

## Statistical Power of Approximate Tests in Two-Stage Nonlinear Mixed Models

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### Abstract

Here, we investigate power of tests about fixed effects parameters in nonlinear mixed models. For obtaining estimates of unknown model parameters needed for construction of test statistics, a two-stage approach is implemented. The tests of interest that shall be compared are the large-sample Wald and likelihood ratio tests as well as several approximate  $F$ -tests. For the Wald and approximate  $F$ -tests, we modify the test statistics by developing an approximation to the large-sample covariance matrix of estimates of fixed population parameters based on the Fisher information matrix. In contrast to previous research in which null properties of tests were investigated (Burton & Volaufova, 2014), our focus here is on comparing power of tests using various configurations of fixed model parameters under the alternative hypothesis. A simulation study using a one-compartment pharmacokinetic model is used for illustration.

**Key Words:** Nonlinear, mixed model, two-stage, power, testing, Fisher information matrix

### 1. Introduction

With respect to properties of hypothesis tests about fixed effects parameters in nonlinear mixed models, the literature focuses primarily on tests which are constructed from estimates based on some approximation of the marginal likelihood. These tests have been shown to have poor properties (e.g., Bertrand, Comets, & Mentré, 2008; Bertrand, Comets, Chenel, & Mentré, 2012; Volaufova, 2014). We focus instead on using a two-stage estimation approach that does not rely on the marginal likelihood. We have shown previously that certain tests, when constructed using two-stage estimates, have favorable properties under the null hypothesis (Volaufova & Burton, 2012; Burton, 2013; Burton & Volaufova, 2014). The goal here is to extend this research to include properties of the tests under the alternative hypothesis. In particular, we will compare power between the approximate  $F$ -tests and large-sample Wald and likelihood ratio tests.

### 2. Model and Methods

The nonlinear mixed model considered in this context is a random coefficients model for longitudinal data. Such a model can be defined as a hierarchical model with two levels (e.g., Davidian & Giltinan, 2003). The first is the *individual* level and is defined in terms of a single subject  $i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, N$  with responses observed at times  $t_{ij}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, T_i$ .

$$Y_i = f(\theta_i, X_i) + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, N. \quad (1)$$

In model (1),  $Y_i$  is a  $T_i$ -dimensional vector of responses,  $\theta_i$  is a  $p$ -dimensional vector of subject-specific parameters,  $X_i$  is a matrix containing within-subject covariates including observation times,  $f(\cdot)$  is a function that is nonlinear and twice differentiable with respect to  $\theta_i$ , and  $\varepsilon_i$  is a normally distributed  $T_i$ -dimensional random error vector with mean zero and covariance matrix  $\sigma^2 R(\phi)$ .

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The second level of the model is the *population* level. Here, the subject-specific parameters  $\theta_i$  are defined in terms of variation about a set of fixed population parameters.

$$\theta_i = g(a_i, \beta) + Bb_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad (2)$$

Here,  $a_i$  is a  $s$ -dimensional design vector,  $\beta$  is a  $r$ -dimensional vector of unknown fixed population parameters,  $g(\cdot)$  is a twice differentiable function of  $\beta$ ,  $B$  is a  $p \times q$  matrix used to indicate which components of  $\theta_i$  are random, and  $b_i$  is a  $q$ -vector of normally distributed random effects with mean zero and covariance matrix  $D(\lambda)$ .

In order to obtain the general form of the nonlinear mixed model, these two levels can be combined by plugging (2) in for  $\theta_i$  in (1).

## 2.1 Two-Stage Estimation

Rather than combining the two levels of the hierarchical model defined in the previous section, we utilize a two-stage approach to obtain estimates of the unknown model parameters. Before proceeding, we shall make some simplifications to the context in which we will investigate. First, we only consider the case in which  $\text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2 I_{T_i}$ . Second, we shall assume that the entire vector  $\theta_i$  is random. That is,  $q = p$  and  $B = I_q = I_p$ . Last, we shall assume that the relationship between  $\theta_i$  and  $\beta$  is linear (i.e.,  $g(a_i, \beta) = A_i\beta$ , where  $A_i = I \otimes a_i'$ , (e.g., Vonesh & Carter, 1987)).

The two-stage estimation approach begins with obtaining ordinary nonlinear least squares (ONLS) estimates of  $\theta_i$  from (1). For this approach to be viable, there must be a sufficient number of observations ( $T_i$ ) per subject. If this condition is met for subject  $i$ , we get ONLS estimates via the objective function

$$Q(\theta_i) = [y_i - f(\theta_i, X_i)]' [y_i - f(\theta_i, X_i)], \quad (3)$$

where

$$\tilde{\theta}_i = \arg \min_{\theta_i} Q(\theta_i).$$

Under certain regularity conditions (see Burton (2013) and the references therein), we can assume asymptotic normality and approximate the marginal mean and covariance matrix of  $\tilde{\theta}_i$  (Burton, 2013) as

$$E(\tilde{\theta}_i) \approx A_i\beta \quad (4)$$

and

$$\text{Cov}(\tilde{\theta}_i) \approx D(\lambda) + \sigma^2 [Z_i(\beta)' Z_i(\beta)]^{-1} \equiv W_i(\beta, \vartheta). \quad (5)$$

In (5), the covariance matrix  $W_i$  is a function of both fixed effects parameters  $\beta$  and variance-covariance parameters  $\vartheta = (\lambda, \sigma^2)'$ . From this marginal distribution of  $\tilde{\theta}_i$ , then, we can define the second-stage model as a generalized linear mixed model with form

$$\tilde{\theta}_i = A_i\beta + u_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad (6)$$

where  $u_i$  is a normally distributed error term with mean zero and covariance matrix  $W_i(\beta, \vartheta)$ . Using model (6), we can utilize maximum likelihood methodology to estimate the unknown parameters (see Burton (2013) for details).

## 2.2 Hypothesis Testing

The focus of this research is investigation of properties of tests of linear combinations of fixed effects parameters. The hypotheses of interest are of form:

$$H_0 : L'\beta = h_0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : L'\beta \neq h_0, \quad (7)$$

where  $L$  is a known  $r \times c$  matrix of full column rank. Commonly used tests are the large-sample Wald test and likelihood ratio test (LRT), both of which are asymptotically  $\chi^2$  distributed with degrees of freedom  $c$ . Additionally, approximate  $F$ -tests can be used, with test statistic

$$F^* = (1/c)(L'\hat{\beta} - h_0)'[\hat{\text{Cov}}(L'\hat{\beta})]^{-1}(L'\hat{\beta} - h_0). \tag{8}$$

Under the null hypothesis  $H_0$ ,  $F^*$  is approximately  $F$ -distributed with numerator degrees of freedom  $c$  and denominator degrees of freedom ( $ddf$ ) denoted  $\nu$ . When constructing such tests, the key points are the covariance matrix of  $L'\hat{\beta}$  (see Section 2.2.1) and the choice of  $\nu$ . In the simulation study described in Section 3,  $ddf$  for the approximate  $F$ -tests investigated are either  $N - q$ , where  $N$  is number of subjects and  $q$  is number of random effects (Wolfinger, 2000), or Fai-Cornelius-Satterthwaite type approximate degrees of freedom (Fai & Cornelius, 1996).

The focus here, however, will be on power of the tests. Thus, we are investigating under the alternative hypothesis. In this nonlinear setting, the distributions of the test statistics under  $H_1$  are unknown.

### 2.2.1 Approximate Covariance Matrix of $\hat{\beta}$

Assuming large-sample normality of  $\tilde{\theta}_i$ , we can define the Fisher information matrix as

$$\mathcal{I}(\varphi) = - \sum_{i=1}^N E \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 \ell_i(\varphi|\tilde{\theta}_i)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta'} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell_i(\varphi|\tilde{\theta}_i)}{\partial \beta \partial \gamma'} \\ \frac{\partial^2 \ell_i(\varphi|\tilde{\theta}_i)}{\partial \gamma \partial \beta'} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell_i(\varphi|\tilde{\theta}_i)}{\partial \gamma \partial \gamma'} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} J(\varphi) & C(\varphi) \\ C'(\varphi) & B(\varphi) \end{pmatrix}, \tag{9}$$

where  $\ell_i(\cdot)$  is the normal log-likelihood,  $\varphi$  is the vector of all unknown model parameters, and  $J(\varphi)$ ,  $B(\varphi)$ , and  $C(\varphi)$  represent blocks of  $\mathcal{I}(\varphi)$ .

Using the Schur complement to invert (9), we get the following expression for the approximate covariance matrix of  $\hat{\beta}$  (e.g., Retout, Mentré, & Bruno, 2002; Retout & Mentré, 2003; Volaufova & Burton, 2012; Burton, 2013; Burton & Volaufova, 2014):

$$\text{Cov}_S(\hat{\beta}) \approx J(\varphi)^{-1} + J(\varphi)^{-1}C(\varphi)\text{Cov}_S(\hat{\vartheta})C'(\beta, \vartheta)J(\varphi)^{-1}, \tag{10}$$

where  $\text{Cov}_S(\hat{\vartheta}) \approx [B(\varphi) - C'(\varphi)J(\varphi)^{-1}C(\varphi)]^{-1}$  and the subscript  $S$  refers to the Schur complement based approach. The result is similar in nature to what was done in the linear mixed model by Kenward and Roger (1997), such that the covariance matrix of  $\hat{\beta}$  consists of two terms, the second of which accounts for variability in  $\hat{\beta}$  due to estimating  $\vartheta$ .

A simpler approach to finding an expression for the covariance matrix of  $\hat{\beta}$  is to ignore the dependence of (5) on  $\beta$  (e.g., Mielke & Schwabe, 2010; Mielke, 2011). Doing so results in a second-stage model that has the form of a typical linear mixed model:

$$\tilde{\theta}_i = A_i\beta + u_i^*, \quad u_i^* \sim N(0, D^*), \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \tag{11}$$

where  $D^*$  is some positive definite matrix that is a function only of variance-covariance parameters. From (11) we get

$$\text{Cov}_A(\hat{\beta}) \approx \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N A_i' D^{*-1} A_i \right]^{-1}, \tag{12}$$

where subscript  $A$  is short for *alternative*.

Estimates of both matrices (10) and (12) needed for calculating Wald and approximate  $F$ -test statistics can be obtained by plugging in maximum likelihood estimates  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\hat{\vartheta}$ .

**Table 1:** Descriptions and legend labels of tests investigated.

Label	Cov. Approx.	Statistic	df	Distribution
Wald	$\hat{\text{Cov}}_S(\hat{\beta})$	Wald(= $cF_S^*$ )	$c$	$\chi^2$
LRT	N/A	LRT	$c$	$\chi^2$
Wolf	$\hat{\text{Cov}}_S(\hat{\beta})$	$F_S^*$ (Wolfinger)	$N - q$	$F(c, N - q)$
Satt	$\hat{\text{Cov}}_S(\hat{\beta})$	$F_S^*$ (Satterthwaite)	$\nu_S$	$F(c, \nu_S)$
A	$\hat{\text{Cov}}_A(\hat{\beta})$	$F_A^*$ (Satterthwaite)	$\nu_A$	$F(c, \nu_A)$

### 3. Simulation Study

In order to investigate the power of the tests of interest constructed under the two-stage estimation scheme, we use a simulation study. We first define our null and alternative hypotheses:

$$H_0 : L'\beta = 0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : L'\beta \neq 0. \quad (13)$$

In this study, data are generated under various parameter configurations under the alternative hypothesis, empirical power is estimated for each test, and results are compared graphically.

#### 3.1 One-Compartment Pharmacokinetic Model

For illustration of the methodology described here, we carry out a simulation study in which data are generated from a one-compartment pharmacokinetic (PK) model for an intravenous (IV) bolus. The *individual* level of the two-stage model is defined

$$Y_{ij} = \frac{d}{V_i} e^{-\left(\frac{Cl_i}{V_i}\right)t_{ij}} + \varepsilon_{ij}, \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad j = 1, \dots, T_i. \quad (14)$$

In this model, the subject-specific parameters are  $Cl_i = e^{\theta_{1i}}$  and  $V_i = e^{\theta_{2i}}$ , which are PK parameters representing clearance and volume of distribution. They are exponentiated in order to ensure positive values. Other model components are drug dose  $d$ , time points  $t_{ij}$ , and mutually independent error terms  $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ .

For this simulation study, we are comparing two populations. We can define the *population* level of the two-stage model, for the first population:

$$\theta_{1i} = \beta_1 + b_{1i}; \quad \theta_{2i} = \beta_2 + b_{2i} \quad (15)$$

and, for the second population:

$$\theta_{1i} = \beta_1 + \delta_1 + b_{1i}; \quad \theta_{2i} = \beta_2 + \delta_2 + b_{2i}. \quad (16)$$

Using these definitions for our two populations, we can set  $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$  to generate data under the null hypothesis. Values for  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  are the same in both populations and take values  $\beta_1 = \log(1.25)$  and  $\beta_2 = \log(10)$  as in Hartford and Davidian (2000). For the covariance matrix of  $b_i$ ,

$$D(\lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.086 & 0.052 \\ 0.052 & 0.086 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The dose  $d = 100$  is the same for all subjects, and two values of  $\sigma^2$  are used, 1.0 and 2.0.

In order to generate data under the alternative hypothesis, several non-zero values of  $\delta_1$  are specified. Assigning a non-zero value to this parameter represents a difference between

**Table 2:** Adjusted empirical power of investigated tests.

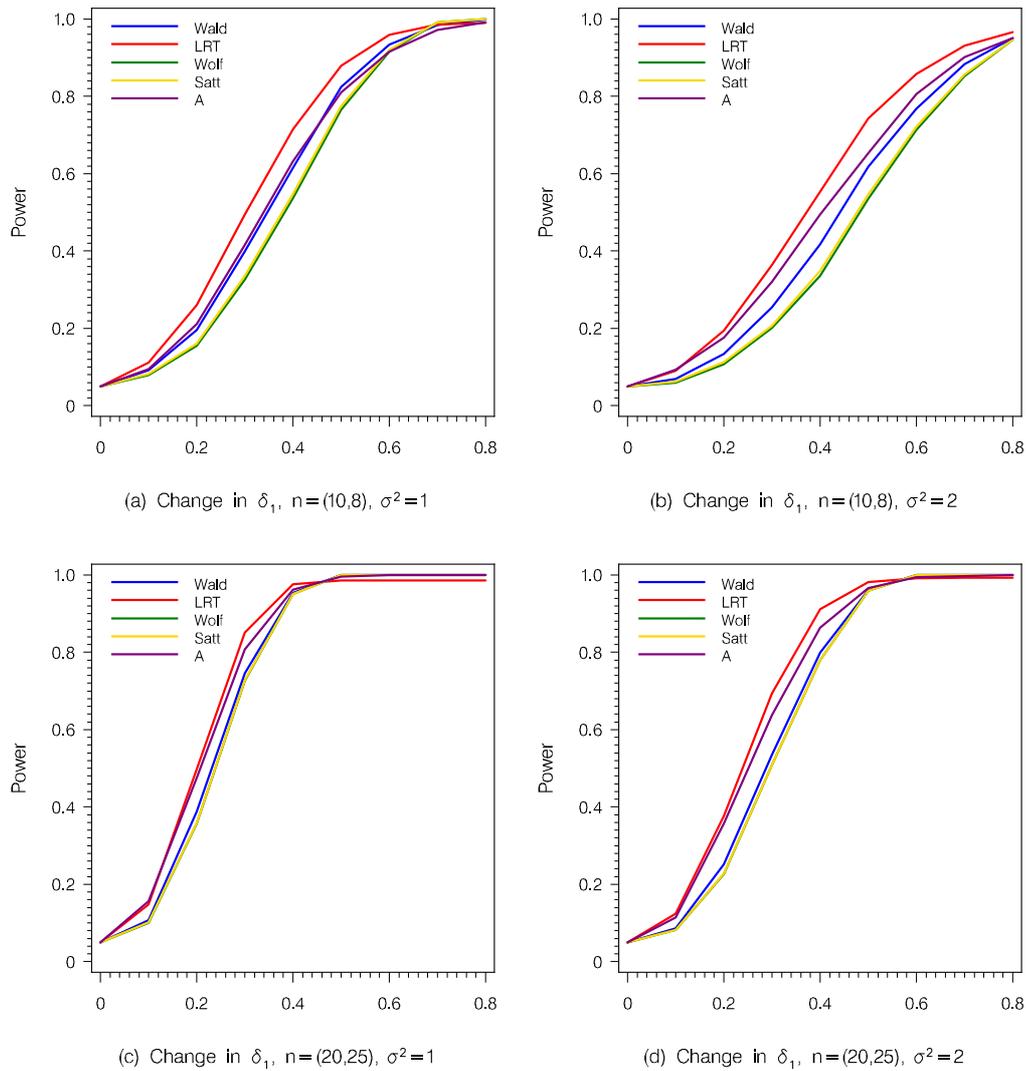
$(n_1, n_2)$	$\sigma^2$	$\delta_1$	Wald	LRT	Wolf	Satt	A
(10, 8)	1.0	0.1	0.092	0.111	0.080	0.082	0.094
		0.2	0.196	0.260	0.155	0.161	0.211
		0.3	0.399	0.495	0.327	0.337	0.416
		0.4	0.615	0.714	0.537	0.548	0.632
		0.5	0.824	0.879	0.766	0.776	0.811
		0.6	0.934	0.960	0.916	0.919	0.916
		0.7	0.984	0.986	0.991	0.991	0.971
		0.8	0.999	0.990	1.000	1.000	0.991
	2.0	0.1	0.069	0.091	0.059	0.062	0.093
		0.2	0.133	0.194	0.107	0.113	0.176
		0.3	0.254	0.363	0.201	0.208	0.321
		0.4	0.417	0.553	0.337	0.348	0.495
		0.5	0.618	0.743	0.536	0.546	0.654
		0.6	0.768	0.858	0.713	0.722	0.807
		0.7	0.883	0.932	0.853	0.857	0.902
		0.8	0.950	0.967	0.946	0.947	0.951
(20, 25)	1.0	0.1	0.107	0.148	0.100	0.101	0.156
		0.2	0.388	0.497	0.358	0.358	0.474
		0.3	0.746	0.852	0.726	0.727	0.808
		0.4	0.953	0.976	0.951	0.951	0.963
		0.5	0.999	0.986	1.000	1.000	0.996
		0.6	1.000	0.987	1.000	1.000	1.000
		0.7	1.000	0.987	1.000	1.000	1.000
		0.8	1.000	0.987	1.000	1.000	1.000
	2.0	0.1	0.086	0.124	0.082	0.083	0.115
		0.2	0.252	0.376	0.226	0.228	0.357
		0.3	0.535	0.694	0.508	0.509	0.638
		0.4	0.799	0.912	0.780	0.780	0.864
		0.5	0.960	0.982	0.959	0.959	0.967
		0.6	1.000	0.991	1.000	1.000	0.994
		0.7	1.000	0.992	1.000	1.000	0.998
		0.8	1.000	0.993	1.000	1.000	1.000

the two populations in the fixed parameter  $\beta_1$ . For each alternative hypothesis configuration, the value assigned to  $\delta_1$  ranges from 0.1 to 0.8. Samples are generated with equal observation times per subject using the vector  $t_i = (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 12, 24)'$ . Two sample size options  $(n_1, n_2) = (10, 8)$  and  $(n_1, n_2) = (20, 25)$  are used. For each model configuration, 5000 replications are generated.

Table 1 details each test investigated and assigns a corresponding label to be used for identification in the figures.

### 3.1.1 Power

For each model configuration, power was defined as the proportion of  $p$ -values from each test less than the nominal significance level 0.05. Because these tests have different em-



**Figure 1:** Adjusted power of tests constructed using parameter estimates obtained via two-stage estimation scheme.

empirical type I error rates, estimated power was adjusted such that each test has power of 0.05 under  $H_0$ , making the comparisons more meaningful. For each test, this was done by adjusting estimated power for all model configuration under  $H_1$  by the difference between estimated power under  $H_0$  and 0.05.

### 3.2 Results

In Figure 1, subfigures (a) and (b) represent adjusted empirical power curves for tests under the smallest sample size setting  $(n_1, n_2) = (10, 8)$ . For subfigure (a), data was generated with error variance  $\sigma^2 = 1$ . Here, the LRT has the highest adjusted power. The two approximate  $F$ -tests, *Wolf* and *Satt*, have the lowest adjusted power among the tests investigated and perform very similar to one another. Between are the Wald test and the approximate  $F$ -test *A*, which also perform very similarly in terms of adjusted power. Looking at subfigure (b) in which error variance  $\sigma^2 = 2$ , all of the curves are shifted to the right. This indicates that the power is lower for the same changes in  $\delta_1$  when  $\sigma^2$  is increased from 1 to 2.

In the two lower subfigures (c) and (d), adjusted power curves are displayed for the

larger sample size setting  $(n_1, n_2) = (20, 25)$ . In comparison to the empirical adjusted power curves for the tests under the smaller sample size setting, the curves here approach 1.0 (100% power) more rapidly. That is, all of the tests are able to detect changes in  $\delta_1$  with higher power when sample size is increased. The ordering of the tests from highest power to lowest power remains the same as observed in the smaller sample size setting. Here, however, the Wald test performs more similarly to approximate  $F$ -tests *Wolf* and *Satt*, and the approximate  $F$ -test *A* is more similar in terms of adjusted power to the LRT.

Estimates of adjusted power under each model configuration investigated can be found in Table 2.

#### 4. Discussion

The research presented here is an extension of Burton and Volaufova (2014), in which properties of the Wald test, likelihood ratio test, and approximate  $F$ -tests were investigated under the null hypothesis. The conclusions about power of these tests is limited to a single simulation study (see Section 3). In order to draw more concrete conclusions, additional simulation studies are required in which a broader range of model configurations and additional models are explored. Based solely on the model and model configurations explored here, the likelihood ratio test appears to be most powerful in all settings. Currently investigations are underway to determine properties of these tests under the null (type I error rate, accuracy of p-values) and alternative (power) hypotheses in a more general framework. Here, we make simplifications with respect to the covariance matrix of the error vector  $\varepsilon_i$ . It may be more meaningful to determine these properties under a general structure for this matrix which will require a different estimation method for developing the second stage model (6).

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