The Constraint-Case Formulation of MLMs

Here's another way to write MLMs, which sometimes has advantages. Consider the balanced one-way random effect model:

$$y_{ij} = \theta_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ where } \epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_e^2)$$
 (1)

$$\theta_i = \mu + \delta_i, \text{ where } \delta_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_s^2)$$
(2)

$$\mu = M + \xi, \text{ where } \xi \sim N(0, \sigma_p^2)$$
(3)

for
$$i = 1, ..., q$$
 and $j = 1, ..., m$

M, σ_p^2 are known; θ_i , ϵ_{ij} , μ , δ_i , σ_e^2 , σ_s^2 are unknown. Rewrite (2) and (3) as, respectively,

$$0 = -\theta_i + \mu + \delta_i$$
(4)
$$M = \mu - \xi.$$
(5)

Equations (1), (4), and (5) now have the form of a linear model.

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \underline{\mathbf{0}_q} \\ \underline{\mathbf{M}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_q \otimes \mathbf{1}_m & \mathbf{0}_{qm} \\ \underline{-\mathbf{I}_q} & \mathbf{1}_q \\ \underline{\mathbf{0}'_q} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{\theta_q} \\ \mu \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\epsilon} \\ \underline{\delta} \\ -\xi \end{bmatrix},$$

where \otimes is the Kronecker product $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B} = (a_{ij}\mathbf{B})$.

Left side: known (qm + q + 1)-vector.

Right side: $(qm + q + 1) \times (q + 1)$ design matrix times (q + 1)-vector of coefficients, plus (qm + q + 1)-vector of errors.

The error vector has diagonal covariance matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{e}^{2} \mathbf{I}_{qm} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \sigma_{s}^{2} \mathbf{I}_{q} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \sigma_{p}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Nothing deep here; it's an "accounting identity" (Whittaker).

There's more than one way to do this

Write the balanced one-way RE model in the standard MLM form:

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{1}_{qm}, \ \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mu, \ \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{I}_q \otimes \mathbf{1}_m, \ \mathbf{u} = (\delta_1, \dots, \delta_q)', \ \mathbf{G} = \sigma_s^2 \mathbf{I}_q, \ \mathbf{R} = \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}_{qm}.$$

That implies these three equations:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \text{ where } \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N_{qm}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_{e}^{2}\mathbf{I}_{qm})$$
 (6)

$$\mathbf{u} = \boldsymbol{\delta}, \text{ where } \boldsymbol{\delta} \sim N_q(0, \sigma_s^2 \mathbf{I}_q)$$
 (7)

$$\mu = M + \xi, \text{ where } \xi \sim N(0, \sigma_{\rho}^2), \tag{8}$$

Using the same trick as above, rewrite (7) and (8) as

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$$\mathbf{0}_q = -\mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\delta} \tag{9}$$

$$M = \mu - \xi. \tag{10}$$

Now stack (6), (9), and (10).

Stack (6), (9), and (10):

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{0}_q \\ \hline \mathbf{M} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}_{qm} & \mathbf{I}_q \otimes \mathbf{1}_m \\ \mathbf{0}_q & -\mathbf{I}_q \\ \hline \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0}'_q \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon \\ \hline \frac{\delta}{-\xi} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Again, this has the form of a linear model with heteroscedastic errors.

All MLMs can be written in constraint-case form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{0}_q \\ \mathbf{M} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{Z} \\ \mathbf{0}_q & -\mathbf{I}_q \\ \mathbf{I}_p & \mathbf{0}_{p \times q} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\beta} \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\epsilon} \\ \mathbf{\delta} \\ -\mathbf{\xi} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\operatorname{cov} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{\epsilon} \\ \mathbf{\delta} \\ -\mathbf{\xi} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{\Sigma} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Some jargon for the constraint-case formulation

An MLM written in constraint-case form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{0}_q \\ \mathbf{M} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{Z} \\ \mathbf{0}_q & -\mathbf{I}_q \\ \mathbf{I}_p & \mathbf{0}_{p \times q} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\beta} \\ \mathbf{u} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\epsilon} \\ \mathbf{\delta} \\ -\mathbf{\xi} \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{data cases} \\ \text{constraint cases} \\ \text{prior cases} \\ \\ \cos\left(\frac{\mathbf{\epsilon}}{\mathbf{\delta}} \\ -\mathbf{\xi}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{\Sigma} \end{bmatrix}.$$

This formulation, conditioning on ${\bf R}$ and ${\bf G},$ makes some derivations easy in the conventional theory.

It's also been used to speed computing, by Henderson et al (1959) and in Ime4 (Bates & DebRoy 2004).

Sometimes it's easier to write a model this way

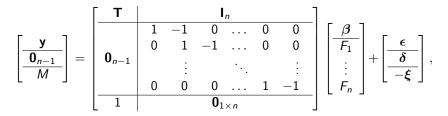
Plots in a field are in one long row, labeled i = 1, ..., n.

Two treatments are allocated randomly to plots, $T_i = 0$ or 1.

 F_i is plot *i*'s unobserved fertility: $F_i = F_{i-1} + \delta_i$, where $\delta_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_s^2)$. Model the yield in plot *i* as $y_i = T_i\beta + F_i + \epsilon_i$, where $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_e^2)$.

Rewrite the model for F_i as $0 = -F_i + F_{i-1} + \delta_i$, i = 2, ..., n.

Put a $N(M, \sigma_p^2)$ prior on β and stack these "cases":



Much simpler than the MLM formulation.

Measuring model complexity: Degrees of freedom (DF)

 DF are used to describe the complexity of an MLM fit.

For mixed linear models, DF are used to:

- Specify F-tests.
- Describe a model's size to penalize it in a model-selection criterion.
- Specify a prior distribution on ϕ , the unknowns in **G** and **R**.

I'll emphasize using DF to specify priors for the unknowns in ${\bf G}$ and ${\bf R}.$

DF can also be used to measure the complexity of *parts* of a fit.

Motivation

Consider again the balanced one-way random effects model:

$$\begin{array}{lll} y_{ij} &=& \theta_i + \epsilon_{ij}, \text{ where } \epsilon_{ij} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_e^2) \\ \theta_i &=& \mu + \delta_i, \text{ where } \delta_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_s^2) \\ & \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, q \text{ and } j = 1, \dots, m. \end{array}$$

The fitted values are $\hat{y}_{ij} = \hat{\mu} + \hat{\delta}_i$. What is the fit's complexity?

If
$$\hat{\sigma}_s^2 \to \infty$$
 for fixed $\hat{\sigma}_e^2$, then $\hat{y}_{ij} = \bar{y}_{i.}$ and this fit has q DF.
If $\hat{\sigma}_s^2 \to 0$ for fixed $\hat{\sigma}_e^2$, then $\hat{y}_{ij} = \bar{y}_{..}$ and this fit has 1 DF.

It seems awkward to suggest that the fit's complexity changes discontinuously at either extreme.

We'll define a continuous complexity measure instead.

Motivating a more general DF measure

<u>Linear smoother</u>: $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{S}_{\lambda} \mathbf{y}$, where λ is a known tuning parameter. By analogy with linear models, the DF in the fit is trace(\mathbf{S}_{λ}).

An <u>MLM</u> is a linear smoother with $\mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Z}]$, $\lambda = (\phi_G, \phi_R)$, and

$$\mathbf{S}_{\lambda} = \mathbf{C} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}' \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{C} + \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \mathbf{C}' \mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

Thus the DF in an MLM fit is

$$\mathsf{trace}(\mathbf{S}_{\lambda}) = \mathsf{trace}\left(\mathbf{C}\left[\mathbf{C}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{C} + \left(\begin{array}{cc}\mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0}\\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G}^{-1}\end{array}\right)\right]^{-1}\mathbf{C}'\mathbf{R}^{-1}\right)$$

 \Rightarrow DF is a function of ϕ_G and ϕ_R .

Example: Balanced one-way RE model (BOWREM)

BOWREM in standard form:

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{1}_{qm}, \ \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mu, \ \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{I}_q \otimes \mathbf{1}_m, \ \mathbf{u} = (\delta_1, \dots, \delta_q)', \ \mathbf{G} = \sigma_s^2 \mathbf{I}_q, \ \mathbf{R} = \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}_{qm}.$$

For $\boldsymbol{C} = [\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{Z}],$ the DF in the BOWREM fit is

$$= \operatorname{trace} \left(\mathbf{C} \left[\mathbf{C}' \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{C} + \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{G}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \right]^{-1} \mathbf{C}' \mathbf{R}^{-1} \right)$$

$$(homework) = \left[\begin{pmatrix} qm & m\mathbf{1}'_q \\ m\mathbf{1}_q & m\mathbf{I}_q \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_q \sigma_e^2 / \sigma_s^2 \end{pmatrix} \right]^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} qm & m\mathbf{1}'_q \\ m\mathbf{1}_q & m\mathbf{I}_q \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(homework) = 1 + (q-1)m/(m+r) \text{ for } r = \sigma_e^2 / \sigma_s^2$$

Example: Balanced one-way RE model (BOWREM)

DF in BOWREM fit:
$$= 1 + (q-1)m/(m+r)$$
 for $r = \sigma_e^2/\sigma_s^2$

This has some features that are true about DF much more generally.

- DF $\in [1, q]$ and increases continuously with σ_s^2 for given σ_e^2 , as our motivation suggested it should.
- For models with normal errors and random effects, DF is a function of the <u>ratio</u> of variances $r = \sigma_s^2 / \sigma_e^2$, not the individual variances.

Example: Plots in a field

Yield in plot *i* is $y_i = T_i\beta + F_i + \epsilon_i$, where $\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_e^2)$, $T_i = 0$ or 1 $F_i = F_{i-1} + u_i$, where $u_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_s^2)$, so $F_i = F_1 + u_2 + \dots + u_i$, $i \ge 2$ Thus $y_i = F_1 + T_i\beta + \sum_{j=2}^i u_j + \epsilon_j$

In the standard form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & T_1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 & T_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} + \epsilon$$

with $\mathbf{G} = \sigma_s^2 \mathbf{I}_{n-1}$ and $\mathbf{R} = \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}_n$.

Example: Plots in a field (2)

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & T_1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 & T_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} + \epsilon$$

with $\mathbf{G} = \sigma_s^2 \mathbf{I}_{n-1}$ and $\mathbf{R} = \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}_n$.

The DF in this fit is $2 + \sum_{j=1}^{n-2} \left[1 + \frac{\sigma_e^2}{\sigma_s^2} \frac{1}{d_j}\right]^{-1}$

where the d_j are the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{Z}'(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_X)\mathbf{Z}$.

Intuition: Along the j^{th} singular vector of $(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_X)\mathbf{Z}$, the fit is shrunk to $\left[1 + \frac{\sigma_e^2}{\sigma_s^2} \frac{1}{d_j}\right]^{-1}$ of its original length.

DF is a convenient way to put a prior on (ϕ_G, ϕ_R)

The idea:

- Put a prior on $\mathsf{DF} \equiv \mathsf{DF}(\phi_G, \phi_R)$, about which you have intuition;
- This induces a prior on (ϕ_G, ϕ_R) , at least partly.

Example: 1-way RE model, q groups, m observations/group DF(r) = 1 + (q-1)m/(m+r) for $r = \sigma_e^2/\sigma_s^2$ Flat prior on DF: $F(DF \le x) = x/(q-1)$ for $x \in [1, q]$ $\Rightarrow Prob(r \le \xi) = \xi/(m+\xi)$ for $\xi \in (0, \infty)$.

Interpretable alternative to a prior on (σ_s^2, σ_e^2) :

Re-parameterize to (DF, σ_e^2), put independent priors on DF and σ_e^2 .

Cui et al (2010) treats this much more generally and has cool examples.