#### Fixed vs. Random Effects

Department of Statistics, University of South Carolina

Stat 705: Data Analysis II

### Outline

- Review One-Way ANOVA
- Fixed vs. Random Effects
- Random Effects

# ANOVA Review (KNN Chap 16)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) models are regression models with qualitative predictors, called <u>factors</u> or <u>treatments</u>.

Factors have different levels.

For example, the factor "education" may have the levels *high* school, undergraduate, graduate. The factor "gender" has two levels female, male.

We may have several factors as predictors, e.g. race and gender may be used to predict annual salary in \$.

### 16.3 Cell means model

Have r different treatments or factor levels. At each level i, have  $n_i$  observations from group i.

Total number of observations is  $n_T = n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_r$ .

Response is  $Y_{ij}$  where  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} i=1,\ldots,r & \text{factor level} \\ j=1,\ldots,n_i & \text{obs. within factor level} \end{array} \right\}$ .

Example: Two factors: MS, PhD.  $Y_{ij}$  is age in years. Spring of 2014 we observe

$$Y_{11}=28,\,Y_{12}=24,\,Y_{13}=24,\,Y_{14}=22,\,Y_{15}=26,\,Y_{16}=23,$$

 $Y_{21} = 29, Y_{22} = 23, Y_{23} = 26, Y_{24} = 25, Y_{25} = 22, Y_{26} = 23, Y_{27} = 38, Y_{28} = 33, Y_{29} = 30, Y_{2,10} = 27.$ 

# One-way ANOVA model

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \ \epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2).$$

Can rewrite as

$$Y_{ij} \stackrel{ind.}{\sim} N(\mu_i, \sigma^2).$$

- Data are normal, data are independent, variance constant across groups.
- $\mu_i$  is allowed to be different for each group.  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_r$  are the r population means of the response. A picture helps.
- Questions: what is  $E\{Y_{ij}\}$ ? What is  $\sigma^2\{Y_{ij}\}$ ?

#### Matrix formulation

(pp. 683–684, 710–712 in KNN) For r = 3 we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} \\ Y_{12} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{1n_1} \\ Y_{21} \\ Y_{22} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{2n_2} \\ Y_{31} \\ Y_{32} \\ \vdots \\ Y_{3n_3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{11} \\ \epsilon_{12} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{1n_1} \\ \epsilon_{21} \\ \epsilon_{22} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{2n_2} \\ \epsilon_{31} \\ \epsilon_{32} \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_{3n_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

or

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

### 16.4 Fitting the model

For 
$$r = 3$$
, let  $Q(\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \mu_i)^2$ .

Need to minumize this over all possible  $(\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3)$  to find least-squares (LS) solution. Can easily show that  $Q(\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3)$  has minimum at

$$\hat{eta} = \left[ egin{array}{c} \hat{\mu}_1 \ \hat{\mu}_2 \ \hat{\mu}_3 \end{array} 
ight] = \left[ egin{array}{c} Y_1. \ ar{Y}_2. \ ar{Y}_3. \end{array} 
ight]$$

where  $\bar{Y}_{i.} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} Y_{ij}$  is the sample mean from the *i*th group (pp. 687–688).

These  $\hat{\beta}$  are also maximum likelihood estimates.

# Matrix formula of least-squares estimators (r = 3)

$$\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & n_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & n_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} n_1^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & n_2^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & n_3^{-1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_1 \\ \mathbf{Y}_2 \\ \mathbf{Y}_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}_1 \\ \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}_2 \\ \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

#### Residuals

As in regression (STAT 704),

$$e_{ij} = Y_{ij} - \hat{Y}_{ij} = Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_i = Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i.$$

As usual,  $\hat{Y}_{ij}$  is the estimated mean response under the model.

Note that  $\sum_{i=1}^{n_i} e_{ij} = 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, r$ . [check this!]

In matrix terms

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}.$$

# 16.5 ANOVA table (pp. 690–698)

Define the following

$$Y_{i\cdot} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} Y_{ij} = i \text{ group sum},$$

$$\bar{Y}_{i\cdot} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{i=1}^{m_i} Y_{ij} = i$$
th group mean

$$Y_{\cdot \cdot} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} Y_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} Y_{i \cdot} = \text{sum all obs.}$$

$$\bar{Y}_{\cdot \cdot} = \frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{i=1}^{n_i} Y_{ij} = \frac{1}{n_T} \sum_{i=1}^r Y_{i\cdot} = \text{mean all obs.}$$

## Sums of squares for treatments, error, and total

SSTO = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{..})^2 = \text{variability in } Y_{ij} \text{'s}$$
SSTR = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\hat{Y}_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{..})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\hat{\mu}_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{..})^2$$
= 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\bar{Y}_{i.} - \bar{Y}_{..})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r} n_i (\bar{Y}_{i.} - \bar{Y}_{..})^2$$
= variability explained by ANOVA model
$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \hat{Y}_{ij})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} e_i^2$$
= variability NOT explained by ANOVA model

#### Comments

• As before in regression,

$$\underbrace{\mathsf{SSTO}}_{\mathsf{total}} = \underbrace{\mathsf{SSTR}}_{\mathsf{treatment}} + \underbrace{\mathsf{SSE}}_{\mathsf{leftover}}$$

- SSE=0  $\Rightarrow$   $Y_{ij} = Y_{ik}$  for all  $j \neq k$  and for  $i = 1, \dots, r$ .
- SSTR=0  $\Rightarrow \bar{Y}_{i.} = \bar{Y}_{..}$  for i = 1, ..., r.

# ANOVA table (p. 694)

Source		df	MS	E(MS)
SSTR	$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\bar{Y}_{i.} - \bar{Y}_{})^2$	r-1	SSTR/(r-1)	$\sigma^2 + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{r} n_i (\mu_i - \mu_{\cdot})^2}{r-1}$
SSE	$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{i=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ii} - Y_{i.})^2$	$n_T - r$	$SSE/(n_T - r)$	$\sigma^2$
SSTO	$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{})^2$	$n_T-1$		

### Degrees of freedom

- SSTO has  $n_T-1$  df because there are  $n_T Y_{ij} \bar{Y}_{..}$  terms in the sum, but they add up to zero (1 constraint).
- SSE has  $n_T r$  df because there are  $n_T Y_{ij} \bar{Y}_i$ . terms in the sum, but there are r constraints of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} \bar{Y}_{i\cdot}) = 0, i = 1, \dots, r.$
- SSTR has r-1 df because there are r terms  $n_i(\bar{Y}_i \bar{Y}_{..})$  in the sum, but they sum to zero (1 constraint).

Assuming  $\mu_1=\cdots=\mu_r$ , Cochran's Theorem (Section 2.7) shows that  $SSTR/\sigma^2\sim\chi^2_{r-1}$  and  $SSE/\sigma^2\sim\chi^2_{n_T-r}$  and they are independent.

# Expected mean squares

$$E\{\text{MSE}\} = \sigma^2, \quad \text{MSE is unbiased estimate of } \sigma^2$$
 
$$E\{\text{MSTR}\} = \sigma^2 + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^r n_i (\mu_i - \mu_\cdot)^2}{r-1},$$

where  $\mu_{\cdot} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{n_i \mu_i}{n_T}$  is the weighted average of  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_r$  (pp. 696–698).

If  $\mu_i = \mu_j$  for all  $i, j \in \{1, ..., r\}$  then  $E\{\mathsf{MSTR}\} = \sigma^2$ , otherwise  $E\{\mathsf{MSTR}\} > \sigma^2$ .

Hence, if any group means are different then  $\frac{E\{MSTR\}}{E\{MSE\}} > 1$ .

### 16.6 F test of $H_0: \mu_1 = \cdots = \mu_r$

Fact: If  $\mu_1 = \cdots = \mu_r$  then

$$F^* = \frac{\mathsf{MSTR}}{\mathsf{MSF}} \sim F(r-1, n_T - r).$$

To perform  $\alpha$ -level test of  $H_0: \mu_1 = \cdots = \mu_r$  vs.  $H_a:$  some  $\mu_i \neq \mu_j$  for  $i \neq j$ ,

- Accept if  $F^* \leq F(1-\alpha, r-1, n_T r)$  or p-value  $\geq \alpha$ .
- Reject if  $F^* > F(1 \alpha, r 1, n_T r)$  or p-value  $< \alpha$ . p-value  $= P\{F(r - 1, n_T - 1) \ge F^*\}$ .

#### Comments

- If r = 2 then  $F^* = (t^*)^2$  where  $t^*$  is t-statistic from 2-sample pooled-variance t-test.
- The F-test may be obtained from the general nested linear hypotheses approach (big model / little model). Here the full model is  $Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij}$  and the reduced is  $Y_{ij} = \mu + \epsilon_{ij}$ .

$$F^* = \frac{\left[\frac{SSE(R) - SSE(F)}{dfE_R - dfE_F}\right]}{\frac{SSE(F)}{dfE_F}} = \frac{MSTR}{MSE}.$$

#### 16.7 Alternative formulations

An alternative formula for ANOVA model can be written as:

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where  $\alpha_r = 0$ .

- $E\{Y_{rj}\} = \mu$ ;  $\mu$  is the cell-mean for the rth level.
- For i < r,  $E\{Y_{ij}\} = \mu + \alpha_i$ ;  $\alpha_i$  is i's offset to group r's mean  $\mu$ .

Can we express this formulation using a linear regression model?

#### Fixed vs. Random Effects

- In ANOVA, the categorical variable are well-defined categories: such as genotype groups, age groups
- In some designs, the categorical variable is "subject."
- Simplest example: repeated measures, where more than one measurement is taken on the same individual.
- In this case, the "group" effect  $\alpha_i$  is best though of as random because we only sample a subset of the entire population of subjects.

### When to use random effects

- A "group" effect is random if we can think of the levels we observe in the group to be samples from a larger population.
- Example: if collecting data from different medical centers, "center" might be thought of as random.
- Example: if surveying students on different campuses, "campus" may be a random effect.

## Examples: Sodium content in beer

- How much sodium is there in North American beer? How much does this vary by brand?
- Observations: for 6 brands of beer, researchers recorded the sodium content of 8 12-ounce bottles
- Questions of interest: what is the "grand mean" sodium content? How much variability is there from brand to brand?
- Since brad was sampled from a larger set, we can think of various brands as random variables.
- "Individuals" in this case are brands, repeated measured 8 times.

### 25.1 One-way random cell means model

If treatment levels come from a larger population, their effects are best modeled as random. A one-way random cell means model is

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where

$$\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_r \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_r, \sigma_{\mu}^2)$$
 independent of  $\epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

As usual,  $i = 1, \ldots, r$  and  $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$ .

The test of interest is  $H_0$ :  $\sigma_{\mu}^2 = 0$ .

We can re-express the model as a random effects model, by writing  $\mu_i = \mu_{\cdot} + \tau_i$ , where  $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_r \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_{\mu}^2)$ .

 $au_1, \ldots, au_r$  are called *random effects* and  $\sigma_\mu^2$  and  $\sigma^2$  are termed *variance components*. This model is an example of a *random effects* model, because it has only random effects beyond the intercept  $\mu$ . (which is fixed).

## Model properties

The random cell means model has some quite different properties from the fixed cell means model.

- **1**  $E(Y_{ii}) = \mu$ .
- $\circ$   $\sigma^2 \{Y_{ij}\} = \sigma^2 + \sigma_\mu^2$  (Hence the term *variance components*)

- **5**  $E(\bar{Y}_{..}) = \mu$ .

### Variance-Covariance Matrix

 Suppose r=2 levels, and n=2 cases in each level. The observation vector is:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \left[ egin{array}{c} Y_{11} \ Y_{12} \ Y_{21} \ Y_{22} \end{array} 
ight].$$

• The variance-covariance matrix of **Y** is:

### Variance-Covariance Matrix

 Suppose r=2 levels, and n=2 cases in each level. The observation vector is:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} \\ Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} \\ Y_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

• The variance-covariance matrix of Y is:

$$\mathit{Cov}(\mathbf{Y}) = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} \sigma^2 + \sigma_{\mu}^2 & \sigma_{\mu}^2 & 0 & 0 \ \sigma_{\mu}^2 & \sigma^2 + \sigma_{\mu}^2 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & \sigma^2 + \sigma_{\mu}^2 & \sigma_{\mu}^2 \ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{\mu}^2 & \sigma_{\mu}^2 + \sigma^2 \end{array} 
ight].$$

## Simple random effect model

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where

$$\mu_1,\ldots,\mu_r \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_{\cdot},\sigma_{\mu}^2)$$

independent of

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

As usual,  $i = 1, \ldots, r$  and  $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$ .

- We might be interested in the population mean  $\mu$ : CI, is it zero?
- What is really usually the focus:  $\sigma_{\mu}$ : CI, is it zero?

### ANOVA table for one-way random effect

Source	SS	df	MS	E(MS)
SSTR	$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\bar{Y}_{i.} - \bar{Y}_{})^2$	r-1	SSTR/(r-1)	$\sigma^2 + n\sigma_{\mu}^2$
SSE	$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{i=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{i.})^2$	$n_T - r$	$SSE/(n_T - r)$	$\sigma^2$
SSTO	$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_{})^2$	$n_T-1$		

- Only change here is the expectation of MSTR reflects the randomness of  $\mu_i$ s
- Under  $H_0$ :  $\sigma_{\mu}^2 = 0$ , it is easy to see that

$$\frac{\textit{MSTR}}{\textit{MSE}} \sim \textit{F}_{(r-1),(n-1)r}$$

### Inference for $\mu$

- We know that  $E(\overline{Y}..) = \mu$  and  $\sigma^2(\overline{Y}..) = \frac{n\sigma_{\mu}^2 + \sigma^2}{rn}$ .
- Therefore,

$$\frac{\overline{Y}.. - \mu_{\cdot}}{\sqrt{\frac{SSTR}{(r-1)rn}}} \sim t_{r-1}$$

- Why r-1 degree of freedom? If we can sample infinite number of observations fro each level, so that  $\overline{Y_{i.}} \to \mu_i$
- To learn anything about  $\mu$ , we still only have r observations  $(\mu_1, \mu_2, ... \mu_r)$
- Hence, sampling more within the "group" can not narrow the CI for  $\mu_{\cdot}$

# Testing $H_0$ : $\sigma_{\mu} = 0$

The MSE and MSTR are defined as they were before. One can show  $E(MSE) = \sigma^2$  and  $E(MSTR) = \sigma^2 + n\sigma_\mu^2$  when  $n = n_i$  for all i. Most packages provides symbolic forms of expected mean squares for random/mixed models if requested.

If  $\sigma_{\mu}=0$  we expect  $F^*=MSTR/MSE$  to be somewhat larger than 1. In fact, just like the fixed-effects case,  $F^*\sim F(r-1,n_T-r)$ . This is the test given by proc glm when you add a random A; statement.

One can also fit the model in proc mixed, but this procedure provides a slightly cruder test of  $H_0: \sigma_\mu = 0$ .

# Disadvantages of ANOVA estimators

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = SSE/r[n-1] = MSE, \quad \widehat{\sigma_{\mu}^2} = (MSTR - MSE)/n$$

- When MSTR < MSE,  $\sigma_{\mu}^2 <$  0, this is rather embarrassing.
- The solution is not unique in unbalanced designs.
- The need for complicated algebraic calculations in more complex designs.

#### Other tests and estimates

We can derive estimates for  $\mu$ .,  $\sigma^2$  and  $\frac{\sigma_\mu^2}{\sigma^2+\sigma_\mu^2}$  because pivotal quantities are readily available. It is an open question whether we are interested in inference on  $\mu$ . in most practical applications.

Other quantities of interest tended to require moment-based estimates (old school)–e.g., the variance component  $\sigma_\mu^2$ . Methods to provide point estimates and/or standard errors include

- Maximum Likelihood (biased)
- Restricted Maximum Likelihood

#### ML estimate

The log-likelihood for a simple linear regression model is:

$$I(\beta, \sigma, \sigma_{\mu}|Y, X) = -\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log |\sigma^{2}| - \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} (Y - X\beta)^{T} (Y - X\beta)$$

$$\widehat{\sigma^{2}} = \frac{(Y - X\beta)^{T} (Y - X\beta)}{n}$$

$$E(\sigma^{2}) = \frac{n - 1}{n} \sigma^{2}.$$

ML estimate is biased because of the unknown estimator for the mean!

### **REML**

The log-likelihood for the data is:

$$I(\beta, \sigma, \sigma_{\mu}|Y, X) = -\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma| - \frac{1}{2} (Y - X\beta)^{T} \Sigma^{-1} (Y - X\beta)$$

Integrate the log-likelihood w.r.t  $\beta$  in REML:

$$I(\beta,\sigma,\sigma_{\mu}|Y,X) = -\frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2}\log |\Sigma| + \log \left[\int e^{-\frac{(Y-X\beta)^T \Sigma^{-1}(Y-X\beta)}{2}} d\beta\right]$$

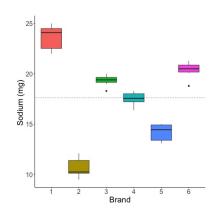
Let  $f(\beta) = -\frac{(Y - X\beta)^T \Sigma^{-1} (Y - X\beta)}{2}$ ; use Taylor expansion:

$$\begin{split} f(\beta) &\approx & f(\widehat{\beta}) + \frac{1}{2}(\beta - \widehat{\beta})^2 f''(\widehat{\beta}) \quad \text{Note that} [f'(\beta) = 0] \\ f(\beta) &= -\frac{(Y - X\beta)^T \Sigma^{-1} (Y - X\beta)}{2} &\approx & -\frac{(Y - X\widehat{\beta})^T \Sigma^{-1} (Y - X\widehat{\beta})}{2} - \frac{(\beta - \widehat{\beta})^T X^T \Sigma^{-1} X (\beta - \widehat{\beta})}{2} \\ &\log \left[\int L(\sigma, \sigma_\mu | Y, X)\right] &= & -\frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log \left|\Sigma\right| - \frac{(Y - X\widehat{\beta})^T \Sigma^{-1} (Y - X\widehat{\beta})}{2} \\ &+ & \log \left[\int e^{-\frac{(\beta - \widehat{\beta})^T X^T \Sigma^{-1} X (\beta - \widehat{\beta})}{2}} d\beta\right] \text{ Laplace appromixation} \\ &\log \left[\int L(\sigma, \sigma_\mu | Y, X)\right] &= & -\frac{1}{2} \log \left|\Sigma\right| - \frac{1}{2} (Y - X\widehat{\beta})^T \Sigma^{-1} (Y - X\widehat{\beta}) - \frac{1}{2} \log \left|X^T \Sigma^{-1} X\right| ) \end{split}$$

REML does not depend on  $\beta$ !

## Sodium content in beer

	sodium	brand	${\tt rep}$
1	24.4	1	1
2	22.6	1	2
3	23.8	1	3
4	22.0	1	4
:			
45	5 20.1	L 6	5 5
46	18.8	3 (	6
47	7 21.1	L 6	6 7
48	3 20.3	3 (	3 8



# One-Way ANOVA, fixed effect

```
> summary(aov(sodium ~ brand))

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)

brand 5 854.5 170.91 238.7 <2e-16 ***

Residuals 42 30.1 0.72
```

$$\widehat{\mu} = 17.62, \quad \widehat{\sigma^2} = 0.72, \quad \widehat{\sigma_{\mu}} = (170.91 - 0.72)/8 = 21.27$$

### Random effect model (REML)

The original R pacakge was nlme as described in Pinheiro and Bates (2000). Subsequently Bates (2005) introduced the package lme4.

```
> library(lme4)
Loading required package: Matrix
> mmod<-lmer(sodium ~ 1 + (1|brand), data=beer)
> summary(mmod)
Linear mixed model fit by REML ['lmerMod']
Formula: sodium ~ 1 + (1 | brand)
  Data: beer
REML criterion at convergence: 148.9
Random effects:
Groups
         Name
                     Variance Std.Dev.
brand
          (Intercept) 21.274
                              4.6123
 Residual
                      0.716
                              0.8461
Number of obs: 48, groups: brand, 6
Fixed effects:
           Estimate Std. Error t value
(Intercept) 17.629
                         1.887
                                 9.343
```

#### ML estimates

```
> smod<-lmer(sodium ~ 1 + (1|brand), data=beer, REML=F)
> summarv(smod)
Linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood ['lmerMod']
Formula: sodium ~ 1 + (1 | brand)
  Data: beer
    ATC
          BIC logLik deviance df.resid
  157.9 163.6 -76.0 151.9
                                       45
Random effects:
Groups Name
               Variance Std.Dev.
brand (Intercept) 17.713 4.2087
Residual
                     0.716 0.8461
Number of obs: 48, groups: brand, 6
Fixed effects:
           Estimate Std. Error t value
(Intercept) 17.629 1.723 10.23
```

 $\sigma_n^2 = 17.713$ , ML estimate biases toward zero! Fixed effects remain the same.

#### Likelihood ratio test

$$2[I(\widehat{\beta}_1,\widehat{\sigma_1},\widehat{\sigma_{\mu_1}}|y,x)-I(\widehat{\beta}_0,\widehat{\sigma_0},\widehat{\sigma_{\mu_0}}|y,x)]$$

- For testing fixed effects, we cannot use the REML estimation approach. Use ordinary ML instead.
- This test statistic is approximately chi-squared with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in the dimensions of the two parameters spaces
- Unfortunately, this test requires several assumptions (parameters under the null are not on the boundary). Serious problems can arise with this approximation.
- The p values for the fixed effects ten to be too small and the p values for the random effects tend to be too large.

#### F-test

- In *F*-test for fixed effect, the definition of degree of freedom becomes murky in the presence of random effect parameters.
- For simple models with balanced data, the F-test is correct but in more complex models or unbalanced data, p values can be substantially incorrect. For this reason, 1me4 declines to state p values.
- The t-statistics also rely on the same problematic approximations.

### Model selection

$$AIC = -2 \max (\log likelihood) + 2p$$

- Okay to use when compare fixed effect parameters as the number of random effect will be the same
- Comparing models with varying random effects is problematic due to the boundary issue.

#### Likelihood ratio test

## Parametric bootstrap

```
> library("faraway")
> sim < -1000
> lrtstat<-rep(NA, sim)</pre>
> for(i in 1:sim){
 y<-unlist(simulate(nullmod))</pre>
  bnull<-lm(y ~ 1)
  balt<-lmer(y ~ 1 + (1|brand), data=beer, REML=F)</pre>
 lrtstat[i] <- as.numeric(2*(logLik(balt)-logLik(bnull)))</pre>
+ }
> mean(lrtstat> obslrt)
[1] 0
```

### Parametric boostrap

```
> library("RLRsim")
> nullmod<-lm(sodium ~ 1, data=beer)</pre>
> exactLRT(smod, nullmod)
No restrictions on fixed effects. REML-based inference preferable.
simulated finite sample distribution of LRT. (p-value
based on 10000 simulated values)
data:
LRT = 124.15, p-value < 2.2e-16
> exactRLRT(mmod)
simulated finite sample distribution of RLRT.
(p-value based on 10000 simulated values)
data:
RLRT = 126.27, p-value < 2.2e-16
```

# Predict random effect $(\alpha_i)$

• The model parameters in the random effect model are  $\mu, \sigma^2, \sigma_\mu^2, \alpha_i$  is considered as model parameters but just a random realization from the population of  $\alpha_i$ .

### Shrinkage estimates

```
> fit2<-lm(sodium ~ brand-1)</pre>
> coef(fit2)
 brand1 brand2 brand3 brand4 brand5 brand6
23.6375 10.6750 19.3375 17.5000 14.2125 20.4125
> r<-coef(fit2)-mean(coef(fit2))</pre>
> r
    brand1
               brand2
                          brand3
                                     brand4
                                                brand5
 6.0083333 -6.9541667 1.7083333 -0.1291667 -3.4166667
   brand6
 2.7833333
> rr<-ranef(mmod)
> rr$brand/r
  (Intercept)
   0.9958108
  0.9958108
 0.9958108
4 0.9958108
5 0.9958108
   0.9958108
```

#### Fixed vs. random effects

- Fixed effects are constant values but random effects follow a distribution.
- Effects are fixed if they are the interest, ie the fixed  $\alpha_i$  or random if there is interest in the underlying population with variance estimate  $\sigma_u^2$
- When a sample exhausts the population, the corresponding variable is fixed; when the sample is a small (i.e., negligible) part of the population the corresponding variable is random.
- Fixed effects are estimated using least squares and random effects are estimated with shrinkage like REML.