

multilevel modeling:

concepts, applications
and interpretations

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overview

- warning - social and reproductive / perinatal epidemiologist
- concepts -
 - why context matters
 - multilevel models - terminology
- applications -
 - issues specific to nested data
 - different types of multilevel models
- interpretations -

concepts - why context matters

- empirically, individual outcomes can't be explained exclusively by individual-level exposures
- persistent contextual effects are observed in all (?) outcomes across populations
- exposures are structured; distributions are differential

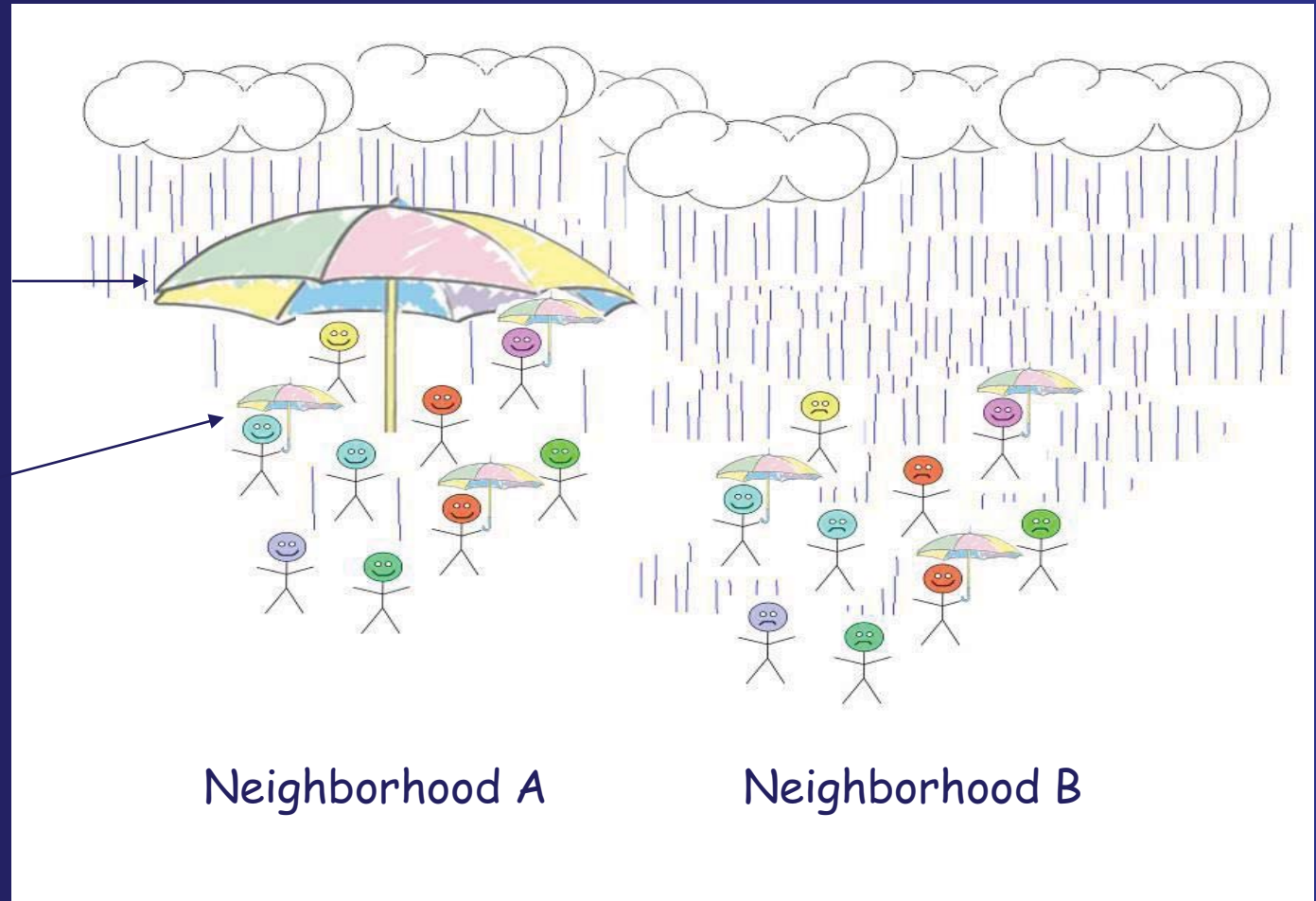
concepts - types of non-individual-level data

- **compositional data**
 - properties of individuals
 - aggregation of individual-level variables—such as census data
- **contextual data**
 - properties of places
 - integral variables; no individual-level analogs—services, resources
- **directly observed data (can be combination)**
 - survey direct observation of the built environment such as “walkability” or broken windows

concepts - partitioning variance

neighborhood
- level
protection

individual
- level
protection



concepts - definition and synonyms

- ml modeling: a method that allows researchers to investigate the effect of group or place characteristics on individual outcomes while accounting for non-independence of observations
- synonyms:
 - multilevel models
 - contextual models
 - hierarchical analysis
- different models:
 - fixed effects
 - random effects
 - marginal models (e.g., GEE)
- longitudinal (panel) data, repeated measures designs use ml methods as well

concepts - when are observations dependent?

- dependence arises when data are collected by cluster / aggregating unit
 - children within schools
 - patients within hospitals
 - pregnant women within neighborhoods
 - cholesterol levels within a patient
- why care about clustered data?
 - two children / observations within one school are probably more alike than two children / observations drawn from different schools
 - knowing one outcome informs your understanding about another outcome (i.e., statistical dependence)

concepts - why use multilevel models?

- standard regression models are misspecified for clustered data
 - $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i$; $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ i.i.d.
 - more on this
- hierarchical models out-perform unbiased models (result in lower mean squared errors)
 - more on this

concepts summary - why use multilevel models?

- outcomes may be clustered by some unit of aggregation (contextual unit)
- individuals within contexts may be similar in ways that are unmeasured
- to take into account clustering / non-independence of observations
- to partition the observed variability into within-context and between- context variables
- to allow for different types of policy or interventions to change population values / distributions

concepts - how to tell if you need ml models

- reality 1: anytime you have data collected from some aggregate unit / clusters, you will have to use ml models
- reality 2: calculating an intraclass correlation coefficient will quantify your clustering (in absence of running a ml model)
- reality 3: even if your 'clustered data' aren't empirically clustered, article and grant reviewers will demand it

application - linear and logistic regression

■ linear model review:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} \dots + \varepsilon_i$$

β_0 = intercept β_1 = slope for exposure X_1

β_2 = slope for covariate X_2 ...

ε_i = error term (assumed normal and i.i.d.)

■ logistic model review:

$$\ln [P(y_i) / (1-P(y_i))] = \alpha + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} \dots$$

α = constant β_1 = slope for exposure X_1

β_2 = slope for covariate X_2

application - model assumptions

- baseline outcome means (mean values when exposure and covariates = 0) differs only due to variability between subjects
- individuals, and their errors, independent and identically distributed (i.i.d. assumption)
- all non-specified variables (e.g., area-level variables; those confounders you did not measure) assumed = 0

(inappropriate) application - add group-level variables

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_{1ij}X_1 + \beta_{2ij}X_2 \dots + \beta_j G_j + \epsilon_{ij}$$

Y_{ij} = outcome for individual i in context j

β_{1ij} = slope for exposure X_1 for individual i in context j ...

β_j = slope for community variable G_j ϵ_{ij} = error term

- **problem:** making cross-level inferences [drawing inferences regarding factors associated with variability in outcome at one level based on data collected at another level]
- e.g., making individual inferences based on group-level associations

(inappropriate) application - interact group-level variables

$$\ln [P(Y_{ij}) / (1-P(Y_{ij}))] = \alpha_i + \beta_{1ij}X_{1ij} + \beta_{2ij}X_{2ij} + \beta_{3j}G_j + \beta_{2ij}X_2 * \beta_{3j}G_j$$

- interacting group- and individual-level variables will get you close to the right answer
- **problem**: error structure is multilevel, but errors only specified at the individual-level
- individuals within contexts are correlated with each other
- errors not independent and identically distributed

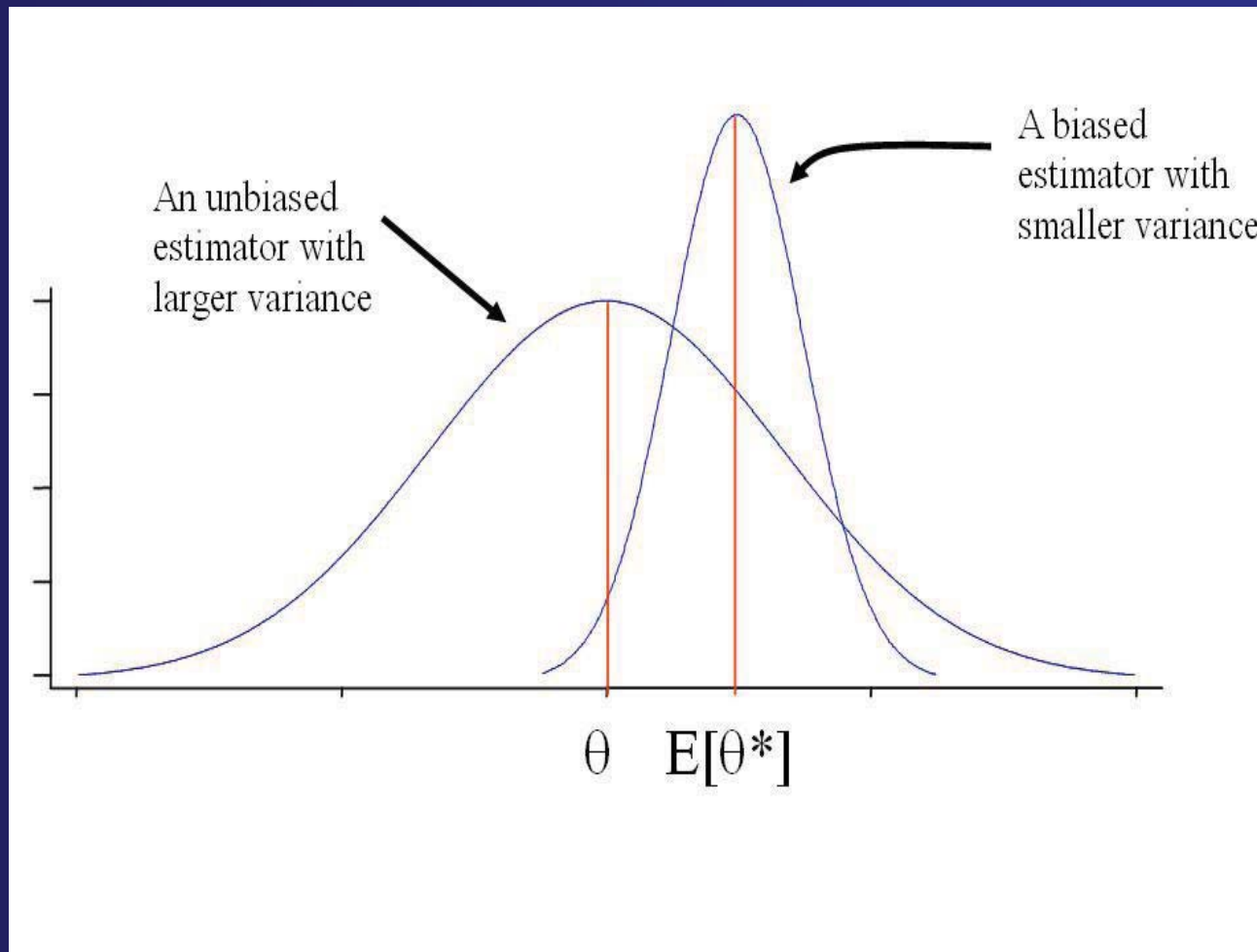
application - multilevel error structure?

- standard methods generally produce unbiased point estimates
 - your betas or ORs will be ~correct
- standard errors too small
 - confidence intervals will be wrong (too precise)
- unless you can demonstrate there are no correlations between the following:
 - individual-level predictors
 - group-level predictors
 - unobserved characteristics

application - introduction to "shrinkage"

- trade-off between bias and precision in the estimation of parameter θ using estimator θ^*
- $MSE(\theta^*) = E[\theta^* - \theta]^2$
- $VAR(\theta^*) = E[\theta^* - E[\theta^*]]^2$
- $BIAS(\theta^*) = (E[\theta^*] - \theta)$
- $MSE(\theta^*) = VAR(\theta^*) + BIAS(\theta^*)^2$

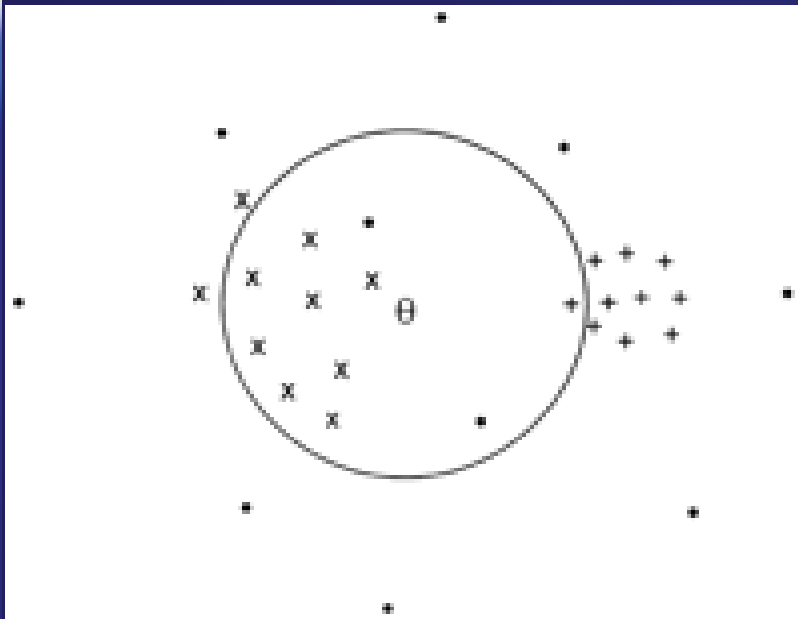
application - bias versus variance



application - bias versus variance

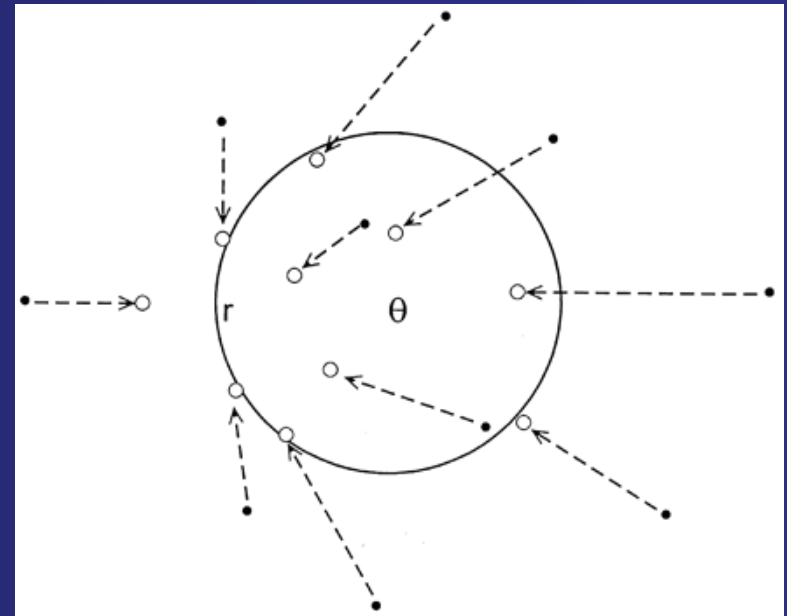
- it is possible for the variance of a biased estimator to be sufficiently smaller than the variance of an unbiased estimator to more than compensate for the bias introduced.
- in this case, the biased estimator is closer, on average, to the parameter being estimated than is the unbiased estimator.

application - greenland 2000



Greenland 2000; Figure 1

• = Rifle 1 shots
X = Rifle 2 shots
+ = Rifle 3 shots



Greenland 2000; Figure 2

How cluster from Rifle 1
could be made better by
pulling toward a point r.

application - to ml models?

- when you have information for j different clusters, you can use the grand mean as the "prior" to shrink toward
- translation: R = sum of context-specific estimates or grand mean
- just need to know weights for each estimate
- translation: How much do you trust the cluster-specific proportions, versus how much you trust the grand proportion?
- answer: depends on N and ICC

application - intraclass correlation coefficient

- estimates the degree of clustering by unit of aggregation
- $icc = \text{between cluster variance} / \text{total variance}^*$
 - $icc = 0$: no clustering - people within a cluster are just the same as people in another cluster
 - $icc > 0$: people in same cluster are more similar to each other than to people in other clusters

*total variance = within cluster + between cluster variance

application - modeling clustered data

- two main approaches:
 - population average models with robust variance estimators
 - marginal models that account for cross level correlation across all units of aggregation
 - not conditional on being in a certain cluster; does not model clustering directly
 - provides robust tests, corrected standard errors, corrects for heteroskedasticity*
 - ml models
 - random effects models (unit-specific models that condition on specific units of aggregation for inference)
 - fixed effects models (area-level coefficients held constant across units of aggregation)
 - mixed models (models that combine some fixed and random effects; **not going into any more detail about mixed models in this lecture**)

* heteroskedasticity results from errors not having constant variance

application - population average models

- developed by Eicker (1963, 1967), Huber (1967) and White (1980); often referred to as "huber-white" or "sandwich" variance
- does not specify the population distribution; only specifies the marginal distribution
- examples: generalized estimating equations with robust errors
- pros
 - model response change as function of covariates 'averaged' over group to group heterogeneity
- cons
 - do not explicitly account for heterogeneity across higher-level units / contexts; therefore no examination of group to group variation

application - population average models

$$\Pr(Y_{ij}=1 \mid X_{ij}) = f(X_{ij} \beta^*) \leftarrow \text{note: no conditioning on cluster}$$

- Y_{ij} = preterm birth (1) versus term birth (0) for woman i in tract j
- X_{ij} = low (1) or high (0) ses for woman i in tract j
- no locations specified, just averaged over all tracts
- allows you to compare 'average low' versus 'average high' ses women

application - multilevel models

random and fixed

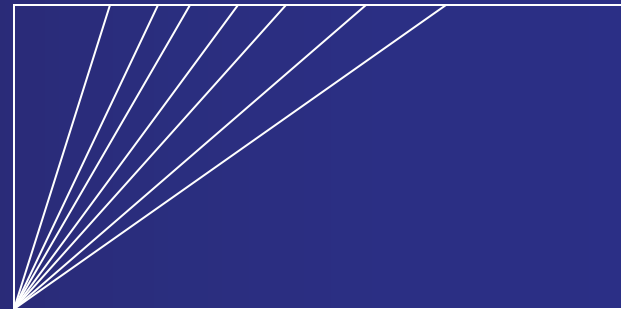
random intercept models:
context specific mean realized
from a random distribution

■ random effects models

random intercept



random slope



random slope and random intercept



random slope models: exposure
effect realized from a random
distribution

application - random effects model - simplest (1)

$$\ln [P(y_i) / (1-P(y_i))] = \beta_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_j$$

γ_{00} distribution mean of random coefficients, estimated as weighted average of tract intercepts; μ_j = cluster-specific parameter

- simplest hierarchical logistic model expresses context-level intercepts β_{0j} as function of overall intercept γ_{00} and context-specific random deviations μ_j

application - random effects model - next (2)

add individual-level or neighborhood-level covariates to explain some of the between tracts variance.

for probability of preterm delivery $p_{ij} = \Pr(y_{ij} = 1)$ for individuals i in tracts j :

$$\ln \left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}} \right) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_1 X_{ij}$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} Z_j + \mu_{0j}, \quad \mu_{0j} \sim N(0, \tau_{00})$$

application - random effects model - next (2)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}Z_j + \mu_{0j}, \quad \mu_{0j} \sim N(0, \tau_{00})$$

- γ_{00} is the mean of the distribution of random coefficients, estimated as the weighted average of tract intercepts.
- both the log-odds of outcome in each tract and γ_{00} (the weighted average of tract-specific log-odds) are estimates for the true tract-specific log-odds.
- an optimal (minimum MSE) estimator for β_{0j} is formed by taking the weighted average of these two quantities, with intra-class correlations for weights

application - logistic random intercept models [3]

replacing the second-level equation into the first level equation yields the combined equation:

$$\ln \left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}} \right) = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}Z_j + \beta_1 X_{ij} + \mu_{0j}$$

note: conditioning
on cluster ↓

these models have random effects only for the intercept, but one could also specify models with random effects for one or more of the slope terms.

application - logistic random effects output

```
. xi: xtlogit single_preterm AS_stddepriv_8_new i.cat_momage i.cat_momedu, i(c_tract) or nolog
i.cat_momage      _Icat_momag_0-5      (naturally coded; _Icat_momag_0 omitted)
i.cat_momedu      _Icat_momed_1-3      (naturally coded; _Icat_momed_1 omitted)
```

```
Random-effects logistic regression      Number of obs      =      28158
Group variable (i): c_tract            Number of groups   =       105
```

```
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian          Obs per group: min =       34
                                         avg =      268.2
                                         max =     1148
```

```
Wald chi2(8) = 104.08
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log likelihood = -7825.5801
```

single_pre~m	OR	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
AS_stddepr~w	1.209596	.0436054	5.28	0.000	1.127081	1.298153
_Icat_moma~1	1.017455	.1558981	0.11	0.910	.7535132	1.37385
_Icat_moma~2	.9998798	.1140788	-0.00	0.999	.799525	1.250442
_Icat_moma~3	1.110174	.0762816	1.52	0.128	.9702947	1.270218
_Icat_moma~4	1.028658	.0739753	0.39	0.694	.8934238	1.184363
_Icat_moma~5	1.266427	.0988397	3.03	0.002	1.086793	1.475751
_Icat_mome~2	1.42299	.0845803	5.93	0.000	1.266508	1.598807
_Icat_mome~3	1.317904	.097865	3.72	0.000	1.139398	1.524377
/lnsig2u	-4.466719	.7646109			-5.965329	-2.968109
sigma_u	.1071678	.0409708			.0506577	.2267166
rho	.0034789	.0026507			.0007794	.0153835

```
Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0: chibar2(01) = 2.43 Prob >= chibar2 = 0.060
```

application - random effects models

■ pros

- helps explain variance in area or context effects
- allows observation of group to group variation and interaction with individual-level variables

■ cons

- don't account for selection bias
- don't account for omitted variable bias

application- why partition variance?

- random-effects models allow you to decompose the total variance in individual-level outcomes into within-group and between-group components
- In the ANOVA context, has an explanatory interpretation as identifying the mechanism as being contextual or compositional

application - linear fixed effect multilevel model

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_1 \dots + \beta_{286} X_1 + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

- β_1 = context - level estimate for exposure X_1 in context 1...
- context-specific variables not allowed to vary; held fixed
- controls for observed and unobserved / unmeasured context variables
- usually accomplished by creating an indicator for each contextual variable

application - fixed effects models

■ pros

- controls for neighborhood effects
- controls for selection bias
- controls for omitted variable bias

■ cons

- doesn't explain variance between contexts
- can't identify independent contextual effects
- statistically inefficient

application - linear fixed effects output

```
. xi: xtreg term_bwt i.cat_momedu, i(tract) fe  
i.cat_momedu      _Icat_momed_0-2      (naturally coded; _Icat_momed_0 omitted)
```

```
Fixed-effects (within) regression      Number of obs      =      968  
Group variable (i): tract              Number of groups   =      100
```

```
R-sq:  within = 0.0023      Obs per group: min =      1  
        between = 0.1332      avg =      9.7  
        overall = 0.0066     max =      39
```

```
corr(u_i, Xb) = 0.0953      F(2,866) =      1.00  
                          Prob > F =      0.3684
```

```
-----  
      term_bwt |      Coef.   Std. Err.      t    P>|t|     [95% Conf. Interval]  
-----+-----  
_Icat_mome~1 | -6.692403   41.73948    -0.16  0.873   -88.61478    75.22997  
_Icat_mome~2 | -61.08572   46.44495    -1.32  0.189   -152.2435    30.0721  
      _cons |  3425.676   27.98791   122.40  0.000    3370.744    3480.608  
-----+-----  
      sigma_u |  219.86417  
      sigma_e |  505.85722  
      rho |  .15889284   (fraction of variance due to u_i)
```

```
-----  
F test that all u_i=0:      F(99, 866) =      1.04      Prob > F = 0.3692
```

application - how to decide which model to use

- depends on what you want to say...
 - if you want to look at risk / odds for the average individual with some exposure compared with average individual with some other exposure, use a population averaged model (e.g., GEE with robust estimator)
 - if you want to talk about how changes in context specific exposures will change the risk / odds in that context, use the unit-specific / random effects model
 - if you want to want to consider the effect of some variable holding all observed and unobserved contextual factors constant, use a context fixed effect model

interpretation - unemployment and PTB; 3 models

	<u>Logistic</u>		<u>Logistic (PA)</u>		<u>Logistic (RE)</u>	
	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
>5% unemployment	1.29	(1.08, 1.55)	1.29	(1.04, 1.61)	1.31	(1.04, 1.64)
Age 25-29	1.31	(1.05, 1.64)	1.31	(1.04, 1.61)	1.31	(1.05, 1.64)
Age 30-34	1.69	(1.33, 2.15)	1.70	(1.35, 2.10)	1.68	(1.32, 2.14)
Age 35+	2.10	(1.60, 2.76)	2.10	(1.60, 2.77)	2.10	(1.60, 2.75)
High school	1.37	(1.13, 1.66)	1.37	(1.10, 1.70)	1.38	(1.14, 1.67)
< High school	1.74	(1.36, 2.26)	1.74	(1.33, 2.27)	1.76	(1.34, 2.29)
Not married	1.49	(1.23, 1.80)	1.49	(1.25, 1.77)	1.49	(1.23, 1.80)

interpretation - logistic model

- standard logistic model (>5% unemployment versus $\leq 5\%$ unemployment)
OR = 1.29 (95% CI: 1.08, 1.55)

assuming that women are evenly distributed across neighborhoods with regard to preterm birth, the odds of preterm delivery will increase by 29% for a randomly selected woman living in a high unemployment tract compared with a randomly selected woman living in a low unemployment tract

interpretation - population average model

- population average logistic model (>5% unemployment versus $\leq 5\%$ unemployment)
OR = 1.29 (95% CI: 1.04, 1.61)

the odds of preterm delivery will increase by 29% for a randomly selected woman (read: **average woman**) in a low unemployment tract if she were to be relocated to a high unemployment tract

interpretation - random effects logistic model

- random effects logistic model (>5% unemployment versus $\leq 5\%$ unemployment)
OR = 1.31 (95% CI: 1.04, 1.64)

the odds of preterm delivery will increase by 31% for a randomly selected woman in a specific census tract with low unemployment if that tract is somehow manipulated to have high unemployment

interpretation - fixed effects logistic model

- fixed effects logistic model (low personal ses versus high personal ses)

OR= 1.29 (95% CI: 1.04, 1.61)

holding all observed and unobserved contextual effects fixed, the odds of preterm delivery will increase by 29% for a randomly selected woman with low individual-level ses compared with a randomly selected woman with high individual-level ses

interpretation - conclusion

- standard regression models assume that data is not clustered by a higher level grouping
- one can model clustered data by either using methods robust to this violation of assumptions, or else by modeling this clustering directly
- random effects models estimate *conditional* parameters (i.e., the effect of exposure *given* a particular cluster)

thank you

and

questions?

fallacies associated with different levels of data / inference

- atomistic fallacy - drawing inferences regarding variability across contexts based on aggregation of individual responses
 - a.k.a., individualistic fallacy
- ecological fallacy - drawing inferences regarding variability across individuals based on group-level / aggregated data
- psychologistic fallacy - failure to consider group-level characteristics in drawing inferences regarding causes of individual variability
- sociologistic fallacy - failure to consider individual-level characteristics in drawing inferences regarding causes of group variability