the implied form of the covariance matrix (9.9) accommodates this naturally. Even if $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$, say, which implies that we believe there is no correlation due to within-unit sources, the entire matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma}_i$ is still **not** diagonal. Rather, it will be nondiagonal because \mathbf{D} is not diagonal in general. Thus, the model offers a natural way to represent correlation among observations on the same unit that arises simply because they are on the same unit and thus “more alike” than those compared across units.
- In this model, $\mathbf{\Sigma}_i$ depends on a finite set of parameters. For example, if $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}$, then $\mathbf{\Sigma}_i$ depends on σ^2 and the **distinct** elements of the matrix \mathbf{D} . We say **distinct** because, as \mathbf{D} is a covariance matrix, it is **symmetric**, so contains the same off-diagonal elements more than once; e.g. if

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} D_{11} & D_{12} \\ D_{21} & D_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

then \mathbf{D} depends on the three distinct values D_{11} , D_{12} , and D_{22} , since $D_{12} = D_{21}$ by symmetry.

We may in fact say even more. If we believe that both \mathbf{b}_i and \mathbf{e}_i are both well-represented by multivariate normal distributions and are independent, then, using results in Chapter 4, we may conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Y}_i &\sim \mathcal{N}_{n_i}(\mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, m \\ \mathbf{X}_i &= \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{A}_i, \quad \mathbf{\Sigma}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_i' + \mathbf{R}_i. \end{aligned} \tag{9.10}$$

- As with the models of the previous chapter, if the units are completely unrelated, then it is reasonable to assume that the \mathbf{Y}_i are **independent** random vectors, each multivariate normal with the particular mean and covariance structure given above.

TERMINOLOGY: These models are known as **random coefficient** models because they rely on thinking of individual-specific **regression parameters**, or **coefficients** of time, as being **random**, each representing a draw from a population.

- The above reasoning is extended easily to the case where units come from more than two groups; for example, for the dialyzer data, where the relationship between transmembrane pressure (“time”) and ultrafiltration rate (response) was observed on dialyzers from 3 centers. We would thus think of each dialyzer having its own straight line relationship, with its own intercept and slope ($k = 2$). The vector β would represent the **mean** intercept and slope for each center stacked together, so would have $p = 6$ elements.
- The reasoning is extended easily to the case where the “regression model” for an individual unit is something other than a **straight line**; e.g. suppose a quadratic function is a better model (recall the hip replacement data)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}t_{ij} + \beta_{2i}t_{ij}^2 + e_{ij}.$$

In this case, β_i has $k = 3$ elements.

- All of these models are a particular case of the more general class of **linear mixed effects models** we will describe in the next chapter.

9.3 Inference on regression and covariance parameters

Because this way of thinking leads ultimately to the model given in (9.10), the methods of **maximum likelihood** and **restricted maximum likelihood** may be used to estimate the parameters that characterize “mean” and “variation,” namely β , the distinct elements of D , and the parameters that make up R_i . That is, the methods described in sections 8.5 and 8.6 may be used exactly as described. The same considerations apply:

- The **generalized least squares** estimator for β and its large sample approximate sampling distribution will have the same form, with X_i and Σ_i defined as in (9.10).
- Questions of interest may be written in the identical fashion, and estimation of approximate standard errors, Wald tests, likelihood ratio tests for nested models, and so on may be carried out in the same way. We will discuss the **formulation** and **interpretation** of questions of interest under this model momentarily.

- Information criteria may be used to compare non-nested models.

See these sections for descriptions, which go through unchanged for the model (9.10).

QUESTIONS OF INTEREST: Because of the way we motivated the random coefficient model, questions of interest may be thought of in different ways. For definiteness, again consider the situation of the dental study data. A **vague** statement of the main question of interest is: “Is the rate of change of distance as children age different for boys and girls?”

Both here and in the previous chapter, we end up with a model that says that the **mean** of all possible Y_{ij} values we might see at a particular age t_{ij} for girls is

$$E(Y_{ij}) = \beta_{0,G} + \beta_{1,G}t_{ij},$$

and similarly for boys. How we arrive at the model involved different thinking, however.

- In the previous chapters, we always thought in terms of how the **means** at each time were related, averaged across all units at each time point. In this way of thinking, we write down the model above immediately, and $\beta_{1,G}$ and $\beta_{1,B}$ have the interpretation as the parameters that describe the relationship of the **mean responses** over time; that is, the slope of the (assumed straight line) relationship among means at different times t_{ij} .
- From the motivation for the random coefficient model, we think in terms of individual trajectories and their “typical” features. In this way of thinking, $\beta_{1,G}$ and $\beta_{1,B}$ have the interpretation as the **means** of the populations of child-specific slopes for all possible girls and boys, respectively.

Since the model we end up with is the **same**, **either** interpretation is valid. The result is that we may think of the vague question of interest more formally in two ways, and both are correct. If we consider testing

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

we may interpret this as saying either of the following:

1. Does the rate of change in mean response over time differ between girls and boys?
2. Is the “typical” value of the slope of the individual straight lines for girls different from the “typical” value of the slope of the individual straight lines for boys?

THE “TYPICAL” PROFILE VS THE “TYPICAL” RATE OF CHANGE: This fuss over how to state the vague question of interest and interpret this statement may seem to be overblown. However, it has some important practical consequences.

- Depending on the subject matter, one interpretation may make more sense than another. The **process** occurring over time may be something that is naturally thought of as happening **within** a unit, such as **growth**. Under these circumstances, an investigator may find it easier to think in terms of the random coefficient model, which says that each child has his/her own individual trajectory with his/her own rate of change (slope). Then the question is naturally one about the comparison of “typical” (mean) slopes.
- In other contexts, investigators may find it easier to think in terms of the “typical” response **profile**; i.e. how the means across all units over time change. This might be true if the ultimate goal is to make public policy recommendations. If the response is score on an achievement test administered to each of m children each year for 5 years in two different curricula, the investigator is interested in how the means over children in each group change over time; he would like to claim that the average score for one curriculum got better faster than the other. His thinking will tend to focus on how change happens over time to children as a group (means) rather than on “typical” change over time for children.

The distinction in interpretation is quite a subtle one, and most people find it difficult to grasp at first. As we have seen, **either** interpretation makes sense for our model.

- As we will see later, this is because the model both for mean response as a function of time and the individual trajectories is **linear** in the parameters β and β_i .
- When this model is **not** linear, we will see that the interpretation gets more difficult.

ALTERNATIVE FITTING METHOD: A natural inclination when thinking about random coefficient models is to exploit the fact that the model says that each unit has its own trajectory and hence own “regression model” with unit-specific “regression parameter” β_i , where the β_i come from a population with mean (“typical value”) β . (We discuss one population here, but the following reasoning applies to more than one.) This suggests that if we want to learn about β , a one way to do it would be to **estimate** each β_i from each unit **separately**, and then **combine** the results to estimate β ; e.g. estimate β as the **sample mean** of the individual unit estimates of β_i .

- Such an approach represents an alternative to fitting the full model by ML or REML as discussed above, and is often called a **two-stage** estimation method. This is because fitting happens in two stages.
- (1) Estimate each β_i separately from the data on unit i only; e.g. if we believe $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}$ for each i , then we might estimate β_i by usual least squares applied to the data from unit i . Call these estimates $\hat{\beta}_i$.
- (2) This distills the data \mathbf{Y}_i on each individual down to new “data” $\hat{\beta}_i$. This suggests using the new “data” as the basis for inference. For example, a natural approach would be to average the $\hat{\beta}_i$ across all i to estimate β ; e.g. if there is only one group, estimate β as

$$m^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{\beta}_i.$$

If there are several groups, do this on a group by group basis, e.g. average the estimates from boys and girls separately.

- To compare groups, compare these sample averages of estimates across groups by using standard statistical methods, e.g. apply an analysis of variance to the slope estimates to compare the mean slope.

This sounds appealing, but it isn’t quite right.

- The new “data,” the individual estimates $\hat{\beta}_i$, are not exactly the “data” we’d like. The ideal for learning about β would be to average the **true** β_i across units. Of course, we don’t know these and the best we can do is estimate them by $\hat{\beta}_i$. But this introduces additional **uncertainty** that the above procedure does not take into account.
- For example, if the n_i are very different across units, with some units having lots of measurements and others only a few, then for some i , $\hat{\beta}_i$ will be a better estimate of the true β_i than for others. Treating them all on equal footing as “data” is thus obviously not appropriate.
- Thus, simply averaging the $\hat{\beta}_i$ as if they were the true β_i can be misleading.

It turns out that if one wants to use individual estimates as “data,” one must instead take a **weighted** average of the $\hat{\beta}_i$ in an appropriate way to take these issues into account. This kind of approach is discussed in Davidian and Giltinan (1995).

Historically, the use of two-stage methods was suggested quite a long time ago, in part because it made intuitive sense. A fundamental paper advocating two-stage methods is Rowell and Walters (1976). Other references to two-stage methods include Gumpertz and Pantula (1989) and Davidian and Giltinan (1995). Because the methods of ML and REML are straightforward to implement with available software, we do not consider two-stage methods further here.

SPECIAL CASE – BALANCED DATA: Recall in the last chapter we noted an interesting curiosity for the dental data, which are **balanced**. When we assumed that the covariance matrix of a data vector, Σ_i (which is actually the same for all i with balanced data) had the **compound symmetry** structure, we saw that the generalized least squares estimator for β reduced to the ordinary least squares estimator $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ treating all data as if they were independent. That is, the GLS estimator

$$\hat{\beta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{X}_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}'_i \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_i \quad (9.11)$$

with Σ having the **compound symmetry** structure had the same value as the OLS estimator

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

It turns out that this is a special instance of a more general result. The general result says:

- For the **random coefficient model**, if (i) the data are **balanced**, with all units seen at the **same** n times, so that the design matrix \mathbf{Z}_i of time points is the **same** for all units i , **and** (ii) $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n$, then then the generalized least squares estimator is numerically equivalent to the OLS estimator!
- To show this is a **nasty** but not impossible exercise in matrix algebra. Under conditions (i) and (ii), Σ_i reduces to the **same** matrix for each i :

$$\Sigma_i = \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}' + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n.$$

Substitute this expression for $\hat{\Sigma}$ in (9.11) for each i (even if \mathbf{D} and σ^2 are replaced by estimates, the form is the same). Fancy footwork with matrix inversion formulæ like those in Chapter 2 may then be used to show the equivalence. Those with strong stomachs might want to try it!

The **compound symmetry** assumption for Σ **directly** in these circumstances is just a special case of the particular covariance structure $\Sigma_i = \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Z}' + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n$ for balanced data. To see this, consider a simple model with one group, so that

$$Y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + b_{0i}) + (\beta_1 + b_{1i})t_j + e_{ij},$$

$$\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} D_{11} & D_{12} \\ D_{12} & D_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n.$$

- It is straightforward to verify that (try it!)

$$\text{var}(Y_{ij}) = D_{11} + D_{22}t_j^2 + 2D_{12}t_j + \sigma^2, \quad \text{cov}(Y_{ij}, Y_{ik}) = D_{11} + D_{22}t_jt_k + D_{12}(t_j + t_k).$$

- Note that if $D_{22} = 0$ and $D_{12} = 0$, then these reduce to

$$\text{var}(Y_{ij}) = D_{11} + \sigma^2, \quad \text{cov}(Y_{ij}, Y_{ik}) = D_{11},$$

which is the compound symmetry model!

NEED FOR COVARIANCE STRUCTURE: As we have stressed before, just because the GLS estimator is numerically identical to the OLS estimator under these circumstances is no reason to disregard the need to characterize the covariance structure of a data vector correctly!

- The approximate covariance matrix of the GLS estimator, $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_\beta$, **depends** on the form of Σ_i , even if the estimator $\widehat{\beta}$ doesn't!

9.4 Inference on individuals

The random coefficient model is intuitively appealing – it comes from thinking first about individuals and their own unique trajectories, and then about the population of individuals (in terms of the parameters that characterize these trajectories). Thinking this way leads to a model for the mean and covariance of a data vector that has a specific form; in particular, the covariance matrix of data vector is represented explicitly as the sum of 2 terms, incorporating separately the impact of 2 sources of variation, within- and among-units. This makes it easier for the data analyst:

- The sources of variation may be thought of separately. Thus, for example, a model \mathbf{R}_i that best captures the variation due to the nature of data collection on an individual unit may be entertained separately from having to think about biological variation (\mathbf{D}). In the modeling approach of the last chapter, this had to be done all at once.

The model has still another advantage. It is sometimes the case that investigators may wish not only to learn about the **population(s)** of units through things such as the “typical” (mean) slope values and how they compare across populations. Particularly in medical and educational studies, the investigators may wish to understand the change in the response over time for **specific subjects**.

- In a study of AIDS patients, with response “viral load,” measuring “amount” of virus in the system, investigators may wish to characterize the trajectory of viral load for particular patients in order to aid in decisions about their future care.
- In educational studies, where response is some measure of “achievement,” investigators may wish to characterize the progress of individual children in order to place them in the most suitable learning environment.

If we think in terms of the random coefficient model, then, interest focuses on the **subject-specific** parameters β_i describing the trajectories of individual subjects. In particular, for individual subjects, the investigators are interested in “estimating” β_i for specific subjects based on the data.

- One way to do this would be just to use estimates based on treating each subject as a separate regression problem – one could get $\hat{\beta}_i$ from each subject’s data separately.
- However, if the numbers of observations on each i is not too large, these estimates will probably not be very good.
- Moreover, this does not take into account (nor does it take advantage of) the fact that we have data from an entire sample of **similar** subjects from the same population(s). Intuition suggests that we could stand to gain something from acknowledging that we believe this!

We will take up this issue in the next chapter, when we discuss the general **linear mixed effects model**, of which the random coefficient model is a special case.

- Note immediately, however, that the models we have talked about in this course up to now (Chapters 4–7) do not even explicitly acknowledge individual trajectories!

9.5 Discussion

“POPULATION-AVERAGED” VS. “SUBJECT-SPECIFIC”: We have seen that the random coefficient model arises from thinking about the longitudinal data situation in an alternative way. Rather than thinking in terms of the **mean responses** at each time point and how they are related, we think of **individual trajectories** and then the **means** of individual-specific parameters that characterize these trajectories (e.g. mean of the slopes in the population of subjects).

- The first approach, which was used in Chapter 7, is often called a **population-averaged** approach for this reason – the focus of modeling is on the **averages (means)** across the **population** of units at each time point, and how these averages are related over time.
- The current approach is often called a **subject-specific** approach – the focus of modeling is on individual units.
- In the case where the models considered are **linear**, the two perspectives ultimately lead to the **same** type of model for the mean, so that either interpretation is valid.
- The subject-specific, random coefficient approach has the additional feature that it “automatically” leads to a particular assumption about the structure of the covariance matrix of a data vector, which naturally acknowledges within- and among-unit variation separately. In contrast, the population-averaged approach forces the data analyst to model this covariance, thinking about the two sources of variation **together**. As a result, the subject-specific approach of the random coefficient model, and, more generally, the **linear mixed effects models** we will consider in the next chapter, has become incredibly popular.

ALTERNATIVE TERMINOLOGY: The random coefficient model, allowing for the possibility of different **groups**, is sometimes referred to as a **growth curve** model in the statistical and subject-matter literature.

CHOICE OF COVARIANCE STRUCTURE: We have noted that the possibilities are quite broad for modeling covariance structure within the random coefficient model framework.

- One may in principle take the covariance matrix \mathbf{R}_i , corresponding to **within-unit** variation, to be one of a variety of structures according to knowledge of the data collection process.
- If the main source of within-unit variation is measurement error, or if it is instead fluctuation but observations are far apart in time taking \mathbf{R}_i diagonal may be reasonable.

- One may in principle take the covariance matrix $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$, characterizing variation **among units** (through how the parameters in the individual trajectories vary) to be the same for all groups or different, depending on the belief about the pattern of variation for each group.
- The most commonly-used form of the random coefficient model is that where

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}, \quad \text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D} = \text{same for all groups.}$$

Often this structure is suitable; e.g. units tend to vary similarly for each group, although the means may be different (same \mathbf{D} is reasonable). This same kind of assumption (means differ, variance the same) is standard in usual analysis of variance models and methods. This model is considered extensively and almost exclusively in much of the literature. It is certainly possible to relax these assumptions; for example, we discussed the possibility of taking \mathbf{D} to be different for each gender group in the dental data example.

- One pitfall of trying to get too fancy with modeling of \mathbf{R}_i and $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ is that it is quite likely that one will end up with a model that is **too complicated** to be sorted out given the data at hand. This problem of **identifiability** is mentioned in the next section.
- Thus, many people are willing to risk the possibility that they may incorrectly specify \mathbf{R}_i and/or \mathbf{D} by, for example, assuming that $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}$ is common to all groups when it may not be. The form of the model

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i \mathbf{D} \mathbf{Z}_i' + \mathbf{R}_i$$

is sufficiently general that, even if the two components \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{R}_i are not **exactly** correctly chosen, the resulting $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$ matrix will differ very little from that one would obtain if they were. Thus, if one's main interest is in estimating $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and tests about it, this may be okay.

- However, if interest is focused on $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ and \mathbf{R}_i themselves, then obviously one would want to investigate all possibilities. Thus, in the first example of section 9.7, we illustrate how both the commonly-used specification and fancier ones may be implemented in SAS. However, be aware that fitting very fancy models may lead to difficulties and “over-fitting.” To read more about the possibilities, see *SAS System for Mixed Models* (1996, chapter 8) and Vonesh and Chinchilli (1997, section 6.3).

9.6 Basic PROC MIXED syntax

We are now in a position to explain fully exactly how PROC MIXED is set up. In the most general case of a random coefficient model, we may write the model as

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_i\mathbf{b}_i + \mathbf{e}_i.$$

In fact, just as we did in the previous chapter, we may present this model in a streamlined form by “stacking” the contributions from each unit. In particular, Define

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_1 \\ \mathbf{Y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{Y}_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 \\ \mathbf{e}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_1 \\ \mathbf{X}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}_1 & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{R}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{R}_m \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{b}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Z}_1 & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{Z}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{Z}_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad \widetilde{\mathbf{D}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} & \cdots & \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \cdots & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\widetilde{\mathbf{D}}$ here has been displayed in the case where $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}$ for all units but could be modified if, say, girls and boys had different matrices \mathbf{D}_G and \mathbf{D}_B . We may then write the model concisely as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{e}, \quad \text{var}(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{Z}\widetilde{\mathbf{D}}\mathbf{Z}' + \mathbf{R} \quad (9.12)$$

(verify). This type of concise expression is used in the documentation, except that SAS refers to $\widetilde{\mathbf{D}}$ as \mathbf{G} .

We have already seen that the `model` statement is the mechanism by which the analyst may specify the form the **mean vector**, denoted $\mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta}$ for unit i or $\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ for all units, stacked. We have used the `repeated` statement to specify the overall covariance matrix.

- In the context of a model of the above form, however, the `repeated` statement is used to specify the **within-unit** covariance model \mathbf{R}_i or, equivalently, \mathbf{R} above.
- An additional statement, the `random` statement, is used to specify the assumption on $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ ($\widetilde{\mathbf{D}}$).

We will see specific examples in the next section.

For now, we offer a summary of the basic syntax for quick reference.

```
proc mixed data=dataset method= (ML,REML);
class classification variables;
model response = columns of X / solution;
random columns of Z / type= subject= group= ;
repeated / type= subject= group= ;
run;
```

proc mixed statement

- `method=REML` is the default; no `method=` required in this case

model statement

- **columns of X** are variables (`class` or continuous) corresponding to variables associated with fixed effects β
- Intercept is assumed unless `noint` option after slash
- `solution` is an option

random statement

- Describes the matrix $\widetilde{D} = \text{var}(\mathbf{b})$ (i.e. the matrices $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ making up the blocks of \widetilde{D})
- **columns of Z** are variables (`class` or continuous), i.e. variables associated with random effects \mathbf{b}
- `subject=` tells `mixed` what `class` variable denotes the grouping determining the **units**
- `type=` allows choice of matrix (e.g. `un`, unstructured)
- `group=` allows D to be different according to this `class` variable (e.g. dental study, boys, girls)

repeated statement

- Describes the matrix $\mathbf{R} = \text{var}(\mathbf{e})$ (i.e. the matrices $\mathbf{R}_i = \text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i)$)
- If $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}$ same for all i **repeated** statement is *NOT* needed
- **subject=** tells **mixed** what **class** variable denotes the grouping determining the units
- **type=** allows choice other than diagonal (e.g. **ar(1)**, **cs**, **etc.**)
- **group=** allows \mathbf{R}_i to be different depending on group membership (e.g. dental study, $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \sigma_G^2$ girls, $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \sigma_B^2$ boys)

We may now observe that, in the previous chapter, to implement a general linear regression model using `proc mixed` with the **repeated** statement, we simply made a correspondence between the model of form (9.12) with **no** random effects \mathbf{b} , which looks like

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

and the model in that chapter of the form

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

From purely **operational** point of view (but **not** an **interpretation** point of view), the models have the same structure – a mean plus a deviation with components of length n_i , each of which has a covariance matrix. Thus, purely to specify these covariance matrices for the second model, the **repeated** statement can be used.

See the SAS documentation for `PROC MIXED` for much more detail on the use of these statements and available options.

9.7 Implementation with SAS

We illustrate how to carry out analyses based on random coefficient models for two examples we have already considered:

1. The dental study data
2. The ultrafiltration data

For each data set, we consider different random coefficient models and address questions of interest such as whether the mean slope differs across groups (gender or center). As discussed in the last section, we use SAS PROC MIXED with the `random` statement to impose the random coefficient model structure – this statement allows the user to specify $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$. If there is no `repeated` statement, it is assumed that $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i}$ (see the last section). Otherwise, if a `random` and `repeated` statement appear simultaneously, the `repeated` statement sets up some other model for $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i) = \mathbf{R}_i$.

WARNING – LACK OF IDENTIFIABILITY: It is important to use PROC MIXED with version 6.12 or higher of SAS; here, we use version 8.2. Even with this improved version, as well as with programs in other software packages that are designed to fit these models, things may not always go as planned. It is important to keep in mind that the models are being fit via numerical algorithms that are used to maximize the likelihood or restricted likelihood. It is possible to specify a model with $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$ and $\text{var}(\mathbf{e}_i)$ sufficiently complex that it is **too complicated** to be fitted given the information available in the data. That is, one may choose these models in such a way that there are too many parameters, more than are required to give an adequate characterization of the true covariance structure. Such a model is said to be **over-identified** or **unidentifiable**. The result of specifying such models is that the numerical algorithms will either fail to find a solution (converge) or will lead to a solution that is **nonsensical**. Thus, one **pitfall** to be aware of when fitting these models and more generally those of the next chapter is the possibility of getting “carried away” in choosing the structure for \mathbf{R}_i , making it too complicated and leading to an **unidentifiable** model. If PROC MIXED fails to converge for a particular model choice, then the analyst may have to consider whether the implied model for Σ_i is “too rich” for the problem and adopt simpler choices (at the risk of being “wrong”).

EXAMPLE 1 – DENTAL STUDY DATA:

- For illustration purposes only, we fit the random coefficient model assuming that the mean intercept and slope differ for the two genders. Note that when fitting a random coefficient model, it is natural to think in terms of the parameterization of the model that contains intercept and slope explicitly rather than their difference:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}t_{ij} + e_{ij},$$

$$\beta_i = \beta + \mathbf{b}_i, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,G} \\ \beta_{1,G} \end{pmatrix} \text{ girls, } \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,B} \\ \beta_{1,B} \end{pmatrix} \text{ boys.}$$

We consider this parameterization in our fitting.

- For fitting this model, we illustrate how to instruct PROC MIXED to fit models for a number of different assumptions on the matrices \mathbf{R}_i and $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i)$. These are:
 - (i) $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}$, \mathbf{D} same for both genders. This is the most common specification. Recall this implies a belief that within-child sources of correlation are negligible (\mathbf{R}_i **diagonal**) and among-child variation is similar in each group. The parameter σ^2 may be interpreted as the aggregate variance due to within-child “fluctuations” in distance and measurement error.
 - (ii) $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_G^2\mathbf{I}$ if i is a girl and $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_B^2\mathbf{I}$ if i is a boy, \mathbf{D} same for both genders. This allows for the possibility that within-child variation might be different for the different genders (due to measurement error and fluctuation).
 - (iii) \mathbf{R}_i is the AR(1) covariance matrix, same for both genders, and \mathbf{D} is the same for both genders. This choice of \mathbf{R}_i allows for the possibility of nonnegligible within-child correlation.
 - (iv) $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_G^2\mathbf{I}$ if i is a girl and $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_B^2\mathbf{I}$ if i is a boy, and $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}_G$ if i is a girl and $= \mathbf{D}_B$ if a boy. This allows for the possibility that within-child variation might be different for the different genders **and** the possibility that variability in intercepts and slopes is different. This essentially amounts to fitting two separate models, one for each gender!
 - (v) \mathbf{R}_i is the sum of two components: an AR(1) covariance matrix (corresponding to the fluctuations, allowing within-child correlation) and $\sigma_2^2\mathbf{I}$, which now corresponds to the measurement error component (assumed common). \mathbf{D} is the same for both genders. Specifically, we have

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma_1^2\mathbf{\Gamma} + \sigma_2^2\mathbf{I},$$

where $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ is the (4×4) AR(1) correlation matrix. To fit this model, we use of the `local` option of the `repeated` statement, which adds the matrix $\sigma_2^2\mathbf{I}$ to the requested AR(1) matrix.

PROGRAM:

```

/*****
CHAPTER 9, EXAMPLE 1

Analysis of the dental study data by fitting a random coefficient
model in time using PROC MIXED.

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

The model for each child is assumed to be a straight line.
The intercepts and slopes may have different means depending on
gender, with the same covariance matrix D for each gender.

We use the RANDOM and REPEATED statements to fit models that
make several different assumptions about the forms of the matrices
Ri and D.

*****/
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;
run;
/*****
Use PROC MIXED to fit the random coefficient model via the
RANDOM statement. For all of the fits, we use usual normal
ML rather than REML (the default).

In all cases, we use the usual parameterization for the mean
model.

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

The G and GCORR options in the RANDOM statement asks that the
D matrix and the corresponding correlation matrix it implies
be printed. The V and VCORR options ask that the overall
Sigma matrix be printed (for the first subject or particular
subjects).

To fit a random coefficient model, we must specify that both
intercept and slope are random in the RANDOM statement.

If no REPEATED statement appears, then PROC MIXED assumes that
 $R_i = \sigma^2 I$ . Otherwise, we use a REPEATED statement to set
a structure for  $R_i$  with the TYPE = option.

*****/
* MODEL (i);
* Ri = diagonal with constant variance  $\sigma^2$  same in both genders;
* No REPEATED statement necessary to fit this Ri (default);
* D = (2x2) unstructured matrix same for both genders;
* Specified in the RANDOM statement;

title 'RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD';
title2 'COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER';
title3 'SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS';
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
class gender child;
model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution;
random intercept age / type=un subject=child g gcorr v vcorr;
estimate 'diff in mean slope' gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1;
contrast 'overall gender diff' gender 1 -1, gender*age 1 -1 /chisq;
run;

* MODEL (ii);
* Fit the same model but with a separate diagonal Ri matrix for;
* each gender. Thus, there are 2 separate variances  $\sigma^2_{(G \text{ and } B)}$ ;
* D still = (2x2) unstructured matrix same for both genders;
* Specified in the RANDOM statement;

title 'RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD';
title2 'COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER';

```

```

title3 'SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS';
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class child gender;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution;
  repeated / group=gender subject=child;
  random intercept age / type=un subject=child g gcorr v vcorr;
  estimate 'diff in mean slope' gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1;
  contrast 'overall gender diff' gender 1 -1, gender*age 1 -1 /chisq;
run;

* MODEL (iii);
* Ri is AR(1) with the same variance and rho value for each gender;
* Specified in the REPEATED statement;
* D still = (2x2) unstructured matrix same for both genders;
* Specified in the RANDOM statement;

title 'RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) WITHIN-CHILD';
title2 'CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER';
title3 'SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS';
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child ;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution ;
  random intercept age / type=un subject=child g gcorr v vcorr;
  repeated / type=ar(1) subject=child rcorr;
  estimate 'diff in mean slope' gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1;
  contrast 'overall gender diff' gender 1 -1, gender*age 1 -1 /chisq;
run;

* MODEL (iv);
* Fit the same model but with a separate diagonal Ri matrix for;
* each gender. Thus, there are 2 separate variances sigma^2_(G and B);
* D still = (2x2) unstructured matrix differs across genders;
* Specified in the RANDOM statement by the GROUP=GENDER option;

title 'RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD';
title2 'COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER';
title3 'DIFFERENT D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS';
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class child gender;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution;
  repeated / group=gender subject=child;
  random intercept age / type=un group=gender subject=child g gcorr v vcorr;
  estimate 'diff in mean slope' gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1;
  contrast 'overall gender diff' gender 1 -1, gender*age 1 -1 /chisq;
run;

* MODEL (v)
* Ri is the sum of two components, an AR(1) component for fluctuations;
* and a diagonal component with variance sigma^2 common to both genders;
* The LOCAL option adds the diagonal component to the AR(1) structure;
* specified in the REPEATED statement;
* D still = (2x2) unstructured matrix same for both genders;
* Specified in the RANDOM statement;

title 'RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) + COMMON MEAS ERROR WITHIN-CHILD';
title2 'CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER';
title3 'SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS';
proc mixed method=ml data=dent1;
  class gender child ;
  model distance = gender gender*age / noint solution ;
  random intercept age / type=un subject=child g gcorr v vcorr;
  repeated / type=ar(1) local subject=child rcorr;
  estimate 'diff in mean slope' gender 0 0 gender*age 1 -1;
  contrast 'overall gender diff' gender 1 -1, gender*age 1 -1 /chisq;
run;

```

OUTPUT: Following the output, we comment on a few aspects of the output.

```

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD          1
COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

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

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 Per Subject   2
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             427.80595080    0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD          2
COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated G Matrix
Row    Effect    child    Col1    Col2
1      Intercept  1        4.5569  -0.1983
2      age        1        -0.1983  0.02376

Estimated G Correlation Matrix
Row    Effect    child    Col1    Col2
1      Intercept  1        1.0000  -0.6025
2      age        1        -0.6025  1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for child 1
Row    Col1    Col2    Col3    Col4
1      4.6216  2.8891  2.8727  2.8563
2      2.8891  4.6839  3.0464  3.1251
3      2.8727  3.0464  4.9363  3.3938
4      2.8563  3.1251  3.3938  5.3788

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for child 1
Row    Col1    Col2    Col3    Col4
1      1.0000  0.6209  0.6014  0.5729
2      0.6209  1.0000  0.6335  0.6226
3      0.6014  0.6335  1.0000  0.6586
4      0.5729  0.6226  0.6586  1.0000

```


Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child	4.5569
UN(2,1)	child	-0.1983
UN(2,2)	child	0.02376
Residual		1.7162

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	427.8
AIC (smaller is better)	443.8
AICC (smaller is better)	445.3
BIC (smaller is better)	454.2

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD
 COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 3

The Mixed Procedure

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	50.44	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.3727	1.1820	54	14.70	<.0001
gender	1	16.3406	0.9801	54	16.67	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4795	0.09980	54	4.80	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7844	0.08275	54	9.48	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	54	247.00	<.0001
age*gender	2	54	56.46	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
diff in mean slope	-0.3048	0.1296	54	-2.35	0.0224

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
overall gender diff	2	54	14.19	7.10	0.0008	0.0018

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD
 COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 4

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.DENT1
 Dependent Variable distance
 Covariance Structures Unstructured, Variance Components
 Subject Effects child, child
 Group Effect gender
 Estimation Method ML
 Residual Variance Method None
 Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Containment

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
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
gender	2	0 1

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	5
Columns in X	4
Columns in Z Per Subject	2
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	418.92503842	1.16632499
2	1	416.18869903	1.23326209
3	1	407.89638533	0.01954268
4	2	406.88264563	0.00645800
5	1	406.10632159	0.00056866
6	1	406.04318997	0.00000764
7	1	406.04238894	0.00000000

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD
COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

5

The Mixed Procedure

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	child	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	3.1978	-0.1103
2	age	1	-0.1103	0.01976

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	child	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	1.0000	-0.4388
2	age	1	-0.4388	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	3.1426	2.7933	2.8889	2.9845
2	2.7933	3.4128	3.1426	3.3172
3	2.8889	3.1426	3.8411	3.6499
4	2.9845	3.3172	3.6499	4.4275

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8529	0.8315	0.8001
2	0.8529	1.0000	0.8680	0.8534
3	0.8315	0.8680	1.0000	0.8851
4	0.8001	0.8534	0.8851	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child		3.1978
UN(2,1)	child		-0.1103
UN(2,2)	child		0.01976
Residual	child	gender 0	0.4449
Residual	child	gender 1	2.6294

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD
COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

6

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	406.0
AIC (smaller is better)	424.0
AICC (smaller is better)	425.9
BIC (smaller is better)	435.7

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF Chi-Square Pr > ChiSq
 4 72.20 <.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.3727	0.7386	54	23.52	<.0001
gender	1	16.3406	1.1114	54	14.70	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4795	0.06180	54	7.76	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7844	0.09722	54	8.07	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	54	384.72	<.0001
age*gender	2	54	62.66	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
diff in mean slope	-0.3048	0.1152	54	-2.65	0.0106

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
overall gender diff	2	54	14.32	7.16	0.0008	0.0017

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) WITHIN-CHILD
 CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 7

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.DENT1
 Dependent Variable distance
 Covariance Structures Unstructured,
 Autoregressive
 Subject Effects child, child
 Estimation Method ML
 Residual Variance Method Profile
 Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Containment

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 5
 Columns in X 4
 Columns in Z Per Subject 2
 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	424.08934703	0.00028001
2	1	424.05684775	0.00000096
3	1	424.05673965	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) WITHIN-CHILD 8

CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	-0.4680	0.2190	-0.1025
2	-0.4680	1.0000	-0.4680	0.2190
3	0.2190	-0.4680	1.0000	-0.4680
4	-0.1025	0.2190	-0.4680	1.0000

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	child	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	10.1459	-0.7198
2	age	1	-0.7198	0.07508

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	child	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	1.0000	-0.8248
2	age	1	-0.8248	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.6275	2.6363	3.2182	2.5959
2	2.6363	4.4510	2.7601	3.6423
3	3.2182	2.7601	4.8751	3.4846
4	2.5959	3.6423	3.4846	5.8999

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5809	0.6776	0.4968
2	0.5809	1.0000	0.5925	0.7108
3	0.6776	0.5925	1.0000	0.6497
4	0.4968	0.7108	0.6497	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child	10.1459
UN(2,1)	child	-0.7198
UN(2,2)	child	0.07508

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) WITHIN-CHILD
CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

9

The Mixed Procedure

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
AR(1)	child	-0.4680
Residual		1.1940

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	424.1
AIC (smaller is better)	442.1
AICC (smaller is better)	443.9
BIC (smaller is better)	453.7

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
4	54.19	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.4166	1.1586	54	15.03	<.0001
gender	1	16.1544	0.9607	54	16.82	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4757	0.1010	54	4.71	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7978	0.08374	54	9.53	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	54	254.37	<.0001
age*gender	2	54	56.48	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
diff in mean slope	-0.3220	0.1312	54	-2.45	0.0174

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) WITHIN-CHILD
CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 10

The Mixed Procedure

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
overall gender diff	2	54	13.46	6.73	0.0012	0.0025

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD
COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER
DIFFERENT D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 11

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.DENT1
Dependent Variable distance
Covariance Structures Unstructured, Variance Components
Subject Effects child, child
Group Effects gender, gender
Estimation Method ML
Residual Variance Method None
Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method Containment

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
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
gender	2	0 1

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters 8
Columns in X 4
Columns in Z Per Subject 4
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	405.11800674	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.
RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD
COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER
DIFFERENT D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 12

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	child	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	Intercept	1	0	2.9716	-0.07539		
2	age	1	0	-0.07539	0.02151		

3	Intercept	1	1	5.6468	-0.2827
4	age	1	1	-0.2827	0.02530

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	child	gender	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	Intercept	1	0	1.0000	-0.2982		
2	age	1	0	-0.2982	1.0000		
3	Intercept	1	1			1.0000	-0.7480
4	age	1	1			-0.7480	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	3.5889	3.3357	3.5292	3.7226
2	3.3357	4.0618	3.8947	4.1742
3	3.5292	3.8947	4.7069	4.6258
4	3.7226	4.1742	4.6258	5.5240

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.8737	0.8587	0.8361
2	0.8737	1.0000	0.8907	0.8812
3	0.8587	0.8907	1.0000	0.9072
4	0.8361	0.8812	0.9072	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Group	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child	gender 0	2.9716
UN(2,1)	child	gender 0	-0.07539
UN(2,2)	child	gender 0	0.02151
UN(1,1)	child	gender 1	5.6468
UN(2,1)	child	gender 1	-0.2827
UN(2,2)	child	gender 1	0.02530
Residual	child	gender 0	0.4466
Residual	child	gender 1	2.5891

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH DIAGONAL WITHIN-CHILD COVARIANCE MATRIX WITH SEPARATE CONSTANT VARIANCE FOR EACH GENDER DIFFERENT D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS 13

The Mixed Procedure

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	405.1
AIC (smaller is better)	429.1
AICC (smaller is better)	432.4
BIC (smaller is better)	444.7

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
7	73.12	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.3727	0.7252	25	23.96	<.0001
gender	1	16.3406	1.1715	25	13.95	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4795	0.06313	25	7.60	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7844	0.09835	25	7.98	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	25	384.22	<.0001
age*gender	2	25	60.65	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
diff in mean slope	-0.3048	0.1169	25	-2.61	0.0151

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
overall gender diff	2	25	14.12	7.06	0.0009	0.0037

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) + COMMON MEAS ERROR WITHIN-CHILD 14
 CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Data Set WORK.DENT1
 Dependent Variable distance
 Covariance Structures Unstructured,
 Autoregressive
 child, child
 Subject Effects ML
 Estimation Method ML
 Residual Variance Method Profile
 Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based
 Degrees of Freedom Method Containment

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 6
 Columns in X 4
 Columns in Z Per Subject 2
 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	428.22548286	24.55088017
2	2	427.26075815	1.09477678
3	2	426.51452533	1.16919129
4	2	425.99015592	0.08543213
5	2	424.91951841	0.01458002
6	2	424.32018203	0.00323017
7	3	424.01683319	.
8	1	423.99457950	0.00007763

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) + COMMON MEAS ERROR WITHIN-CHILD 15
 CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

Iteration History

Iteration	Evaluations	-2 Log Like	Criterion
9	1	423.99420143	0.00000054
10	2	423.99415208	0.00000007
11	2	423.99414400	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

Estimated R Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	-0.2256	0.2241	-0.2227
2	-0.2256	1.0000	-0.2256	0.2241
3	0.2241	-0.2256	1.0000	-0.2256
4	-0.2227	0.2241	-0.2256	1.0000

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	child	Col1	Col2
-----	--------	-------	------	------

1	Intercept	1	6.9045	-0.4333
2	age	1	-0.4333	0.04828

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	child	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	1.0000	-0.7505
2	age	1	-0.7505	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	4.5375	2.6344	3.2041	2.4504
2	2.6344	4.5423	2.8323	3.5951
3	3.2041	2.8323	4.9333	3.4165
4	2.4504	3.5951	3.4165	5.7106

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) + COMMON MEAS ERROR WITHIN-CHILD 16
 CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for child 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5803	0.6772	0.4814
2	0.5803	1.0000	0.5983	0.7059
3	0.6772	0.5983	1.0000	0.6437
4	0.4814	0.7059	0.6437	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	child	6.9045
UN(2,1)	child	-0.4333
UN(2,2)	child	0.04828
Variance	child	0.3351
AR(1)	child	-0.9935
Residual		1.1408

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	424.0
AIC (smaller is better)	444.0
AICC (smaller is better)	446.3
BIC (smaller is better)	457.0

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
5	54.25	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	gender	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
gender	0	17.4148	1.1651	54	14.95	<.0001
gender	1	16.1917	0.9661	54	16.76	<.0001
age*gender	0	0.4757	0.1010	54	4.71	<.0001
age*gender	1	0.7979	0.08376	54	9.53	<.0001

RANDOM COEFFICIENT MODEL WITH AR(1) + COMMON MEAS ERROR WITHIN-CHILD 17
 CORRELATION MATRIX WITH CONSTANT VARIANCE SAME FOR EACH GENDER
 SAME D MATRIX FOR BOTH GENDERS

The Mixed Procedure

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
gender	2	54	252.17	<.0001
age*gender	2	54	56.46	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
diff in mean slope	-0.3222	0.1312	54	-2.45	0.0173

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
overall gender diff	2	54	13.97	6.99	0.0009	0.0020

INTERPRETATION:

- For each assumed model, the output shows the estimates of \mathbf{D} (or different such matrices where appropriate), the estimates of parameters making up \mathbf{R}_i , and, as usual, the estimates of β . For the fit of model (i), the estimate of the assumed common \mathbf{D} is (Estimated G Matrix) and the implied correlation matrix (Estimated G Correlation Matrix) are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4.5569 & -0.1983 \\ -0.1983 & 0.02376 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1.0000 & -0.6025 \\ -0.6025 & 1.0000 \end{pmatrix},$$

respectively. The estimate of σ^2 in the assumed model $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$ is in the **Covariance Parameter Estimates** table (along with the distinct elements of \mathbf{D} repeated) and is equal to 1.716 (**Residual**). Recall that these are **balanced** data; thus, under this assumption, the matrix Σ_i is the **same** for all children. The estimate of Σ_i implied by the above estimates and the associated correlation matrix are given in the tables **Estimated V Matrix for CHILD 1** and **Estimated V Correlation Matrix for CHILD 1** (see the output, page 1 and 2).

For the other models (ii) – (v), the estimates of the components of the overall covariance structure are given in a similar fashion. For model (ii), the estimates of \mathbf{D} and its implied correlation matrix appear on page 5 of the output. Here, we assume that the within-child variance is different depending on gender; from the table **Covariance Parameter Estimates**, the estimates are given as $\hat{\sigma}_G^2 = 0.445$ and $\hat{\sigma}_B^2 = 2.629$. These estimates are quite different. The implied matrix Σ_i is now different for different i ; in particular, it will be the same for all boys and the same for all girls. The `v` and `vcorr` options cause PROC MIXED to print the estimate of Σ_i for the first child, so the estimates of **Estimated V Matrix for CHILD 1** and **Estimated V Correlation Matrix for CHILD 1** correspond to the estimate for girls.

For the fit of model (iii), where a common AR(1) structure is assumed for both boys and girls, the estimates of ρ and σ^2 may be found on page 9–10 of the output in the table **Covariance Parameter Estimates** as -0.468 and 1.194, respectively.

For model (iv), where a different \mathbf{D} matrix and \mathbf{R}_i matrix as in model (ii) are assumed for each gender, SAS prints the estimates of the two matrices \mathbf{D}_G and \mathbf{D}_B in the **Estimated G Matrix** together on page 12; that for girls is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2.9716 & -0.0754 \\ -0.0754 & 0.0215 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The corresponding correlation matrices are printed in `Estimated G Correlation Matrix`. Again, the implied Σ_i matrices will differ for boys and girls; those for the first girl are printed on page 12.

For model (v), which included two components for \mathbf{R}_i , results begin on page 14 of the output. In the `Covariance Parameter Estimates` table, `Variance` is generated by the `local` option and refers to the estimate of σ_2^2 . `Residual` refers to the common variance σ_1^2 that appears as part of the structure requested in `type=`. `AR(1)` refers to the estimate of ρ . Note that the estimated value is -0.99 , which is virtually 1! The estimate has wandered off toward the “boundary” of what its possible values are. Note that the overall covariance model is very “rich.” This is typical behavior under these conditions and probably reflects that this model is too fancy to be well-identified.

- Note in cases (i), (ii), and (iv) that the estimates of β found in the `Solution for Fixed Effects` are identical and are equal to the ordinary least squares estimator. This reflects the argument given in section 9.3. Of course, the estimated standard errors are different for the different fits, reflecting the different assumptions about Σ_i that go into forming $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}_\beta$. For (iii) and (v), where the AR(1) matrix is involved so that \mathbf{R}_i does not have a form like $\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$ for all units, this does not hold.
- For all analyses, the Wald test of different slopes carried out by the `estimate` statement gives a significant result at level $\alpha = 0.05$. Also obtained is a Wald test for the “overall difference” between genders – the \mathbf{L} matrix for this contrast is

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

thus, we are testing whether the mean intercepts and slopes are the same for each gender **simultaneously**. Regardless of the assumption on Σ_i , the evidence supporting rejection of this null hypothesis seems very strong.

- Inspection of the *AIC* and *BIC* values for these fits on pages 2, 6, 9, and 13 of the output shows that model (ii), where a different within-child variance is assumed for each gender and \mathbf{D} the same seem preferable among the four models considered. The *AIC* and *BIC* values for this model are 424.0 and 435.7, respectively. Comparing the values to those for the general regression models considered in the analysis of these data in section 8.8 reveals that these *AIC* and *BIC* values seem comparable to those for the preferred model in that section, where Σ_i was modeled as following a different compound symmetry structure for boys and girls. Thus, among all models considered for these data so far, either of these seems plausible. Model (ii) here may be more pleasing to many analysts, because it considers the two sources of variation explicitly. The key element seems to be allowing the within-child variance to be different for the two genders; allowing \mathbf{D} to differ as well in model (iv) offered no improvement in fit. Inspection of the original data plot reveals the potential source of this result. Note that 2 of the boys, and one especially, have trajectories that seem to “bounce around” much more than those of the other children. From above, the estimate of variance for boys, σ_B^2 , was much larger than that for girls, σ_G^2 . Otherwise, the trajectories seem similarly spread out across girls and boys, supporting the choice of common \mathbf{D} . Being able to model the covariance structure in terms of the two sources of variation explicitly makes this clear, allowing a pleasing interpretation of how the overall covariance structure differs. Such an interpretation is more difficult with the model of section 8.8.

EXAMPLE 2 – DIALYZER DATA: In the following program, we consider the issue of whether the mean slope of a trajectory differs across the centers.

- The “full” model is that assuming that each dialyzer has its own straight line trajectory with its own intercept and slope. Then, each center has its own mean intercept and slope. We assume a common $\text{var}(\mathbf{b}_i) = \mathbf{D}$ and a common diagonal within-unit covariance matrix $\mathbf{R}_i = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$ for all centers. Other specifications could be investigated to see if they provide a better fit.
- The model is

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0i} + \beta_{i1}t_{ij} + e_{ij},$$

$$\beta_i = \mathbf{A}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{b}_i, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{01} \\ \beta_{11} \\ \beta_{02} \\ \beta_{12} \\ \beta_{03} \\ \beta_{13} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_2(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}).$$

where $\beta_{0\ell}, \beta_{1\ell}$ are the mean intercept and slope for the ℓ th center, $\ell = 1, 2, 3$. \mathbf{A}_i is the appropriate matrix of 0’s and 1’s that “picks off” the correct elements of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ for the i dialyzer; e.g. if i is from center 1, then

$$\mathbf{A}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We fit this model by ML and REML.

- We also consider the reduced model where the slopes are the **same** for each center (with different intercepts). Thus, for this model

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{01} \\ \beta_{02} \\ \beta_{03} \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where β_1 is the common slope. Thus, \mathbf{A}_i would be the (2×4) matrix to “pick off” the right intercept and β_1 for the i th center; e.g. for i from center 1,

$$\mathbf{A}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We fit this model by ML so that we can construct the likelihood ratio test of this model against the full model.

- For the full model fits, we use the `estimate` and `contrast` statements of PROC MIXED to construct the Wald test statistics for different mean slopes, different intercepts, and pairwise comparison of mean slopes for each pair of centers.

PROGRAM:

```

/*****
CHAPTER 9, EXAMPLE 2
Analysis of the ultrafiltration data by fitting a random
coefficient 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)
The model for each dialyzer is a straight line. The intercepts
and slopes have different means for each center. The covariance
matrix D is the same for each center. The matrix Ri is taken
to be diagonal with variance sigma^2 for all units.
We use the RANDOM statement to fit the random coefficient model.
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 -- see Chapter 8;
tmp=tmp/1000;
run;
/*****
Use PROC MIXED to fit the random coefficient model via the
RANDOM statement. For all of the fits, we use REML.
The SOLUTION option in the MODEL statement requests that the
estimates of the regression parameters be printed.
In all cases, we take the (2 x 2) matrix D to be unstructured
(TYPE=UN) in the RANDOM statement.
The G and GCORR options in the RANDOM statement asks that
the D matrix and its corresponding correlation matrix
be printed. The V and VCORR options ask that the overall
Sigma matrix be printed (for the first subject or particular
subjects).
To fit a random coefficient model, we must specify that both
intercept and slope are random in the RANDOM statement.
No REPEATED statement is used because we assume Ri = sigma^2 I,
which is the default.
*****/
* "Full" model with different intercept, slope for each center;
title 'FULL MODEL, FIT BY REML';
proc mixed data=ultra;
class center subject;
model ufr = center center*tmp / noint solution ;
random intercept tmp / type=un subject=subject g gcorr v vcorr;
contrast 'diff in slope' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 -1 0,

```

```

                                center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 0 -1 / chisq;
contrast 'diff in int' center 1 -1 0 center*tmp 0 0 0 ,
                                center 1 0 -1 center*tmp 0 0 0 / chisq;
estimate 'slope 1 vs 2' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 -1 0 ;
estimate 'slope 1 vs 3' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 0 -1 ;
estimate 'slope 2 vs 3' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 0 1 -1 ;
run;

title 'FULL MODEL, FIT BY ML';
proc mixed method=ml data=ultra;
  class center subject;
  model ufr = center center*tmp / noint solution ;
  random intercept tmp / type=un subject=subject g gcorr v vcorr;
  contrast 'diff in slope' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 -1 0 ,
                                center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 0 -1 / chisq;
  contrast 'diff in int' center 1 -1 0 center*tmp 0 0 0 ,
                                center 1 0 -1 center*tmp 0 0 0 / chisq;
  estimate 'slope 1 vs 2' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 -1 0 ;
  estimate 'slope 1 vs 3' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 1 0 -1 ;
  estimate 'slope 2 vs 3' center 0 0 0 center*tmp 0 1 -1 ;
run;

* "Reduced" model with different intercepts but same slope for all;
* centers;

title 'REDUCED MODEL WITH DIFF INTERCEPTS, COMMON SLOPE, FIT BY ML';
proc mixed method=ml data=ultra;
  class center subject;
  model ufr = center tmp / noint solution ;
  random intercept tmp / type=un subject=subject g gcorr v vcorr;
run;

```

OUTPUT: Following the output, we consider the issue of common slopes in several ways.

```

                                FULL MODEL, FIT BY REML                                1
                                The Mixed Procedure
                                Model Information
Data Set                                WORK.ULTRA
Dependent Variable                      ufr
Covariance Structure                    Unstructured
Subject Effect                          subject
Estimation Method                       REML
Residual Variance Method                 Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method                  Model-Based
Degrees of Freedom Method                Containment

                                Class Level Information
Class      Levels      Values
center      3          1 2 3
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

                                Dimensions
Covariance Parameters                    4
Columns in X                              6
Columns in Z Per Subject                  2
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 Res Log Like      Criterion
0              1              1714.69627411          0.00000580
1              2              1621.10582541          0.00000000
2              1              1621.10190144          0.00000000

                                Convergence criteria met.
                                FULL MODEL, FIT BY REML                                2

```

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	subject	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	2327.18	-5715.33
2	tmp	1	-5715.33	32378

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	subject	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	1.0000	-0.6584
2	tmp	1	-0.6584	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	2010.79	1271.01	1217.53	1169.94
2	1271.01	2255.46	1858.33	2113.31
3	1217.53	1858.33	3152.24	3011.76
4	1169.94	2113.31	3011.76	4495.01

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5968	0.4836	0.3891
2	0.5968	1.0000	0.6969	0.6637
3	0.4836	0.6969	1.0000	0.8001
4	0.3891	0.6637	0.8001	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	subject	2327.18
UN(2,1)	subject	-5715.33
UN(2,2)	subject	32378
Residual		683.63

Fit Statistics

-2 Res Log Likelihood	1621.1
AIC (smaller is better)	1629.1
AICC (smaller is better)	1629.4
BIC (smaller is better)	1636.0

FULL MODEL, FIT BY REML

3

The Mixed Procedure

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	93.59	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
center	1	-174.43	14.9676	82	-11.65	<.0001
center	2	-172.20	16.9846	82	-10.14	<.0001
center	3	-151.72	19.2842	82	-7.87	<.0001
tmp*center	1	4409.53	51.9683	82	84.85	<.0001
tmp*center	2	4126.00	59.7776	82	69.02	<.0001
tmp*center	3	4067.73	66.9954	82	60.72	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
center	3	82	100.17	<.0001
tmp*center	3	82	5216.74	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
slope 1 vs 2	283.53	79.2090	82	3.58	0.0006
slope 1 vs 3	341.80	84.7885	82	4.03	0.0001
slope 2 vs 3	58.2698	89.7872	82	0.65	0.5182

Contrasts						
Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
diff in slope	2	82	20.83	10.41	<.0001	<.0001
diff in int	2	82	0.96	0.48	0.6194	0.6211

FULL MODEL, FIT BY ML 4

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

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

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
center	3	1 2 3
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

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters 4
 Columns in X 6
 Columns in Z Per Subject 2
 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	1670.84436023	0.00000724
2	1	1670.83930877	0.00000001

Convergence criteria met.

FULL MODEL, FIT BY ML 5

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	subject	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	2055.33	-5005.31
2	tmp	1	-5005.31	29044

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	subject	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	1.0000	-0.6478
2	tmp	1	-0.6478	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1880.09	1159.53	1123.70	1091.81
2	1159.53	2125.05	1711.25	1950.78
3	1123.70	1711.25	2953.75	2768.83
4	1091.81	1950.78	2768.83	4179.84

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5801	0.4768	0.3895
2	0.5801	1.0000	0.6830	0.6545

3	0.4768	0.6830	1.0000	0.7880
4	0.3895	0.6545	0.7880	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	subject	2055.33
UN(2,1)	subject	-5005.31
UN(2,2)	subject	29044
Residual		682.93

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	1670.8
AIC (smaller is better)	1690.8
AICC (smaller is better)	1692.3
BIC (smaller is better)	1708.0

FULL MODEL, FIT BY ML

6

The Mixed Procedure

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	91.91	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
center	1	-174.44	14.4204	82	-12.10	<.0001
center	2	-172.19	16.3531	82	-10.53	<.0001
center	3	-151.74	18.6268	82	-8.15	<.0001
tmp*center	1	4409.54	50.0369	82	88.13	<.0001
tmp*center	2	4125.92	57.5800	82	71.66	<.0001
tmp*center	3	4067.81	64.6780	82	62.89	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
center	3	82	107.85	<.0001
tmp*center	3	82	5618.74	<.0001

Estimates

Label	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
slope 1 vs 2	283.62	76.2833	82	3.72	0.0004
slope 1 vs 3	341.74	81.7737	82	4.18	<.0001
slope 2 vs 3	58.1182	86.5950	82	0.67	0.5040

Contrasts

Label	Num DF	Den DF	Chi-Square	F Value	Pr > ChiSq	Pr > F
diff in slope	2	82	22.43	11.21	<.0001	<.0001
diff in int	2	82	1.03	0.51	0.5986	0.6005

REDUCED MODEL WITH DIFF INTERCEPTS, COMMON SLOPE, FIT BY ML

7

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

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

Class Level Information

Class	Levels	Values
center	3	1 2 3
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

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters	4
Columns in X	4
Columns in Z Per Subject	2
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	1780.28736784	
1	3	1689.51609987	0.00086966
2	1	1688.81130525	0.00008904
3	1	1688.74503369	0.00000128
4	1	1688.74413473	0.00000000

Convergence criteria met.

REDUCED MODEL WITH DIFF INTERCEPTS, COMMON SLOPE, FIT BY ML

8

The Mixed Procedure

Estimated G Matrix

Row	Effect	subject	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	3102.51	-9985.70
2	tmp	1	-9985.70	52598

Estimated G Correlation Matrix

Row	Effect	subject	Col1	Col2
1	Intercept	1	1.0000	-0.7817
2	tmp	1	-0.7817	1.0000

Estimated V Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1938.92	1088.75	931.75	792.02
2	1088.75	2189.12	1899.08	2250.88
3	931.75	1899.08	3505.66	3640.26
4	792.02	2250.88	3640.26	5562.15

Estimated V Correlation Matrix for subject 1

Row	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
1	1.0000	0.5285	0.3574	0.2412
2	0.5285	1.0000	0.6855	0.6451
3	0.3574	0.6855	1.0000	0.8244
4	0.2412	0.6451	0.8244	1.0000

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm	Subject	Estimate
UN(1,1)	subject	3102.51
UN(2,1)	subject	-9985.70
UN(2,2)	subject	52598
Residual		685.33

Fit Statistics

-2 Log Likelihood	1688.7
AIC (smaller is better)	1704.7
AICC (smaller is better)	1705.7
BIC (smaller is better)	1718.5

REDUCED MODEL WITH DIFF INTERCEPTS, COMMON SLOPE, FIT BY ML

9

The Mixed Procedure

Null Model Likelihood Ratio Test

DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
3	91.54	<.0001

Solution for Fixed Effects

Effect	center	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
center	1	-136.02	12.8851	82	-10.56	<.0001
center	2	-194.43	13.7986	82	-14.09	<.0001
center	3	-187.31	14.8087	82	-12.65	<.0001
tmp		4230.63	40.4983	40	104.46	<.0001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
center	3	82	90.15	<.0001
tmp	1	40	10912.8	<.0001

INTERPRETATION:

- Comparing to the analysis of these data by ordinary least squares in section 8.8, we see that none of the estimates for β in the full model agree with the OLS estimates for the full model. This is not surprising, as these data are **not balanced**.
- In fact, note that the estimates of β and their standard errors in the full model in the **Solution for Fixed Effects** table differ slightly for the ML and REML fits. This is to be expected – the “weighting” by the estimated covariance matrices $\hat{\Sigma}_i$ is slightly different in each case, because the estimates of (the distinct) elements of D and σ^2 are slightly different. This can be seen by inspecting the estimates of D in **Estimated G Matrix** and **Estimated G Correlation Matrix** for each of the ML and REML fits on pages 2 (REML) and page 5 (ML). Similarly, from **Covariance Parameter Estimates** for REML and ML on pages 2 and 5, the estimate of σ^2 may be found (**Residual**). The estimates differ slightly – $\hat{\sigma}^2 = 683.63$ for REML and $\hat{\sigma}^2 = 682.93$ for ML. Note that the estimates of Σ_i for the dialyzer $i = 1$ in **Estimated V Matrix for SUBJECT 1** and **Estimated V Correlation Matrix for Subject 1**) are similar for the two fits.
- The results of the **estimate** and **contrast** statements for each fit lead to the same qualitative conclusions. From pages 3 and 6, there is strong evidence according to the Wald (**chisq**) test for difference in slope with 2 degrees of freedom obtained from the **contrast** statement that there is a difference in mean slope for the 3 centers. Here, the L matrix has 2 rows:

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

A **contrast** statement for difference in intercepts, with corresponding L matrix

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

yields in each case a Wald test statistic $T_L = 0.96$ (REML) and 1.03 (ML). Comparing these to a χ_2^2 distribution, it is clear that there is not enough evidence to suggest that the intercepts differ among centers.

The pairwise comparisons of slopes among centers are obtained from the results of the `estimate` statements for each analysis, on pages 3 and 5. Inspection of the results supports the contention that the mean slope for center 1 is different from that for the other two centers. The estimate of this mean slope is 4409.5 (mmHg/100 ml/hr) for each analysis, while those for the other centers are considerably smaller. Thus, it appears that the “typical” rate of change of ultrafiltration rate with transmembrane pressure is faster for dialyzers used at center 1. A possible explanation for this result would be up to the investigators. Perhaps the subject population is different at the first center, or personnel at the first center have different skills operating the devices.

- We may also conduct the test of equal mean slopes via a likelihood ratio test. Here, we use the “full” and “reduced” model results for the fits based on ML. From pages 5 and 8, $-2 \log$ -likelihood for the “full” and “reduced” models is 1670.8 and 1688.7, respectively, so that the likelihood ratio test statistic is $1688.7 - 1670.8 = 17.9$. This is to be compared to the χ^2 distribution with $r = 2$ degrees of freedom. As $\chi_{2,0.95}^2 = 5.99$, we have strong evidence on the basis of this test to suggest that there is a difference among the mean slopes, which is in agreement with the inference based on the Wald test above.
- For the fit of the “full” model by ML, from page 5, we have $AIC = 1690.8$ and $BIC = 1708.0$. Recall that in section 8.8, we fit the same mean model (although arriving at it from the “population-averaged” perspective) with several different choices of model for Σ_i . We may compare those fits to that here, which implies yet another assumption for Σ_i , on the basis of AIC and BIC values. The (AIC, BIC) values assuming Σ_i has a compound symmetry and Markov structure, respectively (from pages 4 and 7 of the output in section 8.8), are $(1713.5, 1727.2)$ and $(1706.0, 1719.7)$, giving support for the “subject-specific” random coefficient modeling approach over the direct, “population-averaged” regression approach in terms of modeling the covariance structure.