

BOSTON CHAPTER Invited Short Course, 20 May 2005



Individual Growth Modeling: Modern Methods for Studying Change

Judith D. Singer & John B. Willett Harvard Graduate School of Education

"Time is the one immaterial object which we cannot influence neither speed up nor slow down, add to nor diminish."

Maya Angelou

You may download these slides and supporting materials at:

http://gseacademic.harvard.edu/alda/

http://gseacademic.harvard.edu/~willetjo/

http://gseweb.harvard.edu/~faculty/singer/

http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/examples/alda/

http://www.oup.com/us/singerwillettbook

Boston Chapter of the American Statistical Association Short Course

www.amstat.org/chapters/boston

Individual Growth Modeling: Modern Methods for Studying Change

Judith D. Singer and John B. Willett Harvard Graduate School of Education

Date & Time Friday, May 20, 2005

Abstract

Book

Instructors

8:30 AM – 9:00 AM Check-in 9:00 AM – 5:00 PM Course

Location Larsen Hall Room G-08

Harvard Graduate School of Education Appian Way, Harvard Square Cambridge, MA

Cost \$100 for chapter members, \$130 for non-members, and \$70 for students (ID must be presented at check-in, or send a copy with your advance registration). This will cover the cost of the course, morning coffee, lunch, and course materials.

Registration Limited to 90 participants. Mail a check (along with your name and e-mail address) for the course fee, payable to BCASA, addressed to BCASA, c/o Tom Lane, 128 Bingham Rd., Carlisle, MA 01741. Registrations will be accepted until the course fills, but should arrive no later than May 13. If space remains, on-site registration will be allowed. No refunds after May 13 unless you have someone else to fill the space. Receipts will be available at the event. Inquiries can

be sent to tlane@mathworks.com.

Directions See www.gse.harvard.edu/~admit/directions.html for directions to the Ed School campus. This website includes campus

maps, subway information, and a list of local parking garages.

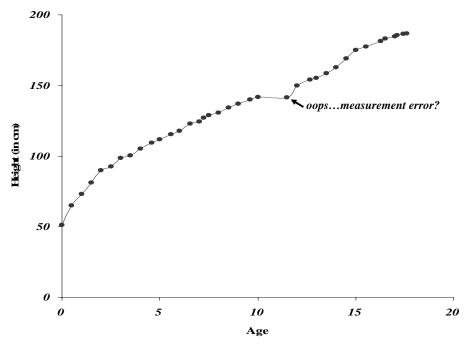
Based on their book, Applied Longitudinal Data Analysis: Modeling Change and Event Occurrence (Oxford, 2003), Singer and Willett will give an accessible yet in-depth presentation of multilevel models for individual change. Using real data sets from published studies, the instructors will take participants step-by-step through complete analyses, from simple exploratory displays that reveal underlying patterns through sophisticated specifications of complex statistical models. All concepts will be illustrated using real data sets from recent studies. Implementation using a variety of software packages will also be discussed (including SAS, Stata, SPSS, Splus, MLwiN and HLM). The course's emphasis is data analytic, focusing on five linked phases of work: articulating research questions; postulating an appropriate model and understanding its assumptions; choosing a sound method of estimation; interpreting analytic results; and presenting findings-in words, tables, and graphs-to both technical and non-technical audiences. Thoughtful analysis can be difficult and messy, raising delicate problems of model specification and parameter interpretation. The default options in most computer packages do not fit the statistical models people generally want. The course's goal is to provide you with the short-term guidance needed to start using the methods quickly, as well as with long-term advice to support your work wisely once begun. The morning session will begin with descriptive and exploratory methods, followed by a detailed discussion of basic model specification, model fitting, and parameter interpretation. The afternoon session will extend these principles to the messy arena of real world applications, delving into topics such as centering predictors, handling variably spaced measurement occasions and varying numbers of waves, including time-varying predictors, and fitting discontinuous and non-linear change trajectories. The target audience is professionals who have yet to fully exploit these longitudinal approaches. Some participants may be comfortable with multilevel modeling, although we assume no familiarity with the topic. Although methodological colleagues are not the prime audience, they, too, should find much of interest.

The course is based on the first half of the instructors' recent book, known by the acronym ALDA. You can learn more about ALDA at gseacademic.harvard.edu/~alda/. Participants are strongly encouraged to obtain copies of ALDA in advance of the workshop from either www.amazon.com or Oxford University Press www.oup.com. We are also investigating the possibility of having copies for sale at the event. Check with Tom Lane, tlane@mathworks.com, to determine if the book will be available at the course. ALDA is supported by a companion website at the UCLA Academic Technology Services, www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/examples/alda/. There you can download the many data sets used throughout the book and code for reproducing all the book's analyses, using your preferred major software package.

Judith D. Singer is the James Bryant Conant Professor of Education and John B. Willett is the Charles William Eliot Professor of Education, both at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Singer holds a PhD in Statistics from Harvard University; Willett holds a PhD in Quantitative Methods from Stanford University. Collaborators for 20 years, their professional lives focus on improving the quantitative methods used in social, educational and behavioral research. Singer and Willett are best known for their contributions to the practice of individual growth modeling, survival analysis, and multilevel modeling, and to making these and other statistical methods accessible to empirical researchers. You can learn more about the instructors on their home pages: gseweb.harvard.edu/~faculty/singer/ and gseacademic.harvard.edu/~willetjo

The first longitudinal study of growth: Filibert Guéneau de Montbeillard (1720-1785)

Recorded his son's height every six months from his birth in 1759 until his 18th birthday

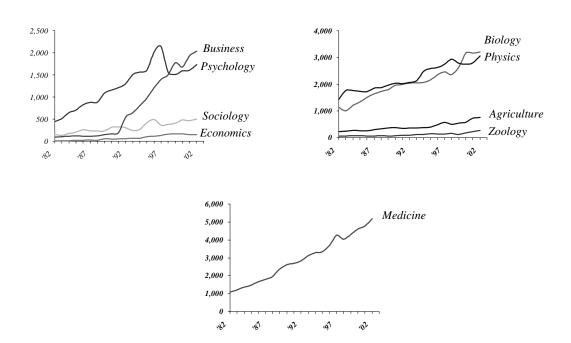


Scammon, RE (1927) The first seriation study of human growth, Am J of Physical Anthropology. 10, 329-336.

© Singer & Willett, page 1

In most fields, the quantity of longitudinal research is exploding

 $Annual\ searches\ for\ keyword\ 'longitudinal'\ in\ 9\ OVID\ databases,\ between\ 1982\ and\ 2002$



Quality, however, can be another matter

Read 150 articles published in 10 APA journals in 1999 and 2003

First, the good news:

More longitudinal studies are being published, and an increasing %age of these are "truly" longitudinal

	'99	'03
% longitudinal	33%	47%
2 waves	36%	26%
3 waves	26%	29%
4 or more waves	38%	45%

Now, the bad news:

Very few of these longitudinal studies use "modern" analytic methods

Growth modeling	7%	15%
Survival analysis	2%	5%
Repeated measures ANOVA	40%	29%
Wave-to-wave regression	38%	32%
Separate but parallel analyses	8%	17%
"Simplifying" analyses by		
Setting aside waves	8%	7%
Combining waves	6%	8%
Ignoring age-heterogeneity	6%	9%

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Part of the problem may well be reviewers' ignorance

Comments received last year from two reviewers for *Developmental Psychology* of a paper that fit individual growth models to 3 waves of data on vocabulary size among young children:

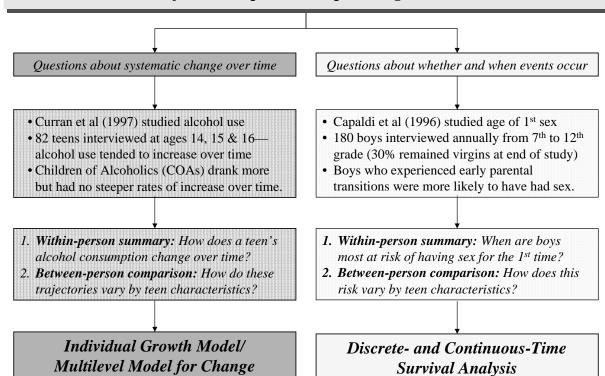
Reviewer A:

"I do not understand the statistics used in this study deeply enough to evaluate their appropriateness. I imagine this is also true of 99% of the readers of Developmental Psychology. ... Previous studies in this area have used simple correlation or regression which provide easily interpretable values for the relationships among variables. ... In all, while the authors are to be applauded for a detailed longitudinal study, ... the statistics are difficult. ... I thus think Developmental Psychology is not really the place for this paper."

Reviewer B:

"The analyses fail to live up to the promise... of the clear and cogent introduction. I will note as a caveat that I entered the field before the advent of sophisticated growth-modeling techniques, and they have always aroused my suspicion to some extent. I have tried to keep up and to maintain an open mind, but parts of my review may be naïve, if not inaccurate."

What kinds of research questions require longitudinal methods?



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Four important advantages of modern longitudinal methods

1. You have great flexibility in research design

- ✓ Not everyone needs the same rigid data collection schedule cadence can be person specific
- ✓ Not everyone needs the same number of waves—can use all cases, even those with just one wave!
- ✓ Design can be experimental or observational
- ✓ Designs can be single level (individuals only) or multilevel (e.g. students within classes/schools; physicians within hospitals)

2. You can identify temporal patterns in the data

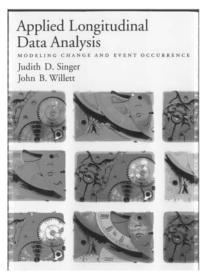
- ✓ Does the outcome increase, decrease, or remain stable over time?
- ✓ *Is the general pattern linear or non-linear?*
- ✓ Are there abrupt shifts at substantively interesting moments?
- 3. You can include time varying predictors (those whose values vary over time)
 - ✓ Participation in an intervention
 - Family circumstances (income, parental status, etc)

4. You can include interactions with time (to test whether a predictor's effect varies over time)

- ✓ Some effects dissipate—they wear off
- ✓ Some effects increase—they become more important
- ✓ Some effects are especially pronounced at particular times

What we're going to cover today





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A word about programming and software



UCLA Academic Technology Services www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/examples/alda

	Mplus	MLwiN	HLM	SAS	Stata	SPlus	SPSS	Chapter
Datasets	6	6	₽	6			۵	Table of contents
Ch 1								A framework for investigating change over time
Ch 2	0	6	0	0	6		0	Exploring longitudinal data on change
Ch 3		6	2	6	6		۵	Introducing the multilevel model for change
Ch 4		<u>~</u>	2	<u>~</u>	<u>6</u>	₽	۵	Doing data analysis with the multilevel model for change
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Ch 10				6	2		۵	Describing discrete-time event occurrence data
Ch 11	6			0	0		۵	Fitting basic discrete-time hazard models
Ch 12				6	2		Ð	Extending the discrete-time hazard model
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Ch 14				6	₽		Ð	Fitting the Cox regression model
Ch 15				0	0		۵	Extending the Cox regression model

Introducing the Multilevel Model for Change:

ALDA, Chapter Three

"When you're finished changing, you're finished" Benjamin Disraeli



John B. Willett & Judith D. Singer Harvard Graduate School of Education

Chapter 3: Introducing the multilevel model for change

<u>General Approach</u>: We'll go through a worked example from start to finish saving practical data analytic advice for the next session

- The level-1 submodel for individual change (§3.2)—examining empirical growth trajectories and asking what population model might have given rise these observations?
- The level-2 submodels for systematic interindividual differences in change (§3.3)—what kind of population model should we hypothesize to represent the behavior of the parameters from the level-1 model?
- Fitting the multilevel model for change to data (§3.4)—there are now many options for model fitting, and more practically, many software options.
- Interpreting the results of model fitting (§3.5 and §3.6) Having fit the model, how do we sensibly interpret and display empirical results?
 - Interpreting fixed effects
 - Interpreting variance components
 - Plotting prototypical trajectories

(ALDA, Chapter 3 intro, p. 45)

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Illustrative example: The effects of early intervention on children's IQ

Data source: Peg Burchinal and colleagues (2000) Child Development.

Sample: 103 African American children born to low income families

- 58 randomly assigned to an early intervention program
- 45 randomly assigned to a control group

Research design

- Each child was assessed 12 times between ages 6 and 96 months
- Here, we analyze only 3 waves of data, collected at ages 12, 18, and 24 months

Research question

What is the effect of the early intervention program on children's cognitive performance?





(ALDA, Section 3.1, pp. 46-49)

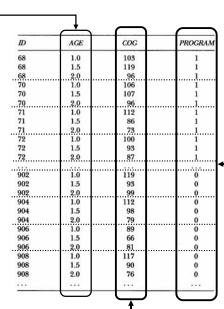
What does the person-period data set look like?

General structure:

A person-period data set has one row of data for each period when that particular person was observed

Fully balanced,
3 waves per child

AGE=1.0, 1.5, and 2.0
(clocked in years—
instead of months—so
that we assess "annual
rate of change")



PROGRAM is a dummy variable

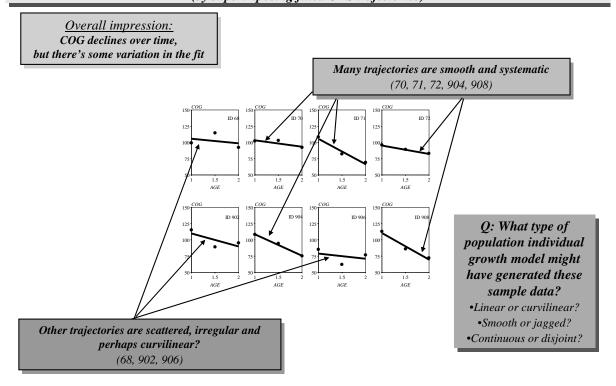
indicating whether the child was randomly assigned to the special early childhood program (1) or not (0)

COG is a nationally normed scale

- Declines within empirical growth records
- Instead of asking whether the growth rate is higher among program participants, we'll ask whether the rate of decline is lower

(ALDA, Section 3.1, pp. 46-49)

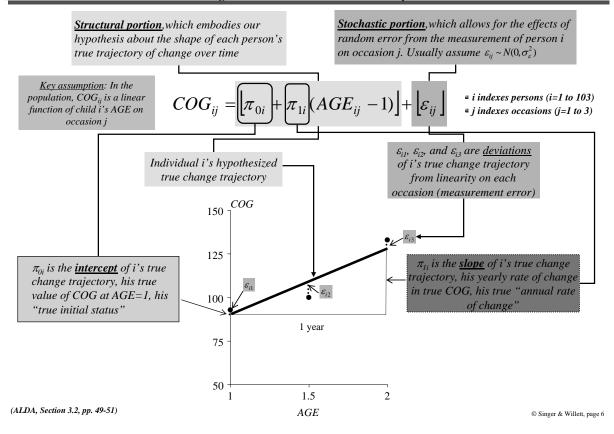
Examining empirical growth plots to help suggest a suitable individual growth model (by superimposing fitted OLS trajectories)



(ALDA, Section 3.2, pp. 49-51)

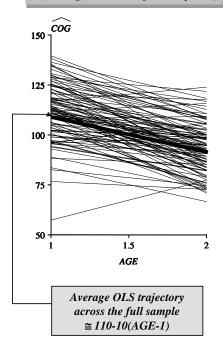
Postulating a simple linear level-1 submodel for individual change:

Examining its structural and stochastic portions



Examining fitted OLS trajectories to help suggest a suitable level-2 model

<u>Most children decline over time</u> (although there are a few exceptions)



But there's also great variation in these OLS estimates

Fitt	ed initial status	Fitte	ed rate of change	Resi	dual variance
14 13* 13. 12* 12. 11* 11. 10*	0 5588 5597 78999 9025334 556677789889 00011111222223333444 5566688999 00112222244 6666677799 344	2. 1* 1. 0* 0. -0* -0. -1* -1. -2* -2. -3*	0	Restrict 44 44 42 44 40 40 33 8 36 34 43 22 20 18 16 16 12 10 8 8 6 4 4 2 2	8 00 8 3 3 4 7 7 1444 8 8 3 00011 21 1444 8 1 11886666 77774 4 3 333848 888 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
				-	0000444400000000000000

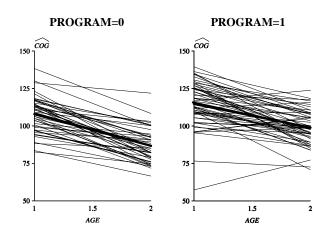
What does this behavior mean for a level-2 model?

- The level-2 model must capture both the averages and the variation about these averages
- And...it must allow for systematic interindividual differences in change according to variation in predictor(s) (here, PROGRAM participation)

(ALDA, Section 3.2.3, pp. 55-56)

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Further developing the level-2 submodel for interindividual differences in change



Program participants tend to have:

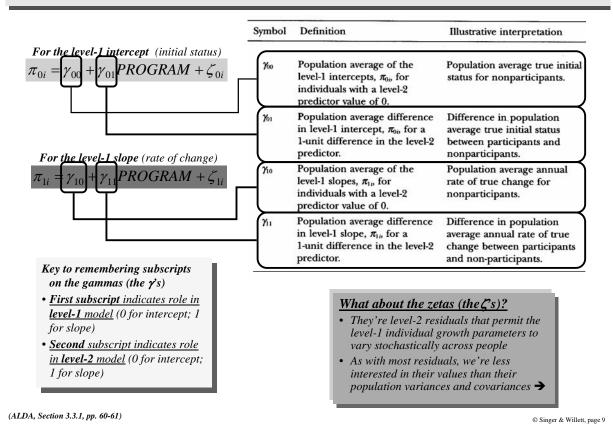
- <u>Higher scores at age</u> 1 (higher initial status)
- <u>Less steep rates of decline</u> (shallower slopes)
- <u>But these are only overall trends</u>—there's great interindividual heterogeneity

Four desired features of the level-2 submodel(s)

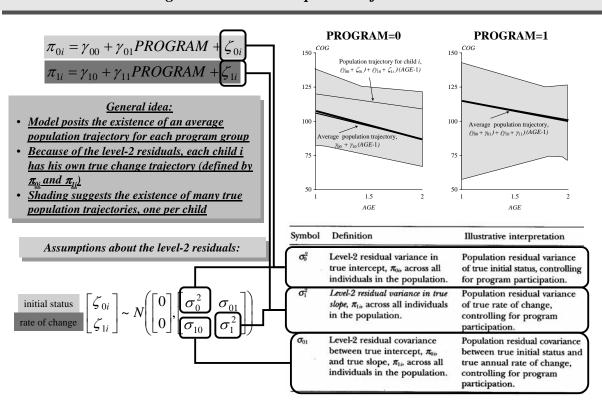
- 1. Outcomes are the level-1 individual growth parameters π_{0i} and π_{1i}
- 2. <u>Need two level-2 submodels, one per growth</u> <u>parameter (one for initial status, one for change)</u>
- 3. <u>Each level-2 submodel must specify the</u>
 <u>relationship between a level-1 growth</u>
 <u>parameter and predictor(s), here PROGRAM</u>
 - We need to specify a functional form for these relationships at level-2 (beginning with linear but ultimately becoming more flexible)
- 4. Each level-2 submodel should allow individuals with common predictor values to nevertheless have different individual change trajectories
 - We need stochastic variation at level-2, too
 - Each level-2 model will need its own error term, and we will need to allow for covariance across level-2 errors

(ALDA, Section 3.3, pp. 57-60)

Level-2 submodels for systematic interindividual differences in change



Understanding the stochastic components of the level-2 submodels



(ALDA, Section 3.3.2, pp. 61-63)

Fitting the multilevel model for change to data

Three general types of software options (whose numbers are increasing over time)

Programs expressly designed for multilevel modeling





MLwiN





Multipurpose packages with multilevel modeling modules















Specialty packages originally designed for another purpose that can also fit some multilevel models











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Two sets of issues to consider when comparing (and selecting) packages

8 practical considerations

(that affect ease of use/pedagogic value)

- <u>Data input options</u>—level-1/level-2 vs. person-period; raw data or xyz.dataset
- <u>Programming options</u>—graphical interfaces and/or scripts
- Availability of other statistical procedures
- <u>Model specification options</u>—level-1/ level-2 vs. composite; random effects
- **Automatic centering options**
- Wisdom of program's defaults
- <u>Documentation & user support</u>
- Quality of output—text & graphics

8 technical considerations

(that affect research value)

- ¶ # of levels that can be handled
- Range of assumptions supported (for the outcomes & effects)
- <u>■ Types of designs supported</u> (e.g., crossnested designs; latent variables)
- <u>Estimation routines</u>—full vs. restricted; ML vs. GLS—more on this later...
- Ability to handle design weights
- **■** *Quality and range of diagnostics*
- **S** <u>Speed</u>
- <u>Strategies for handling estimation</u>
 <u>problems</u> (e.g., boundary constraints)



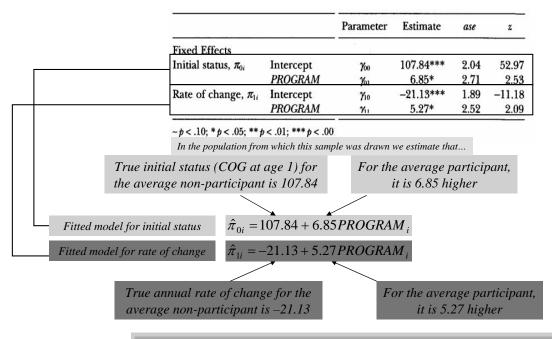
** Advice: Use whatever package you'd like but be sure to invest the time and energy to learn to use it well.

ಇಇವ

Visit http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/examples/alda for data, code in the major packages, and more



Examining estimated fixed effects



★*Advice: As you're learning these methods, take the time to actually write out the fitted level-1/level-2 models before interpreting computer output—It's the best way to learn what you're doing!

(ALDA, Section 3.5, pp. 68-71)

Plotting prototypical change trajectories

<u>General idea</u>: Substitute prototypical values for the level-2 predictors (here, just PROGRAM=0 or 1) into the fitted models

$$\hat{\pi}_{0i} = 107.84 + 6.85 PROGRAM_i$$

 $\hat{\pi}_{1i} = -21.13 + 5.27 PROGRAM_i$

Tentative conclusion: Program participants appear to have higher **initial status and slower rates of** decline.

Question: Might these differences be due to nothing more than sampling variation?

PROGRAM =0

 $\hat{\pi}_{0i} = 107.84 + 6.85(\mathbf{0}) = 107.84$ $\hat{\pi}_{1i} = -21.13 + 5.27(\mathbf{0}) = -21.13$ so: $\hat{COG} = 107.84 - 21.13AGE$

PROGRAM =1

 $\hat{\pi}_{0i} = 107.84 + 6.85(1) = 114.69$ $\hat{\pi}_{1i} = -21.13 + 5.27(1) = -15.86$ so: $\hat{COG} = 114.69 - 15.86AGE$

150 COG

125

100

75
1.5 2

AGE

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Testing hypotheses about fixed effects using single parameter tests

For initial status:

- Average non-participant had a non-zero level of COG at age 1 (surprise!)
- Program participants had higher initial status, on average, than non-participants (probably because the intervention had already started)

General formulation:
$z = \frac{\hat{\gamma}}{ase(\hat{\gamma})}$

	Parameter	Estimate	ase	z
	45			
Intercept	200	107.84***	2.04	52.97
PROGRAM	533	6.85*	2.71	2.53
Intercept	200	-21.13***	1.89	-11.18
PROGRAM	γ, 1	5.27*	2.52	2.09
	PROGRAM Intercept	Intercept %0 PROGRAM %1 Intercept %10	Intercept γ_{00} 107.84*** PROGRAM γ_{01} 6.85* Intercept γ_{10} -21.13***	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$



6^{*} Careful:

Most programs provide appropriate tests but... different programs use different terminology

Terms like z-statistic, t-statistic, t-ratio, quasi-tstatistic—which are not the same—are used interchangeably

For rate of change:

- Average non-participant had a nonzero rate of decline (depressing)
- Program participants had slower rates of decline, on average, than non-participants (the "program effect").

(ALDA, Section 3.5.2, pp.71-72)

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Examining estimated variance components

General idea:

- Variance components quantify the amount of residual variation left—at either level-1 or level-2—that is potentially explainable by other predictors not yet in the model.
- Interpretation is easiest when comparing different models that each have different predictors (which we will soon do...).

Level-1 residual variance (74.24***):

- Summarizes within-person variability in outcomes around individuals' own trajectories (usually non-zero)
- Here, we conclude there is some withinperson residual variability

		Parameter	Esti mate	ase	z.
Variance Com	ponents			1407	
Level 1:	Within-person, ε_{ij}	σ_{ϵ}^2	74.24***	10.34	7.17
Level 2:	In initial status, ζ_{0i}	σ_0^2	124.64***	27.38	4.55
	In rate of change, ζ_{1i}	$egin{array}{c} \sigma_{m{\epsilon}}^2 \ \sigma_0^2 \ \sigma_1^2 \end{array}$	12.29	30.50	0.40
	Covariance between ζ_{0i} and ζ_{1i}	σ_{01}	-36.41	22.74	-1.60
Level-2 resi	dual variance: 124.64*** - 36.41 1	2.29			
	between-person variability in change				
trajectories	(here, initial status and growth rate. for predictor(s) (here, PROGRAM)	'	_		
00	variance in rates of change to be ex	plained			
	a residual covariance)				

(ALDA, Section 3.6, pp. 72-74)



Doing data analysis with the multilevel model for change ALDA, Chapter Four

"We are restless because of incessant change, but we would be frightened if change were stopped" Lyman Bryson

> Judith D. Singer & John B. Willett Harvard Graduate School of Education

Chapter 4: Doing data analysis with the multilevel model for change

<u>General Approach</u>: Once again, we'll go through a worked example, but now we'll delve into the practical data analytic details

- Composite specification of the multilevel model for change (§4.2) and how it relates to the level-1/level-2 specification just introduced
- First steps: unconditional means model and unconditional growth model (§4.4)
 - Intraclass correlation
 - Quantifying proportion of outcome variation "explained"
- **■** Practical model building strategies (§4.5)
 - Developing and fitting a taxonomy of models
 - Displaying prototypical change trajectories
 - **■** Recentering to improve interpretation
- **Comparing models** (§4.6)
 - Using deviance statistics
 - Using information criteria (AIC and BIC)

Illustrative example: The effects of parental alcoholism on adolescent alcohol use

<u>Data source</u>: Pat Curran and colleagues (1997) Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology.

Sample: 82 adolescents

- 37 are children of an alcoholic parent (COAs)
- 45 are non-COAs

Research design

- Each was assessed 3 times—at ages 14, 15, and 16
- *The outcome, ALCUSE, was computed as follows:*
 - 4 items: (1) drank beer/wine; (2) hard liquor; (3) 5 or more drinks in a row; and (4) got drunk
 - Each item was scored on an 8 point scale (0="not at all" to 7="every day")
 - ALCUSE is the square root of the sum of these 4 items
- At age 14, PEER, a measure of peer alcohol use was also gathered

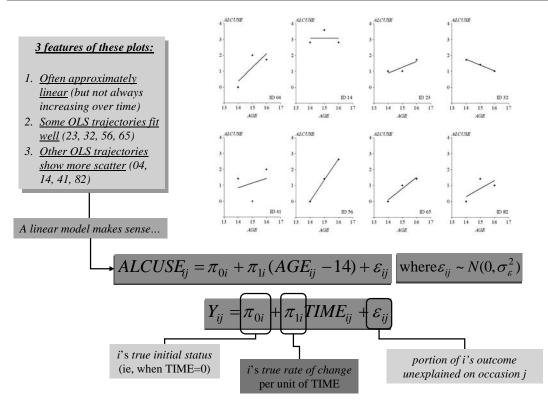
Research question

■ Do trajectories of adolescent alcohol use differ by: (1) parental alcoholism; and (2) peer alcohol use?



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What's an appropriate functional form for the level-1 submodel? (Examining empirical growth plots with superimposed OLS trajectories)

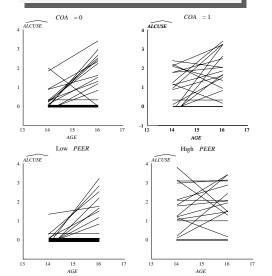


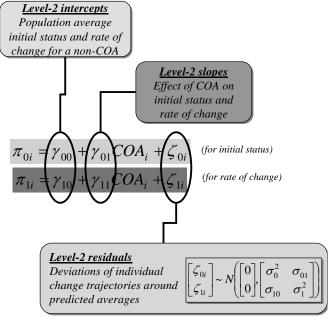
(ALDA, Section 4.1, pp.76-80)

Specifying the level-2 submodels for individual differences in change

Examining variation in OLS-fitted level-1 trajectories by:

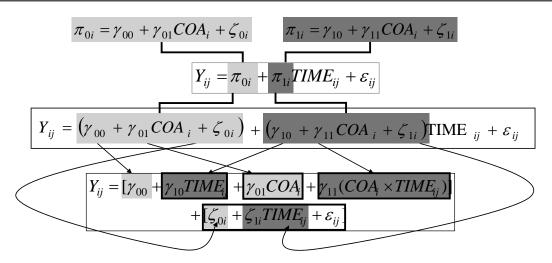
- COA: COAs have higher intercepts but no steeper slopes
- <u>PEER</u> (split at mean): Teens whose friends at age 14 drink more have higher intercepts but shallower slopes





(ALDA, Section 4.1, pp.76-80) © Singer & Willett, page 5

Developing the composite specification of the multilevel model for change by substituting the level-2 submodels into the level-1 individual growth model



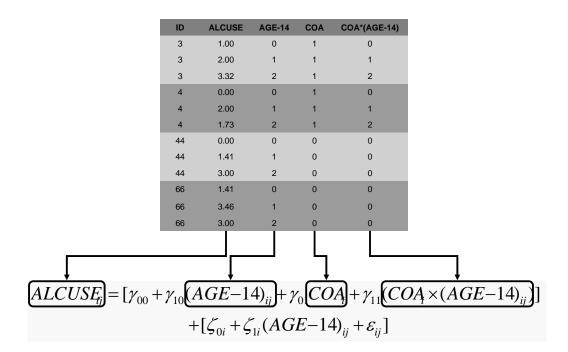
The composite specification shows how the outcome depends simultaneously on:

- the level-1 predictor TIME and the level-2 predictor COA as well as
- the cross-level interaction, COA*TIME.
 This tells us that the effect of one predictor
 (TIME) differs by the levels of another
 predictor (COA)

The composite specification also:

- Demonstrates the complexity of the composite residual—this is not regular OLS regression
- Is the specification used by most software packages for multilevel modeling
- Is the specification that maps most easily onto the person-period data set... ⇔⇔⇒

(ALDA, Section 4.2, pp. 80-83)



Words of advice before beginning data analysis

- Be sure you've examined empirical growth plots and fitted OLS trajectories. You don't want to begin data analysis without being reasonably confident that you have a sound level-1 model
- Be sure your person-period data set is correct.
 - 🖪 Run simple diagnostics in whatever general purpose program you're comfortable with
 - Once again, you don't want to invest too much data analytic effort in a mis-formed data set
- **Don't jump in by fitting a range of models with substantive predictors.** Yes, you want to know "the answer," but first you need to understand how the data behave, so instead you should...

First steps: <u>Two unconditional models</u>

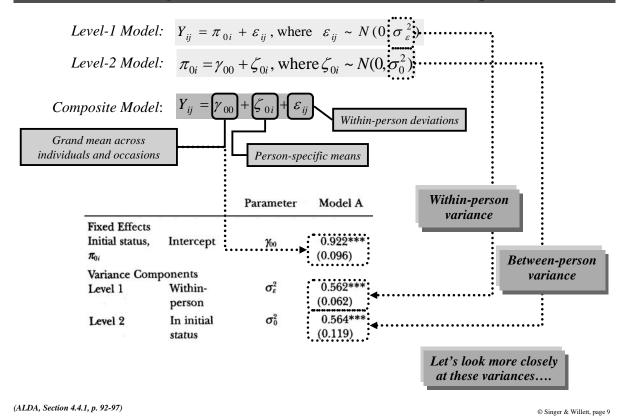
- 1. Unconditional means model—a model with no predictors at either level, which will help partition the total outcome variation
- 2. Unconditional growth model—a model with TIME as the only level-1 predictor and no substantive predictors at level 2, which will help evaluate the baseline amount of change.

What these unconditional models tell us:

- 1. Whether there is systematic variation in the outcome worth exploring and, if so, where that variation lies (within or between people)
- 2. How much total variation there is both within- and between-persons, which provides a baseline for evaluating the success of subsequent model building (that includes substantive predictors

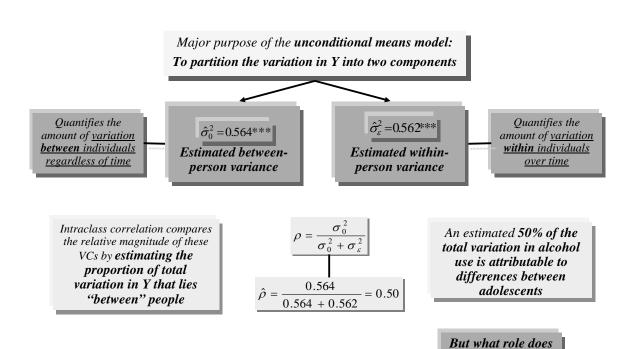
(ALDA, Section 4.4, p. 92+)

The Unconditional Means Model (Model A) Partitioning total outcome variation between and within persons



Using the unconditional means model to estimate the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient

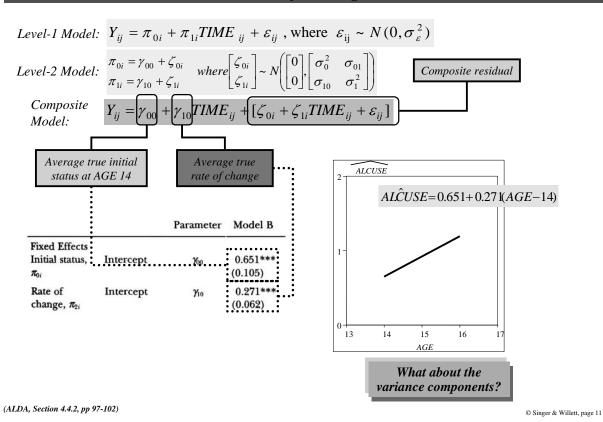
 $(ICC or \rho)$



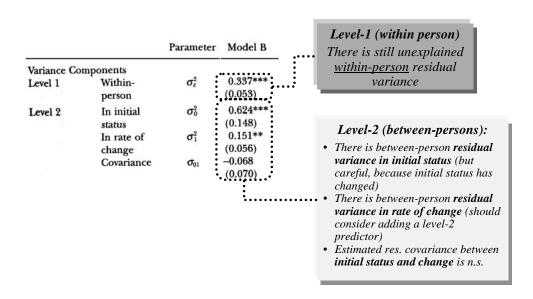
(ALDA, Section 4.4.1, p. 92-97)

TIME play?

The Unconditional Growth Model (Model B) A baseline model for change over time



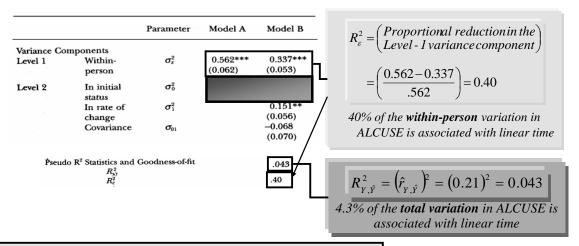
The unconditional growth model: Interpreting the variance components



So...what has been the effect of moving from an unconditional means model to an unconditional growth model?

(ALDA, Section 4.4.2, pp 97-102)

Quantifying the proportion of outcome variation explained



For later: <u>Extending the idea of proportional reduction</u> in variance components to <u>Level-2</u> (to estimate the percentage of **between-person** variation in ALCUSE associated with predictors)

$$PseudoR_{\zeta}^{2} = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{\zeta}^{2}(UncondGrowthModel) - \hat{\sigma}_{\zeta}^{2}(LaterGrowthModel)}{\hat{\sigma}_{\zeta}^{2}(UncondGrowthModel)}$$

◆ Careful: Don't do this comparison with the unconditional means model.

(ALDA, Section 4.4.3, pp 102-104) © Singer & Willett, page 13

Where we've been and where we're going...

What these unconditional models tell us:

- 1. About <u>half the total variation in ALCUSE</u> <u>is attributable to differences among teens</u>
- 2. About 40% of the within-teen variation in ALCUSE is explained by linear TIME
- 3. <u>There is significant variation in both initial</u> <u>status and rate of change—</u> so it pays to explore substantive predictors (COA & PEER)

How do we build statistical models?

- <u>Use all your intuition and skill you bring</u> <u>from the cross sectional world</u>
 - Examine the effect of each predictor separately
 - Prioritize the predictors,
 - Focus on your "question" predictors
 - Include interesting and important control predictors
- <u>Progress towards a "final model"</u> whose interpretation addresses your research questions

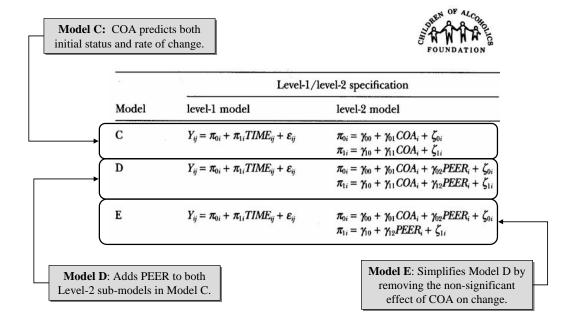
But because the data are longitudinal, we have some other options...

- <u>Multiple level-2 outcomes</u> (the individual growth parameters)—each can be related separately to predictors
- **■** *Two kinds of effects being modeled:*
 - Fixed effects
 - Variance components
 - Not all effects are required in every model

(ALDA, Section 4.5.1, pp 105-106) © Singer & Willett, page 14

What will our analytic strategy be?

Because our research interest focuses on the effect of COA, essentially treating PEER is a control, we're going to proceed as follows...



(ALDA, Section 4.5.1, pp 105-106) © Singer & Willett, page 15

Model C: Assessing the uncontrolled effects of COA (the question predictor)

		Parameter	Model B	Model C	Fixed effects
Fixed Effects Initial status,	Intercept	7 60	0.651***	0.316***	Est. initial value of ALCUSE for non-COAs is 0.316 (p<.001)
π_{0i}	COA	761	(0.105)	(0.131) 0.743*** (0.195)	£st. differential in initial ALCUSE between COAs and non-COAs is 0.743 (p<.001)
	PEER	762			Est. annual rate of change in ALCUSE for non- COAs is 0.293 (p<.001)
Rate of change, π_{2i}	Intercept	Yio	0.271*** (0.062)	0.293*** (0.084)	Estimated differential in annual rate of change
	COA	nı		-0.049 (0.125)	between COAs and non-COAS is -0.049 (ns)
	PEER	712		(6.125)	
Variance Com	nonents				Variance components
Level 1	Within- person	σ_{ϵ}^2	0.337*** (0.053)	0.337*** (0.053)	Within person VC is identical to B's because no predictors were added
Level 2	In initial status	σ_0^2	0.624*** (0.148)	0.488**	■ Initial status VC declines from B: COA
	In rate of change	σ_1^2	0.151** (0.056)	0.151* (0.056)	"explains" 22% of variation in initial status (bu still stat sig. suggesting need for level-2 pred's)
	Covariance	$\sigma_{\!\scriptscriptstyle 01}$	-0.068 (0.070)	-0.059 (0.066)	Rate of change VC unchanged from B: COA
Pseudo R ² Stat	istics and Good	dness-of-fit			"explains" no variation in change (but also still
	$R_{ m y,j}^2 \ R_{ m c}^2 \ R_{ m l}^2 \ R_{ m l}^2$.043 .40	.150 .40 .218 .000	sig suggesting need for level-2 pred's)
	Deviance AIC BIC		636.6 648.6 663.0	621.2 637.2 656.5	Next step? • Remove COA? Not yet—question

(ALDA, Section 4.5.2, pp 107-108)

Model D: Assessing the controlled effects of COA (the question predictor)

		Parameter	Model C	Model D		Fixed effects of COA
Fixed Effects Initial status, π_{0i}	Intercept	760	0.316*** (0.131)	-0.317*** (0.148)	2	Est. diff in ALCUSE between COAs and non- COAs, controlling for PEER, is 0.579 (p<.001) No sig. Difference in rate of change
	COA	7 61	0.743*** (0.195)	0.579***		
	PEER	7/02		0.694***		Fixed effects of PEER
Rate of change, π_{2i}	Intercept	Yιο	0.293*** (0.084)	0.429***	\$	Teens whose peers drink more at 14 also drink more at 14 (initial status)
	COA	Ήı	-0.049 (0.125)	-0.014 (0.125)	3	Modest neg effect on rate of change $(p<.10)$
	PEER	712	(0.120)	-0.150~ (0.086)		
Variance Com	ponents					**
Level 1	Within- person	σ_{ϵ}^2	0.337*** (0.053)	0.337*** (0.053)	5	Variance components Within person VC unchanged (as expected)
Level 2	In initial status	σ_0^2	0.488** (0.128)	0.241** (0.093)	5	Still sig. variation in both initial status and
	In rate of change	σ_1^2	0.151* (0.056)	0.139* (0.055)	١.	change—need other level-2 predictors
	Covariance	σ_{01}	-0.059 (0.066)	-0.006 (0.055)	2	Taken together, PEER and COA explain 61.4% of the variation in initial status
Pseudo R ² Sta	tistics and Goo	dness-of-fit				7.9% of the variation in rates of change
	$R_{yy}^2 \ R_{arepsilon}^2 \ R_0^2$.150 .40 .218	.291 .40 .614		
	R_1^2		.000	.079		Next step?
	Deviance AIC BIC		621.2 637.2 656.5	588.7 608.7 632.8	•	If we had other predictors, we'd add them because the VCs are still significant
~p < .10; *p < .	05; ** p < .01; ***	*p < .001				<u>Simplify the model?</u> Since COA is not associated with rate of change, why not remove this term from the model?

(ALDA, Section 4.5.2, pp 108-109)

Model E: Removing the non-significant effect of COA on rate of change

		Parameter	Model D	Model E	Fixed effects of COA
Fixed Effects		5.5			
Initial status,	Intercept	Y 60	-0.317***	-0.314***	Controlling for PEER, the estimated diff in ALCUSE
π_{0i}			(0.148)	(0.146)	between COAs and non-COAs is 0.571 (p<.001)
	COA	761	0.579***	0.571***	
	PEER	ν	(0.162) 0.694***	(0.146) 0.695***	THE LOCAL APPEND
	TELA	702	(0.112)	(0.111)	Fixed effects of PEER
Rate of	Intercept	Yio	0.429***	0.425***	Controlling for COA, for each 1 pt difference in PEER
change, π_{2i}	mercept	710	(0.114)	(0.106)	initial ALCUSE is 0.695 higher (p<.001) but rate
8-, 2	COA	χi	-0.014	(01200)	of change in ALCUSE is 0.151 lower (p<.10)
		7.5%80	(0.125)	\longrightarrow \Box	J 0 1 7
	PEER	7 12	-0.150~	-0.151~	
			(0.086)	(0.085)	
Variance Com					
Level 1	Within-	σ_{ϵ}^2	0.337***	0.337***	Variance components are unchanged suggesting
	person		(0.053)	(0.053)	little is lost by eliminating the main effect of COA on
Level 2	In initial	σ_0^2	(0.093)	(0.093)	
	status In rate of	σ_1^2	0.139*	0.139*	rate of change (although there is still level-2
	change	01	(0.055)	(0.055)	variance left to be predicted by other variables)
	Covariance	σ_{01}	-0.006	-0.006	
	Covariance	001	(0.055)	(0.055)	
h 1 - D2 C+	tistics and Goo	dwaar of fit			Partial covariance is indistinguishable from 0.
Pseudo R Sta		difess-of-iit	.291	.291	After controlling for PEER and COA, initial
	$R_{s\dot{s}}^2 \ R_e^2 \ R_0^2$.40	.40	status and rate of change are unrelated
	P^2		.614	.614	
	R_1^2		.079	.079	
	Deviance		588.7	588.7	
	AIC		608.7	606.7	
	BIC		632.8	628.4	

 $\sim p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001$

(ALDA, Section 4.5.2, pp 109-110)

Where we've been and where we're going...

- <u>Let's call Model E our tentative</u> <u>"final model"</u> (based on not just these results but many other analyses not shown here)
- Controlling for the effects of PEER, the estimated differential in ALCUSE between COAs and nonCOAs is 0.571 (p<.001)
- Controlling for the effects of COA, for each 1-pt difference in PEER: the average initial ALCUSE is 0.695 higher (p<.001) and average rate of change is 0.151 lower (p<.10)

Displaying prototypical trajectories

Recentering predictors to improve interpretation

Alternative strategies for hypothesis testing:

Comparing models using Deviance statistics and information criteria

Additional comments about estimation

(ALDA, Section 4.5.1, pp 105-106)

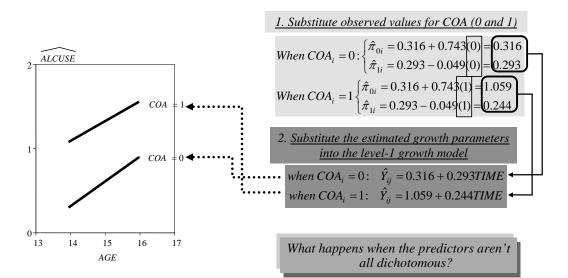
Displaying analytic results: Constructing prototypical fitted plots

<u>Key idea:</u> Substitute prototypical values for the predictors into the fitted models to yield prototypical fitted growth trajectories

Review of the basic approach (with one dichotomous predictor)

Model C:
$$\hat{\pi}_{0i} = 0.316 + 0.743COA$$

 $\hat{\pi}_{1i} = 0.293 - 0.049COA$

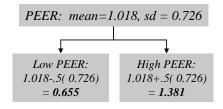


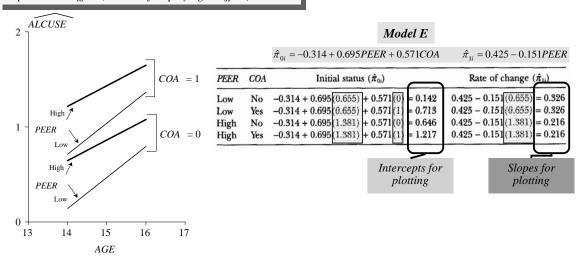
(ALDA, Section 4.5.3, pp 110-113)

Constructing prototypical fitted plots when some predictors are continuous

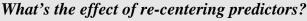
<u>Key idea:</u> Substitute "interesting" values of the continuous predictors into the fitted model and plot prototypical trajectories, by choosing

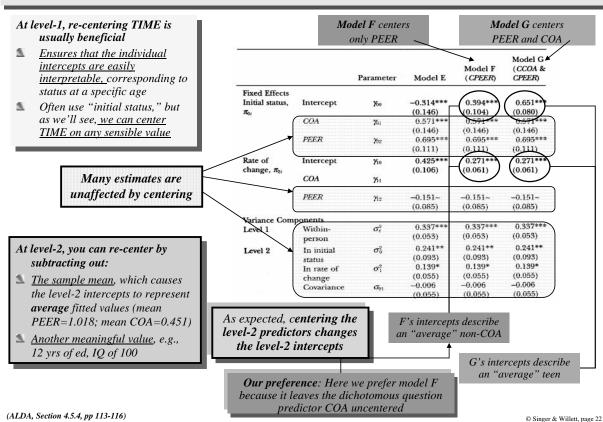
- Substantively interesting values (e.g., 12 and 16 yrs of education
- ▲ A sensible range of percentiles (e.g., 10th, 50th, and 90th)
- \blacksquare The sample mean $\pm .5$ (or 1) standard deviation
- The sample mean itself if you want to simply control for a predictor's effect (instead of displaying its effect)





(ALDA, Section 4.5.3, pp 110-113)





Hypothesis testing: What we've been doing and an alternative approach

Single parameter hypothesis tests

- Simple to conduct and easy to interpret making them very useful in hands on data analysis (as we've been doing)
- However, statisticians disagree about their nature, form, and effectiveness
- Disagreement is do strong that some software packages (e.g., MLwiN) won't output them
- Their behavior is poorest for tests on variance components

Deviance based hypothesis tests

- Based on the log likelihood (LL) statistic that is maximized under Maximum Likelihood estimation
- Have superior statistical properties (compared to the single parameter tests)
- Special advantage: permit joint tests on several parameters simultaneously
- You need to do the tests "manually" because automatic tests are rarely what you want

Deviance = $-2[LL_{current model} - LL_{saturated model}]$

Quantifies how much worse the current model

is in comparison to a saturated model

A model with a small deviance statistic is nearly as good; a model with large deviance statistic is much worse (we obviously prefer models with smaller deviance)

<u>Simplification:</u> Because a saturated model fits perfectly, its LL= 0 and the second term drops out, making Deviance = -2LL_{current}

(ALDA, Section 4.6, p 116)

Hypothesis testing using Deviance statistics

		Parameter	Model A	Model B	You can use deviance statistics to compare
Fixed Effects Initial status, π_{0i}	Intercept COA	%0 %1	0.922*** (0.096)	0.651*** (0.105)	two models if two criteria are satisfied: 1. Both models are fit to the same exact data —beware missing data
	PEER	702			2. One model is nested within the other—we
Rate of change, π_{2i}	Intercept	Yio		0.271***	can specify the less complex model (e.g., A) by imposing constraints on one or more
	COA	Ήı		(515.52)	parameters in the more complex model (e.g.,
	PEER	7/12			B), usually, but not always, setting them to 0,
Variance Com	ponents				If these conditions hold, then:
Level 1	Within- person	σ_{ϵ}^2	0.562*** (0.062)	0.337*** (0.053)	Difference in the two deviance statistics is
Level 2	In initial status	σ_0^2	0.564*** (0.119)	0.624*** (0.148)	asymptotically distributed as χ^2
	In rate of change	σ_1^2		0.151** (0.056)	\blacksquare df = # of independent constraints
	Covariance	σ_{01}		-0.068 (0.070)	
Pseudo R ² Sta	tistics and Good	dness-of-fit		# 5XC 00	1. We can obtain Model A from Model B
	$R_{\chi\dot{\chi}}^2$ R_{ϵ}^2			.043 .40	by invoking 3 constraints:
	$R_0^2 = R_1^2$				$H_0: \gamma_{10} = 0, \sigma_1^2 = 0, \sigma_{01} = 0$
	Deviance AIC		670.2 676.2	636.6 648.6	2: Compute difference in Deviance
	BIC		683.4	663.0	
-p < .10; *p < .	05; ** p < .01; ***	p < .001			statistics and compare to appropriate χ^2
					CHISTI TO WITCH
					$\triangle Deviance = 33.55 (3 df, p < .001)$
					$\Rightarrow reject H_0$

(ALDA, Section 4.6.1, pp 116-119) © Singer & Willett, page 24

Using deviance statistics to test more complex hypotheses

		Parameter	Model B	Model C
Fixed Effects				
Initial status,	Intercept	Y 00	0.651***	0.316***
π_{0i}	10.150a10.010.000.01	•	(0.105)	(0.131)
	COA	261	M	0.743***
				(0.195)
	PEER	762		
Rate of	Intercept	γio	0.271***	0.293***
change, π_{2i}	3. 7	6300	(0.062)	(0.084)
	COA	χı		-0.049
				(0.125)
	PEER	7 12		
Variance Com	ponents			
Level 1	Within-	σ_e^2	0.337***	0.337***
	person		(0.053)	(0.053)
Level 2	In initial	σ_0^2	0.624***	0.488**
	status		(0.148)	(0.128)
	In rate of	σ_1^2	0.151**	0.151*
	change		(0.056)	(0.056)
	Covariance	σ_{01}	-0.068	-0.059
			(0.070)	(0.066)
Pseudo R ² Sta	tistics and Goo	dness-of-fit		
			.043	.150
	R_{si}^2 R_{ϵ}^2 R_0^2		.40	.40
	R_0^2			.218
	R_1^2			.000
	Deviance		636.6	621.2
	AIC		648.6	637.2
	BIC		663.0	656.5

Key idea: Deviance statistics are great for simultaneously evaluating the effects of adding predictors to both level-2 models

We can obtain Model B from Model C by invoking 2 constraints:

$$H_0: \gamma_{01} = 0, \gamma_{11} = 0$$

2: Compute difference in Deviance statistics and compare to appropriate χ^2 distribution

 \triangle Deviance = 15.41 (2 df, p<.001) ⇒ reject H_0

The pooled test does not imply that each level-2 slope is on its own statistically significant

(ALDA, Section 4.6.1, pp 116-119)

© Singer & Willett, page 25

Comparing non-nested multilevel models using AIC and BIC

You can
(supposedly)
compare non-nested
multilevel models
using information
criteria

Information Criteria: AIC and BIC

Each information criterion "<u>penalizes</u>" the loglikelihood statistic for "excesses" in the structure of the current model

- The AIC penalty accounts for the <u>number of</u> <u>parameters</u> in the model.
- The BIC penalty goes further and <u>also accounts for</u> sample size.

Smaller values of AIC & BIC indicate better fit

Models need not be nested, but datasets must be the same.

Here's the taxonomy of multilevel models that we ended up fitting, in the ALCUSE example....

	Model A	Model B	Model C	Model D	Model E	Model F (CPEER)	Model G (CCOA & CPEER)
Deviance	670.2	636.6	621.2	588.7	588.7	588.7	588.7
AIC	676.2	648.6	637.2	608.7	606.7	606.7	606.7
BIC	683.4	663.0	656.5	632.8	628.4	628.4	628.4
					$\overline{}$		

Model E has the lowest AIC and BIC statistics

Interpreting differences in BIC across models (Raftery, 1995):

- → 0-2: Weak evidence
- 2-6: Positive evidence
- → 6-10: Strong evidence
- → >10: Very strong

€ Careful: Gelman & Rubin (1995) declare these statistics and criteria to be "off-target and only by serendipity manage to hit the target"

(ALDA, Section 4.6.4, pp 120-122) © Singer & Willett, page 26

A final comment about estimation and hypothesis testing

Two most common methods of estimation

Maximum likelihood (ML):

Seeks those parameter estimates that maximize the likelihood function, which assess the joint probability of simultaneously observing all the sample data actually obtained (implemented, e.g., in HLM and SAS Proc Mixed).

Generalized Least Squares (GLS): (& Iterative

GLS): Iteratively seeks those parameter estimates that minimize the sum of squared residuals (allowing them to be autocorrelated and heteroscedastic) (implemented, e.g., in MLwiN and stata xtreg).

A more important distinction: Full vs. Restricted (ML or GLS)

Full: Simultaneously estimate the fixed effects and the variance components.

• Default in MLwiN & HLM

Goodness of fit statistics apply to the entire model (both fixed and random effects) This is the method we've used in both the examples shown so far Restricted: Sequentially estimate the fixed effects and then the variance components

Default in SAS Proc Mixed & stata xtmixed

Goodness of fit statistics apply to only the random effects

So we can only test hypotheses about VCs (and the models being compared must have identical fixed effects)

(ALDA, Section, 3.4, pp 63-68; Section 4.3, pp 85-92)

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Other topics covered in Chapter Four

- Using Wald statistics to test composite hypotheses about fixed effects (§4.7)—generalization of the "parameter estimate divided by its standard error" approach that allows you to test composite hypotheses about fixed effects, even if you've used restricted estimation methods
- **Evaluating the tenability of the model's assumptions** (§4.8)
 - Checking functional form
 - Checking normality
 - Checking homoscedasticity
- Model-Based (empirical Bayes) estimates of the individual growth parameters (§4.9) Superior estimates that combine OLS estimates with population average estimates that are usually your best bet if you would like to display individual growth trajectories for particular sample members

Extending the multilevel model for change ALDA, Chapter Five

"Change is a measure of time" Edwin Way Teale



John B. Willett & Judith D. Singer Harvard Graduate School of Education

Chapter 5: Treating TIME more flexibly

<u>General idea</u>: Although all our examples have been equally spaced, time-structured, and fully balanced, the multilevel model for change is actually far more flexible



- Variably spaced measurement occasions (§5.1)—each individual can have his or her own customized data collection schedule
- Varying numbers of waves of data (§5.2)—not everyone need have the same number of waves of data
 - Allows us to handle missing data
 - Can even include individuals with just one or two waves
- *Including time-varying predictors (§5.3)*
 - The values of some predictors vary over time
 - They're easy to include and can have powerful interpretations
- Re-centering the effect of TIME (§5.4)
 - Initial status is not the only centering constant for TIME
 - Recentering TIME in the level-1 model improves interpretation in the level-2 model

Example for handling variably spaced waves: Reading achievement over time

<u>Data source:</u> Children of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (CNLSY)

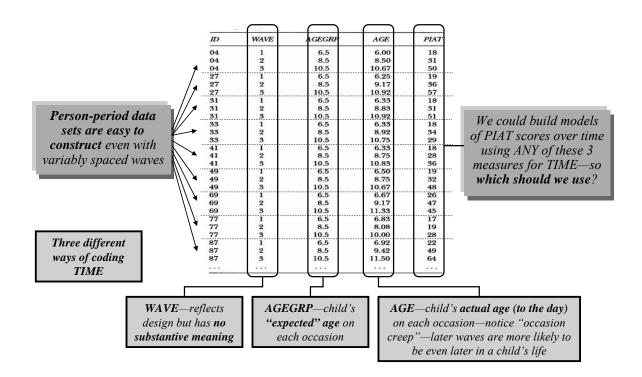
- Sample: 89 children
 - Each approximately 6 years old at study start
- Research design
 - 3 waves of data collected in 1986, 1988, and 1990, when the children were to be "in their 6th yr," "in their 8th yr," and "in their 10th yr"
 - Of course, not each child was tested on his/her birthday or half-birthday, which creates the variably spaced waves
 - The outcome, PIAT, is the child's unstandardized score on the reading portion of the Peabody Individual Achievement Test
 - Not standardized for age so we can see growth over time
 - No substantive predictors to keep the example simple
- Research question
 - How do PIAT scores change over time?





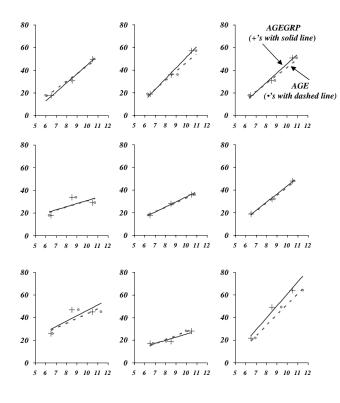
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What does the person-period data set look like when waves are variably spaced?



(ALDA, Section 5.1.1, pp 139-144)

Comparing OLS trajectories fit using AGEGRP and AGE



For many children—especially those assessed near the half-years—it makes little difference

?

♦ Why ever use rounded AGE?

Note that this what we did in the past two examples, and so do lots of researchers!!!

For some children though—there's a big difference in slope, which is our conceptual outcome (rate of change)

(ALDA, Figure 5.1 p. 143)

© Singer & Willett, page 5

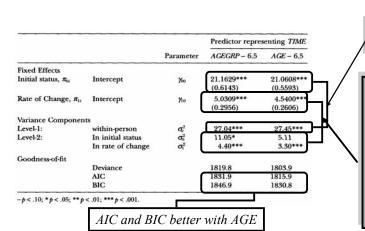
Comparing models fit with AGEGRP and AGE

Level-1 Model: $Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$, where $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textit{Level-2 Model:} & \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \zeta_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \zeta_{1i} & \textit{where} \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_{0i} \\ \zeta_{1i} \end{bmatrix} \sim \textit{N} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_0^2 & \sigma_{01} \\ \sigma_{10} & \sigma_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Composite
$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}TIME_{ij} + [\zeta_{0i} + \zeta_{1i}TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}]$$

By writing the level-1 model using the generic predictor TIME, the specification is identical



Some parameter estimates are virtually identical

Other est's larger with AGEGRP

- $\hat{\gamma}_{10}$, the slope, is ½ pt larger
- cumulates to a 2 pt diff over 4 yrs
- Level-2 VCs are also larger
- AGEGRP associates the data from later waves with earlier ages than observed, making the slope steeper
- Unexplained variation for initial status is associated with real AGE

Treating an unstructured data set as structured introduces error into the analysis

(ALDA, Section 5.1.2, pp 144-146)

Example for handling varying numbers of waves: Wages of HS dropouts

Data source: Murnane, Boudett and Willett (1999), Evaluation Review

Sample: 888 male high school dropouts

- Based on the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY)
- Tracked from first job since HS dropout, when the men varied in age from 14 to 17

Research design

- Each interviewed between 1 and 13 times
 - Interviews were approximately annual, but some were every 2 years
 - Each wave's interview conducted at different times during the year
- Both variable number and spacing of waves
- Outcome is log(WAGES), inflation adjusted natural logarithm of hourly wage

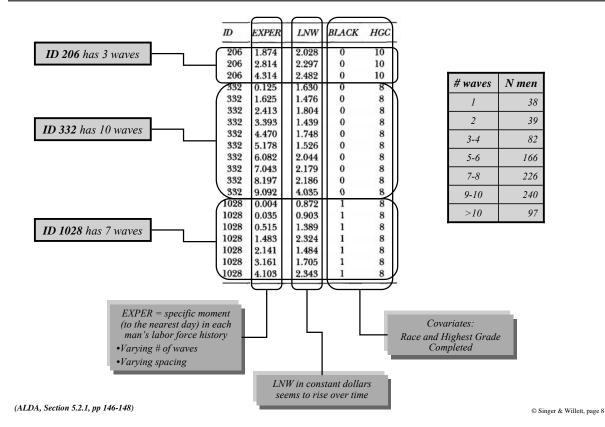
Research question

- How do log(WAGES) change over time?
- Do the wage trajectories differ by ethnicity and highest grade completed?

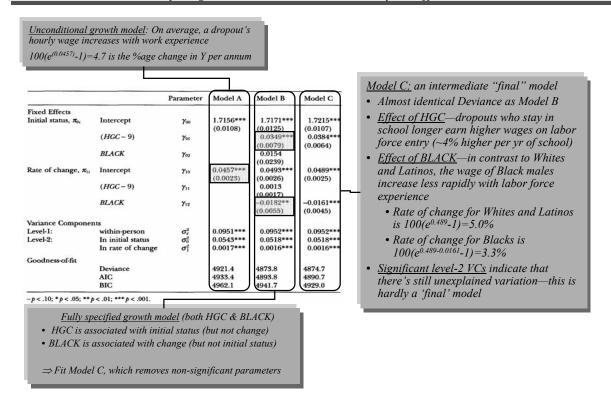


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Examining a person-period data set with varying numbers of waves of data per person

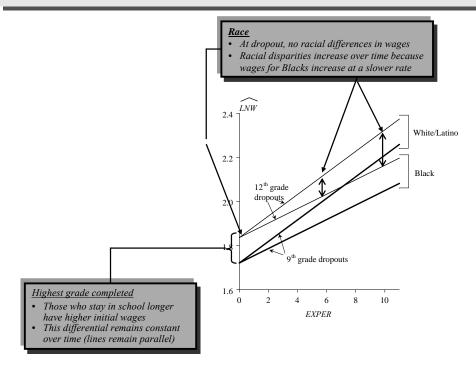


Fitting multilevel models for change when data sets have varying numbers of waves Everything remains the same—there's really no difference!



(ALDA, Table 5.4 p. 149)

Prototypical wage trajectories of HS dropouts



Practical advice: Problems can arise when analyzing unbalanced data sets



The multilevel model for change is <u>designed</u> to handle unbalanced data sets, and in most circumstances, it does its job well, however...

- When imbalance is severe, or lots of people have just 1 or 2 waves of data, problems can occur
 - You may not estimate some parameters (well)
 - Iterative fitting algorithms may not converge
 - Some estimates may hit boundary constraints
 - □ Problem is usually manifested via VCs not fixed effects (because the fixed portion of the model is like a 'regular regression model').
- **S** Software packages may not issue clear warning signs
 - If you're lucky, you'll get negative variance components
 - Another sign is too much time to convergence (or no convergence)
 - Most common problem: your model is overspecified
- Most common solution: simplify the model

Many practical strategies discussed in ALDA, Section 5.2.2

Another major advantage of the multilevel model for change: How easy it is to include **time-varying predictors**

(ALDA, Section 5.2.2, pp151-156)

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Example for illustrating time-varying predictors: Unemployment & depression

Source: Liz Ginexi and colleagues (2000), J of Occupational Health Psychology

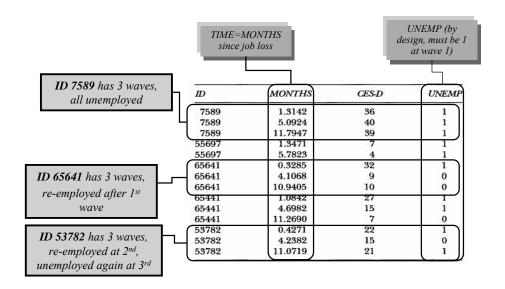
- Sample: 254 people identified at unemployment offices.
- Research design: Goal was to collect 3 waves of data per person at 1, 5 and 11 months of job loss. In reality, however, data set is not time-structured:
 - Interview 1 was within 1 day and 2 months of job loss
 - Interview 2 was between 3 and 8 months of job loss
 - Interview 3 was between 10 and 16 months of job loss
 - In addition, not everyone completed the 2nd and 3rd interview.

™ Time-varying predictor: Unemployment status (UNEMP)

- 132 remained unemployed at every interview
- 61 were always working after the 1st interview
- 41 were still unemployed at the 2nd interview, but working by the 3rd
- 19 were working at the 2nd interview, but were unemployed again by the 3rd
- Outcome: CES-D scale—20 4-pt items (score of 0 to 80)
- **Research question**
 - How does unemployment affect depression symptomatology?



A person-period data set with a time-varying predictor



(ALDA, Table 5.6, p161)

Analytic approach: We're going to sequentially fit 4 increasingly complex models

Goal is to both explain the use of TV predictors and illustrate how you do practical data analysis

Model A: An individual growth model with no substantive predictors

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$
, where $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2})$

Model B: Adding the main effect of UNEMP

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10} TIME_{ij} + \gamma_{20} UNEMP_{ij} + [\zeta_{0i} + \zeta_{1i} TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}]$$

Model C: Allowing the effect of UNEMP to vary over TIME

$$\begin{split} Y_{ij} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10} TIME_{ij} + \gamma_{20} UNEMP_{ij} \\ &+ \gamma_{30} UNEMP_{ij} \times TIME_{ii} + [\zeta_{0i} + \zeta_{1i} TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}] \end{split}$$

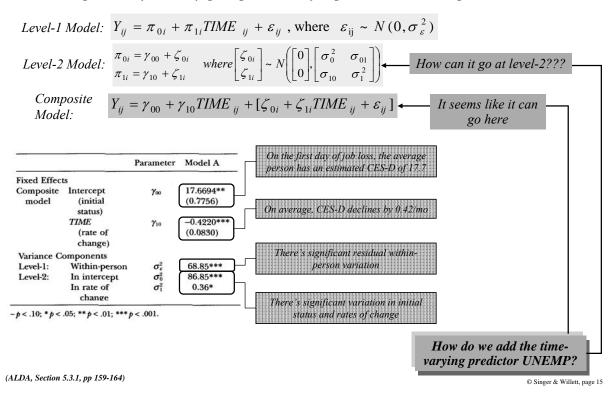
Model D: Also allows the effect of UNEMP to vary over TIME, but does so in a very particular way

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{ij} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{20} UNEMP_{ij} + \gamma_{30} UNEMP_{ij} \times TIME_{ij} \\ &+ \left[\zeta_{0i} + \zeta_{2i} UNEMP_{ii} + \zeta_{3i} UNEMP_{ij} \times TIME_{ii} + \varepsilon_{ii}\right] \end{aligned}$$

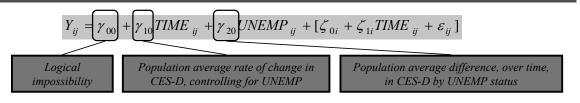
(ALDA, Section 5.3.1, pp 159-164) © Singer & Willett, page 14

First step: Model A: The unconditional growth model

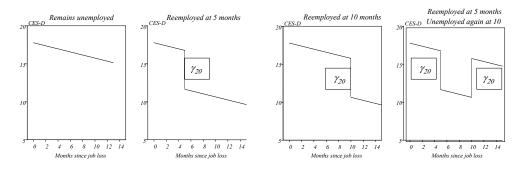
Let's get a sense of the data by ignoring UNEMP and fitting the usual unconditional growth model



Model B: Adding time-varying UNEMP to the composite specification



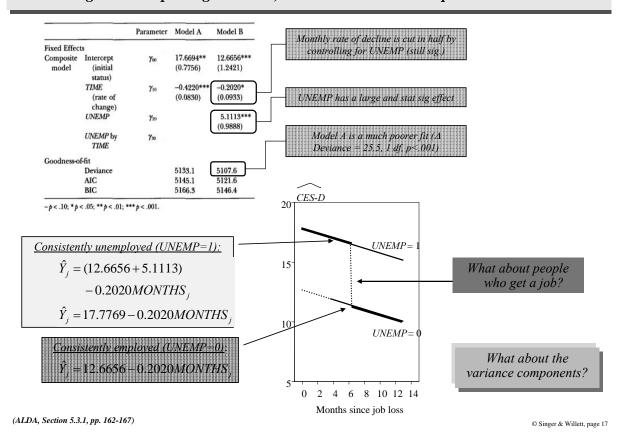
How can we understand this graphically? Although the magnitude of the TV predictor's effect remains constant, the TV nature of UNEMP implies the existence of many possible population average trajectories, such as:



What happens when we fit Model B to data?

(ALDA, Section 5.3.1, pp 159-164) © Singer & Willett, page 16

Fitting and interpreting Model B, which includes the TV predictor UNEMP



● Variance components behave differently when you're working with TV predictors

When analyzing time-invariant predictors, we know which VCs will change and how:

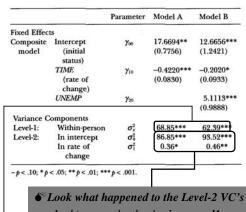
- Level-1 VCs will remain relatively stable because time-invariant predictors cannot explain much within-person variation
- <u>Level-2 VCs</u> will decline if the timeinvariant predictors explain some of the between person variation

When analyzing time-varying predictors, all VCs can change, but

- Although you can interpret a decrease in the magnitude of the Level-1 VCs
- Changes in Level-2 VCs may not be meaningful!

Level-1 VC, σ_{ε}^2

- * Adding UNEMP to the unconditional growth model (A) reduces its magnitude 68.85 to 62.39
- UNEMP "explains" 9.4% of the variation in CES-D scores



- In this example, they've increased!
- Why?: Because including a TV predictor changes the meaning of the individual growth parameters (e.g., the intercept now refers to the value of the outcome when all level-1 predictors, including UNEMP are 0).

We can clarify what's happened by decomposing the composite specification back into a Level 1/Level-2 representation

(ALDA, Section 5.3.1, pp. 162-167)

Decomposing the composite specification of Model B into a L1/L2 specification

$$Y_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10} TIME_{ij} + \gamma_{20} UNEMP_{ij} + [\zeta_{0i} + \zeta_{1i} TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}]$$

Level-1 Model:

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}TIME_{ij} + \pi_{2i}UNEMP_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Unlike time-invariant predictors, TV predictors go into the level-1 model

Level-2 Models:

$$\pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \zeta_{0i}$$

$$\pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \zeta_{1i}$$

$$\pi_{2i} = \gamma_{20}$$

- Model B's level-2 model for π_{2i} has no residual!
- Model B automatically assumes that π_{2i} is "fixed" (that it has the same value for everyone).



Should we accept this constraint?

- Should we assume that the effect of the person-specific predictor is constant across people?
- When predictors are time-invariant, we have no choice
- When predictors are time-varying, we can **try** to relax this assumption >>

(ALDA, Section 5.3.1, pp. 168-169)

© Singer & Willett, page 19

Trying to add back the "missing" level-2 stochastic variation in the effect of UNEMP

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}TIME_{ij} + \pi_{2i}UNEMP_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Level-2 Models:

$$\pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \zeta_{0i}$$

$$\pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \zeta_{1i}$$

$$\pi_{2i} = \gamma_{20} + \zeta_{2i}$$

- It's easy to allow the effect of UNEMP to vary randomly across people by adding in a level-2 residual
- 6 Check your software to be sure you know what you're doing
- But, you pay a price you may not be able to afford
- Adding this one term adds 3 new VCs
- If you have only a few waves, you may not have enough data
- Here, we can't actually fit this model!!





Moral: The multilevel model for change can easily handle TV predictors, but...

- Think carefully about the consequences for both the structural and stochastic parts of the model.
- Don't just "buy" the default specification in your software.
- *Until you're sure you know what you're doing, always write out your model before specifying code to a computer package

So ...

Are we happy with Model B as the final model???

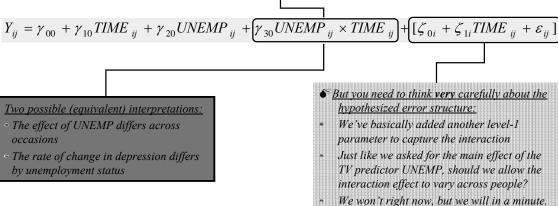
Is there any other way to allow the effect of UNEMP to vary – if not across people, across TIME?

Model C: Might the effect of a TV predictor vary over time?

When analyzing the effects of time-invariant predictors, we automatically allowed predictors to affect the trajectory's slope

Because of the way in which we've constructed the models with TV predictors, we've automatically constrained UNEMP to have only a "main effect" influencing just the trajectory's level

To allow the effect of the TV predictor to vary over time, just add its interaction with TIME

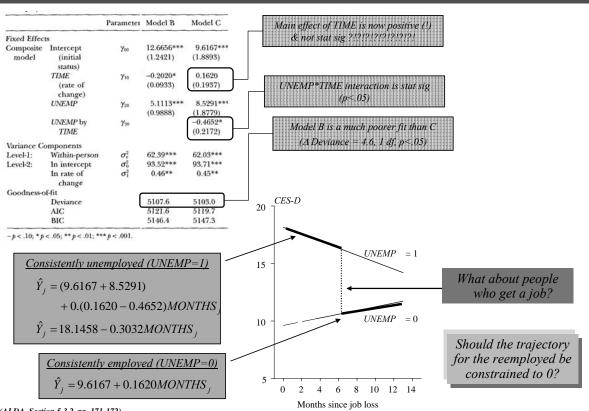


What happens when we fit Model C to data?

(ALDA, Section 5.3.2, pp. 171-172)

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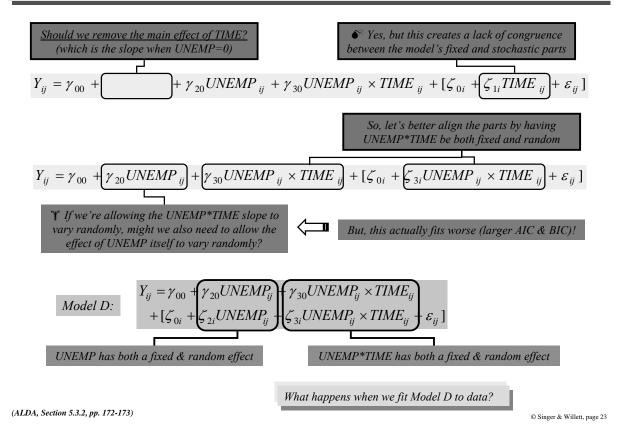
Model C: Allowing the effect of a TV predictor to vary over time



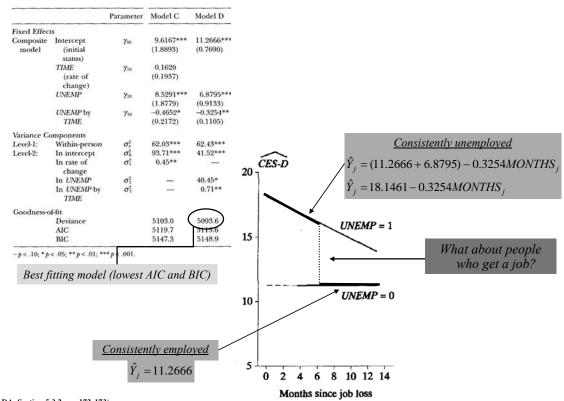
(ALDA, Section 5.3.2, pp. 171-172)

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How should we constrain the individual growth trajectory for the re-employed?



Model D: Constraining the individual growth trajectory among the reemployed



(ALDA, Section 5.3.2, pp. 172-173)

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Recentering the effects of TIME



All our examples so far have centered TIME on the first wave of data collection

- Allows us to interpret the level-1 intercept as individual i's true initial status
- While commonplace and usually meaningful, this approach is not sacrosanct.

We always want to center TIME on a value that ensures that the level-1 growth parameters are meaningful, but there are other options

- Middle TIME point—focus on the "average" value of the outcome during the study
- Endpoint—focus on "final status"
- Any inherently meaningful constant can be used

(ALDA, Section 5.4, pp. 181-182) © Singer & Willett, page 25

Example for recentering the effects of TIME

Data source: Tomarken & colleagues (1997) American Psychological Society Meetings

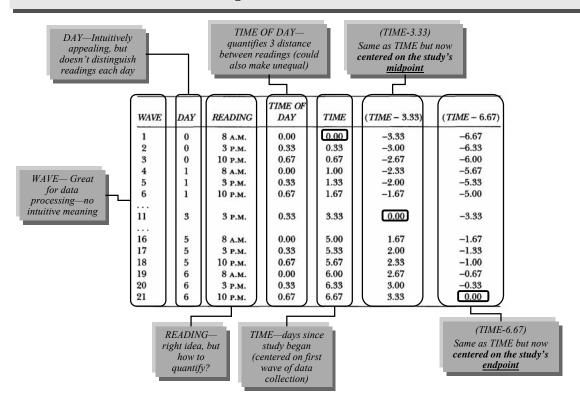
- Sample: 73 men and women with major depression who were already being treated with non-pharmacological therapy
 - Randomized trial to evaluate the efficacy of supplemental antidepressants (vs. placebo)
- Research design
 - Pre-intervention night, the researchers prevented all participants from sleeping
 - Each person was electronically paged 3 times a day (at 8 am, 3 pm, and 10 pm) to remind them to fill out a mood diary
 - With full compliance—which didn't happen, of course each person would have 21 mood assessments (most had at least 16 assessments, although 1 person had only 2 and 1 only 12)
 - The outcome, POS is the number of positive moods
- Research question:
 - How does POS change over time?
 - What is the effect of medication on the trajectories of change?





(ALDA, Section 5.4, pp. 181-183)

How might we clock and code TIME?



(ALDA, Section 5.4, pp 181-183) © Singer & Willett, page 27

Understanding what happens when we recenter TIME

Instead of writing separate models depending upon the representation for TIME, let use a generic form:

Level-1 Model:
$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(TIME_{ij} - c) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$
, where $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$

$$Level-2\ Model: \begin{array}{ll} \pi_{0i} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}TREAT_i + \zeta_{0i} \\ \pi_{1i} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}TREAT_i + \zeta_{1i} \end{array} \quad where \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_{0i} \\ \zeta_{1i} \end{bmatrix} \sim N \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_0^2 & \sigma_{01} \\ \sigma_{10} & \sigma_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Notice how changing the value of the centering constant, c, changes the definition of the intercept in the level-1 model:

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}TIME_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(TIME_{ij} - 3.33) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i} (TIME_{ij} - 6.67) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

When c = 0:

- π_{0i} is the individual mood at TIME=0
- Usually called "initial status"

When c = 3.33:

- π_{0i} is the individual mood at TIME=3.33
- Useful to think of as "mid-experiment status"

When c = 6.67:

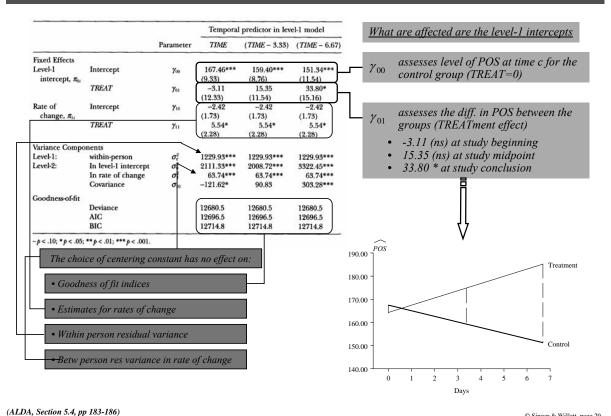
• π_{0i} is the individual mood at TIME=6.67

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· Useful to think about as "final status"

(ALDA, Section 5.4, pp 182-183)

Comparing the results of using different centering constants for TIME



© Singer & Willett, page 29

You can extend the idea of recentering TIME in lots of interesting ways

Example: Instead of focusing on rate of change, parameterize the level-1 model so it produces one parameter for initial status and one parameter for final status...

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} \left(\frac{6.67 - TIME_{ij}}{6.67} \right) + \pi_{1i} \left(\frac{TIME_{ij}}{6.67} \right) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$Individual$$

$$Initial\ Status$$

$$Parameter$$

$$Individual$$

$$Final\ Status$$

$$Parameter$$

Advantage: You can use all your longitudinal data to analyze initial and final status simultaneously.

(ALDA, Section 5.4, pp 186-188) © Singer & Willett, page 30



Modeling discontinuous and nonlinear change ALDA, Chapter Six

"Things have changed"

Bob Dylan

Judith D. Singer & John B. Willett Harvard Graduate School of Education



Chapter 6: Modeling discontinuous and nonlinear change

<u>General idea</u>: All our examples so far have assumed that individual growth is smooth and linear. But the multilevel model for change is much more flexible:

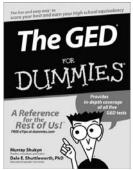
- **Discontinuous individual change** (§6.1)—especially useful when discrete shocks or time-limited treatments affect the life course
- Using transformations to model non-linear change (§6.2)—perhaps the easiest way of fitting non-linear change models
 - Can transform either the outcome or TIME
 - We already did this with ALCUSE (which was a square root of a sum of 4 items)
- **■** Using polynomials of TIME to represent non-linear change (§6.3)
 - While admittedly atheoretical, it's very easy to do
 - Probably the most popular approach in practice
- Truly non-linear trajectories (§6.4)
 - Logistic, exponential, and negative exponential models, for example
 - 🖪 A world of possibilities limited only by your theory (and the quality and amount of data)

Example for discontinuous individual change: Wage trajectories & the GED

<u>Data source</u>: Murnane, Boudett and Willett (1999), Evaluation Review

- Sample: the same 888 male high school dropouts (from before)
- Research design
 - Each was interviewed between 1 and 13 times after dropping out
 - 34.6% (n=307) earned a GED at some point during data collection
- OLD research questions
 - How do log(WAGES) change over time?
 - Do the wage trajectories differ by ethnicity and highest grade completed?
- ▲ Additional NEW research questions: What is the effect of GED attainment? Does earning a GED:
 - **a** affect the wage trajectory's **elevation**?
 - affect the wage trajectory's **slope**?
 - **create** a **discontinuity** in the wage trajectory?



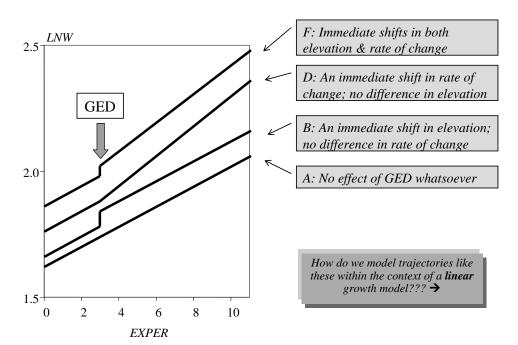


(ALDA, Section 6.1.1, pp 190-193)

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First steps: Think about how GED receipt might affect an individual's wage trajectory

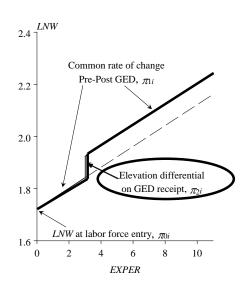
Let's start by considering four plausible effects of GED receipt by imagining what the wage trajectory might look like for someone who got a GED 3 years after labor force entry (post dropout)



(ALDA, Figure 6.1, p 193)

Including a discontinuity in elevation, not slope (Trajectory B)

Key idea: It's easy; simply include GED as a time-varying effect at level-1



$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i} EXPER_{ij} + \pi_{2i} GED_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Post-GED (GED=1):

$$Y_{ii} = (\pi_{0i} + \pi_{2i}) + \pi_{1i}EXPER_{ii} + \varepsilon_{ii}$$

$$\frac{Pre\text{-}GED}{Y_{ij}} (GED=0):$$

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i} EXPER_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

(ALDA, Section 6.1.1, pp 194-195)

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Including a discontinuity in slope, not elevation (Trajectory D)

Using an additional temporal predictor to capture the "extra slope" post-GED receipt

ID	LNW	EXPER	GED	POSTEXE
206	2.028	1.874	0	0
206	2.297	2.814	0	0
206	2.482	4.314	0	0
2365	1.782	0.660	0	0
2365	1.763	1.679	0	0
2365	1.710	2.737	0	0
2365	1.736	3.679	0	0
2365	2.192	4.679	1	0
2365	2.042	5.718	1	1.038
2365	2.320	6.718	1	2.038
2365	2.665	7.872	1	3.192
2365	2.418	9.083	1	4.404
2365	2.389	10.045	1	5.365
2365	2.485	11.122	1	6.442
2365	2.445	12.045	1	7.365
4384	2.859	0.096	0	0
4384	1.532	1.039	0	0
4384	1.590	1.726	1	0
4384	1.969	3.128	1	1.402
4384	1.684	4.282	1	2.556
4384	2.625	5.724	1	3.998
4384	2.583	6.024	1	4.298

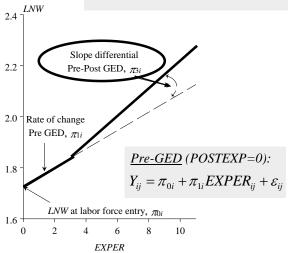
a new TV predictor that clocks "TIME

since GED receipt" (in the same

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i} EXPER_{ij} + \pi_{3i} POSTEXP_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

<u>Post-GED</u> (POSTEXP clocked in same cadence as EXPER):

$$\begin{split} Y_{ij} &= \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i} EXPER_{ij} + \pi_{3i} POSTEXP + \varepsilon_{ij} \\ Y_{ij} &= \pi_{0i} + (\pi_{1i} + \pi_{3i}) EXPER + \varepsilon_{ij} \end{split}$$



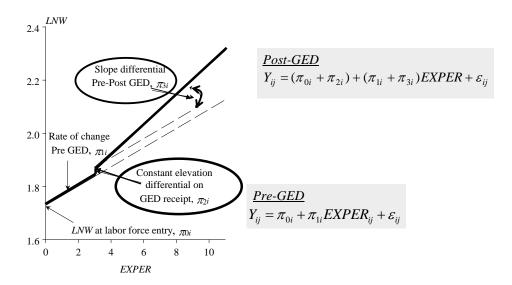
(ALDA, Section 6.1.1, pp 195-198)

cadence as EXPER)

Including a discontinuities in both elevation and slope (Trajectory F)

Simple idea: Combine the two previous approaches

$$Y_{ij} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i} EXPER_{ij} + \pi_{2i} GED + \pi_{3i} POSTEXP_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$



(ALDA, Section 6.1.1, pp 195-198) © Singer & Willett, page 7

Many other types of discontinuous individual change trajectories are possible

Just like a regular regression model, the multilevel model for change can include discontinuities, nonlinearities and other 'nonstandard' terms

- ◆Generally more limited by data, theory, or both, than by the ability to specify the model
- Extra terms in the level-1 model translate into extra parameters to estimate

What kinds of other complex trajectories could be used?

- → Effects on elevation and slope can depend upon timing of GED receipt (ALDA pp. 199-201)
- → You might have <u>non-linear changes</u> before or after the transition point
- → The effect of GED receipt might be <u>instantaneous</u> but not endure
- → The effect of GED receipt might be <u>delayed</u>
- → Might there be <u>multiple transition points</u> (e.g., on entry in college for GED recipients)

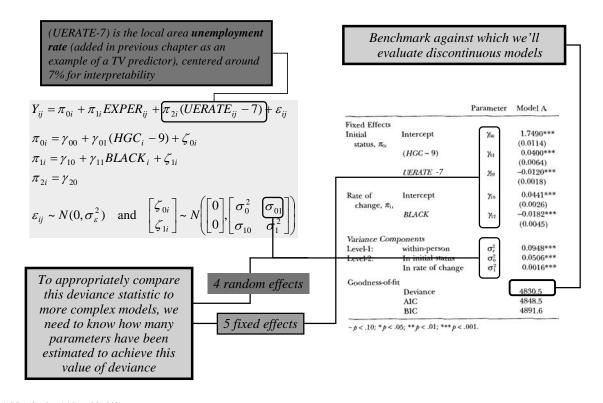


Think carefully about what kinds of discontinuities might arise in your substantive context

How do we select among the alternative discontinuous models?

(ALDA, Section 6.1.1, pp199-201) © Singer & Willett, page 8

Let's start with a "baseline model" (Model A) against which we'll compare alternative discontinuous trajectories



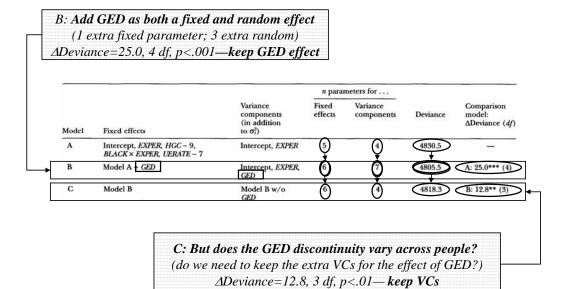
(ALDA, Section 6.1.2, pp 201-202) © Singer & Willett, page 9

How we're going to proceed...

Instead of constructing tables of (seemingly endless) parameter estimates, we're going to construct a summary table that presents the...

		specific terms in the model	n parameters (for d.f.)			deviance statisti (for model compar		
eline hown	-	010010000010010010010010010010010010010	010000001001001001000100100100100100100	n parameters for				
	Model Fixed effects		Variance components (in addition to σ_i^2)	Fixed effects	Variance components	Deviance	Comparison model: ΔDeviance (df)	
-	Α	Intercept. EXPER, HGC - 9, BLACK× EXPER, UERATE - 7	Intercept, EXPER	5	4	4830.5	 -	
•	В	Model A + GED	Intercept, EXPER, GED	1418100 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		4805.5	A: 25.0*** (4)	
	C	Model B	Model B w/o GED			4818.3	B: 12.8** (3)	
	D	Model A + POSTEXP	Intercept, EXPER, POSTEXP	14000000000000000000000000000000000000		4817.4	A: 13.1** (4)	
	E	Model D	Model D w/o POSTEXP	10000000000000000000000000000000000000		4820.7	D: 3.3 (ns) (3)	
	F	Model A + GED and POSTEXP	Intercept, EXPER, GED, POSTEXP			4789.4	B: 16.2** (5) D: 28.1*** (5)	
	G	Model F	Model F w/o POSTEXP) +(1 0) 0) 0 7		4802.7	F: 13.3** (4)	
	Н	Model F	Model F w/o GED			4812.6	F: 23.3*** (4)	
	I	Model A + GED and $GED \times EXPER$	Intercept, EXPER, GED, GED × EXPER			4787.0	B: 18.5*** (5)	
	J	Model I	Model I w/o GED× EXPER	14(18) 07 07 07 07 07 07 07 07 07 07 07 07 07		4804.6	I: 17.6** (4)	

(ALDA, Section 6.1.2, pp 202-203) © Singer & Willett, page 10



What about the discontinuity in slope?

(ALDA, Section 6.1.2, pp 202-203)

© Singer & Willett, page 11

Next steps: Investigating the discontinuity in slope by adding the effect of POSTEXP (without the GED effect producing a discontinuity in elevation)

D: Adding POSTEXP as both a fixed and random effect (1 extra fixed parameter; 3 extra random) ΔDeviance=13.1, 4 df, p<.05— keep POSTEXP effect

	Fixed effects		n parameters for				
Model		Variance components (in addition to σ_t^2)	Fixed effects	Variance components	Deviance	Comparison model: Δ Deviance (df)	
A	Intercept, EXPER, HGC – 9, BLACK×EXPER, UERATE – 7	Intercept, EXPER		4	4830.5		
В	Model A + GED	Intercept, EXPER, GED	6	7	4805.5	A: 25.0*** (4)	
С	Model B	Model B w/o GED	6	4	4818.3	B: 12.8** (3)	
**************************************	Model A + POSTEXP	Intercept, EXPER, POSTEXP	→ 6)	L.77	4817.4	A: 13.1** (4)	
Е	Model D	Model D w/o POSTEXP	6	4	4820.7 ◀	D: 3.3 (ns) (3)	

E: But does the POSTEXP slope vary across people?

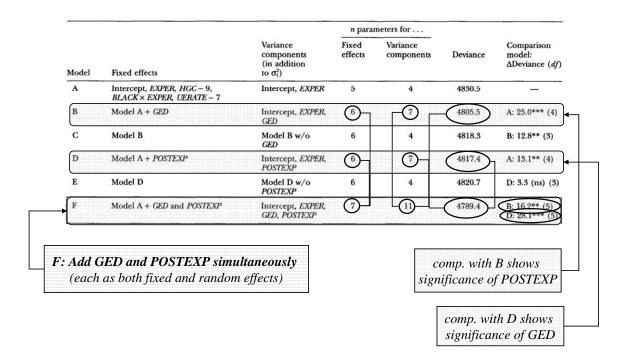
(do we need to keep the extra VCs for the effect of POSTEXP?)

\(\Delta \text{Deviance} = 3.3, 3 \text{ df, ns} \text{—don't need the POSTEXP random effects} \)

(but in comparison with A still need POSTEXP fixed effect)

What if we include both types of discontinuity?

Examining both discontinuities simultaneously



(ALDA, Section 6.1.2, pp 204-205) © Singer & Willett, page 13

Can we simplify this model by eliminating the VCs for POSTEXP (G) or GED (H)?

Model	Fixed effects	Variance components (in addition to σ_i^2)	n parameters for			
			Fixed effects	Variance components	Deviance	Comparison model: Δ Deviance (df)
F	Model A + GED and POSTEXP	Intercept, EXPER, GED, POSTEXP	7	11	4789.4	B: 16.2** (5) D: 28.1*** (5)
G	Model F	Model F w/o POSTEXP	7	7	4802.7	F: 13.3** (4)
Н	Model F	Model F w/o GED	7	7	4812.6	F: 23.3*** (4)

Each results in a worse fit,

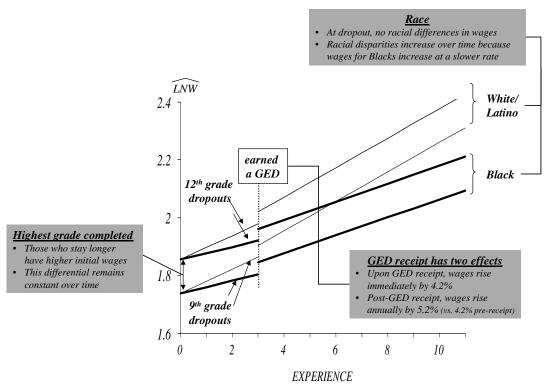
suggesting that Model F (which includes both random effects) is better (even though Model E suggested we might be able to eliminate the VC for POSTEXP)

> We actually fit several other possible models (see ALDA) but F was the best alternative—so...how do we display its results?

(ALDA, Section 6.1.2, pp 204-205) © Singer & Willett, page 14

Displaying prototypical discontinuous trajectories

(Log Wages for HS dropouts pre- and post-GED attainment)

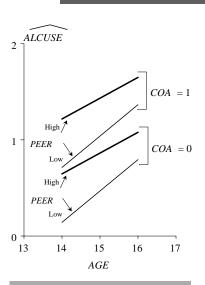


(ALDA, Section 6.1.2, pp 204-206) © Singer & Willett, page 15

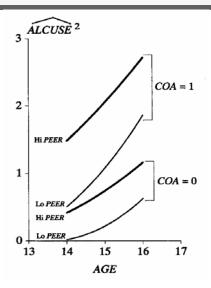
Modeling non-linear change using transformations

When facing obviously non-linear trajectories, we usually begin by trying transformation:

- A straight line—even on a transformed scale—is a simple form with easily interpretable parameters
- Since many outcome metrics are ad hoc, transformation to another ad hoc scale may sacrifice little



Earlier, we modeled ALCUSE, an outcome that we formed by taking the square root of the researchers' original alcohol use measurement



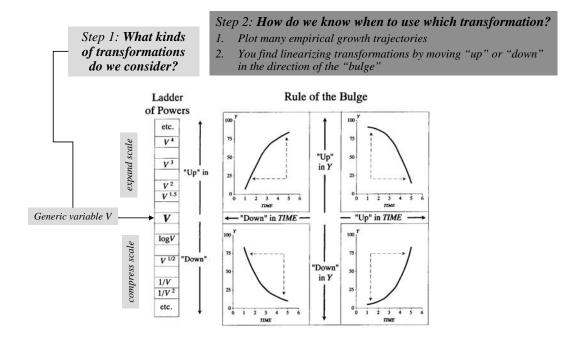
We can 'detransform' the findings and return to the original scale, by **squaring** the predicted values of ALCUSE and replotting

The prototypical individual growth trajectories are now non-linear:

By transforming the outcome before analysis, we have effectively modeled non-linear change over time

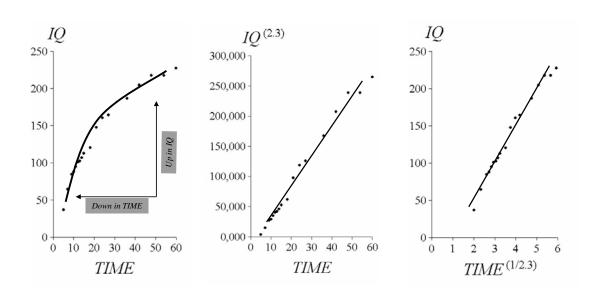
So...how do we know what variable to transform using what transformation?

The "Rule of the Bulge" and the "Ladder of Transformations" Mosteller & Tukey (1977): EDA techniques for straightening lines



(ALDA, Section 6.2.1, pp. 210-212)

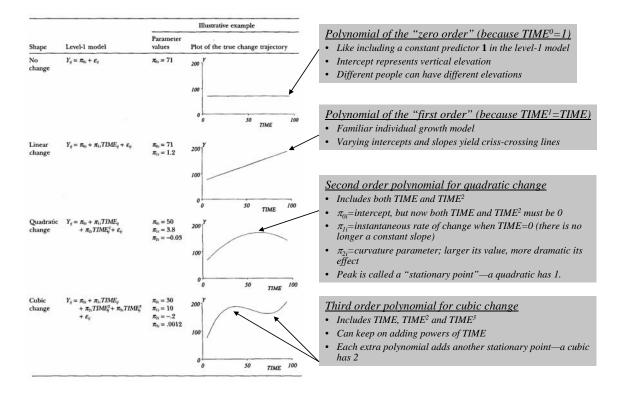
The effects of transformation for a single child in the Berkeley Growth Study



How else might we model non-linear change?

(ALDA, Section 6.2.1, pp. 211-213)

Representing individual change using a polynomial function of TIME



(ALDA, Section 6.3.1, pp. 213-217) © Singer & Willett, page 19

Example for illustrating use of polynomials in TIME to represent change

Source: Margaret Keiley & colleagues (2000), <u>J of Abnormal Child Psychology</u>

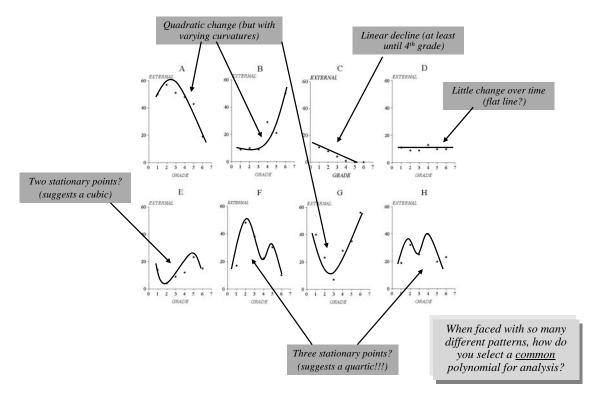
- Sample: 45 boys and girls identified in 1st grade:
 Goal was to study behavior changes over time (until 6th grade)
- <u>Research design</u>
 - At the end of every school year, teachers rated each child's level of externalizing behavior using Achenbach's Child Behavior Checklist:
 - 3 point scale (0=rarely/never; 1=sometimes; 2=often)
 - 24 aggressive, disruptive, or delinquent behaviors
 - Outcome: EXTERNAL—ranges from 0 to 68 (simple sum of these scores)
 - Predictor: FEMALE—are there gender differences?
- Research question
 - How does children's level of externalizing behavior change over time?
 - Do the trajectories of change differ for boys and girls?





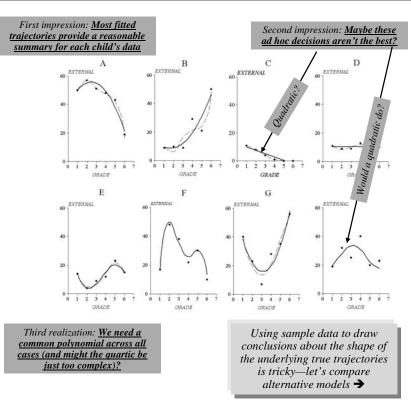
(ALDA, Section 6.3.2, p. 217)

Selecting a suitable level-1 polynomial trajectory for change Examining empirical growth plots (which invariably display great variability in temporal complexity)



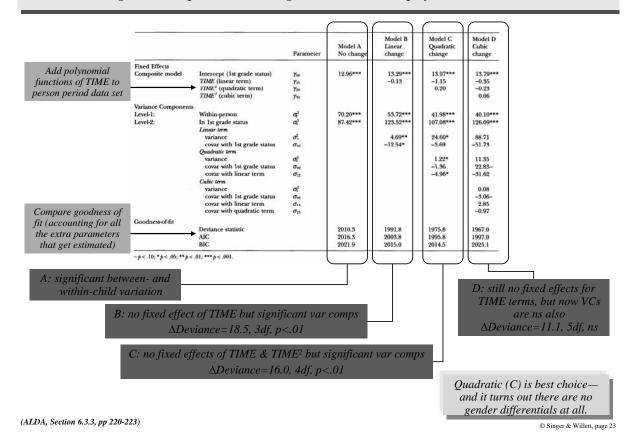
(ALDA, Section 6.3.2, pp 217-220) © Singer & Willett, page 21

Examining alternative fitted OLS polynomial trajectories Order optimized for each child (solid curves) and a common quartic across children (dashed line)



(ALDA, Section 6.3.2, pp 217-220) © Singer & Willett, page 22

Using model comparisons to test higher order terms in a polynomial level-1 model



Example for truly non-linear change

Data source: Terry Tivnan (1980) Dissertation at Harvard Graduate School of Education

■ Sample: 17 1st and 2nd graders

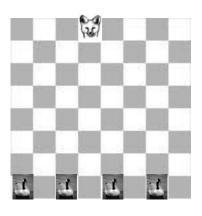
- During a 3 week period, Terry repeatedly played a twoperson checkerboard game called Fox 'n Geese, (hopefully) learning from experience
 - Fox is controlled by the experimenter, at one end of the board
 - Children have four geese, that they use to try to trap the fox
- Great for studying cognitive development because:
 - There exists a strategy that children can learn that will guarantee victory
 - This strategy is not immediately obvious to children
 - Many children can deduce the strategy over time

Research design

- Each child played up to 27 games (each game is a "wave")
- The outcome, NMOVES is the number of moves made by the child before making a catastrophic error (guaranteeing defeat)—ranges from 1 to 20

Research *question*:

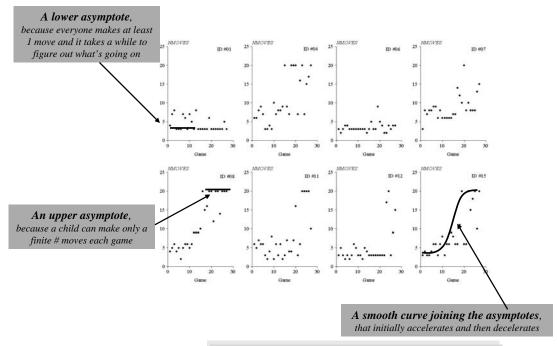
- How does NMOVES change over time?
- What is the effect of a child's reading (or cognitive) ability?—READ (score on a standardized reading test)



(ALDA, Section 6.4.1, pp. 224-225)

Selecting a suitable level-1 nonlinear trajectory for change

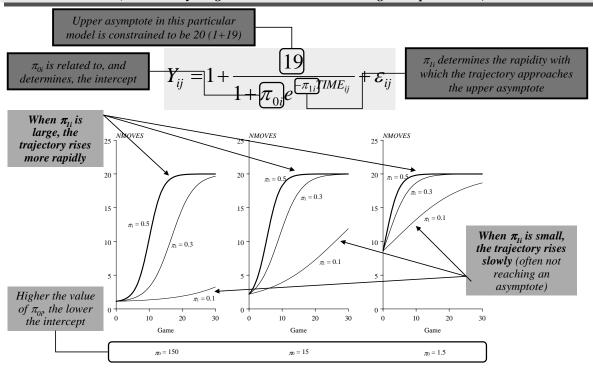
Examining empirical growth plots (and asking what features should the hypothesized model display?)



These three features suggest a <u>level-1 logistic change</u> <u>trajectory</u>, which unlike our previous growth models will be <u>non-linear in the individual growth parameters</u>

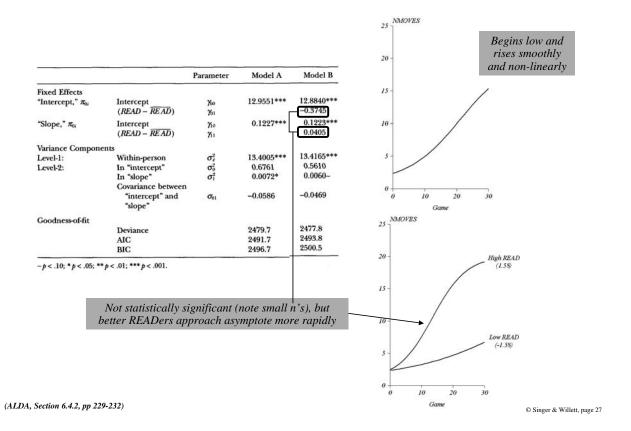
(ALDA, Section 6.4.2, pp. 225-228) © Singer & Willett, page 25

Understanding the logistic individual growth trajectory (which is anything but linear in the individual growth parameters)

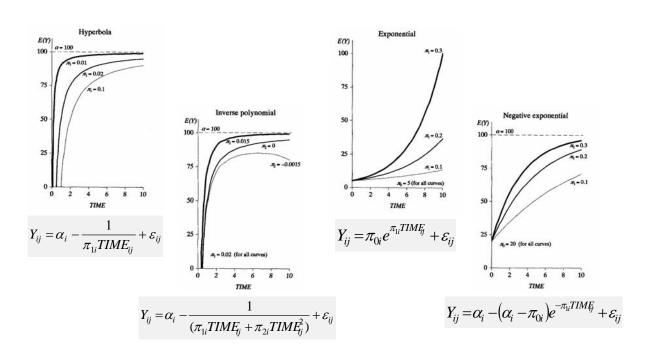


Models can be fit in usual way using provided your software can do it \Rightarrow

Results of fitting logistic change trajectories to the Fox 'n Geese data



A limitless array of non-linear trajectories awaits... (each is illustrated in detail in ALDA, Section 6.4.3)



(ALDA, Section 6.4.3, pp 232-242)