

Modeling Multilevel Data. The Estimated Dependent Variable Approach

Antonio M. Jaime-Castillo

University of Málaga

October 22, 2015

**Spanish Stata Users Group Meeting
IE Business School, Madrid**

1 Estimated Dependent Variables

- The model
- Estimation alternatives

2 Application

- Inequality and electoral turnout
- Empirical findings

Introduction

- Multilevel data have become very popular in the Social Sciences. Several international research projects (e.g., ESS, ISSP and WVS) have produced a large amount of comparative data in recent decades
- The dominant approach to analyze multilevel data uses multilevel models (a mixture of fixed and random effects). Major statistical packages has incorporated routines for estimating mixed models
- This analytical strategy has several advantages over most naïve pooling strategies. However, it also has some drawbacks on both theoretical and practical grounds

The EDV approach

- An alternative to multilevel models is the Estimated Dependent Variable (EDV) approach (Hanusek, 1974; Lewis and Linzer, 2005), which involves two steps
- In the first step we estimate a separate model for individuals nested within each level 2 unit. The estimates of interest are kept for further analysis
- In the second step, estimates obtained in the first step become the dependent variable to be explained by a set of aggregate predictors

Advantages

- The statistical theory behind multilevel models is still under development
- The EDV approach allows for complex models at level 1 that are difficult to estimate using multilevel techniques (e.g., matching samples, imputed values)
- The computational burden to estimate non-linear multilevel models, as well as convergence issues, can be challenging in some cases
- The computational burden involved by the EDV approach is much lower

The model

Following Lewis and Linzer (2005), we start with the following model:

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \sum_{k=2}^K \beta_k x_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (1)$$

However, y_i is not observable. We observe and unbiased estimate y_i^* :

$$y_i^* = y_i + u_i \quad (2)$$

where $E(u_i) = 0$ and $Var(u_i) = \omega_i^2$. By plugging (1) into (2), we get:

$$y_i^* = \beta_1 + \sum_{k=2}^K \beta_k x_{ik} + u_i + \epsilon_i \quad (3)$$

Disturbances

It is clear that if $\omega_i \neq \omega_j$ for some i and j , then $v_i (u_i + \epsilon_i)$ is heteroskedastic:

$$E(\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}') = \mathbf{\Omega} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 + \omega_1^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 + \omega_2^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \sigma^2 + \omega_N^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$. If σ^2 and ω_i^2 were known, we can use WLS to estimate Equation (3). Weights are given by:

$$w_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \omega_i^2}}$$

Estimation by OLS and WLS

- Equation (3) can be estimated by OLS. However, ω_i must be constant for all observations, which is not usually true. In general, OLS estimators will be inconsistent
- Inconsistent OLS standard errors can be corrected using robust standard errors (Efron, 1982; White, 1980). However, OLS estimators will be inefficient, as they only have partial information about the source of heteroscedasticity
- The WLS approach sets $w_i = 1/\omega_i$, which implies $\sigma^2 = 0$. This amounts to assume that the total residual (v_i) is only due to the sampling error (u_i). In that case, the R^2 for the main regression would be 1! if we could observe y_i instead of y_i^*

Estimation by FGLS

The model originally proposed by Hanusek (1974) exploits the fact that ω_i is usually assumed to be known. Therefore, only an estimate of σ_i^2 is needed to obtain weights for the second stage WLS regression. The expectation of the sum of squared residuals is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} E\left(\sum_i \hat{v}_i^2\right) &= E(\mathbf{v}'\mathbf{v}) - \text{tr}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{\Omega}\mathbf{X}) \\ &= N\sigma^2 + \sum_i \omega_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{\Omega}$ is the variance-covariance matrix of regression residuals and $\mathbf{\Omega} = \sigma^2\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G}$, where \mathbf{G} is a diagonal matrix with ω_i^2 as the i th diagonal element

Estimation by FGLS

After some algebra we get:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{E(\sum_i \hat{v}^2) - \sum_i \omega^2 + tr(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{G}\mathbf{X})}{N - k}$$

which implies that:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum_i \hat{v}^2 - \sum_i \omega^2 + tr(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{G}\mathbf{X})}{N - k}$$

Now we can use this estimator of σ^2 to compute the weights used to estimate the main regression:

$$w_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega_i^2 + \hat{\sigma}^2}}$$

Inequality and electoral turnout

- Empirical research has shown that electoral turnout is positively correlated with income at the individual level
- The aggregate relationship between income inequality and electoral turnout is still unclear, as the effect of income on the probability of voting varies substantially across countries
- The relative power theory (Goodin and Dryzek, 1980) predicts that inequality will depress turnout, although there are conflicting empirical results
- Conflict theory (Meltzer and Richard, 1981; Brady, 2004) suggests that the effect of income will increase as party polarization increases
- Mobilization theories (Kumlin and Svallfors, 2007) suggest that the effect of income will decline in well established democracies

Income and voter turnout

Table 1: Voter turnout by income quintile (selected countries)

| | Q1 | Q2 | Q3 | Q4 | Q5 | Q5 - Q1 |
|--------------------|------|------|------|------|------|---------|
| Denmark (2007) | 97.2 | 96.3 | 97.3 | 99.2 | 98.2 | 1.0 |
| Austria (2007) | 97.4 | 98.6 | 98.8 | 99.3 | 99.7 | 2.3 |
| Mexico (2009) | 75.8 | 74.3 | 79.2 | 78.2 | 78.7 | 2.9 |
| France (2007) | 81.6 | 80.5 | 80.6 | 86.3 | 85.0 | 3.3 |
| Canada (2008) | 85.9 | 88.0 | 89.8 | 89.6 | 91.2 | 5.4 |
| Turkey (2011) | 90.0 | 96.3 | 93.2 | 94.9 | 95.5 | 5.5 |
| Netherlands (2006) | 90.2 | 91.9 | 93.2 | 94.5 | 95.8 | 5.6 |
| Spain (2008) | 77.8 | 85.9 | 81.5 | 87.2 | 89.5 | 11.8 |
| Estonia (2011) | 71.2 | 79.9 | 84.2 | 84.0 | 85.1 | 14.0 |
| Norway (2009) | 81.6 | 89.7 | 91.9 | 92.5 | 96.8 | 15.2 |
| Portugal (2009) | 69.2 | 70.1 | 76.0 | 79.3 | 84.6 | 15.4 |
| Finland (2007) | 75.0 | 83.1 | 83.0 | 82.9 | 93.3 | 18.3 |
| Switzerland (2010) | 59.9 | 74.2 | 69.8 | 75.1 | 81.4 | 21.5 |
| Poland (2005) | 41.3 | 49.7 | 54.8 | 57.8 | 63.3 | 22.0 |

Source: Comparative Study of the Electoral Systems (2013)

First step

- Individual logistic regression for each country
- Dependent variable: Cast a vote in the last national election
- Explanatory variables: income and controls for gender, age, marital status, education level and work status (employed, unemployed and not in the labor force)
- Data: Comparative Study of the Electoral Systems (2013), Module 3
- Sample: 80,000 individuals within 41 countries

Second step

- Dependent variable: Marginal effect of income
- Explanatory variables:
 - Market inequality: Gini index
 - Party Polarization: average distance between parties in policy positions (weighted by vote share) (Jansen et al. 2013)
 - Democracy stock: average level of democracy (1945-)
- Data: Solt (2013), Manifesto Project (Volkens et al., 2014) and Polity IV (2014)
- Estimation techniques: OLS, WLS and FGLS

Estimated marginal effects

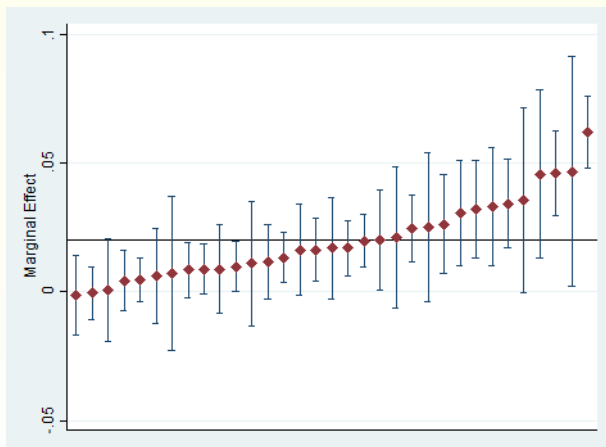


Figure 1: Marginal effects of income

FGLS estimation

```
*generating residuals
reg mfxinc mktgini polariz demst45
predict resid, residuals
gen residsq = resid^2
quietly sum residsq
local sumresidsq = r(sum)

*getting omega
gen omegasq = se_mfxinc^2
mkmat omegasq, matrix(omegasq)
matrix G = diag(omegasq)
quietly sum omegasq
local sumomegasq = r(sum)

*generating matrices
gen ones = 1
mkmat mktgini polariz demst45 ones, matrix(X)
local N = rowsof(X)
local k = colsof(X)
matrix S = inv(X'*X)*X'*G*X
```


FGLS estimation

```
*computing sigma and weights
local tr_S = trace(S)
local sigmahatsq = ('sumresidsq' - 'sumomegasq' + 'tr_S')/('N' - 'k')
gen weight = 1/(sqrt(omegasq + 'sigmahatsq'))

*second step regression
reg mfxinc mktgini polariz demst45 [pweight = weight]
display "sigmahat " sqrt('sigmahatsq')
quietly sum se_mfxinc
display "omega(average) " r(mean)
```

Second step estimates

Table 2: Cross-national variation in the marginal effect of income

| | OLS ¹ | WLS | FGLS |
|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Market inequality | 0.004 (0.050) | 0.042 (0.031) | 0.014 (0.055) |
| Party Polarization | 0.018** (0.008) | 0.017*** (0.003) | 0.018** (0.008) |
| Democracy Stock | -0.002*** (0.000) | -0.001*** (0.000) | -0.001*** (0.000) |
| Intercept | 0.015 (0.022) | -0.006 (0.014) | 0.008 (0.024) |
| R^2 | 0.301 | | |
| $\hat{\sigma}$ | 0.002 | | 0.008 |
| Average ω | | | 0.009 |
| N | 33 | 33 | 33 |

Sources: CSES (2013), Polity IV (2014), Solt (2013) and Volkens et al. (2014)

Notes: *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$ and * $p < 0.10$

¹Robust standard errors (Efron, 1982)

Conclusions

Main findings

- The effect of income on the probability of voting increases with party polarization
- Differences in electoral participation by income decrease in older democracies

Methodological issues

- The EDV approach allows to estimate the impact of aggregate covariates on estimates obtained at lower levels of analysis
- The EDV approach is computationally very efficient as compared to standard multilevel techniques

Thank you. Comments are welcome!!