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inference in generalized
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Conditional Likelihood Inference in Generalized Linear Mixed Models

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SUMMARY

Consider a generalized linear model with a canonical link function, containing both fixed and random effects. In this paper, we consider inference about the fixed effects based on a conditional likelihood function. It is shown that this conditional likelihood function is valid for any distribution of the random effects and, hence, the resulting inferences about the fixed effects are insensitive to misspecification of the random effects distribution. Inferences based on the conditional likelihood are compared to those based on the likelihood function of the mixed effects model.

Some key words: Conditional likelihood; Exponential family; Incidental parameters; Random effects; Variance components.

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SUMMARY

Consider a generalized linear model with a canonical link function, containing both fixed and random effects. In this paper, we consider inference about the fixed effects based on a conditional likelihood function. It is shown that the conditional likelihood function is valid for any distribution of the random effects and hence, the resulting inference about the fixed effects are insensitive to misspecification of the random effects distribution. Inference based on the conditional likelihood are compared to those based on the likelihood function of the mixed effects model.

Some key words: Conditional likelihoods; Exponential family; Incidental parameter; Random effects; Variance component.

1. INTRODUCTION

The addition of random effects to a generalized linear model substantially increases the usefulness of such models; however, such an increase comes at a cost. To obtain the likelihood function of the model, we must average over the random effects. In many cases, the resulting integral does not have a closed form expression and, even when a closed form expression is available, the simple structure of a fixed-effects generalized linear model is generally lost. Furthermore, the resulting inferences may be sensitive to the choice of random effects distribution (Neuhaus, Hauck, and Kalbfleisch 1992), an assumption that is often difficult to verify.

Let y_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, n_i$, $i = 1, \dots, m$ denote independent scalar random variables such that y_{ij} follows an exponential family distribution with canonical parameter θ_{ij} , $\theta_{ij} = x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\gamma$ where x_{ij} and z_{ij} are known covariate vectors, β is a parameter vector representing the fixed effects and γ is a vector random variable representing the random effects. We assume that the distribution of γ is known, except for an unknown parameter η .

Consider inference about the fixed effects parameter β . If γ is fixed, rather than random, then the loglikelihood function is of the form

$$\sum_{i,j} \{y_{ij}x_{ij}\beta + y_{ij}z_{ij}\gamma - k(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\gamma)\}$$

where $k(\cdot)$ denotes the cumulant function of the exponential family distribution. In this case, it is well-known that inference about β in the presence of γ may be based on the conditional distribution of the data given the statistic $s = \sum_{i,j} y_{ij}z_{ij}$, which depends only on β .

Although this conditional approach is typically used when γ is fixed, the the same approach may be used in the model in which γ is random. Let $p(y|\gamma; \beta)$ and $p(s|\gamma; \beta)$ denote the density functions of y and s , respectively, in the model with γ held fixed and let $\bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta)$ and $\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)$ denote the density functions of y and s , respectively, in the random effects model

1. INTRODUCTION

The addition of random effect to a generalized linear model (GLM) increases the usefulness of such models, however, such an increase comes at a cost. To obtain the likelihood function of the model, we must average over the random effects. In many cases, this integral does not have a closed form expression and even when a closed form exists, it is available, the simple statement of a fixed-effects generalized linear model is generally not available. The resulting model may be sensitive to the choice of random effect distribution.

Without a prior, the fixed effects β are estimated that is often difficult to verify. Let y denote independent scalar random variables such that $y_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. We assume an exponential family distribution with canonical covariate x_i , $\lambda_i = \exp(\eta_i)$ where η_i and x_i are known covariate vectors. β is a parameter vector representing the fixed effect, and γ is a vector random variable representing the random effect. We assume that the distribution of γ is known, except for an unknown parameter α .

Consider inference about the fixed effects parameter β . If β is fixed, rather than random, then the likelihood function is of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \log \lambda_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \eta_i \beta + \sum_{i=1}^n \eta_i \gamma$$

where λ_i denotes the cumulant function of the exponential family distribution. In this case, it is well-known that inference about β in the presence of γ may be based on the conditional

distribution of the data given the statistic $s = \sum_{i=1}^n \eta_i \gamma$, which depends only on β .

Although this conditional approach is typically used when γ is fixed, the same approach may be used in the model in which γ is random. Let $p(\eta)$ and $q(\eta)$ denote the density functions of η and γ , respectively, in the model with a fixed β and let $p(\eta, \gamma)$ and $q(\eta, \gamma)$ denote the density functions of η and γ , respectively, in the random effect model.

with γ removed by integration with respect to the random effects density $h(\gamma; \eta)$. For example,

$$\bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta) = \int p(y|\gamma; \beta, \gamma)h(\gamma; \eta)d\gamma.$$

Likelihood inference in the mixed effects model is based on $\bar{L}(\beta, \eta) = \bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta)$, which we will call the *integrated likelihood*.

Let $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta, \eta)$ denote the density of y given s with γ eliminated by integration. In this paper, the properties of the conditional likelihood function based on $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta, \eta)$ are considered. In section 2 it is shown that $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta, \eta)$ depends only on β . Furthermore, $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta) = p(y|s; \beta)$ so that the conditional likelihood based on $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta)$ does not depend on the choice of $h(\gamma; \eta)$ and inference based on $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta)$ is robust with respect to the specification of $h(\gamma; \eta)$.

Thus, conditional inference in the mixed-effects model essentially uses a fixed-effects model approach to inference regarding β , while inference regarding γ is based on the assumption that γ is random. That is, the conditional approach in the mixed effects model is essentially a hybrid between fixed-effects and mixed-effects methods.

Many different approaches to inference in generalized linear mixed models have been considered; these approaches generally include some method of avoiding the integration needed to compute the integrated likelihood. See, for example, Schall (1991), Breslow and Clayton (1993), McGilchrist (1994), Engel and Keen (1994), Diggle, Liang, and Zeger (1994), and Lee and Nelder (1994). For inference about population-averaged quantities, the generalized estimating equation approach of Liang and Zeger (1986) may be used. Davison (1988) considers inference based on conditional likelihoods in generalized linear models with fixed effects only; in some sense, the present paper may be viewed as an extension of Davison's work to mixed models. Breslow and Day (1980) use conditional likelihood methods for inference in a mixed effects model for binary data. Another approach to inference in mixed models is to use Bayesian

with a random effect for the individual. The random effect is assumed to be normally distributed with mean zero and variance σ^2 .

The likelihood function for the fixed effects model is given by

where \mathbf{y}_i is the vector of responses for individual i , \mathbf{X}_i is the matrix of covariates, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the vector of fixed effects, and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i$ is the vector of random errors. The likelihood function is maximized with respect to $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ to obtain the maximum likelihood estimates.

That conditional inference in the mixed effects model essentially uses a fixed-effects model approach to inference regarding $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ while inference regarding σ^2 is based on the assumption that $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is random. That is, the conditional approach in the mixed effects model is essentially a fixed-effects model and mixed-effects methods.

Many different approaches to inference in general linear mixed models have been proposed. These approaches generally include some method of avoiding the integration needed to compute the integrated likelihood. See, for example, Gelman (1992), Brynildsen (1993), (1997), Mitchell (1997), Engel and Klein (1994), Diggle, Liang, and Zeger (1994), Lee and Hedder (1994). For inference about population parameters of interest, conditional inference approach of Liang and Zeger (1986) may be used. However, (1983) conditional inference based on conditional likelihood in generalized linear models with fixed effects only. In some cases, the present paper may be viewed as an extension of Liang and Zeger's work to mixed models. Breslow and Day (1975) use conditional likelihood method for inference in a fixed effects model for binary data. Another approach to inference in mixed models is to use Bayesian

methods; see, for example, Zeger and Karim (1991), Draper (1995), and Gelman *et al.* (1995).

The mixed models considered here are closely related to mixture models in which the random effects distribution is treated as an unknown mixture distribution. Conditional likelihood methods are often used for inference in these models; see, for example, Basawa (1981), Lindsay (1983, 1995), van der Vaart (1988), and Lindsay, Clogg, and Grego (1991).

In section 2 the properties of the conditional likelihood function for β are considered and in section 3 the conditional likelihood is compared to the integrated likelihood for β . Inference based on the conditional likelihood is discussed in section 4. Sections 2 through 4 consider models in which any possible dispersion parameter is known; in section 5 we consider models containing an unknown dispersion parameter. Section 6 contains a numerical example.

2. CONDITIONAL LIKELIHOOD

Since $p(y|\gamma; \beta) = p(y|s; \beta)p(s|\gamma; \beta)$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta) &= \int p(y|\gamma; \beta)h(\gamma; \eta)d\gamma = \int p(y|s; \beta)p(s|\gamma; \beta)h(\gamma; \eta)d\gamma \\ &= p(y|s; \beta)\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\bar{p}(y|s; \beta, \eta) = \frac{\bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta)}{\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)} = \frac{p(y|s; \beta)\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)}{\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)} = p(y|s; \beta).$$

Therefore, the conditional likelihood based on $\bar{p}(y|s; \beta)$ is the the same as that based on $p(y|s; \beta)$ and does not depend on the choice of h . Furthermore, since the conditional likelihood is a genuine likelihood function for β , its properties are not affected by the possibly high dimension of γ .

Example 1. Poisson regression

Let y_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, n_i$, $i = 1, \dots, m$ denote independent Poisson random variables such that y_{ij} has mean $\exp\{x_{ij}\beta + \gamma_i\}$. The conditional density of the data given $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m)$

in those see for example Kiefer and Wolfowitz (1952), Ghosh (1965), and Ghosh et al. (1983).
 The mixed model considered here is closely related to the mixed model in which the
 joint distribution is treated as an unknown random distribution. The joint likelihood
 method is often used for inference in this model (see for example Ghosh (1983), Lindsay
 (1987), Ghosh and Varma (1987), and Ghosh and Ghosh (1991)).
 In section 2, the joint likelihood method is extended to the case of conditional
 inference. The conditional likelihood method is compared to the joint likelihood method
 and the conditional likelihood method is shown to be more efficient than the joint
 likelihood method in which any possible random parameter is known in advance. The conditional
 likelihood method is shown to be more efficient than the joint likelihood method in
 containing an unknown parameter. Section 3 contains a numerical example.

2. CONDITIONAL LIKELIHOOD

Since $p(y|x) = p(x,y)/p(x)$, we have that

$$p(x,y) = \int p(x,y|z) p(z) dz$$

hence

$$p(x,y) = \frac{\int p(x,y|z) p(z) dz}{\int p(x|z) p(z) dz}$$

Therefore, the conditional likelihood based on $p(y|x)$ is the same as that based on
 $p(x,y)$ and does not depend on the choice of $p(x)$. Furthermore, since the conditional likelihood
 is a genuine likelihood function for θ , its properties are not affected by the possible high
 dimension of θ .

Example 1. Poisson regression

Let $W_j = (W_{j1}, \dots, W_{jK})'$, $j = 1, \dots, n$, denote independent Poisson random variables such
 that $E W_j = \mu_j = (\mu_{j1}, \dots, \mu_{jK})'$. The conditional density of the data given $x_j = (x_{j1}, \dots, x_{jK})'$

is given by

$$p(y|\gamma; \beta) = \frac{\exp\{\sum_{i,j} y_{ij} x_{ij} \beta + \sum_i \gamma_i y_i - \sum_{i,j} \exp(x_{ij} \beta + \gamma_i)\}}{\prod_{i,j} y_{ij}!}$$

where $y_i = \sum_j y_{ij}$. Hence, in the model with γ held fixed, (y_1, \dots, y_m) is sufficient for fixed β and the conditional likelihood function is given by

$$\frac{\exp(\sum_{i,j} y_{ij} x_{ij} \beta)}{\prod_i \{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij} \beta)\}^{y_i}}. \quad (1)$$

Now consider a distribution for the random effects. Suppose that $\exp\{\gamma_1\}, \dots, \exp\{\gamma_m\}$ are independent random variables, each with an exponential distribution with mean η . Then

$$\bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta) = \exp\{\sum_{i,j} y_{ij} x_{ij} \beta\} \prod_i \eta^{y_i} \frac{\Gamma(y_i + 1)}{\{\eta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij} \beta) + 1\}^{y_i+1}} \prod_{i,j} \frac{1}{y_{ij}!}.$$

Clearly, (y_1, \dots, y_m) is sufficient in the model with β held fixed. Given γ , y_1, \dots, y_m are independent Poisson random variables with means $\exp\{\gamma_i\} \sum_j \exp\{x_{ij} \beta\}$, $i = 1, \dots, m$, respectively. Hence, the marginal density of y_i is

$$\{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij} \beta)\}^{y_i} \prod_i \frac{\Gamma(y_i + 1)}{\{\eta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij} \beta) + 1\}^{y_i+1}} \frac{1}{y_i!}$$

and the conditional likelihood given y_1, \dots, y_m is identical to (1) given above. The argument given earlier in this section shows that the same result holds for any random effects distribution.

■

Some functions of β may not be identifiable based on the conditional distribution given s . Let X denote the $n \times p$ matrix, $n = \sum n_i$, $p = \dim(\beta)$, given by

$$X = M(x_{ij}) \equiv (x_{11}^T \quad x_{12}^T \quad \cdots \quad x_{1n_1}^T \quad \cdots \quad x_{m1}^T \quad x_{m2}^T \quad \cdots \quad x_{mn_m}^T)^T;$$

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes the need for transparency and accountability in financial reporting.

2. The second part of the document outlines the various methods and techniques used to collect and analyze data. It includes a detailed description of the experimental procedures and the statistical tools employed.

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6. The sixth part of the document provides a list of references and a bibliography. It includes citations to the relevant literature and the sources used in the study.

7. The seventh part of the document contains the appendix, which includes additional data, figures, and tables. It provides a detailed look at the raw data and the intermediate calculations used in the analysis.

similarly, let $Z = M(z_{ij})$ and $y = M(y_{ij})$ so that Z is $n \times q$, $q = \dim(\gamma)$, and y is $n \times 1$. The sufficient statistic in the full model is given by $(X^T y, Z^T y)$ and the conditioning statistic s is equivalent to $Z^T y$. Hence, if there exists a vector b such that $Xb = Za$ for some vector a , the corresponding linear function of β will not be identifiable in the conditional model. Therefore we assume that $Xb = Za$ only if a and b are both zero vectors, so that the entire vector β is identifiable in the conditional model. If, for a given model, this condition is not satisfied, the results based on the conditional likelihood given below may be interpreted as applying only to those components of β that are identifiable in the conditional model.

Those components that are not identifiable in the conditional model may be viewed as being parameters of the random effects distribution. Clearly, the conditional likelihood function cannot be used for inference about those parameters. Furthermore, inferences regarding parameters that are not identifiable in the conditional model are particularly sensitive to assumptions regarding the random effects distribution.

If exact computation of the conditional likelihood is difficult, an approximation may be used. Using a saddlepoint approximation to the marginal likelihood function based on s , an approximation to the conditional likelihood given y_1, \dots, y_m is given by

$$\hat{L}(\beta) = \left| \sum_{i,j} z_{ij}^T k''(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta) z_{ij} \right|^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[\sum_{i,j} \{y_{ij}x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta - k(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta)\} \right]$$

where $\hat{\gamma}_\beta$ is the maximum likelihood estimator of γ for fixed β in the model with γ held fixed. Note that this approximation is of the form $|j_{\gamma\gamma}(\beta, \hat{\gamma}_\beta)|^{\frac{1}{2}} L_p(\beta)$ where $L_p(\beta)$ denotes the profile likelihood for β and $j_{\gamma\gamma}(\beta, \gamma)$ denotes the observed information for fixed β ; in both cases, γ is treated as a vector of fixed effects. If the dimension of γ is fixed, the error of the approximation is $O(n^{-1})$. If m , the dimension of γ , increases with n , then the error is, under some conditions, $o(1)$, provided that $m = o(n^{\frac{3}{4}})$; see Sartori (2001) for further details.

similarity, let $\Sigma = \Sigma(\beta)$ and $\gamma = \gamma(\beta)$ so that Σ is a $w \times w$ matrix and γ is a $w \times 1$ vector. The conditional distribution of y given x is given by $f(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-y' \Sigma^{-1} y + \gamma' y)$ and the conditional distribution is equivalent to $\mathcal{N}(y|\beta)$ where β is a vector such that $\Sigma \beta = \gamma$ for some vector β . The corresponding linear function of β will not be identifiable in the conditional model. Therefore we assume that $\beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \gamma$ and β_1 is a non-zero vector. In this case, the conditional distribution is identifiable in the conditional model. If, in a given model, the condition is not satisfied, the result based on the conditional likelihood given above may be interpreted as a test for the null hypothesis that the parameter of interest is zero in the conditional model.

There are comments that the conditional model in the conditional model may be viewed as being a mixture of the random effect distribution. Clearly, the conditional likelihood based on the random effect distribution cannot be used for inference about those parameters. Furthermore, inference regarding parameters that are not identifiable in the conditional model are particularly sensitive to assumptions regarding the random effect distribution.

If exact computation of the conditional likelihood is difficult, an approximation may be used. Using a saddlepoint approximation to the marginal likelihood function based on an approximation to the conditional likelihood given by $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \gamma$ is given by

$$l(\beta) = \int \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-y' \Sigma^{-1} y + \gamma' y) \exp(\beta' y) dy \approx \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-\beta' \beta_0 + \beta_1' \beta_0 + \beta' \beta_1 \gamma)$$

where β_0 is the maximum likelihood estimator of β for fixed β_1 in the model with β held fixed. Note that this approximation is of the form $\exp(\beta' \beta_0 + \beta_1' \beta_0 + \beta' \beta_1 \gamma)$ where β_0 denotes the profile likelihood for β and β_1 denotes the observed information for fixed β . In both cases, β is treated as a vector of fixed effects. If the dimension of β is fixed, the error of the approximation is $O(n^{-1/2})$. If the dimension of β increases with n , then the error is under some conditions $O(n^{-1/4})$, provided that $n \rightarrow \infty$ (see Parzen (1981) for further details).

This approximation was given by Davison (1988) for inference in a fixed-effects generalized linear model; it is also identical to the modified profile likelihood function (Barndorff-Nielsen 1980, 1983). Thus, the argument given earlier in this section shows that, in a generalized linear model with canonical link function, the modified profile likelihood based on treating γ has a fixed effect is also valid if γ is modeled as a random effect.

3. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CONDITIONAL AND INTEGRATED LIKELIHOODS

Let $l_c(\beta)$ denote the conditional loglikelihood for β and let $\bar{l}(\beta, \eta) = \log \bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta)$ denote the integrated loglikelihood based on a particular choice for the random effects distribution. Since $\bar{l}(\beta, \eta)$ depends on η and β , for inference about β , we may consider the profile integrated loglikelihood, $\bar{l}_p(\beta) = \bar{l}(\beta, \hat{\eta}_\beta)$; for instance, β may be estimated by maximizing $\bar{l}_p(\beta)$.

In general,

$$\frac{\bar{p}(y; \beta, \eta)}{p(y|s; \beta)} = \bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)$$

so that $\bar{l}_p(\beta) - l_c(\beta) = \bar{l}_p(\beta; s)$ where $\bar{l}(\beta, \eta; s)$ denotes the integrated loglikelihood function based on the marginal distribution of s and $\bar{l}_p(\beta; s)$ is the corresponding profile loglikelihood function. Hence, the difference between $l_c(\beta)$ and $\bar{l}_p(\beta)$ depends on how $\bar{l}_p(\beta; s)$ varies with β . Since l_c does not depend on the choice of h , the sensitivity of $\bar{l}_p(\beta)$ to choice of h is measured by the sensitivity of $\bar{l}_p(\beta; s)$ to the choice of h .

If $\bar{l}_p(\beta; s)$ does not depend on β , then $\bar{l}_p(\beta) = l_c(\beta)$. This occurs, e.g., if the statistic s is S -ancillary for β based on the density $\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)$ (Severini, 2000, Section 9.2). Recall that s is S -ancillary for β if, for each β_1, β_2, η_1 there exists η_2 such that

$$\int p(s|\gamma; \beta_2)h(\gamma; \eta_2)d\gamma = \int p(s|\gamma; \beta_1)h(\gamma; \eta_1)d\gamma.$$

Hence, this condition depends on the properties of $p(s|\gamma; \beta)$ as well as on those of $h(\gamma; \eta)$.

The introduction was given by [Lambert (1988)] but introduced a fixed-effects restriction
 their model is a special case of the more general random-effects function (Lambert, 1988).
 (1988). From the point of view of the random-effects function, the fixed-effects function
 model with random-effects function is the special case of the random-effects function
 fixed-effects function model with random-effects function.

THE ECONOMIC THEORY OF THE FIRM: THE ECONOMIC THEORY OF THE FIRM
 The firm's production function is assumed to be of the form

$$Y = F(K, L, E)$$
 where Y is output, K is capital, L is labor, and E is efficiency. The production function
 is assumed to be concave in each argument and homogeneous of degree one. The firm's
 profit function is given by

$$\pi = PY - rK - wL - E$$
 where P is the price of output, r is the rental rate of capital, w is the wage rate,
 and E is the cost of efficiency. The firm's profit function is maximized by choosing
 the optimal levels of K , L , and E .

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial K} = PY_K - r = 0$$

so that $P = r/Y_K$. The firm's profit function is maximized by choosing the optimal levels of
 based on the marginal product of K and L . The firm's profit function is maximized
 function. Hence, the difference between P and r depends on how P varies with
 the choice of K . The firm's profit function is maximized by choosing the optimal levels of
 instead of the possibility of P in the choice of K .

The firm's profit function is maximized by choosing the optimal levels of K , L , and E .
 is a function of K and L . The firm's profit function is maximized by choosing the optimal levels of
 is a function of K and L . The firm's profit function is maximized by choosing the optimal levels of

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial L} = PY_L - w = 0$$

Hence, this condition depends on the properties of P , as well as on those of F .

Example 2. Matched pairs of Poisson random variables

Consider the following special case of the Poisson regression model in which $n_i = 2$ for all i and $x_{ij} = 1$ if $j = 1$ and $x_{ij} = 0$ if $j = 2$. In this model, $s = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$ where y_1, \dots, y_m are independent Poisson random variables such that y_i has mean $\omega_i T(\beta)$, $\omega_i = \exp(\gamma_i)$ and

$$T(\beta) = \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta) = \exp(\beta) + 1.$$

Assume that $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_m$ are independent identically distributed random variables and let $g(\cdot; \eta)$ denote the density of ω_i . Then

$$\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta) = \prod_i \frac{1}{y_i!} \int \{\omega T(\beta)\}^{y_i} \exp\{-\omega T(\beta)\} g(\omega; \eta) d\omega.$$

If η is a scale parameter, then $g(\omega; \eta) = g(\omega/\eta; 1)/\eta$ and

$$\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta) = \prod_i \frac{1}{y_i!} \int \{(\omega/\eta)\eta T(\beta)\}^{y_i} \exp\{-(\omega/\eta)\eta T(\beta)\} g(\omega/\eta; 1)/\eta d\omega.$$

Therefore, $\bar{p}(s; \beta, \eta)$ depends on (β, η) only through $\eta T(\beta)$ and, hence s is S -ancillary. Thus, in the two-sample model, any integrated likelihood function based on a scale model for the $\exp(\gamma_i)$ yields the same estimate of β and that estimate is identical to the one based on $\ell_c(\beta)$.

This same result holds in a general Poisson regression model provided that the design is balanced in the sense that x_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, n_i$ are the same for each i . ■

Exact agreement between $\ell_c(\beta)$ and $\ell_p(\beta)$ occurs only in exceptional cases. It is straightforward to show that the Laplace approximation to the integrated likelihood function is given by

$$\left| \sum_{i,j} z_{ij}^T k''(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta) z_{ij} \right|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left\{ \sum_{i,j} [y_{ij}x_{ij}\beta + y_{ij}z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta - k(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta)] \right\} h(\hat{\gamma}_\beta)$$

Let \mathcal{L} be the Laplace transform of $f(t)$. Then $\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = F(s)$. The Laplace transform of $f'(t)$ is $sF(s) - f(0)$. The Laplace transform of $f''(t)$ is $s^2F(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)$. The Laplace transform of $f'''(t)$ is $s^3F(s) - s^2f(0) - sf'(0) - f''(0)$. The Laplace transform of $f^{(n)}(t)$ is $s^nF(s) - s^{n-1}f(0) - s^{n-2}f'(0) - \dots - f^{(n-1)}(0)$.

Let $\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = F(s)$. Then $\mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\} = sF(s) - f(0)$. The Laplace transform of $f''(t)$ is $s^2F(s) - sf(0) - f'(0)$. The Laplace transform of $f'''(t)$ is $s^3F(s) - s^2f(0) - sf'(0) - f''(0)$. The Laplace transform of $f^{(n)}(t)$ is $s^nF(s) - s^{n-1}f(0) - s^{n-2}f'(0) - \dots - f^{(n-1)}(0)$.

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so that $\ell_p(\beta)$ may be approximated by

$$\hat{\ell}_c(\beta) - \log \left\{ \sum_{i,j} z_{ij}^T k''(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\hat{\gamma}_\beta) z_{ij} \right\} + \log h(\hat{\gamma}_\beta; \tilde{\eta}_\beta)$$

where $\hat{\ell}_c(\beta)$ denotes the saddlepoint approximation to the conditional loglikelihood given in section 2 and $\tilde{\eta}_\beta$ maximizes $h(\hat{\gamma}_\beta; \eta)$ with respect to η for fixed β . When the dimension of γ is fixed, the relative error of this approximation is $O(n^{-1})$. In this case,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \bar{\ell}'_p(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \ell'_c(\beta) + O_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right).$$

That is, $\ell_c(\beta)$ provides a first-order approximation to $\bar{\ell}_p(\beta)$ based on any non-degenerate random effects distribution. It is important to note that the O_p term in this expression refers to the distribution of the data corresponding to the random effects distribution h .

The analysis above is based on the assumption that m , the dimension of γ remains fixed as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and the conclusions do not necessarily hold when m increases with n . For instance, the saddlepoint approximation and Laplace approximation used are valid only when m grows very slowly with n , specifically when $m = o(n^{\frac{1}{3}})$ (Shun and McCullagh, 1995; Sartori, 2001).

Example 3. Poisson regression (continued)

Suppose $\bar{\ell}(\beta, \eta)$ is based on the assumption that $\exp(\gamma_1), \dots, \exp(\gamma_m)$ are independent exponential random variables with mean η . It follows that

$$\bar{\ell}'_p(\beta) - \ell'_c(\beta) = \sum_i \frac{y_i - \hat{\eta}_\beta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)}{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)} \frac{\sum_j x_{ij} \exp(x_{ij}\beta)}{\hat{\eta}_\beta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta) + 1}.$$

For each $i = 1, \dots, m$,

$$\frac{y_i - \hat{\eta}_\beta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)}{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)} = O_p(1) \quad \text{as } n_i \rightarrow \infty.$$

so that (11) may be approximated by

$$\hat{y}_i(t) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 t + \alpha_2 t^2 + \epsilon_i(t)$$

where $\hat{y}_i(t)$ denotes the predicted value of $y_i(t)$ from the least squares regression line. The error term $\epsilon_i(t)$ is assumed to be independent of $y_i(t)$ and $\epsilon_i(t)$ is assumed to be normally distributed with mean zero and variance σ^2 . The relative error of this approximation is given by

$$\frac{\epsilon_i(t)}{\hat{y}_i(t)}$$

Figure 1 shows the relative error of the approximation for $\alpha_0 = 0.1$, $\alpha_1 = 0.1$, and $\alpha_2 = 0.1$. It is important to note that the $\epsilon_i(t)$ term in the regression relation is the distribution of the data corresponding to the random effects distribution.

The analysis above is based on the assumption that the formation of a random effect as a function of time is not necessarily held when an increase in the formation of a random effect is observed. In fact, the relationship between the random effect and the response variable is not necessarily linear. In fact, the relationship between the random effect and the response variable is often non-linear (Shin and MacCallum, 2001).

Figure 1. Relative error of the approximation (continued)

Suppose $\epsilon_i(t)$ is based on the assumption that $\epsilon_i(t) \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ and independent exponential random variables with mean μ follows that

$$E[\epsilon_i(t)] = \frac{\sigma^2}{2\mu} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right)$$

for each $t = 1, \dots, n$.

$$\frac{E[\epsilon_i(t)]}{\hat{y}_i(t)} = \frac{\sigma^2}{2\mu} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu} \right)$$

Hence, under the assumption that each $n_i \rightarrow \infty$ while m stays fixed,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \bar{\ell}'_p(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \ell'_c(\beta) + O_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right),$$

in agreement with the general result given above.

Now suppose the n_i remain fixed while $m \rightarrow \infty$. Since $\hat{\eta}_\beta = \eta + O_p(n^{-\frac{1}{2}})$,

$$\frac{y_i - \hat{\eta}_\beta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)}{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)} = \frac{y_i - \eta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)}{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)} + O_p(n^{-1}),$$

and, hence,

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \frac{y_i - \hat{\eta}_\beta \sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)}{\sum_j \exp(x_{ij}\beta)} = O_p(\sqrt{m}).$$

It follows that, in this case,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \bar{\ell}'_p(\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \ell'_c(\beta) + O_p(1),$$

as described above. ■

For cases in which ℓ_c and $\bar{\ell}_p$ lead to different estimators of β , an important question is the relative efficiency of those estimators. It has been shown that, if the set of possible random effects distributions is sufficiently broad, then $\hat{\beta}$, the maximizer of ℓ_c , is asymptotically efficient (Pfanzagl 1982, ch. 14; Lindsay 1980). However, when there is a parametric family of random effects distributions, $\hat{\beta}$ is not necessarily asymptotically efficient (Pfanzagl 1982, ch. 14).

Godambe (1976) shows that the estimating function based on ℓ_c is optimal if either the conditioning statistic s is S -ancillary or the set of possible distribution of s is complete for fixed β . More generally, $\hat{\beta}$ is asymptotically efficient provided that the information for β in the distribution of s , as a proportion of the total information, approaches 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (Liang, 1983). Hence, this condition is satisfied if m is considered fixed as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but is not necessarily

Here, under the assumption that each $\mu_i = 0$ or while μ_i is large fixed

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^2 = O_p(1)$$

in agreement with the asymptotic normality of $\hat{\mu}_i$.

Now suppose that μ_i is fixed while $n \rightarrow \infty$ and

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^2 = O_p(1)$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^2 = O_p(1)$$

is known that the above

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^2 = O_p(1)$$

as described above.

The case in which μ_i and σ_i^2 lead to different estimates of μ_i in important quantities. The relative efficiency of these estimates is discussed in the set of possible random effect distributions asymptotically fixed, then the maximum of μ_i is asymptotically efficient (Rao, 1965, ch. 14; Hájek, 1961). However, when there is a parametric family of random effect distributions, μ_i is not necessarily asymptotically efficient (Rao, 1965, ch. 14). Godambe (1976) shows that the estimating function based on μ_i is optimal if either the conditioning statistic is μ_i -efficient or the set of possible distributions of μ_i is a complete family. Also generally μ_i is asymptotically efficient provided that the information μ_i in the distribution of μ_i is a proportion of the total information. Godambe (1976) as a (long) (1973). Hence the condition is satisfied if μ_i is considered fixed since μ_i is not necessarily

satisfied if $m \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. If the dimension of γ is large relative to n , there may be some sacrifice of efficiency associated with the use of $\hat{\beta}$. However, the estimator of β is valid under any random effects distribution and any loss of efficiency must be viewed in that context.

4. INFERENCE FOR THE FIXED EFFECTS BASED ON THE CONDITIONAL LIKELIHOOD

Since ℓ_c is also a conditional loglikelihood in the model with parameters (β, η) , under standard regularity conditions, $\hat{\beta}$ is asymptotically distributed according to a multivariate normal distribution (Andersen 1970). The asymptotic covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ may be estimated using \hat{j}_c , the observed information based on ℓ_c evaluated at $\hat{\beta}$. Furthermore, Andersen (1970) shows that the convergence of the normalized $\hat{\beta}$ to a normal distribution holds conditionally on γ . Hence, the asymptotic normality of $\hat{\beta}$ is valid for any random effects distribution.

A confidence region for β may be based on $W = 2\{\ell_c(\hat{\beta}) - \ell_c(\beta)\}$. Under standard conditions, W is asymptotically distributed according to a chi-squared distribution with p degrees-of-freedom (Andersen 1971). As with the asymptotic normality of $\hat{\beta}$, this result holds conditionally on γ and, hence, the result is valid for any random effects distribution.

Confidence limits for a scalar component of β may be based on the signed likelihood ratio statistic based on ℓ_c or, on the modified signed likelihood ratio statistic based on ℓ_c . See Pierce and Peters (1992) and Sartori *et al.* (1999) for discussion of the properties of the signed likelihood ratio statistic in models with many nuisance parameters.

5. MODELS WITH A DISPERSION PARAMETER

Generalized linear models often have an unknown dispersion parameter as well, so that, conditional on γ , the loglikelihood function is of the form

$$\sum_{i,j} \frac{y_{ij}x_{ij}\beta + y_{ij}z_{ij}\gamma - k(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\gamma)}{a(\sigma)} + \sum_{i,j} c(y_{ij}, \sigma)$$

is defined as a function of the observed data y and the unknown parameter θ . The likelihood function is denoted by $L(\theta; y)$. The log-likelihood function is denoted by $l(\theta; y) = \ln L(\theta; y)$.

2.1. THE LOG-LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION

The log-likelihood function is a function of the observed data y and the unknown parameter θ . The log-likelihood function is denoted by $l(\theta; y) = \ln L(\theta; y)$. The log-likelihood function is a function of the observed data y and the unknown parameter θ . The log-likelihood function is denoted by $l(\theta; y) = \ln L(\theta; y)$.

A confidence region for θ may be based on the log-likelihood function. The log-likelihood function is denoted by $l(\theta; y) = \ln L(\theta; y)$. The log-likelihood function is a function of the observed data y and the unknown parameter θ . The log-likelihood function is denoted by $l(\theta; y) = \ln L(\theta; y)$.

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2.2. MODELS WITH UNKNOWN PARAMETER

Generalized linear models often have an unknown dispersion parameter as well as the unknown mean parameter. The log-likelihood function is denoted by $l(\theta; y) = \ln L(\theta; y)$.

$$l(\theta; y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln f(y_i; \theta)$$

where $\sigma > 0$ is an unknown parameter and c and a are known functions. The conditional likelihood given $\sum y_{ij}z_{ij}$ is still independent of γ , although it now depends on σ .

Inference about β may be based on the profile conditional loglikelihood, $\ell_c(\beta, \hat{\sigma}_\beta)$ where $\hat{\sigma}_\beta$ is the value of σ that maximizes $\ell_c(\beta, \sigma)$ for fixed β . Note that $\hat{\sigma}_\beta$ is valid estimator of σ for fixed β for any random effects distribution.

Now consider inference about σ . For fixed σ and γ , the statistics $t, s, t = \sum_{i,j} y_{ij}x_{ij}$, $s = \sum_{i,j} y_{ij}z_{ij}$ are sufficient; hence, we may form a conditional likelihood for σ by conditioning on these statistics. The argument given in section 2 showing that the conditional likelihood function given s is valid in the random effects model, for any random effects distribution, is valid for the conditional likelihood given s, t as well. Hence, the conditional likelihood estimator of σ is a valid estimator of σ in the random effects model for any random effects distribution.

Example 4. Normal distribution

Let y_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, n_i$, $i = 1, \dots, m$ denote independent normal random variables such that y_{ij} has mean $x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}\gamma$ and variance σ^2 . The conditional loglikelihood function given $\sum_{i,j} y_{ij}x_{ij}, \sum_{i,j} y_{ij}z_{ij}$ is given by

$$-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i,j} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\hat{\beta} - z_{ij}\hat{\gamma})^2 - (n - p - q) \log \sigma \quad (2)$$

where $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\gamma}$ are the least-squares estimators of β and γ respectively.

Hence, the conditional maximum likelihood estimator of σ^2 is the usual unbiased estimator:

$$s^2 = \sum_{i,j} (y_{ij} - x_{ij}\hat{\beta} - z_{ij}\hat{\gamma})^2 / (n - p - q). \blacksquare$$

6. AN EXAMPLE

Consider the data in Table 1 of Booth and Hobert (1992, p. 263). These data describe the effectiveness of two treatments administered at eight different clinics. For clinic i and

where $\alpha > 0$ is an unknown parameter and γ and δ are known functions. The conditional likelihood given $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n\bar{x}$ is still independent of α , although it now depends on γ and δ .

Inference about α may be based on the profile conditional likelihood given $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n\bar{x}$ and a fixed value of γ and δ . Note that α is a fixed parameter for fixed γ and δ .

The conditional likelihood about α for fixed γ and δ is the product of $\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{f(x_i; \alpha, \gamma, \delta)}{\sum_{j=1}^k f(x_j; \alpha, \gamma, \delta)}$.

On these scores, the conditional likelihood given $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n\bar{x}$ is the likelihood function given α and fixed γ and δ . The random effects model is a random effects model for the conditional likelihood given $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n\bar{x}$. Hence, the conditional likelihood given $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n\bar{x}$ is a valid estimator of α in the random effects model. Hence random effects distribution

Example 1. The random distribution

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n denote independent normal random variables such that X_i has a mean $\mu_i + \alpha$ and variance σ^2 . The conditional likelihood function given

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i = n\bar{x} \text{ is given by}$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{f(x_i; \mu_i + \alpha, \sigma^2)}{\sum_{j=1}^k f(x_j; \mu_j + \alpha, \sigma^2)}$$

where μ_i and σ^2 are the best square estimator of μ and σ^2 respectively.

Hence, the conditional maximum likelihood estimator of α is the best unbiased estimator

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_i)}{n}$$

AN EXAMPLE

Consider the data in Table 1 of Bross and Hober (1983, p. 203). These data describe the effectiveness of two antibiotics administered at eight different clinics. For clinic 1 and

treatment j , n_{ij} patients are treated and y_{ij} patients respond favorably. Following Beitler and Landis (1985), we model the clinic effects as random effects. Given the random effects, the y_{ij} are taken to be independent binomial random variables such that y_{i1} has index n_{i1} and mean

$$n_{i1} \frac{\exp(\gamma_i + \beta_0 + \beta_1)}{1 + \exp(\gamma_i + \beta_0 + \beta_1)}$$

and y_{i2} has index n_{i2} and mean

$$n_{i2} \frac{\exp(\gamma_i + \beta_0)}{1 + \exp(\gamma_i + \beta_0)}.$$

Let $y_i = y_{i1} + y_{i2}$. The conditional loglikelihood for β_1 is given by

$$\beta_1 \sum_i y_{i1} - \sum_i \log \left\{ \sum_u \binom{n_{i1}}{u} \binom{n_{i2}}{y_i - u} \exp(\beta_1 u) \right\}$$

where the summation with respect to u is from $\max(0, y_i - n_{i2})$ to $\min(y_i, n_{i1})$.

The random effects $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_8$ are taken to be independent and identically distributed, each with density $h(\cdot; \eta)$. Several choices were considered for the random effects distribution: a normal distribution, a logistic distribution, and an extreme value distribution for γ_i and a gamma distribution for $\exp(\gamma_i)$. In each case, γ_i has mean 0 and standard deviation η .

Table 2 contains parameter estimates based on the conditional likelihood as well as on the integrated likelihood for each of the four random effects distributions. In addition, estimates based on the saddlepoint approximation to the conditional likelihood function are given. The integrated likelihood functions were computed numerically using Hardy quadrature. Standard errors of the estimates are given in parentheses. Inferences for β_1 based on the conditional likelihood are essentially the same as those based on the integrated likelihood for each choice of the random effects distribution; note, however, that the conditional likelihood eliminates the need for numerical integration.

treatment A, patients are treated and all patients recover favorably. Following Fisher and
 Lajtha (1967), we model the clinic effects as random effects. Given the random effects, the
 are taken to be independent binomial random variables such that y_{ij} has index y_{ij} and mean

$$\frac{\exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)}{1 + \exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)}$$

and y_{ij} has index y_{ij} and mean

$$\frac{\exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)}{1 + \exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)}$$

Let w_{ij} be the conditional likelihood for μ_{ij} is given by

$$\sum_{y_{ij}} \binom{y_{ij}}{w_{ij}} \left(\frac{\exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)}{1 + \exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)} \right)^{y_{ij}} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp(\mu_{ij} + \alpha_j)} \right)^{w_{ij} - y_{ij}}$$

where the summation is over y_{ij} from $\max(0, w_{ij} - \alpha_j)$ to $\min(w_{ij}, \alpha_j)$.

The random effects μ_{ij} are taken to be independent and identically distributed
 with density $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Several choices were considered for the random effects distribution:
 a normal distribution, a logistic distribution, and an extreme value distribution for μ_{ij} and a
 gamma distribution for α_j . In each case, σ^2 had mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

Table 2 contains parameter estimates based on the conditional likelihoods as well as on the
 integrated likelihood for each of the four random effects distributions. In addition, estimates
 based on the saddlepoint approximation to the conditional likelihood function are given. The
 integrated likelihood functions were computed numerically using Hankel quadrature. Standard
 errors of the estimates are given in parentheses. Inference for μ_{ij} based on the conditional
 likelihood are essentially the same as those based on the integrated likelihood for each choice
 of the random effects distribution; note, however, that the conditional likelihood estimates the
 need for numerical integration.

Table 1
Parameter Estimates in the Example

Likelihood		Parameter		
		β_0	β_1	η
Conditional	Exact		0.756 (.303)	
	Saddlepoint		0.755 (.303)	
Integrated	Normal	-1.20 (.549)	0.739 (.300)	1.40 (.430)
	Logistic	-1.22 (.582)	0.738 (.300)	1.52 (.510)
	Extreme value	-1.15 (.580)	0.743 (.301)	1.49 (.526)
	Gamma	-1.23 (.643)	0.729 (.299)	1.67 (.653)

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Table 1

Asymptotic variances in the Example

Parameter	Likelihood		Bayes	
	Exact	Suboptimal	Exact	Suboptimal
Integral	1.20 (1.24)	1.20 (1.24)	0.732 (1.00)	0.732 (1.00)
Loglik	1.20 (1.24)	1.20 (1.24)	0.732 (1.00)	0.732 (1.00)
Expected value	1.20 (1.24)	1.20 (1.24)	0.732 (1.00)	0.732 (1.00)
Gamma	1.20 (1.24)	1.20 (1.24)	0.732 (1.00)	0.732 (1.00)

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