

3 Random-intercept models with covariates

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we extend the variance-components models introduced in the previous chapter by including observed explanatory variables or covariates x . Seen from another perspective, we extend the linear regression models discussed in chapter 1 by introducing random intercepts ζ_j .

Although many of the features of the variance-components models persist, new issues arise in estimating regression coefficients. In particular, we discuss the distinction between within-cluster and between-cluster covariate effects and the problem of omitted cluster-level covariates and endogeneity. We also discuss coefficients of determination or measures of variation explained by covariates.

3.2 Does smoking during pregnancy affect birthweight?

Abrevaya (2006) investigates the effect of smoking on birth outcomes using the Natality datasets derived from birth certificates by the U.S. National Center for Health Statistics.

Abrevaya identified multiple births from the same mothers in 9 datasets from 1990–1998 by matching mothers across the datasets. Unlike, for instance, the Nordic countries, a unique person identifier such as a person identification number, social security number, or name is rarely available in U.S. datasets. Perfect matching is thus precluded, and matching must proceed by identifying mothers who have identical values on a set of variables in all datasets. In this study, matching was accomplished by considering mother's state of birth and child's state of birth, as well as mother's county and city of birth, mother's age, race, education, marital status, and, if married, father's age and race. For the matching on mother's and child's states of birth to be useful, the data were restricted to combinations of states that occur rarely.

Here we consider the subset of the matches where the observed interval between births was consistent with the interval since the last birth recorded on the birth certificate. The data are restricted to births with complete data for the variables considered by Abrevaya (2006), singleton births (no twins or other multiple births) and births to mothers for whom at least two births between 1990 and 1998 could be matched and whose race was classified as white or black. We took a 10% random sample of this dataset, yielding 8,604 births from 3,978 mothers.

Chapter 3 Random-intercept models with covariates

The birth outcome we will concentrate on is birthweight. Abrevaya (2006) motivates his study by citing a report from the U.S. Surgeon General:

"Infants born to women who smoke during pregnancy have a lower average birthweight and are more likely to be small for gestational age than infants born to women who do not smoke..."
(*Women and Smoking: A Report of the Surgeon General*, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2001).

We will use the following variables in `smoking.dta`:

- `momid`: mother identifier
- `birwt`: birthweight (in grams)
- `mage`: mother's age at the birth of the child (in years)
- `smoke`: dummy variable for mother smoking during pregnancy (1: smoking; 0: not smoking)
- `male`: dummy variable for baby being male (1: male; 0: female)
- `married`: dummy variable for mother being married (1: married; 0: unmarried)
- `hsgrad`: dummy variable for mother having graduated from high school (1: graduated; 0: did not graduate)
- `somecoll`: dummy variable for mother having some college education, but no degree (1: some college; 0: no college)
- `collgrad`: dummy variable for mother having graduated from college (1: graduated; 0: did not graduate)
- `black`: dummy variable for mother being black (1: black; 0: white)
- `kessner2`: dummy variable for Kessner index = 2, or intermediate prenatal care (1: index=2; 0: otherwise)
- `kessner3`: dummy variable for Kessner index = 3, or inadequate prenatal care (1: index=3; 0: otherwise)
- `novisit`: dummy variable for no prenatal visit (1: no visit; 0: at least 1 visit)
- `pretri2`: dummy variable for first prenatal visit having occurred in 2nd trimester (1: yes; 0: no)
- `pretri3`: dummy variable for first prenatal visit having occurred in 3rd trimester (1: yes; 0: no)

Smoking status was determined from the answer to the question asked on the birth certificate whether there was tobacco use during pregnancy. The dummy variables for mother's education, `hsgrad`, `somecoll`, and `collgrad`, were derived from the years of education given on the birth certificate. The Kessner index is a measure of the adequacy of prenatal care (1: adequate; 2: intermediate; 3: inadequate) based on the timing of the

The data and mother's lowest level of education. For instance, we have a level-2 variable that cannot be matched with marital status level-2 variable.

We start with

use the

A useful Stat

. xtsum

Variable

birwt

smoke

black

The total number in the output (output) in the

Three different standard deviations of o

first prenatal visit and the number of prenatal visits taking into account the gestational age of the fetus.

The data have a two-level structure with births (or children or pregnancies) at level 1 and mothers at level 2. In multilevel models, the response variable always varies at the lowest level, taking on different values for different level-1 units within the same level-2 cluster. However, explanatory variables can either vary at level 1 or at level 2. For instance, while smoke can change from one pregnancy to the next, black is constant between pregnancies. smoke is therefore said to be a level-1 variable whereas black is a level-2 variable. Among the variables listed above, black appears to be the only one that cannot in principle change between pregnancies. However, because of the way the matching was done, the education dummy variables (hsgrad, somecoll, and collgrad) and marital status also remain constant across births for the same mother and are thus level-2 variables.

We start by reading the smoking and birthweight data into Stata using the command

```
. use http://www.stata-press.com/data/mlmus2/smoking
```

A useful Stata command for exploring how much variables vary at level 1 and 2 is xtsum:

```
. xtsum birwt smoke black, i(momid)
```

Variable		Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Observations
birwt	overall	3469.931	527.1394	284	5642	N = 8604
	between		451.1943	1361	5183.5	n = 3978
	within		276.7966	1528.431	5411.431	T-bar = 2.1629
smoke	overall	.1399349	.3469397	0	1	N = 8604
	between		.3216459	0	1	n = 3978
	within		.1368006	-.5267318	.8066016	T-bar = 2.1629
black	overall	.0717108	.2580235	0	1	N = 8604
	between		.257512	0	1	n = 3978
	within		0	.0717108	.0717108	T-bar = 2.1629

The total number of observations is $N = 8604$, the number of clusters is $J = 3978$ (n in the output), and there are on average about 2.2 births per mother (T-bar in the output) in the dataset.

Three different sample standard deviations are given for each variable: the overall standard deviation s_{xO} , defined as usual as the square root of the mean squared deviation of observations from the overall mean

$$s_{xO}^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{..})^2$$

the *between standard deviation*, defined as the square root of the mean squared deviation of the cluster means from the overall mean

$$s_{xB}^2 = \frac{1}{J-1} \sum_{j=1}^J (\bar{x}_{.j} - \bar{x}_{..})^2$$

and the *within standard deviation*, defined as the square root of the mean squared deviation of observations from the cluster means

$$s_{xW}^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_{.j})^2$$

We see that birthweight and smoking vary more between mothers than within mothers whereas being black does not vary at all within mothers as expected.

3.3 The linear random-intercept model with covariates

3.3.1 Model specification

An obvious model to consider for the continuous response variable birthweight is a multiple linear regression model (discussed in chapter 1) including smoking status and various other variables as explanatory variables or covariates.

The model for the birthweight y_{ij} of child i with mother j is specified as

$$y_{ij} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij} + \xi_{ij} \quad (3.1)$$

where x_{2ij} through x_{pij} are covariates and ξ_{ij} is a residual.

It may be unrealistic to assume that the birthweights of children born to the same mother are independent given the observed covariates, or in other words that the residuals ξ_{ij} and $\xi_{i'j}$ are independent. We can therefore use the idea introduced in the previous chapter to split the total residual or error into two error components:

$$\xi_{ij} \equiv \zeta_j + \epsilon_{ij}$$

Substituting for ξ_{ij} into the multiple-regression model (3.1), we obtain a linear random-intercept model with covariates

$$\begin{aligned} y_{ij} &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij} + \zeta_j + \epsilon_{ij} \\ &= (\beta_1 + \zeta_j) + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij} + \epsilon_{ij} \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

This model can be viewed as a regression model with a mother-specific intercept $\beta_1 + \zeta_j$. The random intercept ζ_j can be considered a "random parameter" that is not estimated along with the fixed parameters β_1 through β_p , but whose variance ψ is estimated together with the variance θ of the ϵ_{ij} . The linear random-intercept model

with covariates is the simplest example of a *linear mixed (effects) model* where there are both fixed and random "effects".

The random intercept or level-2 residual ζ_j is a mother-specific error component, which remains constant across births, whereas the level-1 residual ϵ_{ij} is a child-specific error component, which varies between children i as well as mothers j . The ζ_j are independent over mothers, the ϵ_{ij} are independent over mothers and children, and the two error components are independent of each other.

The mother-specific error component ζ_j represents the combined effects of omitted mother characteristics or unobserved heterogeneity. If ζ_j is positive, the total residuals for mother j , ξ_{ij} , will tend to be positive, leading to heavier babies than predicted by the covariates, and if ζ_j is negative, the total residuals will tend to be negative. Since ζ_j is shared by all responses for the same mother, it induces within-mother dependence among the total residuals ξ_{ij} .

Letting $\mathbf{x}_{ij} = (x_{2ij}, \dots, x_{pij})'$ be the vector consisting of all observed covariates, the exogeneity assumptions are

$$E(\zeta_j | \mathbf{x}_{ij}) = 0 \quad (3.3)$$

and

$$E(\epsilon_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}, \zeta_j) = 0 \quad (3.4)$$

from which it follows that $E(\epsilon_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}) = 0$. These assumptions ensure that the population-averaged or marginal regression (averaged over ζ_j and ϵ_{ij} , but given \mathbf{x}_{ij}) is linear

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}) &= E(\beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij}) + \underbrace{E(\zeta_j | \mathbf{x}_{ij})}_0 + \underbrace{E(\epsilon_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij})}_0 \\ &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij} \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

and that the cluster-specific or conditional regression (averaged over ϵ_{ij} , but given ζ_j and \mathbf{x}_{ij}) is linear

$$\begin{aligned} E(y_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}, \zeta_j) &= E(\beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij}) + E(\zeta_j | \mathbf{x}_{ij}, \zeta_j) + \underbrace{E(\epsilon_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}, \zeta_j)}_0 \\ &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \dots + \beta_p x_{pij} + \zeta_j \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

It follows from the exogeneity assumptions stated in (3.3) and (3.4) that both ζ_j and ϵ_{ij} are uncorrelated with the covariates. For example, smoking is assumed to be uncorrelated with the random intercept for mother, which represents the effect of omitted mother-specific covariates on birthweight. Endogeneity, or violation of exogeneity, is therefore often discussed in terms of correlations between the error terms and covariates (see sec. 3.7.4).

Regarding distributional assumptions, we specify that

$$\zeta_j | \mathbf{x}_{ij} \sim N(0, \psi)$$

and

$$\epsilon_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}, \zeta_j \sim N(0, \theta)$$

from which it follows that $\zeta_j \sim N(0, \psi)$ and $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \theta)$.

A graphical illustration of the random-intercept model with a single covariate x_{ij} for a mother j is given in figure 3.1. Here the solid line is $E(y_{ij} | x_{ij}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{ij}$.

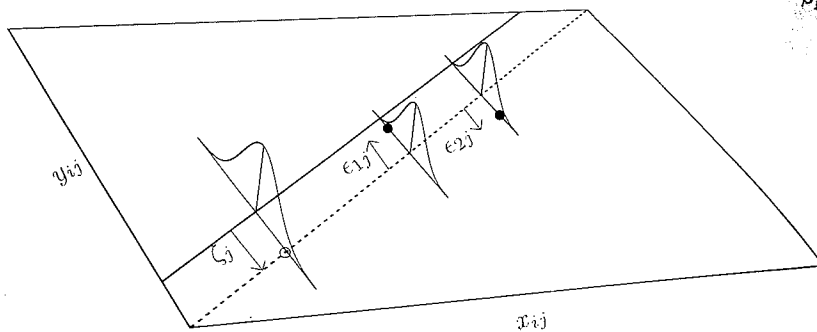


Figure 3.1: Illustration of random-intercept model for one mother

the population-averaged regression line for the population of all mothers j . The normal density curve centered on this line represents the random-intercept distribution and the hollow circle represents a realization ζ_j from this distribution for mother j (this could have been placed anywhere along the line). This negative random intercept ζ_j produces the dotted mother-specific regression line $E(y_{ij} | x_{ij}, \zeta_j) = (\beta_1 + \zeta_j) + \beta_2 x_{ij}$. This line is parallel to and below the population-averaged regression line. For a mother with a positive ζ_j , the mother-specific regression line would be parallel to and above the population-averaged regression line. Two observed responses $y_{ij} = (\beta_1 + \zeta_j) + \beta_2 x_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}$ ($i = 1, 2$), are shown where ϵ_{1j} and ϵ_{2j} are random samples from the two normal residual distributions shown on the dotted curve.

3.3.2 Residual variance and intraclass correlation

As shown in section 2.3.2, the total residuals or error terms are homoskedastic (having constant variance),

$$\text{Var}(\xi_{ij}) = \text{Var}(\zeta_j + \epsilon_{ij}) = \psi + \theta$$

where ψ is the variance of ζ_j and θ the variance of ϵ_{ij} as before. It follows that the responses y_{ij} , given the observed covariates \mathbf{x}_{ij} , are also homoskedastic

$$\text{Var}(y_{ij} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}) = \psi + \theta$$

Thus ρ is also the in-covariates

It is important containing any cova and the conditional

3.4 Estimation

We can use xtreg. addition, xtreg can be used to obtain the least efficient. 1 gllapred are needed.

3.4.1 Using xtreg

The command for fit xtreg is

As shown in section 2.3, the correlation between the total residuals for any two children i and i' of the same mother j , also called the residual correlation, is

$$\rho \equiv \text{Cor}(\xi_{ij}, \xi_{i'j}) = \frac{\psi}{\psi + \theta} \quad (3.7)$$

Thus ρ is also the intraclass correlation of responses y_{ij} and $y_{i'j}$ for mother j , given the covariates

$$\rho \equiv \text{Cor}(y_{ij}, y_{i'j} | \mathbf{x}_{ij}, \mathbf{x}_{i'j}) = \frac{\psi}{\psi + \theta}$$

It is important to distinguish between the intraclass correlation in a model not containing any covariates, sometimes called the *unconditional* intraclass correlation, and the *conditional* or *residual* intraclass correlation in a model containing covariates.

3.4 Estimation using Stata

We can use `xtreg`, `xtmixed`, or `gllamm` to fit the models by maximum likelihood. In addition, `xtreg` can be used to obtain generalized least-squares estimates, and `xtmixed` can be used to obtain restricted maximum likelihood estimates. As discussed in chapter 2, `xtreg` is computationally the most efficient, whereas `gllamm` is computationally the least efficient. Unless some special feature of `gllamm` or its prediction command `gllapred` are needed, we do not recommend using `gllamm` for linear models.

3.4.1 Using xtreg

The command for fitting the random-intercept model (3.2) by maximum likelihood using `xtreg` is

(Continued on next page)

Chapter 3 Random-intercept models with covariates

```
. xtreg birwt smoke male mage hsgrad somecoll collgrad married black kessner2
> kessner3 novisit pretri2 pretri3, i(momid) mle
Random-effects ML regression
Group variable: momid
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian
```

Log likelihood = -65145.752

Number of obs = 8604
 Number of groups = 3978
 Obs per group: min = 2
 avg = 2.2
 max = 3
 LR chi2(13) = 659.47
 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
birwt						
smoke	-218.3289	18.20988	-11.99	0.000	-254.0196	-182.6382
male	120.9375	9.558721	12.65	0.000	102.2027	139.6722
mage	8.100548	1.347266	6.01	0.000	5.459956	10.74114
hsgrad	56.84715	25.03538	2.27	0.023	7.778705	105.9156
somecoll	80.68607	27.30914	2.95	0.003	27.16115	134.211
collgrad	90.83273	27.99598	3.24	0.001	35.96162	145.7038
married	49.9202	25.50319	1.96	0.050	-.0651368	99.90554
black	-211.4138	28.27818	-7.48	0.000	-266.838	-155.9896
kessner2	-92.91883	19.92624	-4.66	0.000	-131.9736	-53.86411
kessner3	-150.8759	40.83414	-3.69	0.000	-230.9093	-70.84246
novisit	-30.03035	65.69213	-0.46	0.648	-158.7846	98.72387
pretri2	92.8579	23.19258	4.00	0.000	47.40127	138.3145
pretri3	178.7295	51.64145	3.46	0.001	77.51416	279.9449
_cons	3117.191	40.97597	76.07	0.000	3036.88	3197.503
/sigma_u	338.7674	6.296444			326.6487	351.3358
/sigma_e	370.6654	3.867707			363.1618	378.324
rho	.4551282	.0119411			.4318152	.4785967

Likelihood-ratio test of sigma_u=0: chibar2(01)= 1108.77 Prob>=chibar2 = 0.000

(If the cluster identifier is first defined by the xtset command, the i() option is not required in the xtreg command.)

The estimated regression coefficients are given next to the corresponding covariate name; for instance, the coefficient β_2 of smoke is estimated as -218. This means that, according to the fitted model, the expected birthweight is 218 grams lower for a child of a mother who smoked during the pregnancy compared with a child of a mother who did not smoke, controlling or adjusting for the other covariates. The estimated regression coefficients for the other covariates make sense, although the coefficients for the prenatal care variables (kessner2, kessner3, novisit, pretri2, pretri3) are not straightforward to interpret because their definitions are partly overlapping.

The estimate of the random-intercept standard deviation $\sqrt{\psi}$ is given under /sigma_u as 339 grams, and the estimate of the level-1 residual standard deviation θ is given under /sigma_e as 371 grams.

The maximum likelihood estimates for the random-intercept model are also presented in the first columns of table 3.1. The estimated regression coefficients are reported in the "Fixed part" of the table, and the estimated standard deviations for the random intercept and level-1 residual are given in the "Random part".

Table 3.

Fixed

 β_1 [co β_2 [sm β_3 [ma β_4 [ma β_5 [hs β_6 [so β_7 [co β_8 [ma β_9 [bl β_{10} [ke β_{11} [ke β_{12} [no β_{13} [pr β_{14} [pr

Rando

 $\sqrt{\psi}$ $\sqrt{\theta}$

Derive

 R^2 ρ

3.4.2 Using xtr

The random-int
xtmixed with th

Table 3.1: Maximum likelihood estimates for smoking data (in grams)

	Full model		Null model		Level-2 cov.	
	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)
Fixed part						
β_1 [_cons]	3,117	(41)	3,468	(7)	3,216	(26)
β_2 [smoke]	-218	(18)				
β_3 [male]	121	(10)				
β_4 [mage]	8	(1)				
β_5 [hsgrad]	57	(25)			131	(25)
β_6 [somecoll]	81	(27)			181	(27)
β_7 [collgrad]	91	(28)			233	(26)
β_8 [married]	50	(26)			115	(25)
β_9 [black]	-211	(28)			-201	(29)
β_{10} [kessner2]	-93	(20)				
β_{11} [kessner3]	-151	(41)				
β_{12} [novisit]	-30	(66)				
β_{13} [pretri2]	93	(23)				
β_{14} [pretri3]	179	(52)				
Random part						
$\sqrt{\psi}$	339		368		348	
$\sqrt{\theta}$	371		378		378	
Derived estimates						
R^2	0.09		0.00		0.05	
ρ	0.46		0.49		0.46	

3.4.2 Using xtmixed

The random-intercept model (3.2) can also be fitted by maximum likelihood using `xtmixed` with the `mle` option:

(Continued on next page)

Chapter 3 Random-intercept models with covariates

```
. xtmixed birwt smoke male mage hsgrad somecoll collgrad married black
> kessner2 kessner3 novisit pretri2 pretri3, || momid:, mle
Mixed-effects ML regression
Group variable: momid
```

Log likelihood = -65145.752

```
Number of obs      =      8604
Number of groups   =      3978
Obs per group: min =         2
                  avg  =        2.2
                  max  =         3
Wald chi2(13)      =      693.74
Prob > chi2        =      0.0000
```

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
birwt						
smoke	-218.3286	18.15946	-12.02	0.000	-253.9205	-182.7368
male	120.9375	9.558003	12.65	0.000	102.2042	139.6708
mage	8.100566	1.344573	6.02	0.000	5.465251	10.73588
hsgrad	56.84716	25.03543	2.27	0.023	7.778611	105.9157
somecoll	80.68605	27.30906	2.95	0.003	27.16127	134.2108
collgrad	90.83268	27.99498	3.24	0.001	35.96354	145.7018
married	49.92022	25.50309	1.96	0.050	-.0649248	99.90537
black	-211.4138	28.27764	-7.48	0.000	-266.8369	-155.9906
kessner2	-92.91882	19.92617	-4.66	0.000	-131.9734	-53.86424
kessner3	-150.8758	40.83027	-3.70	0.000	-230.9017	-70.84992
novisit	-30.0303	65.69165	-0.46	0.648	-158.7836	98.72298
pretri2	92.85784	23.19067	4.00	0.000	47.40497	138.3107
pretri3	178.7294	51.63677	3.46	0.001	77.5232	279.9356
_cons	3117.191	40.88824	76.24	0.000	3037.051	3197.33

Random-effects Parameters		Estimate	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
momid: Identity					
	sd(_cons)	338.7686	6.296449	326.6499	351.337
	sd(Residual)	370.6648	3.867695	363.1613	378.3234

LR test vs. linear regression: $\chi^2(01) = 1108.77$ Prob >= $\chi^2(01) = 0.0000$

The estimates are identical to those reported for xtreg in table 3.1.

The reml option can be used instead of mle to obtain restricted maximum likelihood (REML) estimates (see sec. 2.7.1 for the basic idea of REML). When there are many level-2 units J as here, the REML and ML estimates will be almost identical.

3.4.3 Using gllamm

Although we do not recommend using gllamm for linear models because it is slower than xtreg and xtmixed and sometimes less accurate, there are occasions where estimation in gllamm may be the only way to obtain certain kinds of postestimation options as we will see in section 3.9.

The estimates a
time for this ex
instance to perf

If estimates may
using estimate.

The gllamm command for fitting the model is

```
. gllamm birwt smoke male mage hsgrad somecoll collgrad married black
> kessner2 kessner3 novisit pretri2 pretri3, i(momid) adapt
```

```
number of level 1 units = 8604
number of level 2 units = 3978
```

```
Condition Number = 8059.0645
```

```
gllamm model
```

```
log likelihood = -65145.752
```

birwt	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
smoke	-218.3289	18.20989	-11.99	0.000	-254.0197	-182.6382
male	120.9375	9.558726	12.65	0.000	102.2027	139.6722
mage	8.100549	1.347267	6.01	0.000	5.459954	10.74114
hsgrad	56.84715	25.03541	2.27	0.023	7.77866	105.9156
somecoll	80.68607	27.30916	2.95	0.003	27.1611	134.211
collgrad	90.83273	27.99601	3.24	0.001	35.96157	145.7039
married	49.9202	25.50322	1.96	0.050	-.0651828	99.90559
black	-211.4138	28.27821	-7.48	0.000	-266.8381	-155.9895
kessner2	-92.91883	19.92625	-4.66	0.000	-131.9736	-53.86409
kessner3	-150.8759	40.83416	-3.69	0.000	-230.9094	-70.84242
novisit	-30.03035	65.69217	-0.46	0.648	-158.7846	98.72394
pretri2	92.8579	23.1926	4.00	0.000	47.40125	138.3145
pretri3	178.7295	51.64148	3.46	0.001	77.5141	279.945
_cons	3117.191	40.97601	76.07	0.000	3036.88	3197.503

Variance at level 1

137392.81 (2867.2533)

Variances and covariances of random effects

***level 2 (momid)

var(1): 114763.41 (4266.0686)

The estimates are close to those using xtreg and xtmixed. Estimation takes a long time for this example, so if there is any chance we may need the estimates again—for instance to perform diagnostics—we should keep the estimates in memory for later use

```
. estimates store gllamm
```

If estimates may be required in a future Stata session, they can also be saved in a file using estimates save.

3.5 Coefficients of determination or variance explained

In section 1.5, we motivated the coefficient of determination, or "R-squared", as the proportional reduction in prediction error variance comparing the model without covariates (the "null model") with the model of interest.

In ordinary linear regression without covariates, the predictions are $\hat{y}_i = \bar{y}$, so the sample prediction error variance is the mean squared error (MSE) for the null model

$$\text{MSE}_0 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2 = \widehat{\sigma}_0^2$$

where $\widehat{\sigma}_0^2$ is an estimate of the residual variance in the null model. In the ordinary linear regression model including all covariates, the predictions are $\hat{y}_i = \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_p x_{ip}$, and the prediction error variance is the mean squared error in the regression model of interest

$$\text{MSE}_1 = \frac{1}{N-p} \sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \widehat{\sigma}_1^2$$

This is also an estimate of the residual variance σ_1^2 in the model of interest. The coefficient of determination is defined as

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2 - \sum_i (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \approx \frac{\widehat{\sigma}_0^2 - \widehat{\sigma}_1^2}{\widehat{\sigma}_0^2}$$

where the approximation improves as N increases.

In a linear random-intercept model, the total residual variance is given by

$$\text{Var}(\zeta_j + \epsilon_{ij}) = \psi + \theta$$

An obvious definition of the coefficient of determination for two-level models, suggested by Snijders and Bosker (1994, 1999), is therefore the proportional reduction in the estimated total residual variance comparing the null model without covariates with the model of interest,

$$R^2 = \frac{\widehat{\psi}_0 + \widehat{\theta}_0 - (\widehat{\psi}_1 + \widehat{\theta}_1)}{\widehat{\psi}_0 + \widehat{\theta}_0}$$

where $\widehat{\psi}_0$ and $\widehat{\theta}_0$ are the estimates for the null model and $\widehat{\psi}_1$ and $\widehat{\theta}_1$ are the estimates for the model of interest.

3.5 Coefficient

First, we fit

. regress bi

random-eff

group vari

random eff

log likeli

birv

_con

/sigma_

/sigma_

rb

Likelihood:

The estimates for
variance is estim

For the model inc
table 3.1, the tot

It follows that

so 9% of the varia

Raudenbush et al
of the variance con
explained by the c

and the proportion

First, we fit the null model, also often called the *unconditional model*:

```
. xtreg birwt, i(momid) mle
Random-effects ML regression
Group variable: momid
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian

Number of obs      =      8604
Number of groups   =      3978
Obs per group: min =         2
                  avg =        2.2
                  max =         3

Log likelihood      = -65475.486
Wald chi2(0)        =        0.00
Prob > chi2          =          .
```

birwt	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
_cons	3467.969	7.137618	485.87	0.000	3453.979	3481.958
/sigma_u	368.2866	6.45442			355.8509	381.1568
/sigma_e	377.6578	3.926794			370.0393	385.4331
rho	.4874391	.0114188			.4650901	.5098276

Likelihood-ratio test of sigma_u=0: chibar2(01)= 1315.66 Prob>=chibar2 = 0.000

The estimates for this model are also given under "Null model" in table 3.1. The total variance is estimated as

$$\hat{\psi}_0 + \hat{\theta}_0 = 368.2866^2 + 377.6578^2 = 278260.43$$

For the model including all covariates, whose estimates are given under "Full model" in table 3.1, the total residual variance is estimated as

$$\hat{\psi}_1 + \hat{\theta}_1 = 338.7686^2 + 370.6648^2 = 252156.56$$

It follows that

$$R^2 = \frac{278260.43 - 252156.56}{278260.43} = 0.09$$

so 9% of the variance is explained by the covariates.

Raudenbush and Bryk (2002) suggest considering the proportional reduction in each of the variance components separately. In our example, the proportion of level-2 variance explained by the covariates is

$$R_2^2 = \frac{\hat{\psi}_0 - \hat{\psi}_1}{\hat{\psi}_0} = \frac{368.2866^2 - 338.7686^2}{368.2866^2} = 0.15$$

and the proportion of level-1 variance explained is

$$R_1^2 = \frac{\hat{\theta}_0 - \hat{\theta}_1}{\hat{\theta}_0} = \frac{377.6578^2 - 370.6648^2}{377.6578^2} = 0.04$$

Chapter 3 Random-intercept models with covariates

Let us now fit a random-intercept model that includes only the level-2 covariates.

```
. xtreg birwt hsgrad somecoll collgrad married black, i(momid) mle
Random-effects ML regression
Group variable: momid
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian
```

Number of obs = 8604
 Number of groups = 3978
 Obs per group: min = 2
 avg = 2.2
 max = 3
 LR chi2(5) = 290.48
 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Log likelihood = -65330.247

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
birwt						
hsgrad	131.4395	24.91149	5.28	0.000	82.61384	180.2651
somecoll	180.6879	26.50378	6.82	0.000	128.7414	232.6343
collgrad	232.8944	25.58597	9.10	0.000	182.7468	283.0419
married	114.765	25.45984	4.51	0.000	64.86465	164.6654
black	-201.4773	28.80249	-7.00	0.000	-257.9292	-145.0255
_cons	3216.482	25.82479	124.55	0.000	3165.866	3267.097
/sigma_u	348.1441	6.390242			335.8421	360.8968
/sigma_e	377.7638	3.929694			370.1397	385.5449
rho	.4592642	.0118089			.436201	.4824653

Likelihood-ratio test of sigma_u=0: chibar2(01) = 1146.40 Prob>=chibar2 = 0.000

In general, and as we can see from comparing the estimates for this model (given under "Level-2 cov." in table 3.1) with the estimates from the null model, adding level-2 covariates will reduce mostly the level-2 variance. However, adding level-1 covariates can reduce both variances as we can see by comparing the estimates for the above model with the full model. Note that the level-2 variance can increase when adding level-1 covariates, potentially producing a negative R^2_2 .

For the intraclass correlation, we see that the unconditional intraclass correlation for the null model without covariates is estimated as 0.49. This reduces to a conditional or residual intraclass correlation of 0.459 when level-2 covariates are added and to 0.455 when all remaining covariates are added. The conditional intraclass correlation can also be larger than the unconditional intraclass correlation if the estimated level-1 variance decreases more than the level-2 variance when covariates are added.

3.6 Hypothesis tests and confidence intervals

3.6.1 Hypothesis tests for regression coefficients

In ordinary linear regression, we use t tests for testing hypotheses regarding individual regression parameters and F tests for joint hypotheses regarding several regression parameters. Under the null hypothesis, these test statistics have t distributions and F distributions, respectively, with appropriate degrees of freedom in finite samples.

Since finite sample results are not readily available in the multilevel setting, hypothesis testing typically proceeds based on likelihood-ratio or Wald test statistics with

3.6.1 Hypothesis tests for regression coefficients

asymptotic (large sample) theory by the null hypothesis that the coefficients are equal to each other

Hypothesis tests for regression coefficients

The most common hypothesis test is the Wald test, which tests the null hypothesis that the coefficients are equal to each other

versus the two-sided alternative hypothesis

The Wald test

with a χ^2 null distribution and one restriction.

is usually used, and a χ^2 distribution

The z statistic is used for testing hypotheses regarding individual regression coefficients, which gives a two-sided test

The likelihood-ratio test is used for testing hypotheses regarding joint hypotheses regarding several regression coefficients

Joint hypothesis tests

Consider now testing the null hypothesis that the coefficients are equal to each other

versus the alternative hypothesis that the coefficients are not equal to each other. For example, for the hypothesis that there is no difference in the index is represented by the null hypothesis that the coefficients are equal to each other

Let β_2 and β_3 be the coefficients of the level-2 covariates. Both β_2 and β_3 have 2 degrees of freedom