

Variance component models Analysis of repeated measurements, NFA 2016

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Topics for today

Linear mixed models for clustered data and repeated measurements in general, i.e. not just for longitudinal data.

New concepts:

- \blacktriangleright random effects
- \blacktriangleright variance components
- \blacktriangleright multi-level models

Suggested reading:

- \blacktriangleright Fitzmaurice et al. (2011): chapters 8, 21, 22.
- ▶ Bland & Altman: Statistical methods for assessing agreement between two methods of clinical measurement, Lancet (1986).
- \triangleright Merlo et al: Diastolic blood pressure and area of residence: multilevel versus ecological analysis of social inequity, J. Epedimiol. Community Health, (2001)

Outline

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Analysis of repeated measurements

Many applications:

- \blacktriangleright Longitudinal data (lecture 2)
- \triangleright Cluster randomized trials/multi-center studies.
- \triangleright Reproducibility/reliability of measurement methods.
- \triangleright Treatments applied to multiple limbs, teeth, etc within the same subject.
- \triangleright Cross-over trials (lecture 4).

ATT: Measurements belonging to the same subject/cluster are correlated. If we fail to take correlation into account our statistical results may be biased.

Sources of variation / correlation

Measurements belonging to the same subject/cluster tend to be correlated (look alike) due to e.g.

 \blacktriangleright Environmental variation.

- \triangleright Between regions, hospitals or work places.
- \triangleright Biological variation.
	- \triangleright Between individuals, families or animals.

Today: Use random effects (variance components) to model various sources of variation in a linear mixed model framework.

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One-way analysis of variance – with **random** variation

The simplest possible model for clustered data.

 \triangleright Comparison of *k* groups or clusters, satisfying:

 \triangleright The groups are of no individual interest and it is of no relevance to test whether they have identical means.

 \triangleright The groups may be thought of as representatives from a population, that we want to describe.

Example: Rabbit data

- \blacktriangleright $R = 6$ rabbits vaccinated.
- In $S = 6$ spots on the back.

Response: swelling in cm²

Research question:

How much swelling can be expected in reaction to the vaccine?

Random effects anova (the two-level model)

We let each rabbit have its own level of swelling described as

$$
Y_{rs} = A_r + \varepsilon_{rs}
$$

▶ We assume that these individual levels are randomly sampled from a normally distributed population,

$$
A_r \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \omega_B^2)
$$

 \triangleright The error terms are considered to be independent normal,

$$
\varepsilon_{rs} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2_W)
$$

The rabbit levels are so-called random effects and the variances ω_B^2 and σ_W^2 are so-called variance components describing the variance **between rabbits** and **within rabbits**, respectively.

,

Implications of random effects anova

All observations are considered as randomly sampled measurements from the **same population**. Thus, the model implies that all measurements follow the same normal distribution:

$$
Y_{rs} \sim N(\mu, \omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2)
$$

- \triangleright Population mean μ , the grand mean.
- ► Population variance $\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2$, the total variation.

But: Measurements made on the same rabbit are correlated with the so-called intra-class correlation

$$
Corr(y_{r1}, y_{r2}) = \rho = \frac{\omega_B^2}{\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2}
$$

Compound symmetry

The implied covariance of the repeated measurements has a compound symmetry pattern:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\n\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2 & \omega_B^2 & \dots & \omega_B^2 \\
\omega_B^2 & \omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2 & \dots & \omega_B^2 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\omega_B^2 & \omega_B^2 & \dots & \omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2\n\end{pmatrix}
$$

In particular all pairs of spots on the same rabbit are assumed to be equally correlated (with the intra-class correlation).

Exchangeability

If any two pairs of measurements are equally correlated we say that the measurements are exchangeable.

 \triangleright Are the spots randomly selected - ???

If not, an unstructured covariance is more apropriate

 \triangleright Some spots are expected to respond more similarly than others (physiological/spatial correlation pattern).

In other situations exchangeability is obvious

 \triangleright E.g. patients sampled randomly from several GPs.

Random effects anova in PROC MIXED

```
PROC MIXED DATA=rabbit;
  CLASS rabbit;
  MODEL swelling = / SOLUTION;
  RANDOM rabbit;
RUN;
```
Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm Estimate

rabbit 0.3304 Residual 0.5842

Solution for Fixed Effects

Estimation of variance components

$$
\mathsf{ICC} = \frac{\omega_B^2}{\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2} = 0.36.
$$

Quite a lot of variability **within** rabbits - ?

- \triangleright Are there systematic differences between the spots?
- \triangleright Or perhaps measurements just aren't that precise.

Beware not to **overinterpret** the estimates in a small dataset!

Interpreation of variance components

Typical differences between spots on **different** rabbits:

$$
y_{r_1s_1} - y_{r_2s_2} = \alpha_{r_1} - \alpha_{r_2} + \varepsilon_{r_1s_1} - \varepsilon_{r_2s_2}
$$

$$
\sim N(0, 2 \cdot (\sigma_B^2 + \omega_W^2))
$$

▶ 95% normal range:
$$
0 \pm 2\sqrt{2\sigma_B^2 + 2\omega_W^2} = \pm 2.70
$$
 cm²

Typical differences between spots on the **same** rabbit:

$$
y_{rs_1} - y_{rs_2} = \varepsilon_{rs_1} - \varepsilon_{rs_2}
$$

$$
\sim N(0, 2\omega_W^2)
$$

▶ 95% normal range:
$$
0 \pm 2\sqrt{2\omega_W^2} = \pm 2.16
$$
 cm²

Why not use traditional one-way anova?

Focus on rabbit means and test $H_0: \mu_1 = \ldots = \mu_6$.

One-way anova table:

Test for identical rabbits means: $F = 4.39 \sim F(5, 30)$, $P = 0.004$.

But: We are not interested in these particular 6 rabbits, only in rabbits in general, as a **species**! Presumably these 6 rabbits have been **randomly sampled** from the species.

One-way anova with and without random variation

Classical one-way anova

- \blacktriangleright The rabbit means μ_r are fixed parameters, - supposedly of an interest of their own.
- \triangleright We say that the rabbit factor is a fixed effect.

Random effects one-way anova

- \triangleright The rabbit levels A_r are considered random and their population mean μ and variance $\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2$ is the major interest.
- \triangleright We say that the rabbit factor is a random effect.
- \triangleright (If data is from a pilot study used in the planning of some trial, the intra-class correlation will also be of interest).

Estimation of individual rabbit means

Sometimes estimates of individual random effects are used for e.g. prediction of future disease status.

How do we estimate them?

- \triangleright Simple averages \bar{y}_r of the individual measurements.
- ▶ Best unbiased linear predictors (BLUPs) are **weighted averages** of the individual and the population mean:

$$
\frac{\tilde{\omega}_B^2}{\tilde{\omega}_B^2 + \frac{\tilde{\sigma}_W^2}{S}} \bar{y}_r + \frac{\frac{\tilde{\sigma}_W^2}{S}}{\tilde{\omega}_B^2 + \frac{\tilde{\sigma}_W^2}{S}} \bar{y}.
$$

They have been ${\sf shrinked}$ towards the grand mean, $\bar{y}_{..}$.

Note: We see larger shrinkage for rabbit no. 2 when the 3 smallest measurements from this rabbit have been removed (i.e. we are borrowing strenght from the neighbours).

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Fixed or random effect?

Fixed effects such as treatment, gender, and time.

- \triangleright Typically a limited number of carefully selected groups.
- \triangleright Group names are specific and cannot be shuffled.
- \triangleright Each group must have a decent size in order to reach interesting conclusions (statistical power).

Random effect such as subject, rat or familly.

- \triangleright Possibly a large number of different groups.
- \triangleright Group names are non-informative (number of subject, rat or family) and could be shuffled without consequence.
- \triangleright Allows inference to be extended beyond the subjects in the experiment and to the population they were sampled from.
- \triangleright The number of groups matters not the size of the groups.

Testing fixed effects

Imagine that rabbits are grouped in two (e.g. treatments):

- \triangleright Part of the variation *between rabbits* could be explained by systematic differences between groups.
- \triangleright Part of the variation within rabbits could be explained by systematic differences between spots.

Testing fixed effects with PROC MIXED

```
PROC MIXED DATA=rabbit;
  CLASS group rabbit spot;
  MODEL swelling = group spot / SOLUTION CL DDFM=KR;
  RANDOM rabbit;
RUN;
```
Output:

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Cov Parm Estimate

Testing fixed effects with PROC MIXED

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Solution for Fixed Effects

Disregarding repeated measurements

When the **random rabbit variation** is ignored:

```
PROC GLM DATA=rabbit;
  CLASS group spot;
  MODEL swelling=group spot / SOLUTION CLPARM;
RUN;
Source DF Type III SS Mean Square F Value Pr > F
```


Too small standard errors for estimates of difference between groups and too large standard errors for estimates of differences between spots!

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General variance component models

Generalisations of ANOVA and GLM models involving several sources of random variation, so-called variance components.

Examples of sources of random variation:

- \blacktriangleright Environmental variation
	- \triangleright Between regions, hospitals or work places.
- \triangleright Biological variation.
	- \triangleright Between individuals, families or animals.
- \triangleright Within-individual variation.
	- \triangleright Between arms, teeth, days.
- \triangleright Variation due to uncontrollable circumstances.
	- \blacktriangleright E.g. time of day, temperature, observer.
- \blacktriangleright Measurement error.

Multilevel models

Variance component models are also called multilevel models.

- \blacktriangleright Levels are most often hierarchical.
- \triangleright We have variation, i.e. a variance component, on each level.
- And possibly systematic effects (covariates) on each level.

Merits of multilevel models

We get a better understanding of the various sources of variation.

Effects within may be estimated more precisely (higher power), since some sources of variation are eliminated, e.g. by making comparisons within a family. This is analogous to the **paired comparison** situation.

When planning investigations, estimates of the variance components are needed in order to compare the power of various designs, and help us decide

- \blacktriangleright How many replicates do we need at each level?
- \triangleright Should we randomize entire clusters or randomize within the clusters?

Design considerations

(**Note** in analogy with cluster-randomized trials.)

Plan an experiment with:

- \blacktriangleright *R* rabbits.
- \triangleright *S* spots for each rabbit.
- \blacktriangleright $R \times S$ measurements.

Std. error of grand mean,

$$
\text{var}(\bar{y}) = \frac{\omega_B^2}{R} + \frac{\sigma_W^2}{RS},
$$

decreases with *R* and *S*.

Effective sample size

How many rabbits would we need to obtain the same precision in estimating the grand mean if we had **only one measurement** on each of R_1 rabbits?

Solve an equation to get:

$$
R_1 = \frac{R \times S}{1 + \rho(S - 1)}
$$

where ρ is the within rabbit correlation.

$$
\blacktriangleright \text{ Estimate: } \rho = \frac{\omega_B^2}{\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2} = \frac{0.3304}{0.3304 + 0.5842} = 0.361 \Rightarrow R_1 = 12.8
$$

I.e. one measurement on each of thirteen rabbits gives the **same precision** as six measurements on each of six rabbits.

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Drawbacks of multilevel models

Their statistical analysis is more difficult.

 \triangleright When making inference (estimation and testing), it is important to take all sources of variation into account, and effects have to be evaluated against the relevant variation.

If we fail to take the correlation into account, we will experience:

- \triangleright Possible bias in the mean value estimates.
- \triangleright Too small standard errors (type 1 error) for estimates of level 2 covariates (between-cluster effects).
- \triangleright Too large standard errors (type 2 error) for estimates of level 1 covariates (within-cluster effects)

Case: Cortisol and stress-response

Outcome: Concentration of cortisol in salvia samples taken **mornings and evenings** in workers in Aarhus amt and kommune in 2007 (3536 participants, 786 men) with follow-up in 2009 (2408 participants, 520 men).

Interest: effect of stressors: life events, Effort Reward Index.

Reference: from PRISM study, personal cummunication with Sigurd Mikkelser.

Log-transformed concentrations

Three-level model

```
title1 'variance components';
PROC MIXED DATA=prism_men;
  CLASS idnr year (ref='2007') timeday;
  MODEL logkonc = timeday year / SOLUTION CL DDFM=KR;
  RANDOM idnr idnr*year;
RUN;
```


Convergence criteria met.

Covariance Parameter Estimates

One of the variance component estimates is a zero!

Estimated variance components

Level 2 covariates (stressors) can only have **very little impact on individual cortisol koncentrations**!

Negative variance components

In case on of the variance component estimates becomes negative, SAS repports a zero.

What does it mean?

- \triangleright The zero-estimate may be a chance finding due to statistical uncertainty.
- \triangleright Or it might be the result of truly negative correlation within clusters - e.g. competition between plants grown in same pot.

What can we do about it?

- \triangleright Re-fit the model without the problematic random effect.
- \triangleright Use an unstructured covariance allowing negative correlation
- Include more level 1 covariates, e.g. exact sampling time.

Systematic effects

Solution for Fixed Effects

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Cortisol is measured on **log-scale**. Backtransformation $\exp(2.0137) \simeq 7.49$ yields that median levels of kortisol is an estimated 7.5 times higher in the morning than in the evening.

Exact time of measurement should be taken into account!!!

Explained variation (*R* 2)

We consider only the simplest case, i.e. the two-level model

 \triangleright we have several variances that can be explained.

Variation within individuals (residual variation):

- \triangleright decreases when we include an important level 1 covariate (x_1)
- \triangleright may also decrease when we include an important level 2 covariate (x_2) .

Variation between individuals:

- \triangleright decreases when we include an important level 2 covariate (x_2)
- \triangleright may increase or decrease when we include an important level 1 covariate (x_1)

Total variance decreases when including an important covariate 39 / 68

Hypothetical example I

Covariate *x*¹ varies between individuals, and the variation in individual averages (\bar{y}) is mostly due to this variation.

Levels of *y*, for fixed *x* are quite alike:

 $\blacktriangleright \omega_B^2$ **decreases** when x_1 is included.

Hypothetical example II

Covariate x_1 vary between individuals, but the average outcomes (\bar{y}) are almost identical:

Levels of *y*, for fixed *x* are very different:

 $\blacktriangleright \omega_B^2$ **increases** when *x* is included.

Technical explanation*?*

A balanced design (same number of observations per cluster):

Explicit solution for the two-level model:

$$
\tilde{\sigma}_W^2 = \text{MS}_W
$$
 and $\tilde{\omega}_B^2 = \text{MS}_B - \frac{\text{MS}_W}{n}$

- \blacktriangleright MS_{*W*} and MS_{*B*} are Mean Squares within and between clusters, defined as in one-way ANOVA.
- \blacktriangleright *n* is the number of observations per cluster.

This is deduced from $E(\mathsf{MS}_B) = n\omega_B^2 + \sigma_W^2$ and $E(\mathsf{MS}_W) = \sigma_W^2$.

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Ecological analyses

The easy way of dealing with repeated measurements:

- \triangleright Compute summary statistics for each cluster/individual.
- \triangleright Perform a traditional analysis on the sample of summary statistics rightfully assuming that these are independent.

Summary statistics could be:

- \triangleright Sample mean or standard deviation.
- \blacktriangleright AUC (area under the curve).
- \blacktriangleright Intercept and slope of regression line.

BUT: Beware of loosing important information.

Ecological vs two-level analysis

Blood pressure and social inequity: 15569 women in 17 regions of Malmø.

Covariates:

- \blacktriangleright Individual (level 1):
	- \triangleright low educational achievement (x) (less than 9 years of school)
	- \rightharpoonup age group
- \triangleright Regional (level 2):
	- \triangleright rate of people with low educational achievement (*z*) from the 'Skåne Council Statistics Office' An aggregated covariate.

Reference: Merlo et al (2001), J. Epidemiol Community Health **55**.

Abstract

Study objectives—To study geographical differences in diastolic blood pressure and the influence of the social environment (census percentage of people with low educational achievement) on individual diastolic blood pressure level, after controlling for individual age and educational achievement. To compare the results of multilevel and ecological analyses.

Design-Cross sectional analysis performed by multilevel linear regression modelling, with women at the first level and urban areas at the second level, and by single level ecological regression using areas as the unit of analysis.

Setting—Malmö, Sweden (population 250 000).

Participants-15 569 women aged 45 to 73, residing in 17 urban areas, who took part in the Malmö Diet and Cancer Study (1991-1996).

Ecological analysis

Average blood pressure in region vs rate of people with low educational achievement.

Size of circle indicates size of investigation.

Estimated slope: 4.66 (SE 1.42).

Seems an important explanatory variable?!?

Estimates from two-level model

What is the effect of individual educational achivement (*x*1) vs regional educational achievement (*x*2)?

Table 1 in Merlo et al. (2001)

Ecological analysis vs the two-level model

Region as a random effect could only account for 0.36% of the variation in blood pressures (0.35 of 0.35+96.03).

Thus, regional variables such as rate of low-income will have very little impact on individual blood presures!

The ecological analysis 'sums up' the individual and the regional effects, but is not able to distinguish between the two.

- \blacktriangleright It overestimates the level 2 effect.
- \triangleright It cannot be interpreted as a level 1 effect.

Individual vs regional blood presure

Census low educational achievement (%)

Example: suicide and religion

Ecological analysis: Percent of suicides increases with percent of protestants in region.

 \triangleright Are protestants more likely to commit suicide?

Two-level model:

Finding: Interaction between individual effect (*x*) and region covariate (*z*) . . .

Another example: suicide and religion

More suicides among catholics in regions with many protestants.

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Comparing measurement devices

Example: Peak expiratory flow rate, I/min:

- \blacktriangleright 17 subjects, 2 measurement devices,
- ► two replicates with **each method**.

Aim of investigation

Quantify the **precision** of each measuring device

 \triangleright Repeatability (variability=measurement error)

Quantify the **agreement** between the two devices.

- \triangleright Bias of one method compared to the other.
- \triangleright Variance of one method compared to the other.

Can the devices be used interchangably?

Simple approaches

For reliability of **each method separately** we could:

- \triangleright make Bland Altman plots of differences vs averages.
- \triangleright compute limits of agreement, i.e. the 95% normal range of the differences.

For reproducibility (method comparison) we might:

- ▶ compare the **averages** in a Bland-Altman plot . . . ?
- \triangleright Not good unless you also do averages in clinic!

For both at the same time:

 \triangleright Mixed model for variance between and within methods.

Repeatability

Two-level models

For each method $(i = 1, 2)$ we have a two-level model

$$
Y_{ijk} = \mu_i + a_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijk}
$$

- \blacktriangleright μ_i population mean as anticipated by method *i*.
- \triangleright a_{ij} deviation of subject *j* from population mean, assumed normally distributed $N(0, \sigma_i^2)$.
- \triangleright ε_{ijk} deviation for replicate *k* (measurement error), assumed normally distributed $N(0, \omega_i^2)$.

PROC MIXED: Stratified analyses

```
PROC MIXED DATA=wright; BY method;
CLASS id;
MODEL flow = / SOLUTION CL;
RANDOM id;
RUN;
```
method=mini

Residual 234.29

Joint model for both methods

For methods $(i = 1, 2)$:

$$
Y_{ijk} = \mu_i + a_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijk}
$$

- \blacktriangleright ε_{ijk} assumed normally distributed $N(0, \omega_i^2)$ and **independent across methods**.
- \blacktriangleright *a*_{*ij*} assumed normally distributed $N(0, \sigma_i^2)$ and correlated with $\rho = \text{Cor}(a_{i1}, a_{i2}).$

Anticipated means for the same subject ought to look a lot like each other, so the *aij*'s are likely to be correlated across methods.

 \triangleright Note that SAS models the covariance parameter $\sigma_{12} = \text{Cov}(a_{1j}, a_{2j}) = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 \cdot \rho.$

PROC MIXED: Joint analysis

PROC MIXED DATA=wright; CLASS method id; MODEL flow=method / SOLUTION CL; RANDOM method / TYPE=UN SUBJECT=id; REPEATED / TYPE=simple GROUP=method SUBJECT=id*method; RUN;

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Solution for Fixed Effects

Repeatability

Typical differences (approximate 95% normal range) between two measurement with the **same method**:

Wright:
$$
\hat{\omega}_1^2 = 234.29 \rightarrow \pm 2\sqrt{2\omega_1^2} \approx \pm 43.3
$$

\nMini: $\hat{\omega}_2^2 = 396.44 \rightarrow \pm 2\sqrt{2\omega_2^2} \approx \pm 56.3$

Seemingly Wright is more precise, but is the difference significant?

$$
F = \frac{396.44}{234.29} = 1.69 \sim F(17, 17) \to P = 0.14
$$

Don't form too firm a conclusion with **too small data**.

Reproducibility

No evidence of **systematic** differences between the two methods.

Estimated bias $+6.0$ (-10.4;22.4) for mini vs wright. P=0.46.

Typical differnces between the two methods:

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{var}(Y_{1jk} - Y_{2jk}) &= \text{var}(a_{1j} - a_{2j} + \varepsilon_{1jk} - \varepsilon_{2jk}) \\
&= \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\sigma_{12} + \omega_1^2 + \omega_2^2 \\
&= 12188 + 13683 - 2 \cdot 12542 + 396.44 + 234.29 \\
&= 1417.73\n\end{aligned}
$$

Limits-of-agreement: 6.03 ± 2 √ $1417.7 = (-69.3, 81.3).$

Not a multi-level model!

Specified as:

$$
Y_{ijk} = \mu_j + a_i + b_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijk}
$$

\n- $$
A_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \omega^2)
$$
 for subjects $i = 1, \ldots, 17$,
\n- $B_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2)$ for methods $j = 1, 2$,
\n- $\varepsilon_{ijk} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ for replicate $k = 1, 2$.
\n

This is assuming the same variance for both methods.

Estimated variance components

```
PROC MIXED DATA=wright;
  CLASS method id;
  MODEL flow=method / SOLUTION CL;
 RANDOM intercept method / SUBJECT=id;
RUN;
```


What does this tell us about the precision of the measurements?

Typical differences

Between replicate measurements using the same method:

$$
Y_{ijk_1} - Y_{ijk_2} = \varepsilon_{ijk_1} - \varepsilon_{ijk_2}
$$

$$
\sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2\sigma^2)
$$

Limits-of-agreement: ± 2 √ $2\sigma^2 \simeq \pm 50.23.$

Between measurements using the different methods:

$$
Y_{ij_1k_1} - Y_{ij_2k_1} = \mu_{j_1} - \mu_{j_2} + b_{ij_1} - b_{ij_2} + \varepsilon_{ij_1k_1} - \varepsilon_{ij_2k_1} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{j_1} - \mu_{j_2}, 2\tau^2 + 2\sigma^2)
$$

Limits-of-agreement: $\mu_1 - \mu_2 \pm 2$ √ $2\tau^2 + 2\sigma^2 \simeq 6.03 \pm 75.31.$

(where we include the non-significant systematic difference).

Systematic difference?

Solution for Fixed Effects

Conclusion: No evidence of **systematic** differences between the measurement methods.

BUT: Do we really want to assume that variances are equal when the power for testing this is poor?