A Re-Introduction to General Linear Models (GLM)

- Today's Class:
 - > You do know the GLM
 - Estimation (where the numbers in the output come from):
 From least squares to residual maximum likelihood (REML)
 - > Reviewing specification of fixed effects in GLMs
 - Centering continuous predictors
 - Two ways of including categorical predictors
 - Concepts in SAS: CONTAST, ESTIMATE, and LSMEANS
 - Concepts in STATA: CONTRAST, LINCOM, and MARGINS

You do know the General Linear Model

• The **general linear model** incorporates many different labels of related single-level analyses under one unifying umbrella term:

	Categorical Predictors	Continuous Predictors	Both Types of Predictors
Univariate (one outcome)	"ANOVA"	"Regression"	"ANCOVA"
Multivariate (2+ outcomes)	"MANOVA"	"Multivariate Regression"	"MANCOVA"

- Actually, these words are not really helpful—they create artificial distinctions among what is really just one kind of model
- What these models all have in common is the use of a normal conditional distribution (i.e., for the *residuals* that remain after creating conditional/expected outcomes from the model predictors)
- Note: Model predictors do NOT have distributional assumptions!

The Two Sides of Any Model

Model for the Means:

- > Aka Fixed Effects, Structural Part of Model
- > What you are used to caring about for testing hypotheses
- How the expected outcome for a given observation varies as a function of its values on the model predictor variables

Model for the Variance:

- > Aka Random Effects and Residuals, Stochastic Part of Model
- How residuals are distributed and related across observations
- > What you are used to **making assumptions about** instead...
- For the GLM, that residuals come from a normal distribution, are independent across persons, and have constant variance across persons and predictors ("identically distributed")

The Simplest Possible Model: The "Empty Means" GLM



PSQF 7375 Clustered: Lecture 2a

"Linear Regression" Model with a Continuous Predictor (X_i = Ability)





PSQF 7375 Clustered: Lecture 2a

The Two Sides of a General Linear Model

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Z_i + \dots + e_i$$

Model for the Means (Predicted Values):

- Our focus today
- Each person's expected (predicted) outcome is a weighted linear function of his/her values on *X* and *Z* (and any other predictors), each measured once per person (i.e., this is a univariate model)
- Estimated parameters are called fixed effects (here, β_0 , β_1 , and β_2)
- The number of fixed effects will show up in formulas as k (so k = 3 here)

Model for the Variance:

- $e_i \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2) \rightarrow ONE$ source of residual (unexplained) deviation
- e_i has a mean of 0 with some estimated constant variance σ_e^2 , is normally distributed, is unrelated to X and Z, and is unrelated across all observations (which is just one per person here)
- Estimated parameter is the residual variance only (not each $e_i\mbox{)},$
- Proportion of variance reduced relative to empty means model = R²

See? You do know the GLM

• The **general linear model** incorporates many different labels of related single-level analyses under one unifying term:

	Categorical Predictors	Continuous Predictors	Both Types of Predictors
Univariate (one outcome)	"ANOVA"	"Regression"	"ANCOVA"
Multivariate (2+ outcomes)	"MANOVA"	"Multivariate Regression"	"MANCOVA"

- What these models all have in common is the use of a normal conditional distribution (for the *residuals* that remain after creating conditional outcomes from the model predictors)
- The use of these words almost always implies estimation using "least squares" (LS), aka "ordinary least squares" (OLS)

How Estimation Works (In Brief)

- Most statistical estimation routines do one of three things:
- <u>Minimize Something</u>: Typically found with names that have "least" in the title. Forms of **least squares** include "Generalized", "Ordinary", "Weighted", "Diagonally Weighted", "WLSMV", and "Iteratively Reweighted." Typically the estimator of last resort...
- <u>Maximize Something</u>: Typically found with names that have "maximum" in the title. Forms include "Maximum likelihood", "ML", "Residual Maximum Likelihood" (REML), "Robust ML". Typically the gold standard of estimators, and what we will use this semester. REML is the same thing as least squares for complete data.
- <u>Use Simulation to Sample from Something</u>: more recent advances in simulation use resampling techniques. Names include "**Bayesian** Markov Chain Monte Carlo", "Gibbs Sampling", "Metropolis Hastings", "Metropolis Algorithm", and "Monte Carlo". Used for complex models in which ML is not available or feasible.

Least Squares (LS) Estimation

Source	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degrees of Freedom (DF)	Mean Square (MS)	F-ratio
Model (from predictor model)	$SS_{model} = \sum (\beta_0 - y_{pred})^2$	DF _{num} = #fixed effects – 1 (for β ₀)	MS _{model} = SS _{model} / DF _{num}	F-ratio = MS _{model} / MS _{error}
Error (from empty model)	$SS_{error} = \sum (y_i - y_{pred})^2$	DF _{denom} = #people - #fixed effects - 1 (for β_0)	MS _{error} = SS _{model} / DF _{num}	
Total	SS _{total} = SS _{model} + SS _{error}	DF _{total} = DF _{num} + DF _{denom}		

- MS_{model} = how much error you reduced per added fixed effect
- MS_{error} = how much error is left, per possible new fixed effect (otherwise known as "residual" or "error" variance)
- Compare F-ratio to critical value given DF_{num} and DF_{denom} to get *p*-value for **model R**² (proportion reduction in error, PRE)

Least Squares (LS) Estimation

- Uses fixed effect estimates that minimize: $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (e_i^2)$
 - Sum of squared residuals across persons)
 - > Invented c. 1840, can be done via matrix algebra, so it will always work
- Has "closed form" solution (=easy formula) when used for general linear models (GLM) for single outcomes given:
 e_i ~ N(0, σ_e²) → normal, independent, constant variance ONLY
- For GLM for multiple outcomes, LS quickly becomes useless...
 - Cannot handle missing outcomes (listwise-deletes entire person instead)
 - > Only two options for modeling covariance between outcomes
 - > Then why do it this way? Dogma + lack of awareness of alternatives...
- For non-normal outcomes, LS is no longer used at all...

Maximum Likelihood to the Rescue

• Maximum likelihood estimation is the better way of finding the model estimates using all the data, and it comes in 2 flavors:

"Residual (or restricted) maximum likelihood"

- Only available for general linear models or general linear mixed models (key: based on normally distributed residuals at all levels of analysis)
- **REML = LS** given complete outcomes, but it doesn't require them
- > Estimates variances the same way as in LS (accurate) $\rightarrow \frac{\sum (y_i y_{pred})^2}{N k}$

"Maximum likelihood" (ML; also called FIML*)

- Is more general, is available for all of the above, as well as for nonnormal outcomes and models with latent variables (CFA/SEM/IRT/DCM)
- > Is NOT the same as LS: it under-estimates variances by not accounting for the # of estimated fixed effects $\rightarrow \frac{\sum(y_i y_{pred})^2}{N}$
- $*FI = Full information \rightarrow it uses all original data (they both do)$

Maximum Likelihood to the Rescue

- Even though REML = LS for complete outcomes, we will begin by using software based in REML instead of LS
 - In SPSS, SAS, or STATA: one routine called "MIXED" instead of separate routines for GLM, REGRESSION, or ANOVA (or *t*-tests)
 - > So "sums of squares" and "mean squares" are no longer relevant
- Why use MIXED (even when it is the same as LS)?
 - Big-time convenience: MIXED has options to produce <u>fixed</u> <u>effects that are model-implied</u>, but not directly given (e.g., pairwise comparisons, simple slopes of interactions)
 - Model comparisons (F-test for change in R² from new effects) can be requested for <u>any combinations of fixed effects</u>
 - Generalizability: We can estimate univariate or multivariate models for normal outcomes using the same MIXED routine
 - For non-normal outcomes, there are parallel routines in SAS (GLIMMIX) and STATA (several), but not in SPSS ("pseudo-ML")

Intermediate Summary

• What is *not* new:

- > We will be starting with the same kind of univariate general linear models for single outcomes per person you already know (regression, ANOVA, ANCOVA) ...
- > We will practice interpreting main effects and interaction terms among all kinds of predictors (as needed for MLM)

• What *is* new:

Rather than finding the fixed effects and residual variance through least squares (which yields sums of squares, mean squares, and so forth), the program will find them using residual maximum likelihood, of which least squares is a special case with limited applicability for real data...

Testing Significance of Fixed Effects (of Predictors) in the Model for the Means

- Any single-df **fixed effect** has 4-5 relevant pieces of output:
 - > Estimate = best guess for the fixed effect from our data
 - Standard Error = index of the precision of fixed effect estimate (i.e., quality of the "most likely" estimate)
 - *t*-value or *z*-value = Estimate / Standard Error
 - > *p***-value** = probability that fixed effect estimate is $\neq 0$
 - 95% Confidence Interval = Estimate ± 1.96*SE = range in which true (population) value of estimate is expected to fall 95% of the time
- Compare test statistic (t or z) to critical value at chosen level of significance (known as alpha): this is a "univariate Wald test"
- Whether the *p*-value is based on *t* or *z* varies by program...

Evaluating Significance of Fixed Effects

Fixed effects can be tested via **Wald** tests: the ratio of its estimate/SE forms a statistic we compare to a distribution

	Denominator DF is infinite (Proper Wald test)	Denominator DF is estimated instead ("Modified" Wald test)
Numerator DF = 1 (test one fixed effect) is Univariate Wald Test	use z distribution (Mplus, STATA)	use t distribution (SAS, SPSS)
Numerator DF > 1 (test 2+ fixed effects) is Multivariate Wald Test	use χ² distribution (Mplus, STATA)	use F distribution (SAS, SPSS)
Denominator DF options (in Stata use "small", not a default)	not applicable, so DDF is not given	SAS, STATA 14: BW, KR SAS, STATA 14, SPSS: Satterthwaite

Standard Errors for Fixed Effects

- Standard Error (SE) for fixed effect estimate β_X in a one-predictor model (remember, SE is like the SD of the estimated parameter):

$$SE_{\beta X} = \sqrt{\frac{residual variance of Y}{variance of X*(N-k)}}$$

• When more than one predictor is included, SE turns into:

$$SE_{\beta_X} = \sqrt{\frac{residual variance of Y}{Var(X)*(1-R_X^2)*(N-k)}}$$

 $R_X^2 = X$ variance accounted for by other predictors, so $1-R_X^2 =$ unique X variance

- So all things being equal, SE is smaller when:
 - > More of the outcome variance has been reduced (better predictive model)
 - This means fixed effects can become significant later if R² is higher then
 - > The predictor has less covariance with other predictors (less collinearity)
 - Best case scenario: X is uncorrelated with all other predictors
- If SE is smaller \rightarrow *t*-value or *z*-value is bigger \rightarrow *p*-value is smaller

Multivariate Wald Tests of Fixed Effects

- General test for significance of **multiple fixed effects** at once
- Special cases of this you have already seen:
 - "Omnibus" F-test for the effect of a grouping variable
 - > *F*-Test of Model R^2 or change in R^2 in hierarchical regression
 - > Implies "numerator DF" > 1
- Available for sets of fixed effects via CONTRAST (in SAS or STATA) or TEST statements (in STATA, SPSS, or Mplus)
 - SAS CONTRAST: Separate each fixed effect by commas to indicate separate numerator DF
 - STATA TEST: List fixed effects in separate sets of parentheses to indicate separate numerator DF

Multivariate Wald Tests of Fixed Effects

- For example with 3 continuous predictors: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(X_{1i}) + \beta_2(X_{2i}) + \beta_3(X_{3i}) + e_i$
- The df=3 test of the model R² is given by default in STATA MIXED, but not in SAS
 - > Predictors are treated as continuous by default in SAS

```
PROC MIXED DATA=work.dataname METHOD=REML;
MODEL y = x1 x2 x3 / SOLUTION;
CONTRAST "Model R2 F-Test with df=3" x1 1, x2 1, x3 1;
RUN;
```

• Here is how you'd ask for it in Stata (c. indicates "continuous"):

```
mixed y c.x1 c.x2 c.x3, ///
variance reml dfmethod(residual)
    test (c.x1=0) (c.x2=0) (c.x3=0), small
```

Multivariate Wald Tests of Fixed Effects

 What if you wanted to test the R² change after including predictors X2 and X3?

 $y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}(X_{1i}) + \beta_{2}(X_{2i}) + \beta_{3}(X_{3i}) + e_{i}$

• Here is change in R² in SAS:

```
PROC MIXED DATA=work.dataname METHOD=REML;
MODEL y = x1 x2 x3 / SOLUTION;
CONTRAST "Change in R2 F-Test with df=2" x2 1, x3 1;
RUN;
```

• Here is change in R² in Stata (NOT provided by default):

```
mixed y c.x1 c.x2 c.x3, ///
variance reml dfmethod(residual),
    test (c.x2=0) (c.x3=0), small
```

Specifying the Effects of Predictors

- From now on, we will think carefully about exactly <u>how</u> the predictor variables are entered into the model for the means (i.e., by which a predicted outcome is created for each person)
- Why don't people always care? Because the scale of predictors:
 - > Does NOT affect the amount of outcome variance accounted for (R²)
 - Does NOT affect the outcomes values predicted by the model for the means (so long as the same predictor fixed effects are included)
- Why should this matter <u>to us</u>?
 - > Because the Intercept = expected outcome when all predictors = 0
 - Can end up with nonsense values for intercept if X = 0 isn't in the data, so we need to change the scale of the predictors to include 0
 - Scaling becomes more important once interactions are included or once random intercepts are included (i.e., variability around fixed intercept)

Why the Intercept β_0 *Should* Be Meaningful...



This is a very detailed map... But what do we need to know to be able to use the map at all?

What the Intercept β_0 *Should* Mean to You...

The model for the means will describe what happens to the predicted outcome Y "as X increases" or "as Z increases" and so forth...



math

But you won't know what the predicted outcome is supposed to be unless you know where the predictor variables are starting from!

Therefore, the **intercept** is the "YOU ARE HERE" sign in the map of your data... so it should be somewhere in the map*!

* There is no wrong way to center (or not), only weird...

What if I want a different intercept?

- Choosing a location for your model-estimated intercept does not lock you into only that reference location...
- ESTIMATE statements (in SAS) to the rescue!
 > TEST in SPSS, LINCOM in STATA, NEW in Mplus
- These statements allow to you to request model-predicted fixed effects for any values of your predictors (i.e., new intercept values = conditional/predicted outcomes)
- Rules for ESTIMATE-type statements:
 - > If you want a predicted outcome, you MUST include the intercept
 - Variable names sometimes refer to their predictor values, and sometimes to their model fixed effects, depending on what is being estimated
 - > The default value for continuous predictors is 0
 - > The default value for categorical predictors varies by program
 - Sometimes the mean across groups (SAS), or requires an input explicitly (SPSS)

Continuous Predictors

- For continuous (quantitative) predictors, <u>we</u> will make the intercept interpretable by centering (so new variable goes in the equation and the model):
 - Centering = subtract a constant from each person's variable value so that the 0 value falls within the range of the new centered predictor
 - > Typical → Center around predictor's mean: Centered $X_1 = X_1 \overline{X_1}$
 - Intercept is then expected outcome for "average X₁ person"
 - ▶ Better → Center around meaningful constant *C*: Centered $X_1 = X_1 C$
 - Intercept is then expected outcome for person with that constant (even 0 may be ok)
- These statements can be used to request predicted outcomes (i.e., intercepts) for specific combinations of predictor values
 - > SAS ESTIMATE: Must write a separate statement per prediction
 - > STATA MARGINS: Can specify a range of predictor values

Continuous Predictors

- For example: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(X_{1i} 10) + \beta_2(X_{2i} 5) + e_i$
- In SAS, requires separate statement per prediction

```
PROC MIXED DATA=work.dataname METHOD=REML;
MODEL y = x1c x2c / SOLUTION;
CONTRAST "Model R2 F-Test with df=2" x1c 1, x2c 1;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1=10, X2=5" intercept 1 x1c 0 x2c 0;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1= 8, X2=4" intercept 1 x1c -2 x2c -1;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1= 8, X2=6" intercept 1 x1c -2 x2c 1;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1=12, X2=4" intercept 1 x1c 2 x2c -1;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1=12, X2=6" intercept 1 x1c 2 x2c 1;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1=12, X2=6" intercept 1 x1c 2 x2c 1;
ESTIMATE "Pred Y if X1=12, X2=6" intercept 1 x1c 2 x2c 1;
RUN;
```

• In STATA, margins at(variable=(start(by)end)

```
mixed y c.xlc c.x2c, ///
variance reml dfmethod(residual),
test (c.x2=0) (c.x3=0), small
margins, at(xlc=(-2(2)2) x2c(-1(1)1)) vsquish
```

Categorical (Grouping) Predictors

- For categorical predictors, <u>either we or the program</u> will make the intercept interpretable by making a reference group
 - > Which is more convenient depends on what's in the rest of the model
- If you create your own reference group via the following, the program treats the new predictor variables as "continuous" even if they represent group differences!
 - > **To do it yourself: Denote a reference group** by giving it a 0 value on all predictor variables created from the original grouping variable, then β_0 = expected outcome for that reference group specifically
 - Accomplished via "dummy coding" (aka, "reference group coding")
 Two-group example using *Gender*: 0 = Men, 1 = Women

(or 0 = Women, 1 = Men)

- > Alternative approach I usually do not like to use:
 - → "Contrast/effect coding" → Gender: -0.5 = Men, 0.5 = Women

Categorical Predictors Modeled as Continuous

For 2+groups, we need: *dummy codes = #groups - 1*

- "Group" variable: Control=0, Treat1=1, Treat2=2, Treat3=3
- > Variables: $d1=0, 1, 0, 0 \rightarrow$ difference between Control and T1 $d2=0, 0, 1, 0 \rightarrow$ difference between Control and T2 $d3=0, 0, 0, 1 \rightarrow$ difference between Control and T3
- **d1**, **d2**, **and d3 are then continuous variables** as far as the program is concerned, which implies the following:
 - All predictors that distinguish the groups (e.g., d1, d2, d3) MUST be in the model to get these specific group-difference interpretations!
 - e.g., **MODEL** $y = d1 \rightarrow d1 = difference between T1 and mean of C,T2,T3$
 - Fixed effects for these dummy codes will not *directly* tell you about differences among non-reference groups...
 - e.g., **MODEL** $y = d1 d2 d3 \rightarrow$ won't give differences among T1,T2,T3
 - ... But you can still get them: **ESTIMATE** statements to the rescue!

Categorical Predictors Modeled as Continuous

- Model: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d1_i + \beta_2 d2_i + \beta_3 d3_i + e_i$
 - "Group" variable: Control=0, Treat1=1, Treat2=2, Treat3=3
 - New variables $d1=0, 1, 0, 0 \rightarrow$ difference between Control and T1 to be created $d2=0, 0, 1, 0 \rightarrow$ difference between Control and T2 for the model: $d3=0, 0, 0, 1 \rightarrow$ difference between Control and T3
- How does the model give us **all possible group differences**? By determining each group's mean, and then the difference...

Control Mean	Treatment 1	Treatment 2	Treatment 3
(Reference)	Mean	Mean	Mean
β ₀	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 d1_i$	$\beta_0 + \beta_2 d2_i$	$\beta_0 + \beta_3 d3_i$

 The model for the 4 groups directly provides 3 differences (control vs. each treatment), and indirectly provides the other 3 differences (differences between non-reference treatments) Categorical Predictors Modeled as Continuous

• Model: $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d1_i + \beta_2 d2_i + \beta_3 d3_i + e_i$

	Control Mean (Reference)	Treatment 1 Mean	Treatment 2 Mean	Treatment 3 Mean
	β ₀	$\beta_0 + \beta_1 d1_i$	$\beta_0 + \beta_2 d2_i$	$\beta_0 + \beta_3 d3_i$
		<u>Alt Group</u>	<u>Ref Group</u>	<u>Difference</u>
• Co	ontrol vs. T1	$= (\beta_0 + \beta_1) -$	- (β ₀)	$= \beta_1$
• Co	ontrol vs. T2	$= (\beta_0 + \beta_2) -$	- (β ₀)	$= \beta_2$
• Co	ontrol vs. T3	$= (\beta_0 + \beta_3) -$	- (β ₀)	$= \beta_3$
• T1	l vs. T2 =	$(\beta_0+\beta_2)$ -	- $(\beta_0 + \beta_1)$	$= \beta_2 - \beta_1$
• T1	l vs. T3 =	$(\beta_0+\beta_3)$ –	- $(\beta_0 + \beta_1)$	$= \beta_3 - \beta_1$
• T2	2 vs. T3 =	$(\beta_0+\beta_3)$ –	- $(\beta_0 + \beta_2)$	$=\beta_3-\beta_2$

ESTIMATEs with manual dummy codes

<u>Alt Group</u>	<u>Ref Group</u>	<u>Difference</u>	Note the order of the equations:
• Control vs. T1 = $(\beta_0 + \beta_1)$ –	(β ₀)	$= \beta_1$	the reference group mean
• Control vs. T2 = $(\beta_0 + \beta_2)$ –	(β ₀)	$=\beta_2$	is subtracted from
• Control vs. T3 = $(\beta_0 + \beta_3)$ –	(β ₀)	$= \beta_3$	the alternative group mean.
• T1 vs. T2 = $(\beta_0 + \beta_2) -$	$(\beta_0 + \beta_1)$	$=\beta_2-\beta_1$	In SAS ESTIMATE statements (or
• T1 vs. T3 = $(\beta_0 + \beta_3) -$	$(\beta_0 + \beta_1)$	$= \beta_3 - \beta_1$	SPSS TEST or STATA LINCOM), the variables refer to their fixed
• T2 vs. T3 = $(\beta_0 + \beta_3) -$	$(\beta_0 + \beta_2)$	$=\beta_3-\beta_2$	effects; the numbers refer to the
TITLE "Manual Contrasts	s for 4-Gr	oup Diffs":	operations of their fixed effects.
PROC MIXED DATA=work.da MODEL y = d1 d2 d3 / SC	ataname ME		
CONTRAST "Omnibus F-tes	st df=3 gr	—	ect" d1 1, d2 1, d3 1;
ESTIMATE "Control Mean" ESTIMATE "T1 Mean" ESTIMATE "T2 Mean" ESTIMATE "T3 Mean"	intercep intercep	t 1 d1 1 d2	0 d3 0; Intercepts are used <u>only</u>
ESTIMATE "Control vs. 3	T1" d1 T2" d1 T3" d1 d1 d1 d1	0 d2 1 d3 0 d2 0 d3 -1 d2 1 d3 -1 d2 0 d3	 addition; negative values indicate subtraction.

LINCOMs with manual dummy codes

	Alt Group Ref Group	<u>Difference</u>	Note the order of the equations:
Control vs. T1 =	$= (\beta_0 + \beta_1) - (\beta_0)$	$= \beta_1$	the reference group mean
• Control vs. T2 =	$= (\beta_0 + \beta_2) - (\beta_0)$	$=\beta_2$	<i>is subtracted from</i> the alternative group mean.
Control vs. T3 =	$= (\beta_0 + \beta_3) - (\beta_0)$	$= \beta_3$	the alternative group mean.
• T1 vs. T2 =	$(\beta_0+\beta_2) - (\beta_0+\beta_1)$	$= \beta_2 - \beta_1$	In SAS ESTIMATE statements (or SPSS TEST or STATA LINCOM),
• T1 vs. T3 =	$(\beta_0+\beta_3) - (\beta_0+\beta_1)$	$= \beta_3 - \beta_1$	the variables refer to their fixed
• T2 vs. T3 =	$(\beta_0+\beta_3) - (\beta_0+\beta_2)$	$= \beta_3 - \beta_2$	effects; the numbers refer to the
			operations of their fixed effects.
display as resu	ult "Manual Contrasts	s for 4-Group Di	ffs"

display as result "Manual Contrasts for 4-Group Diffs"
<pre>mixed y c.d1 c.d2 c.d3, /// variance reml dfmethod(residual),</pre>
test (c.d1=0) (c.d2=0) (c.d3=0), small // Omnibus F-test df=3 group main effect
lincom _cons*1 + c.d1*0 + c.d2*0 + c.d3*0, small // Control Mean
lincom _cons*1 + c.d1*1 + c.d2*0 + c.d3*0, small // T1 Mean
lincom _cons*1 + c.d1*0 + c.d2*1 + c.d3*0, small // T2 Mean
lincom _cons*1 + c.d1*0 + c.d2*0 + c.d3*1, small // T3 Mean
lincom c.dl*1 + c.d2*0 + c.d3*0, small // Control vs T1
lincom c.dl*0 + c.d2*1 + c.d3*0, small // Control vs T2
lincom c.dl*0 + c.d2*0 + c.d3*1, small // Control vs T3
lincom c.d1*-1 + c.d2*1 + c.d3*0, small // T1 vs T2
lincom c.d1*-1 + c.d2*0 + c.d3*1, small // T1 vs T3
lincom c.d1*0 + c.d2*-1 + c.d3*1, small // T2 vs T3

Using BY/CLASS/i. statements instead

- Designate as "categorical" predictor in program syntax
 - If you let SAS/SPSS do the dummy coding via CLASS/BY, then the highest/last group is default reference
 - In SAS 9.4 you can change reference group: REF='level' | FIRST | LAST but it changes that group to be last in the data (\rightarrow confusing)
 - "Type III test of fixed effects" provide omnibus tests by default
 - LSMEANS/EMMEANS can be used to get all means and comparisons without specifying each individual contrast
 - If you let STATA do the dummy coding via i.group, then the lowest/first group is default reference
 - Can change reference group, e.g., last = ref \rightarrow ib(last).group
 - CONTRAST used to get omnibus tests (not provided by default)
 - MARGINS can be used to get all means and comparisons with much less code than describing each individual contrast
 - ▹ No such thing as "categorical" predictors in Mplus ☺
 - You must create contrasts manually for all grouping variables

SAS Main effects of **Categorical** Predictors

TITLE "Program-Created Contrasts for 4-Group Diffs via CLASS";
PROC MIXED DATA=work.dataname METHOD=REML;
CLASS group;
MODEL y = group / SOLUTION;
LSMEANS group / DIFF=ALL;
CLASS tatement means "make
my dummy codes for me"

The <u>LSMEANS line</u> above gives you ALL of the following... note that one value has to be given for each possible level of the categorical predictor in *data* order

ESTIMATE "Control Mean" intercept 1 group 1 0 0 0; When predicting "T1 Mean" intercept 1 group 0 1 0 0; ESTIMATE intercepts, 1 means ESTIMATE "T2 Mean" intercept 1 group 0 0 1 0; intercept 1 group 0 0 0 1; ESTIMATE "T3 Mean" "for that group only" ESTIMATE "Control vs. T1" group -1 1 0 0; When predicting group ESTIMATE "Control vs. T2" group -1 0 1 0; group -1 0 0 ESTIMATE "Control vs. T3" 1; differences, contrasts must ESTIMATE "T1 vs. T2" group 0 -1 10; sum to 0; here -1 = ref, 1group 0 - 1 0ESTIMATE "T1 vs. T3" 1; ESTIMATE "T2 vs. T3" group $0 \quad 0 \quad -1$ 1; = alt, and 0 = ignore CONTRAST "Omnibus df=3 main effect F-test" group $-1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0$, group $-1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0$, **CLASS** also gives this contrast by default group -1 0 0 1;

Can also make up whatever contrasts you feel like using DIVISOR option:

```
ESTIMATE "Mean of Treat groups" intercept 1 group 0 1 1 1 / DIVISOR=3;
ESTIMATE "Control vs. Mean of Treat groups" group -3 1 1 1 / DIVISOR=3;
RUN;
PSOF 7375 Clustered: Lecture 2a
```

STATA Main effects of **Categorical** Predictors

display as result "Program-Created Contrasts for 4-Group Diffs"
display as result "i. means make my dummy codes for me (factor var)"
mixed y ib(last).group, /// variance reml dfmethod(residual),
contrast i.group, small // Omnibus F-test
margins i.group, pwcompare(pveffects) df(#)// Means per group and mean diffs

The <u>MARGINS line</u> above gives you ALL of the following... note that one value has to be given for each possible level of the categorical predictor in *data* order

lincom _cons*1 +	1.group*1 + 2.g	roup*0 + 3	.group*0 +	4.group*0, s	mall //	Control Mean	
lincom _cons*1 +	1.group*0 + 2.g	roup*1 + 3	.group*0 +	4.group*0, s	mall //	T1 Mean	
lincom _cons*1 +	1.group*0 + 2.g	roup*0 + 3	.group*1 +	4.group*0, s	mall //	T2 Mean	
lincom _cons*1 +	1.group*0 + 2.g	roup*0 + 3	.group*3 +	4.group*1, s	mall //	T3 Mean	
lincom	1.group*-1 + 2.	group*1 +	3.group*0	+ 4.group*(, small	// Control vs T	61
lincom	1.group*-1 + 2.	group*0 +	3.group*1	+ 4.group*(, small	// Control vs T	[2
lincom	1.group*-1 + 2.	group*0 +	3.group*0	+ 4.group*1	, small	// Control vs T	[3
lincom	1.group*0 + 2.	group*-1 +	3.group*1	+ 4.group*(, small	// T1 vs T2	
lincom	1.group*0 + 2.	group*-1 +	3.group*0	+ 4.group*1	, small	// T1 vs T3	
lincom	1.group*0 + 2.	group*0 +	3.group*-1	+ 4.group*1	, small	// T2 vs T3	

Can also make up whatever contrasts you feel like (no DIVISOR option?) :

Summary

- Today was about fixed effects in the model for the means
 - Within the context of GLM as a unifying starting point, but these same concepts will readily apply to MLM, SEM, etc
 - > Output will result from (residual) ML instead of least squares
- Key points to take with you:
 - Fixed effects are tested for significance using univariate or multivariate Wald tests (t- or z-value from ratio of estimate / SE)
 - All predictors should always have a meaningful 0 value (adjusting predictor scales is called "centering" or "recoding")
 - When you manually code one categorical predictor variable into separate dummy coded variables, they are then "continuous"
 - You can write code to request *model-implied* fixed effects (such as predicted outcomes or non-reference group differences)