Item Response Theory Using Hierarchical Generalized Linear Models

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Multilevel models (MLMs) are flexible in that they can be employed to obtain item and person parameters, test for differential item functioning (DIF) and capture both local item and person dependence. Papers on the MLM analysis of item response data have focused mostly on theoretical issues where applications have been add-ons to simulation studies with a methodological focus. Although the methodological direction was necessary as a first step to show how MLMs can be utilized and extended to model item response data, the emphasis needs to be shifted towards providing evidence on how applications of MLMs in educational testing can provide the benefits that have been promised. The present study uses foreign language reading comprehension data to illustrate application of hierarchical generalized models to estimate person and item parameters, differential item functioning (DIF), and local person dependence in a three-level model.

Data in social sciences in general and educational measurement in particular have a hierarchical structure. In other words, students are nested in classes which are in turn nested in schools. Nested data are locally dependent. As a result, the average correlation between variables measured on students from the same school/class will be higher than the average correlation between variables measured on students from different schools/classes. The within-class correlations would be, for example, due to a common teacher, the same syllabus, or the same textbook, and within-school correlations, among other things, may be the result of a common set of administrative policies or the selection processes (for example, some schools may select highly talented students or some may attract students from either high or low social economic status levels). Due to these clustering effects, a fundamental assumption underlying a majority of parametric statistical tests is violated (Goldstein, 1995; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Local independence assumption holds that there should be no relationship among individuals in the sample for the dependent variable once the effect of the independent variable has been taken into account.

Non-independence assumption is usually taken for granted in conventional statistical tests such as regression and ANOVA. Violation of this assumption leads to underestimation of standard errors (SE). Since statistical significance of a predictor variable is judged by the ratio of its size to its SE (a significant coefficient should be at least twice as big as its SE), an underestimated SE would result in obtaining a significant effect when it does not really exist (Hox, 2010; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Multilevel models (MLM) have been designed to handle interdependencies among the data points. In what follows first MLMs in general and hierarchical generalized linear models (HGLM) in particular are described. Then the ways they have been and could be used in educational testing is reviewed. Finally, the application of the Rasch HGLM with the HLM software is demonstrated and the outputs are interpreted.
Multilevel Models

MLMs have been differently termed as linear mixed models (Littell, Milliken, Stroup, & Wolfinger, 1996), hierarchical linear models (Raudenbush & Bryk, 1986), and random coefficient models (Longford, 1993). MLMs are extensions of standard multiple regression. They specifically account for dependency in the data with simultaneous multiple regressions at different levels. To analyze relationships between a dependent and independent variables in a hierarchical data set where, for example, students are nested in classes which are in turn nested in schools, a three-level regression model is formulated. The first and the lowest level is the student level, the second level is class level, and the third level is school level. It goes without saying that this 3-level model can be extended to include a fourth level (e.g., neighborhood level). In all the MLMs there is a single outcome or response variable which is measured at the lowest level and there could be explanatory variables at all the levels. For example, imagine we want to explore the effect of factors (i.e., knowledge of vocabulary and knowledge of grammar) that might affect foreign language reading comprehension. Suppose further, the data have been collected from \( j \) universities (\( j = 1 \ldots J \)) with \( n_j \) students in each university. The first level (i.e., student-level) regression equation can be set up as in Equation 1:

\[
\text{reading} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}\text{vocabulary}_{ij} + \beta_{2j}\text{grammar}_{ij} + e_{ij} \tag{1}
\]

where \( \text{reading} \) is the outcome, \( \beta_{0j} \) is the intercept (i.e., the mean reading comprehension of university \( j \)), \( \beta_{1j} \) and \( \beta_{2j} \) are the slopes (i.e., the mean effects of the person-explanatory variables of vocabulary and grammar, respectively, on reading comprehension in university \( j \)) and \( e_{ij} \) represents the deviation of reading comprehension of student \( i \) from the intercept (the mean reading comprehension of his/her respective university). Equation 1 is different from a standard multiple regression in that, unlike in standard multiple regression where we assume regression coefficients (i.e., intercepts and slopes) are constant\(^1\) (i.e., fixed) across all the students regardless of the university they belong to, in a MLM each cluster (here university) can be assumed to have a different intercept coefficient \( \beta_{0j} \) (here mean reading comprehension) and different slope coefficients \( \beta_{1j} \) and \( \beta_{2j} \) (here mean impact of vocabulary and grammar, respectively, on reading comprehension). Put another way, the intercept and the slopes are assumed to be random (i.e., vary) across universities. The group-specific coefficients are indicated by subscript \( j \) attached to each coefficient. With MLMs researchers can test whether the coefficients i.e., mean reading comprehension (intercept) and mean impact of vocabulary and grammar, respectively, on reading comprehension (the slopes) vary significantly across universities.

The next step in MLM procedure is to explain randomness (i.e., variation) in the intercept and slopes across the higher level units (in this case universities). The level-1 coefficients which are assumed to vary across higher units are set up as outcome variables in the level-2 equations. In the present case, since the intercept (the mean reading comprehension) and the slopes (the mean impact of vocabulary and grammar) were assumed to vary across universities, university-level explanatory variables (i.e., covariates) can be added to account for the variations of these coefficients at the second level. For example, universities in Iran, depending on whether they select students through screening tests, are divided into two broad categories: state universities and non-state universities. The subscripts in Equation 1 show that the intercept (the mean reading comprehension in each university) and the slopes (the mean impact of vocabulary and grammar in each university) are random across universities. Therefore at second level we need to have three regression equations one for the intercept as the outcome variable and two for the slopes as outcome variables as follows:

\[
\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}Z_j + u_{0j} \tag{2}
\]

\[
\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}Z_j + u_{1j} \tag{3}
\]

\[
\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}Z_j + u_{2j}
\]

Where \( \gamma_{00} \) is the average reading comprehension across all the universities (grand mean), \( \gamma_{10} \) and \( \gamma_{20} \) are the mean effect of vocabulary and grammar,

\(^1\) Of the different ways fixed and random effects have been conceptualized, I have adopted the distinction by Kreft and De Leeuw (1998, p. 12).
respectively, across all the universities, $u_{0j}$ represents deviation of the mean of the university $j$ from the grand mean, $u_{1j}$ and $u_{2j}$ represent the deviations of the mean impact of vocabulary and grammar, respectively, on reading in university $j$ from the respective means across all the universities. Equation 2 predicts average reading comprehension in each university (the intercept $\beta_0j$) by university type ($Z$) (i.e., state vs. non-state). As university type is a binary explanatory variable, in this case coded as zero for non-state universities and one for state universities, a positive $\gamma_0$ indicates that the average reading comprehension is higher in state universities. Equations in 3 state that the relationship between grammar and reading comprehension and vocabulary and reading comprehension depend on the university type. Negative values for $\gamma_1$ and $\gamma_2$ indicate that the effect of vocabulary and grammar, respectively, on reading comprehension are stronger for non-state universities. Conversely, positive values for $\gamma_1$ and $\gamma_2$ indicate that the effect of vocabulary and grammar, respectively, on reading comprehension are stronger for state universities. If the variances of the $u$-terms $u_{0j}$, $u_{1j}$, and $u_{2j}$ are significant, more university-level covariates should be added to capture the variations.

Alternatively, the slopes can be assumed fixed, that is the effect of vocabulary and grammar can be assumed as being the same across universities. In that case $\beta_{1j}$ and $\beta_{2j}$ should be included into the level-1 model without the subscripts $j$. Accordingly, we would not need $\beta_{1j}$ and $\beta_{2j}$ equations at Level 2.

Hierarchical Generalized Linear Models

MLMs assume a continuous dependent variable with a normal distribution. However, if the dependent variable is a dichotomous variable, both the continuous dependent variable and the normality assumptions are violated (Hox, 2010). For situations where the dependent variable is non-normal non-continuous and the relationship between the predictor variable and the dependent variable is not linear, a variant of MLMs called hierarchical generalized linear model (HGLM) is appropriate.

Standard Rasch model has been shown to be a special case of HGLM (e.g., McClellan & Donoghue, 2001; Kamata, 2001, 2002; Miyazaki, 2005; Raudenbush, Johnson, & Sampson, 2003; Williams & Beretvas, 2006). In the Rasch model formulation of the HGLM (Rasch HGLM) item response data are treated as repeated observations where each test taker responds to multiple items. Multiple responses from the same subject cannot be regarded as independent from each other. As a case, take the reading comprehension example above. Each person possesses a different level of reading comprehension which is going to affect all the responses from the same person thus rendering these different responses interdependent rather than independent. In the Rasch HGLM item response data are treated as hierarchical data, where items are nested within persons. Unlike MLMs where persons are level one, in the Rasch HGLM items are level one and persons are level two. In what follows it is shown how the standard Rasch model can be derived from HGLM.

Hierarchical generalized Rasch model

Kamata (2001) showed how Rasch model can be formulated within the framework of a hierarchical model. In his formulation the first level is an item level model and the level-2 model is a person level model.

The level-1 model, the item level model, for item $i$ ($i = 1, \ldots, k$) and person $j$ ($j = 1, \ldots, n$) is

$$
\log\left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} X_{iq} + \ldots + \beta_{(k-1)j} X_{(k-1)ij}
$$

where $X_{ij}$ is the $j^{th}$ item indicator which is a dummy variable for person $j$, with values 1 when the observation is the $j^{th}$ item and 0 otherwise.

$$
\log\left(\frac{p_{ij}}{1 - p_{ij}}\right) \text{ is the logit link function whereby the log odds of getting item } i \text{ correct for the person } j \text{ is predicted. } p_{ij} \text{ is the probability that person } j \text{ succeeds on item } i \text{ and } 1 - p_{ij} \text{ is the probability of failure on the}
$$
item. In HGLMs the link function linearizes the relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variable and restricts the range of the predicted values to match the distribution of the dependent variable.

To identify the item-level model, some constraints need to be imposed. Kamata (2001) suggested that identification be carried out by using one of the items as the reference item thereby dropping the dummy variable for that item from the model and including an intercept term which is the effect of the reference item. In Equation 4, $\beta_{0j}$ is an intercept term which is the expected effect of the reference item for person $j$, and $\beta_{1j}$ to $\beta_{(k-1)j}$ are coefficients associated with the effect of Item 1 to Item $k-1$ (one less than the number of items since the dummy variable for the reference item is dropped).

In the Rasch HGLM at Level 2, the intercept $\beta_{0j}$ is assumed to be varying (random) across persons (the random intercept is introduced to take interdependencies among items answered by the same person) and the other items’ effects are assumed to be constant (fixed) across persons as in Equation 5:

$$
\begin{align*}
\beta_{0j} &= \gamma_{00} + r_{0j} \\
\beta_{1j} &= \gamma_{10} \\
& \quad \vdots \\
\beta_{(k-1)j} &= \gamma_{(k-1)0}
\end{align*}
$$

As a result, level-1 and level-2 models can be combined so that the probability that person $j$ answers item $i$ correctly is expressed as:

$$
P_{ij} = \frac{1}{1+\exp\{-r_{0j}-(\gamma_{00}+\gamma_{oi})\}}
$$

Equation 7 is algebraically equivalent to the Rasch model:

$$
P_{ij} = \frac{1}{1+\exp\{-(\theta_j-\delta_i)\}}
$$

where $\theta_j$, person ability in Equation 7, is equivalent to $r_{0j}$, the random effect of the intercept and $\delta_i$, item difficulty in Equation 7 is equivalent to $\gamma_{00}-(\gamma_{ii}+\gamma_{00})$ (the effect of each item subtracted from that of the reference item).

Kamata’s formulation can be extended to three- and four-level HGLMs.

**HGLM vs. Conventional Item Response Theory Models**

Educational measurement data can be used to fulfill two broad purposes (De Boeck & Wilson, 2004): (a) to describe performance of individual test takers on a test and (b) to explain item responses in terms of other explanatory variables. Accordingly, the two purposes lead to two approaches: descriptive measurement approach and explanatory approach. The explanatory approach is broader and can be seen as complementary to the descriptive approach. Conventional IRT models are suitable for the fulfillment of the descriptive purpose. Although they can be used to serve the explanatory purpose, this can only be carried out in a two-step procedure (De Boeck & Wilson, 2004), with measurement as the first step and correlating the derived test scores with external variables as the next step. Unlike conventional IRT models which estimate person abilities first and then investigate the effect of person-varying explanatory variables on ability estimates, HGLMs take a one-step approach to investigating the effect of person variables on ability estimates (Kamata, 1998). Therefore, estimates of item and person parameters are expected to be more precise (Mislevey, 1987).

Most existing IRT models are special cases of HGLMs. A HGLM perspective on item response data broadens the domain of IRT models and facilitates their explanatory uses beyond their standard descriptive uses (De Boeck & Wilson, 2004). The HGLM perspective has additional advantages over the standard IRT approach (De Boeck & Wilson, 2004, p.7): (a) The approach is a general one and therefore also flexible, and (b) The approach connects psychometrics strongly to the field of statistics, so that a broader knowledge basis and literature become
available and (c) The availability of generalized statistical software makes the implementation of new models developed for specific situations much more straightforward than it has been in the past, where specific-purpose programs could be used only under less general circumstances. More specifically, HGLMs are flexible in that they can be conveniently used to estimate item and person parameters, differential item functioning (DIF), and the effect of person-level predictors on ability measures and item-level predictors on item difficulty, simultaneously. They can also be used to investigate local item dependence (i.e., testlet effect), local person dependence and differential testlet functioning.

**Rasch HGLM extensions and Previous Applications**

Papers on the Rasch HGLM have focused mostly on theoretical issues where applications have been add-ons to studies with a methodological focus. Kamata (2001) showed that HGLM is equivalent to the Rasch model. He also showed how the two-level HGLM can be extended to a three-level latent regression model which allows investigation of students across groups. Jiao, Wang, and Kamata (2005) extended Kamata’s two-level model to capture item local dependence. Their three-level model can be used to estimate item difficulties, person abilities, DIF, and testlet effect. Jiao, Kamata, Wang, and Jin (2012) extended Jiao et al.’s (2005) model to a four-level model which permits simultaneous modeling of both item and local dependence. Beretvas and Walker (2012) developed a cross-classified multilevel model to handle testlet-based dependencies. Their model allowed simultaneous investigation of DIF and differential testlet functioning. Ravand (in press) employed Beretvas and Walker’s model to estimate LID, DIF, and differential testlet functioning in a high stakes reading comprehension test. Beretvas, Cawthon, Lockhart, and Kaye (2012) in a pedagogical paper explained similarities and difference of the two-level cross-classified model and the conventional two-level model. They applied the two models to investigate DIF and differential facet functioning (Meulders & Xie, 2004) in accommodated item scores. Van den Noortgate, De Boeck, and Meulders (2003) demonstrated how several common IRT models can be derived from the multilevel logistic model. Weirich, Hecht, and Bohme (2014) showed how item position effects can be modeled using the linear logistic test model within the framework of HGLMs. Debeer and Janssen (2013) proposed a general framework for detecting and modeling item position bias effects using explanatory IRT models in the framework of HGLM. Randall, Cheong, and Engelhard (2011) described how HGLMs can be used to investigate measurement invariance, specifically DIF, within the context of assessing students with disabilities. Albano (2013) also demonstrated how HGLMs can be employed to model item position effect. He argued that the HGLM approach is advantageous over the previously used models for this purpose in that it can estimate position effects simultaneously with item and person parameters.

Although the methodological direction was necessary as a first step to show how MLMs can be utilized and extended to model item response data, the emphasis needs to be shifted towards providing evidence on how applications of MLMs in educational testing can provide the benefits that have been promised.

**Data Analysis**

To illustrate the analysis procedures involved in the Rasch HGLM, university entrance examination (UEE) data of the applicants into the Masters’ English programs at the Iranian state universities in 2012 are used. There were 21640 (71.3 % female and 26.8 % male) participants who took the test in this year. The participants received their Bachelor’s degrees mostly from four university types in Iran: (a) state universities which do not charge any tuition fees, (b) Azad universities which charge tuition fees, (c) Non-profit Non-government universities which charge tuition fees, half as much as those of Azad universities, and (d) Payam-e-Noor universities which charge tuition fees as much as those of Non-profit Non-government universities but do not offer regular classes. UEE is composed of two main sections namely general English (GE) section and content knowledge section. For the purpose of the present study the data for the reading section of the GE part of the UEE is analyzed. From among the 21640 participants 1298 persons were excluded from the analysis since they attended a university at Bachelor level which had less than 10 participants taking the test. The remaining 20342 students were from 227 universities.
Data analysis illustration is carried out using HLM 7.01 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Cheong, Fai, Congdon, & du Toit, 2013). HLM is a commercial software, two free versions of which are also available: (a) the student edition which is restricted in the size of the model one wants to analyze, (b) The 15-day trial version which has got all the capabilities of the full version and can be requested from the publishing company at http://www.ssicentral.com/hlm/downloads.html.

**Data file preparation**

Researchers usually input their data into SPSS in ‘wide’ format for conventional analysis purposes. For the purpose of Rasch HGLM analysis, the ‘wide’ data format should be restructured into the ‘long’ format. Moreover, for each item a dummy indicator should be created so that \( X_{qij} \) is the \( q^{th} \) dummy variable for person \( j \), with values 1 when \( q = i \), and 0 when \( q \neq 1 \), for item \( i \). To convert the data into ‘long’ format, go to Data tab in the SPSS file which includes the data and then to Restructure as shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Restructuring 1.](image)

Since the intent is to convert the ‘long’ form into ‘wide’ (i.e., convert variables into cases), in the next dialog box go with the SPSS’s default (i.e. “Restructure selected variables into cases”), as shown in Figure 2 and then click Next.

![Figure 2. Restructuring 2.](image)

Since the intention is to create just one new variable (i.e., item) from a set of columns in the old data file (i.e., Item1 through Item60), in the next dialog box leave the SPSS’s default unchanged because it serves our purpose right and click Next as shown in Figure 3.

![Figure 3. Restructuring 3.](image)

In the next window, from the Case Group Identification section choose Use selected variable and then select the ‘id’ variable from the Variables in the Current File in the left box and move it into the box in front of the Variable in the right. Then choose...
Item 1 through Item 60 variables from the **Variables in the Current File** box and move them into the box under the **Variables to be Transposed**. One can optionally change the name of the **Target variable** from trans1 (which is the default of SPSS) as shown in Figure 4.

In the next few dialog boxes, go with the SPSS’s defaults and just click **Next** in each dialog box and you will come up with the ‘long’ data file.

In the next step, we need to create dummy variables for the items. It can be much more conveniently carried out through writing a set of commands in the SPSS Syntax Editor. From the File menu select **New** and then **syntax**. In the Syntax Editor window type the following commands as shown in Figure 5:

```
Compute x1 = (item=1).
Compute x2 = (item=2).
Compute x3 = (item=3).
Compute x4 = (item=4).
Compute x5 = (item=5).
.
.
Compute x60 = (item=60).
;EXECUTE.
```

Then select all the commands and from the menu above click on the **Run Selection** button, as shown in Figure 5. Running this command will return dummy variables X1 through X60 for Items 1 through 60.

HLM works with either separate data files for each level or a single data file which contains information on all the levels. For the purpose of illustration, information for each level was saved in a separate SPSS file. It is worthy of mention that HLM requires that data in all the data files should include an ID variable for the respective level and IDs for all the levels above it and they should be sorted according to the ID of the highest level. In a two-level model, for example, where the first level is the item level and the second level is the person level, both the item and person files should be sorted according to person ID. And in a three-level model where the third level is class or university, all the three data files should be sorted according to class/university ID. Figure 6 shows an excerpt of the item-level (level-1) data file.

As one can see the first level data file has been sorted according to the third-level IDs (i.e., uniID). The first column is university ID (uniID), the second column represents data on student ID (stID), the third column display item id (item) information, and the fourth column is a vector of item responses where 1
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indicates a correct answer and 0 indicates an incorrect answer. Since item responses are arrayed in a column and there are 60 items on the test, data for each test taker consists of 60 rows. Put another way, ID for each student is repeated 60 times which results in \[60 \times 20342 = 1,220,520\] rows of data. From the fifth variable onward, the dummy variables for each item (X1 to X60) are displayed.

Figure 7 displays the person-level data file. As the reader might note, the second-level data file has also been sorted according to the highest level ID variable (uniID). This data file includes uniID, stID, and second-level related variables such as gender and grade point average (gpa).

Finally, the third-level data file includes university ID (uniID) and university-related variable of university type (unitype). A slice of the third-level data (university in this case) is displayed in Figure 8.

Therefore, an important point to note about the data files is that the highest-level ID variable (here uniID) should appear in the data files for all the three levels and exactly in the same order.
Working with HLM

In the next step, the models for different levels should be specified. HLM stores data in its own MDM format which can be created from SPSS, Stata, SAS, and SYSTAT. To create the MDM file, after you run the HLM 7, select “Make the new MDM file” and then “Stat package input” from the file menu, as shown in Figure 9. The latter is selected since our data are stored in a statistical package (in this case SPSS).

In the next dialog box the type of the MLM should be selected. For simple two-, three-, and four-level MLMs the respective model should be selected from the upper section of the dialog box. For the purpose of the present study select HLM3 option because there are three levels: items (level 1) nested within students (level 2) and students in turn nested within universities (level 3). Then click OK (Figure 10).

In the next dialog box, click the Browse button for each respected level, as shown in Figure 11, and go to the directory where each of the data files have been saved. As soon as the data files are located, the Choose variable buttons for each respective level are activated. Click the buttons and specify the variables related to each level as shown in Figure 11. For the level-1 model in the present study the ID variables for all the three levels, the first-level-specific variables such as “response” and the dummy variables for the items should be specified. For Level 2, the ID variables for Levels 2 and 3 and second-level-related variables of gender and ‘gpa’ should be specified. Finally, for the third level, university ID (uniID) and university type...
An intercept-only model is a baseline model against which more extended models can be compared. A null Rasch HGLM model is a model which includes only item dummy variables at Level-1 and no variable at other levels but intercepts. Generally, to add a variable at any level select the level you intend to add the variable to from the upper part of the lef panel of the model specification dialog box. When a level is selected, the level name is embraced by double “less than” and “greater than” symbols (\( \gg \text{Level-1} \ll \)). At Level 1 first, the outcome variable (in this case “RESPONSE”) and then all the item dummy variables except the one for the reference item (in this case the last item) should be included. To add the outcome variable, when the Level-1 button is activated, click on “RESPONSE” in the left panel and from the drop-down menu click on “add variable uncentered”. To add the dummy variables, in the left panel click on them one by one and from the drop-down menu click on “add variable uncentered”, as shown in Figure 12.

Since we have already specified a 3-level model (see Figure 10), as soon as we include the Level 1 variables the respective Level 2 and Level 3 equations are automatically created. For the purpose of an intercept-only model leave Level-2 and 3 models intact. Next, press the “Run Analysis” button from the top menu.

In the context of the present study, ICC is the proportion of the university-level variance compared to

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**Specifying an intercept-only (null) model**

An important step before embarking upon multilevel analysis is the inspection of the amount of dependence between observations (i.e., data points). Intraclass correlation (ICC) is an index of the amount of within-cluster dependency. A high ICC indicates that the average correlations between data points (i.e., scores or item responses) from the same cluster (here university) are higher than the average correlation between scores obtained from different cluster. The more similar within-group observations to each other are and the more different they are than observations from other groups, the more inappropriate the application of the traditional statistical tests to the data will be. If the amount of variance in the person-level (Level 1 in MLMs and Level 2 in HGLMs) outcome variable attributable to the cluster level is negligible, multilevel modeling is not appropriate for the data. If ICC is +1 it indicates that there is no variation within the groups but the groups are very different from each other. If it is negative or approaches 0 multilevel analysis is not needed. To calculate ICC an intercept-only (null) model should be used.
the total variance. ICC can be computed through Equation 8.

\[
ICC = \frac{\sigma_{u0}}{\sigma_{u0} + \sigma_r}
\]  

(8)

Where \(\sigma_r\) and \(\sigma_{u0}\) (in our case) are the variances of the person-level errors \(r_j\) and the university-level error \(u_{u0}\). As Tables 1 and 2 show, the variance component associated with the random term in the second level (here person level) is about 0.20 and that associated with the third level (here university level) is about 0.06. Plugging in the respective values into Equation 8, we will have

\[
ICC = \frac{0.06}{0.06 + 0.20} = 0.23
\]

Thus 23% of the RESPONSE variance is at university level and 77% (1-23%) is at person level. Thus addition of a cluster level to the model is warranted.

Table 1. Final estimation of level-2 variance components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random Effect</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Variance Component</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT1, (r_0)</td>
<td>0.45081</td>
<td>0.20323</td>
<td>20116</td>
<td>75802.42875</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Final estimation of level-3 variance components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random Effect</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Variance Component</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT1/INTRCPT2, (u_{u0})</td>
<td>0.24111</td>
<td>0.05814</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>4660.66298</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obtaining Item and Person parameters

As it was mentioned above, one of the advantages of using the Rasch HGLM is that it circumvents the inconsistency associated with simultaneous estimations of person and item parameters (Kamata, 2001). In the Rasch HGLM, person parameters vary across people (are random) and fixed across items. That's why in Equation 5 (see above) there is a random term \((u_{u0})\) only for the intercept not the items. To go with the conventional practice in MLM, we will start with the simplest possible model: a model with no explanatory variables or an intercept-only model. As it was said before, person parameters in Rasch HGLM are not estimated they are the residuals of the intercept component. In a two-level Rasch HGLM, person abilities are level-2 residuals, which HLM generates on demand. In a three-level model person abilities are sum of level-2 and 3 residuals. To get the residuals, go to the “Basic Settings” menu and click “Level-2 Residual File” and “Level-3 Residual File” and in the new dialog boxes specify the format you want HLM to produce the file in and give the files a name and then click “OK”. One more thing needs to be specified in this dialog box: the distribution of the dependent variable(s). Since we are working with binary variables with one trial (i.e., each test taker tries each item once) the “Bernoulli” distribution should be specified from the “Distribution of the Outcome Variable” section. Then click on the “Run the Analysis” button to run the specified model. In the interest of space, only a slice of the level-2 and 3 residual files are displayed in Figures 13 and 14.
If we were working with a two-level model, person abilities could be directly read from the “olintrcp” or the “ebintrcp” columns in Figure 13. However, in a three-level model, as shown in Equations 13 and 14 below, there are two random terms: one for the level-2 intercept ($r_{jk}$ in Equation 13 below) and one for level-3 intercept ($\gamma_{00k}$ in Equation 14 Below). The random term for the level-2 intercept ($r_{jk}$) indicates the degree to which person $j$ in university $m$ is deviated from the mean of the university $m$ whereas the random term for Level 3 ($\gamma_{00k}$) indicates how much the mean ability in university $m$ deviates from the grand mean (i.e., the mean of all universities’ means). In a three-level model, ability of persons can be obtained by aggregating level-2 and level-3 random terms (i.e., $r_{00m} + u_{0jm}$).

Level-3 residuals can be read from the “olintrcp” or the “ebintrcp” columns in Figure 14. One can manually compute person parameters by summing level-2 and level-3 residuals. In Figure 13 the first column (i.e., L3D column) represents the university each person belongs to and the second column (i.e., L2D column) represents the person IDs. As one can read from the figure, the first 14 students belonged to university No. 1. As Figure 13 shows, ability of Person No. 116 which belongs to University No. 1 is -.279 logits and according to Figure 14 the mean university ability for the university he/she attended (university No. 1) is .187. Therefore his/her ability can be computed by summing his/her person-level ability and the mean university ability as follows: $-.279 + .187 = 0.092$.

In a three-level model, item difficulties are computed based on the item effects in the third level. In the interest of space the effects for Items 1 to 3 are presented in Table 3.

### Table 3. Item effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effect</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. error</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Approx. d.f.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT1, $\pi_0$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, $\beta_{10}$</td>
<td>$-0.334462$</td>
<td>$0.017469$</td>
<td>$-19.146$</td>
<td>$225$</td>
<td>$&lt;0.001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3, $\gamma_{00}$</td>
<td>For X1 slope, $\pi_1$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, $\beta_{10}$</td>
<td>$0.827132$</td>
<td>$0.014959$</td>
<td>$55.293$</td>
<td>$1199933$</td>
<td>$&lt;0.001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3, $\gamma_{000}$</td>
<td>For X2 slope, $\pi_2$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, $\beta_{20}$</td>
<td>$-0.814584$</td>
<td>$0.016640$</td>
<td>$-48.953$</td>
<td>$1199933$</td>
<td>$&lt;0.001$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3, $\gamma_{000}$</td>
<td>For X3 slope, $\pi_3$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, $\beta_{30}$</td>
<td>$-0.343377$</td>
<td>$0.015278$</td>
<td>$-22.476$</td>
<td>$1199933$</td>
<td>$&lt;0.001$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\gamma_{000}$ is the difficulty of the reference item (-0.334462) and according to the Rasch HGLM the difficulties of other items are computed by subtracting each item’s effect from the reference item effect ($-\pi_{i00} - \pi_{000}$). The difficulty for Item 1, for example, is computed as follows: $0.827132 - (-0.334462) = 0.49267$.

### Adding level-2 predictors

**Impact**

Beretvas, Cawthon, Lockhart, & Kay (2012) define impact as “difference in person abilities as a function of some person-level predictors” (p. 6). Take a simple case where a researcher intends to study the effect of test takers’ gender on their performance in a reading comprehension test. As was explained formerly, the usual approach in conventional IRT models is to estimate person and item parameters first and then in the second step estimate the effect of explanatory variables such as gender on test performance. However,
the two-step approach may not yield accurate results. Approach form a Rasch HGLM one-step perspective, the level-1 model remains the same, as in Equation 4, and the person-level predictor (in this case gender) is added to the level-2 model as in Equation 9.

\[
\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{gender})_j + r_{0j}
\]
\[
\beta_{j} = \gamma_{10}
\]
\[
\beta_{(k-1)j} = \gamma_{(k-1)0},
\]

where Coefficient \( \gamma_{01} \) represents impact. Since \( \beta_{0j} \) is a parameter that is common to all items in the level-1 model and the intercept value affects every item’s difficulty, statistically significant coefficient of \( \gamma_{01} \) would indicate that overall, males and females performed significantly differently on all of the items. Therefore coefficient \( \gamma_{01} \) is the difference in ability of a male versus a female test taker.

Generally, to add any covariate to level-2 and 3 equations, click on the relevant equation; all the variables related to the respective level appear in the left panel. Click on the relevant variable and from the drop-down menu select “add variable uncentered”. To add gender impact, for example, to the model, in the "model specification" menu click on the first line of the level-2 equation (the intercept equation \( \pi_0 \)) to activate the relevant variables in the left panel and then add the variable as explained above. A slice of the output is displayed in Table 4.

**Table 4. Final estimation of fixed effects: (Population-average model)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effect</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Stand. error</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Approx. d.f.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT1, ( \pi_0 )</td>
<td>-1.854943</td>
<td>0.039772</td>
<td>-46.639</td>
<td>20114</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, ( \beta_{00} )</td>
<td>-0.224154</td>
<td>0.008099</td>
<td>-27.678</td>
<td>20114</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Figure 18, the intercept for gender (\( \gamma_{01} = -0.22 \)) is significant (\( p\)-value <0.001). The negative value implies that on average males had higher ability estimates than females by 0.22 logits (because the code assigned to males [i.e., 0] was lower than that of females [i.e., 1]).

**How much variance was explained?**

In traditional multiple regression \( R^2 \) is a gauge of the amount of variance explained by the predictor variables. In MLM the amount of variance explained should be examined for each level separately by calculating a statistic analogous to \( R^2 \). A straightforward approach is to compare the variance of the intercept in each level after addition of the explanatory variables with the variance component of the baseline model (i.e., intercept-only model). Raudenbush and Bryk (2002) suggested using Equation 10 to calculate \( R^2 \) for the person-level model:

\[
R^2 = \frac{\sigma_{elb}^2 - \sigma_{elm}^2}{\sigma_{elb}^2}
\]

where \( \sigma_{elb}^2 \) is the person-level residual variance for the intercept-only model and \( \sigma_{elm}^2 \) is the person-level residual variance for the model with explanatory variable. As Table 5 shows, inclusion of gender into the person-level model reduced the variance component to about 0.17.

**Table 5. Final estimation of level-1 and level-2 variance components**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random Effect</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Variance Component</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>( \chi^2 )</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT1, ( \sigma_0 )</td>
<td>0.41352</td>
<td>0.17100</td>
<td>20114</td>
<td>65943.84306</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 above showed the variance of the intercept in the baseline model was 0.20. Plugging in the respective values into Equation 10 we will have

\[
R^2 = \frac{0.20 - 0.17}{0.20} = 0.15
\]

The implication is that gender explain about 15% of the explainable variance at person level. The significance variance component in Table 5 suggests that more person characteristic variables should be added.

**Estimating DIF**

DIF occurs when test takers with the same ability level but from different observed groups have
different probabilities of giving the correct answer to an item (Clauser and Mazor, 1998). In other words, DIF refers to significant difference in item difficulties across different groups in the same population, which are matched for ability. Differences in item difficulties and discriminations across subpopulations with equal latent trait ability are referred to as uniform and non-uniform DIF, respectively. Rasch HGLM tests only for uniform DIF. To investigate DIF, a person covariate (here gender) can be added as to the level-2 equation as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta_{0j} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{gender})_j + u_{0j} \\
\beta_{1j} &= \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(\text{gender})_j \\
\beta_{(k-1)j} &= \gamma_{(k-1)0} + \gamma_{(k-1)1}(\text{gender})_j,
\end{align*}
\]

In Equation 11, \( \gamma_{01} \) represents impact and \( \gamma_{11} \) to \( \gamma_{(k-1)1} \) represent DIF. If the coefficient \( \gamma_{q1} \) is positive, the item is, after controlling for ability, easier for females (since females were coded as 1) and if the coefficient is negative, after controlling for ability, the item is easier for males (since 0 represented males here). To add gender DIF to the equation for any of the items, first select the respective equation and, as explained above, add gender. To save space, the results for Items 15, 16, and 18 are presented in Table 6.

**Table 6. Final estimation of fixed effects (Unit-specific model with robust standard errors)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effect</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Approx d.f.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For X15 slope, ( \pi_{15} )</td>
<td>( \gamma_{150} )</td>
<td>1.002693</td>
<td>0.088475</td>
<td>11.333</td>
<td>20107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, ( \beta_{150} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For GENDER, ( \beta_{151} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3,</td>
<td>( \gamma_{1510} )</td>
<td>-0.673751</td>
<td>0.043299</td>
<td>-15.560</td>
<td>20107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For X16 slope, ( \pi_{16} )</td>
<td>( \gamma_{160} )</td>
<td>0.416603</td>
<td>0.073470</td>
<td>5.670</td>
<td>20107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, ( \beta_{160} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3,</td>
<td>( \gamma_{1610} )</td>
<td>0.175237</td>
<td>0.038120</td>
<td>4.597</td>
<td>20107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For GENDER, ( \beta_{161} )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3,</td>
<td>( \gamma_{1610} )</td>
<td>-0.346167</td>
<td>0.097776</td>
<td>-3.540</td>
<td>20107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 6, the effect of gender on the three items was statistically significant (p-value <0.001). Items 15 and 18 were easier for males as indicated by the negative signes (males were coded as 0) and Item 16 was easier for females as indicated by the positive sign (females were coded 1).

Rasch HGLM is flexible in that it can also test for unobservable (i.e., not-yet-measured) person characteristics as DIF source. Equation 11 above tested for gender DIF as an observable DIF source. Testing for unobservable sources of DIF can be carried out by adding a person-specific residual contributing to the overall difficulty of any given item through Equation 12. That is item difficulties should be modeled as random rather than fixed.

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta_{0j} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{gender})_j + r_{0j} \\
\beta_{1j} &= \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(\text{gender})_j + r_{1j} \\
\beta_{(k-1)j} &= \gamma_{(k-1)0} + \gamma_{(k-1)1}(\text{gender})_j,
\end{align*}
\]

Significance of the random effect \( r_{ij} \) indicates that “the item’s difficulty is affected by an, as-yet-unmeasured person characteristic and cannot be assumed as fixed across people” (Beretvas, Cawthon, Lockhar, & Kaye, 2012, pp. 760).

In what follows Items 15, 16, and 18 are tested for unobservable source of DIF. To do so, in the “model specification” menu select the equation for the relevant item by clicking once on the equation and then click on the random term (i.e., \( r_q \)) for the respective equation and it will get activated (i.e., gets black). Running the model by clicking the “Run analysis” button you will get the following output (Table 7) regarding the random terms of Items 15, 16, and 18. As one can read from the table, the variance component for Item 16 is still significant (p-value <0.001) which implies that other person covariates except gender should be added to the model for Item 16 to capture variations in test takers’ performance on the item.
Adding Level-3 Predictors

Flexibility of the Rasch HGLM permits researchers to add a third level to capture the clustering of examinees nested within classes or schools. In a three-level model, at the second level, item difficulties are modeled as fixed across test takers as shown in Equation 13:

$$
\beta_{jk} = \gamma_{0jk} + r_{0jk} \\
\beta_{k} = \gamma_{10k} \\
\beta_{m} = \gamma_{m0k}
$$

where $r_{0jk}$ represents the extent to which the ability of person $j$ in school $k$ deviates from the mean ability of school $k$. And at the third level, item difficulties can also be assumed fixed across schools:

$$
\gamma_{00k} = \pi_{000} + u_{00k} \\
\gamma_{10k} = \pi_{100} \\
\gamma_{k-10m} = \pi_{(k-1)00}
$$

where $u_{00k}$ is the residual for school $k$. In Equaiton 14, $\gamma_{00}$ to $\gamma_{m00}$, represent the difficulty for item $q$ but the ability is now decomposed into a person-specific ability, $\beta_{jk}$, and the school-specific ability which is the average ability of students in school $k$. Thus the ability, $\theta_j$ in the standard Rasch model in Equation 7 above, corresponds to $r_{0jk} + u_{00k}$. The three-level model can also be extended by adding school-level predictors. The level-3 predictor in this study is university type (i.e., “unitype”). As it was explained before, subjects in the present study for their B.A. studied at four university types: state university, Azad university, Payam-e-Noor university, and nonprofit not-government university. The model at the third level is specified as in Equation 15.

$$
\gamma_{00k} = \pi_{000} + \pi_{001} (\text{unitype})_k + u_{00k} \\
\gamma_{10k} = \pi_{100} \\
\gamma_{k-10m} = \pi_{(k-1)00}
$$

To add “UNITYPE”, which is the only predictor variable at Level 3, select the intercept equation ($\gamma_{000}$) and as explained above, in the left panel click on ‘unitype’ variable. Next, click on “add variable uncentered” and run the analysis. Part of the output for the three-level model is displayed in Table 8. According to this table, the type of university students attended had a significant effect on their performance ($P<0.001$).

Table 7. Final estimation of level-1 and level-2 variance components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random Effect</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance Component</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X13 slope, $r_{13}$</td>
<td>0.32464</td>
<td>0.10539</td>
<td>20340</td>
<td>20054.83849</td>
<td>&gt;.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X15 slope, $r_{15}$</td>
<td>0.54028</td>
<td>0.29190</td>
<td>20340</td>
<td>19031.63363</td>
<td>&gt;.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X16 slope, $r_{16}$</td>
<td>0.52583</td>
<td>0.27649</td>
<td>20340</td>
<td>21145.05560</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X18 slope, $r_{18}$</td>
<td>0.55096</td>
<td>0.30356</td>
<td>20340</td>
<td>18286.01242</td>
<td>&gt;.500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Final estimation of fixed effects: (Universe-specific model)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effect</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Approx. d.f.</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT1, $\pi_0$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For INTRCPT2, $\beta_{10}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT3, $\gamma_{000}$</td>
<td>0.142087</td>
<td>0.042568</td>
<td>3.338</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNITYPE, $\gamma_{100}$</td>
<td>-0.102606</td>
<td>0.015305</td>
<td>6.704</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variance component for the intercept at the third level is still significant at $p<0.001$, as shown in Table 8. The implication is that more university-level covariates can be added to capture variations in the performance of the universities. According to Raudenbush and Bryk (2002), the amount of variance explained by the third-level predictor can be calculated using Equation 16 as follows:
$R^2 = \frac{\sigma^2_{u_{ijkl}} - \sigma^2_{u_{ijm}}}{\sigma^2_{u_{ijb}}}$, \hspace{1cm} (16)

where $\sigma^2_{u_{ijb}}$ is the university-level residual variance for the intercept-only model and $\sigma^2_{u_{ijm}}$ is the university-level residual variance for the model with “unitype” as the predictor.

Table 9. Final estimation of level-3 variance components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random Effect</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance Component</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRCPT1/INTRCPT2,00</td>
<td>0.21733</td>
<td>0.04723</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>4280.86603</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plugging in the respective values from Tables 2 above and 9, we will have

$$R^2 = \frac{0.058 - 0.047}{0.058} = 0.19$$

The implication is that “unitype” explains about 19% of the explainable variance at the university level.

Summary

In the present paper I tried to introduce MLMs in general and HGLMs in particular in an easy-to-follow language and illustrate their application to language testing data. First the ‘wide’ data format was converted into “long” format to make it compatible with HGLM. Then I showed how person and item parameters can be estimated and items showing DIF can be detected. Finally, I explained how to add a third level and the related covariates. It was illustrated how to calculate the amount of variance explained after addition of the covariates at Levels 2 and 3.

References


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