Multinomial and ordered logits

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GLM: A recap

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Reminder: What is a GLM?

Regressions aim to describe (a linear) relationship between x and y with one number, β .

- Assumes a continuous and unbounded variable.
- ▶ When y is neither (e.g. binary), we relied on a latent continuous variable
- ➤ To approximate the latent variable, we calculated the logodds (i.e. we compare)
- ⇒ Probability distribution maps unobserved variable to observed outcomes.

Today: nominal and ordinal variables

Strategies when our outcome variable is categorical

- ightharpoonup categorical (e.g. party, profession,...) ightharpoonup multinomial regression
- ightharpoonup ordinal (e.g. attitudes towards topics...) ightharpoonup ordinal regression
- ⇒ Models of choice where we model the chooser's characteristics

Multinomial logistic regression

Multinomial logistic regression

Two conceptions of multinomial regression

Two conceptions of multinomial regression

- Latent variable approach: Our utility of each choice.
- A series of binomial logits with the same reference category.

Latent variable approach

Latent variable approach: Imagine *m* choices modeled as

 $y_m = a_m \times b_m x_i$

- ▶ $b_m x_i$ reflects the utility of a choice m for the chooser i with x characteristic. \rightarrow systematic term
- ightharpoonup a_m reflects the baseline utility of that choice ightarrow stochastic term
- ⇒ The preferred choice is the one with the highest utility

Example: Party choice

Example: Party choice

Let's consider party choice among voters

- ESS survey round (chap 6, Hermansen, 2023)
- respondents give:
 - preferred party
 - attitudes towards immigration

I can rank parties

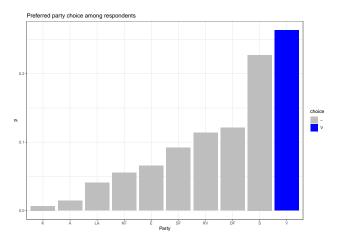
Let's rank the parties according to the respondents' choice

```
tab <-
 df %>%
 #Group by party
 group_by(Party) %>%
  #Number of respondent by party
 reframe(n = n()) \%\%
 mutate(
    #Total number of respondents
   N = sum(n),
    #Proportion/probability of group
   p = n/N) \%
  #Sort just for facility
 arrange(p) %>%
 mutate(
    #Check if it sums up to 1
   cum = cumsum(p),
    #Which is the largest?
    choice = if_else(row.names(.) == which.max(p),
                     Party, "-"))
```

I can rank parties

```
## # A tibble: 10 x 6
     Party
                                   cum choice
     <chr> <int> <int>
                                 <dbl> <chr>
                         <dbl>
   1 K
               8 1179 0.00679 0.00679 -
   2 A
              17 1179 0.0144 0.0212
   3 LA
              48 1179 0.0407
                               0.0619
   4 KF
              65 1179 0.0551
                               0.117
   5 E
              77 1179 0.0653
                               0.182
             108
                 1179 0.0916
                               0.274
   7 RV
             134
                  1179 0.114
                               0.388
                               0.509
   8 DF
             143 1179 0.121
   9 S
             268
                 1179 0.227
                               0.736
## 10 V
             311
                 1179 0.264
```

I can rank parties (figure)



the most frequent party choice is the most probable outcome

Theoretical link to political science

The assumption is that choosers are rational, and choose a category (m_j) whenever its utility exceeds the alternative (m_d) .

$$U(m_i) > U(m_d)$$

⇒ This is also how we estimate it; through comparisons

A series of binomial logits

A series of binomial logits with the same reference category.

- lacktriangle Data consists of many groups, but I only compare two groups ightarrowdata/variation intensive model choice.
- ightharpoonup Categories/choice are mutually exclusive \rightarrow Different β for each choice
- \Rightarrow All choices are given a probability and they sum up to one.

Example: ESS survey round

Let's do an intercept-only model

Logit transformation:

$$logit(p_m) = log(\frac{p_m}{p_d})$$

```
tab <-
 df %>%
  #Group by party
 group_by(Party) %>%
  #Number of respondent by party
 reframe(n = n()) \% > \%
  mutate(
    #Total number of respondents
   N = sum(n).
    #Proportion/probability of group
   p = n/N,
    #Pick Social democrats as reference category
   p_ref = p[Party == "S"],
    #Odds
   odds = p/p_ref,
    #Logodds
   logodds = log(odds))
```

Example: ESS survey

- intercept-only model
- ▶ ... where the reference-level (S) is effectively left out

```
A tibble: 10 x 7
##
                       N
                                          odds logodds
      Party
                n
                               p p_ref
##
      <chr> <int> <int>
                           <dbl> <dbl>
                                         <dbl>
                                                 <dbl>
##
    1 A
               17
                    1179 0.0144
                                 0.227 0.0634
                                               -2.76
##
    2 DF
              143
                    1179 0.121
                                 0.227 0.534
                                                -0.628
##
    3 E
               77
                    1179 0.0653
                                 0.227 0.287
                                                -1.25
##
    4 K
                8
                    1179 0.00679
                                 0.227 \ 0.0299
                                                -3.51
               65
                    1179 0.0551
                                 0.227 0.243
                                                -1.42
##
    5 KF
##
    6 LA
               48
                    1179 0.0407
                                 0.227 0.179
                                                -1.72
                    1179 0.114
                                 0.227 0.5
##
    7 R.V
              134
                                                -0.693
##
    8 S
              268
                    1179 0.227
                                 0.2271
                                                 0
                                 0.227 0.403
##
    9 SF
              108
                    1179 0.0916
                                                -0.909
##
  10 V
              311
                    1179 0.264
                                 0.227 1.16
                                                 0.149
```

In R: set a reference level

▶ We set a reference level p_d : That's the leave-one-out trick.

```
df <-
  df %>%
  #I use the Social democrats
 mutate(Party = relevel(as.factor(Party), ref = "S"))
```

Estimate the model

```
library(nnet)
mod.cat <- multinom(Party ~</pre>
                          1,
                       df)
```

```
## # weights: 20 (9 variable)
## initial value 2714.747825
## iter 10 value 2332.511892
## final value 2326.831829
## converged
```

Results table

The result is a series of equations, one for each party

Table 1:

	Dependent variable:									
	Α	DF	E	K	KF	LA	RV			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)			
Constant	-2.76*** (0.25)	-0.63*** (0.10)	-1.25*** (0.13)	-3.51*** (0.36)	-1.42*** (0.14)	-1.72*** (0.16)	-0.69* (0.11			
Akaike Inf. Crit.	4,671.66	4,671.66	4,671.66	4,671.66	4,671.66	4,671.66	4,671.			

Note:

With predictors

Let's regress party choice on scepticism towards immigration

```
library(nnet)
mod.cat <- multinom(Party ~
                       Skepsis,
                    df)
```

```
## # weights: 30 (18 variable)
## initial value 2705.537484
## iter 10 value 2304 290245
## iter 20 value 2246.392642
## final value 2246.301290
## converged
```

Table 2:

		Dependent variable:							
	A (1)	DF (2)	E (3)	K (4)	KF (5)	LA (6)	RV (7)		
Skepsis	0.23 (0.15)	0.56*** (0.07)	-0.04 (0.08)	-0.18 (0.24)	0.04 (0.09)	0.07 (0.10)	-0.30** (0.07)		
Constant	-3.89*** (0.85)	-3.69*** (0.40)	-1.04** (0.41)	-2.70** (1.09)	-1.58*** (0.44)	-2.06*** (0.51)	0.62* (0.32)		

4.528.60

Akaike Inf. Crit.

4.528.60

4.528.60

4.528.60

4.528.60

Interpretation

Interpretation

All the possibilities of the binomial logit are open

⇒ However, you want to decide which story you want to tell

Different approaches

- With respect to the reference category
 - the regression table (logodds): direction and statistical significance
 - marginal effects (partial back-transformation): relative change
- Predicted outcomes per category
 - predicted probability of each category (transformation of latent variable): relative
 - predicted choice (total back-transformation): most probable choice
- \Rightarrow Remember reference category is 1- the sum of all other probabilities

Marginal effects

The marginal effects are interpreted with reference to the reference level:

- A one-unit increase in skepticism decreases the probability of voting Alternativet rather than Social democrats with:
 - $(1 \exp(0.23) \times 100) = -25\%$

Predicted probabilities

The results can be read as a series of equations, one for each category m

$$Pr(y = m) \sim log(odds)$$

 $log(odds) = a_m + b_m x$

▶ predictions for each category → separate slopes and intercept

$$log(odds) = -4 + 0.23x$$

Predicted probabilities (cont.)

ightharpoonup set scenario (x = 5)

$$log(odds) = -3.89 + 0.23 \times 5$$

$$log(odds) = -4 + 1.13$$

▶ logistic transformation (backtransform) $\frac{exp(logodds)}{1+exp(logodds)}$

$$\frac{-2.76}{1 + -2.76}$$

$$Pr(m = A) = 0.06$$

 \Rightarrow The probability that a respondent with moderate view on immigration votes Alternativet is 5.9524366 %

Predicted probabilities using R

Predictions give latent probability of voting for a party, given the scenario.

quickly many predictions

```
predict(mod.cat, newdata = data.frame(Skepsis = 0:10), type = "probs")
                                                                         KF
      0.20156152 0.004111702 0.005024230 0.07102726 0.013573578 0.04142711
      0.22132873 0.005661793 0.009642847 0.07458954 0.012481772 0.04715935
     0.23629023 0.007579911 0.017993633 0.07615679 0.011159273 0.05219498
      0.24492042 0.009852479 0.032598957 0.07549367 0.009686500 0.05608684
      0.24588798 0.012403951 0.057203370 0.07248457 0.008143871 0.05837492
     0.23809793 0.015061927 0.096815641 0.06712536 0.006603907 0.05859999
      0.22090279 0.017523801 0.156998939 0.05956003 0.005130955 0.05636326
      0.19463550 0.019362051 0.241781563 0.05018784 0.003785915 0.05148373
      0.16132571 0.020124962 0.350275938 0.03978347 0.002627871 0.04423892
     0.12492356 0.019542405 0.474085494 0.02946227 0.001704106 0.03551389
## 11 0.09028141 0.017710636 0.598847491 0.02036305 0.001031341 0.02660757
              LA
                         RV
      0.02581331 0.37409713 0.13163687 0.1317273
      0.03042339 0.30551451 0.13044641 0.1627516
      0.03486177 0.24258118 0.12567952 0.1955027
      0.03878487 0.18700519 0.11756233 0.2280087
      0.04179347 0.13963145 0.10651356 0.2575629
      0.04343707 0.10055852 0.09307812 0.2806215
      0.04325535 0.06938758 0.07793232 0.2929450
      0.04090670 0.04546947 0.06196735 0.2904199
      0.03639232 0.02802972 0.04635204 0.2708491
```

Total backtransformation

To predict party choice, I identify the party with the highest probability within each scenario/respondent

I let the scenario vary (or I can do in-sample prediction) and predict probabilities

```
preds <- predict(mod.cat, newdata = data.frame(Skepsis = 0:10), type = "probs")</pre>
```

I identify the most likely outcome for scenario 1

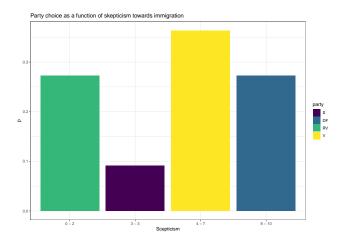
```
## RV
## 8
```

R can also do it for me

```
preds <- predict(mod.cat, newdata = data.frame(Skepsis = 0:10), type = "class")
preds</pre>
```

```
## [1] RV RV RV S V V V DF DF DF
## Levels: S A DF E K KF LA RV SF V
```

Total backtransformation (cont.)



Main assumption: IIA

Independence of irrelevant alternatives:

- there are no choices beyond what is modeled
- \triangleright consistency: if we prefer A > B and B > C, then also A > C
- \Rightarrow The β does not depend on on other values of y (other alternatives).

Testing the main assumption:

The Hausmann-McFadden test: Removes an alternative (supposed to be irrelevant) and check if β changes.

- Restricted model (a choice is removed) vs. unrestricted model (original)
- if IIA holds, then unrestricted model has smaller variance.
- $\Rightarrow \chi^2$ -test with smaller value indicates IIA holds.

Prediction testing

- Predict outcome
 - predicted outcome/choice is the one with the highest probability/utility
 - confusion matrix (Proportion of correct predictions: sum of diagonal N observations)
- Probability of all outcomes separately: ROC curve and separation plots
- \Rightarrow as in binomial regression, where you have one category vs. the rest

Ordered logistic regression

Ordered logistic regression

What is an ordered variable?

A ranked variable with unknown distance between categories.

- Often the result of binning: Close connection to latent formulation.
- ▶ We can choose how to treat it: As linear, categorical or **ordinal**.
- \Rightarrow estimate a single set of regression parameters, but keep the information on the order without assuming a continuous variable.

Two conceptions of ordered logisitc regression

There are two ways of understanding the ordered logit:

- Latent variable: useful for interpretation.
- ▶ Parallel regressions: useful for understanding and checking estimation.

Latent variable approach: cutpoints

Cutpoints

We rely on cutpoints to slice up the latent variable and determine outcomes

- **Binomial logistic:** One cutpoint. \rightarrow Rarely estimated.
- **Ordinal logistic:** Serveral cutpoints. \rightarrow Explicit.
- \Rightarrow Model estimates both regression parameters (β) and cutpoints (τ).

A series of cutpoints

You are in the category m when the latent variable is between its two cutpoints: $\tau_{m-1} < y^* < \tau_m$

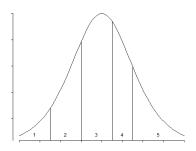


Figure 1: Slicing up a latent variable

The regression coefficients

The model calculates the odds of being lower than τ_m

- ▶ The first cutpoint (τ_0) is (-inf): you cant be lower than the lowest.
- ▶ The last cutpoint is 1 (+inf): all observations are in some category.
- You end up with m-1 cutpoints.

The regression output

The regression output reports both β and τ

- **Regression coefficient** β is reported in relation to *upper* cutpoint of the category: $\tau_m - \beta x_i$
- Cutpoints serve also as intercepts.

The predicted value

The predicted probability of being in category m:

$$Pr(y_i = m) = \frac{exp(\tau_m - \beta x_i)}{1 + exp(\tau_m - \beta x_i)} - \frac{exp(\tau_{m-1} - \beta x_i)}{1 + exp(\tau_{m-1} - \beta x_i)}$$
(1)

An example: Attitudes towards redistribution

An example:

ESS respondents (that voted V or DF) are asked to what extent they believe the state should engage in redistribution (1 = disagree; 5 = agree).

```
#Load in data
download.file(
   url("https://siljehermansen.github.io/teaching/beyond-linear-models/kap10
   destfile = "kap10.rda"
)
df <- kap10
#Check distribution
barplot(table(df$Udjaevn))</pre>
```

An example:

ESS respondents (that voted V or DF) are asked to what extent they believe the state should engage in redistribution (1 = disagree; 5 = agree).

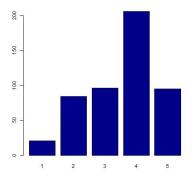


Figure 2: Attitudes towards redistribution is an ordered variable

Attitudes towards redistribution as a function of income

```
#Library for ordinal regression
library (MASS)
#Recode into ordered factor
df$Udjaevn.ord <- as.ordered(as.factor(df$Udjaevn))</pre>
#Run regression
mod.ord <- polr(Udjaevn.ord ~ Indtaegt,
                df.
                method = "logistic",
                Hess = TRUE
summary (mod.ord)
```

Attitudes towards redistribution as a function of income

```
## Call:
## polr(formula = Udjaevn.ord ~ Indtaegt, data = df, Hess = TRUE,
      method = "logistic")
##
##
## Coefficients:
##
            Value Std. Error t value
## Indtaegt 0.1153 0.03155
                              3.653
##
## Intercepts:
##
      Value Std. Error t value
## 1|2 -2.4186 0.2903 -8.3306
## 2|3 -0.6008 0.2179 -2.7566
## 3|4 0.3069 0.2150 1.4277
## 4|5 2.2276 0.2403
                         9.2686
##
## Residual Deviance: 1298.396
## ATC: 1308.396
## (51 observations deleted due to missingness)
```

We learn two things from the regression output

Regression coefficient reports effect of x on probability to be placed one category higher

- Effect in logodds: 0.115
- \blacktriangleright We can backtransform to one unit increase in x: $(exp(\beta)-1)\times 100$
 - = 12% increase in likelihood of a higher category.
- ⇒ Hypothesis testing as in a binomial logit

We learn two things from the regression output

We have one intercept per cutpoint

- e.g.: intercept of passing from 1 to 2 is -2.419
- e.g.: intercept is reported as significant (with standard errors)
- ⇒ The model does a fair job in distinguishing between categories.

Predicted scenarios

We interpret predicted probability by choosing one level of x and one category (two cutpoints) of y: What is the probability of m?

$$Pr(y_i = m) = \frac{exp(\tau_m - \beta x_i)}{1 + exp(\tau_m - \beta x_i)} - \frac{exp(\tau_{m-1} - \beta x_i)}{1 + exp(\tau_{m-1} - \beta x_i)}$$
(2)

Example

Let's choose low-income respondents (x=1) and category 3 (diff between cutpoints 2 and 3)

```
z = mod.ord$zeta
x = 1

logodds1 <- z[3] - coefficients(mod.ord) * x

logodds2 <- z[3-1] - coefficients(mod.ord) * x

## Probabilities
p1 <- exp(logodds1)/(1 + exp(logodds1)) #3/4 or lower
p2 <- exp(logodds2)/(1 + exp(logodds2)) #2/3 or lower
## Difference between cutpoints
p1 - p2 #cat 3</pre>
```

An example

Predicted proportion in category

```
paste(round((p1-p2)*100),
"% of low-income respondents are predicted to answer x = 3 ('neutral')." )
```

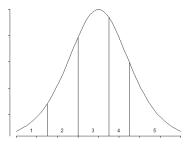
[1] "22 % of low-income respondents are predicted to answer x=3 ('neutral')."

Cumulative probability

[1] "55 % of low-income respondents are predicted to answer x = 3 ('neutral') or lower to the question of whether they support redistribution."

Two ways of viewing the slicing

We can report the probability (e.g. 0.22) of ending up between two cutpoints, or the *cumulative* probability (e.g. 0.55) to be below each



point.

Exercice:

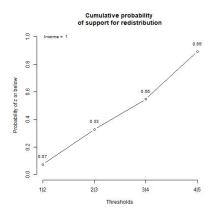
Increase the τ (z) within each value of Income (x)

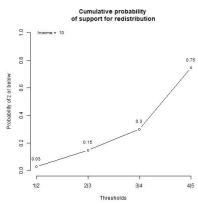
```
##Create empty plot
plot(y = 0,
    x = 0
    axes = FALSE.
    xlim = c(1,4).
    vlim = c(0,1),
    ylab = "Probability of z or below",
    xlab = "Thresholds",
     main = "Cumulative probability \nof support for redistribution",
     type = "n")
axis(1, at = 1:length(p1),
    labels = names(p1))
axis(2)
```

Exercice:

Increase the τ (z) within each value of Income (x)

```
#Set values for prediction
x = 10 #Let this go from 1 to 10; check the shape of 10
z = mod.ord\$zeta
#Logodds
logodds1 <- z - coefficients(mod.ord) * x</pre>
#Probabilities
p1 \leftarrow \exp(\log odds1)/(1 + \exp(\log odds1)) #3/4 \text{ or lower}
#Plot probabilities
lines(y = p1,
      x = 1:length(p1),
      tvpe = "b")
#Set legend (report x-value)
legend("topleft",
       bty = "n",
       cex = 0.8,
     paste("Income = ", x))
```





Parallel regressions approach: for assessment

Parallel regressions approach

The parallel regression approach is useful to understand how the model is estimated

- ightharpoonup The y is recoded into m-1 dummy variables indicating if y < m
- \triangleright Run a series of regressions where all β are fixed (i.e.: the same).
- ⇒ This is also useful when we assess the model

How good is our model?

The basic assumption

The basic assumption is that all parallel regressions have (about) the same regression coefficient

Check the mean of the predictor for each value of y. Does it trend?

```
df %>%
 filter(!is.na(Udjaevn)) %>%
 group_by(Udjaevn) %>%
  summarize(mean(Indtaegt, na.rm = T))
```

```
## # A tibble: 5 \times 2
     Udjaevn 'mean(Indtaegt, na.rm
##
       <dbl>
                                       <dbl>
##
                                        4.8
                                        5.58
## 2
                                        5.96
## 4
                                        6.41
## 5
            5
                                        6.75
```

Run parallel regressions without contstraint on β . Are they similar?

An example of parallel regressions

Recode into dummies

The dummies flag cases below a cumulative threshold of *outcomes*

```
##
df$ut1 <- ifelse(df$Udjaevn > 1, 1 , 0) #2 or above
df$ut2 <- ifelse(df$Udjaevn > 2, 1 , 0) #3 or above
df$ut3 <- ifelse(df$Udjaevn > 3, 1, 0) #4 or above
df$ut4 <- ifelse(df$Udjaevn > 4, 1 , 0) #5
```

 \Rightarrow The model then runs 4 regressions where β reports an aggregated value from all 4 coefficients (think: weigted mean).

Run four regressions

Let's examplify with the parallel regressions without fixed β :

```
##Parallel regressions:
mod1 <- glm(ut1 ~ Indtaegt, df, family = "binomial")
mod2 <- glm(ut2 ~ Indtaegt, df, family = "binomial")
mod3 <- glm(ut3 ~ Indtaegt, df, family = "binomial")
mod4 <- glm(ut4 ~ Indtaegt, df, family = "binomial")</pre>
```

Compare coefficients from four regressions

```
##
                     Dependent variable:
##
##
               ut1 ut2 ut3 ut4
##
              (1) (2) (3) (4)
##
 Indtaegt 0.189** 0.125*** 0.110*** 0.094**
##
              (0.085) (0.041) (0.035) (0.045)
##
        2.048*** 0.552** -0.270 -2.082***
## Constant
              (0.474) (0.260) (0.231) (0.319)
##
##
## Observations 459 459 459
## Log Likelihood -79.653 -234.669 -303.983 -217.674
## Akaike Inf. Crit. 163.306 473.338 611.967 439.348
## Note:
                     *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01
```

Coefficient should be a weighted average from four regressions

These β s are weighted by the number of observations in each category:

```
table(df$Udjaevn)
```

```
##
            96 206
    21
        84
```

We can plot the β s for comparison:

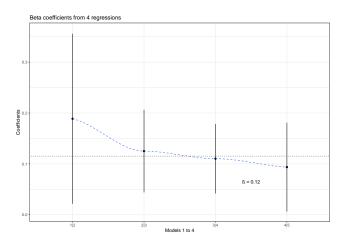
```
results <- rbind(summary(mod1)$coefficients[2, c(1,2)],
                  summary(mod2)$coefficients[2, c(1,2)],
                  summary(mod3)$coefficients[2, c(1,2)],
                  summary(mod4)$coefficients[2, c(1,2)])
thresholds \leftarrow c("1|2","2|3","3|4","4|5")
```

We can plot the β s for comparison:

```
ggplot() +
 geom_point(aes(y = results[, "Estimate"],
                x = thresholds)) +
 geom_smooth(aes(y = results[, "Estimate"],
                 x = 1:4),
             lty = 2,
             1wd = 0.5) +
 geom_segment(aes(x = 1:4,
              xend = 1:4,
               v = results[. "Estimate"]-results[. "Std. Error"]*1.96.
              vend = results[. "Estimate"]+results[. "Std. Error"]*1.96)) +
 theme_bw() +
 vlim(c(results[, "Estimate"][4]-results[, "Std, Error"][4]*2.
         results[, "Estimate"][1]+results[, "Std, Error"][1]*2)) +
 geom_hline(yintercept = mod.ord$coefficients,
            lty = 3) +
 geom_text(aes(y = mod.ord$coefficients-0.05,
                x = 3.5
                label = paste("\u03b2 =", round(mod.ord$coefficients,2))
                ).
           parse = F) +
 labs(title = "Beta coefficients from 4 regressions") +
 vlab("Coefficients") +
 xlab("Models 1 to 4")
```

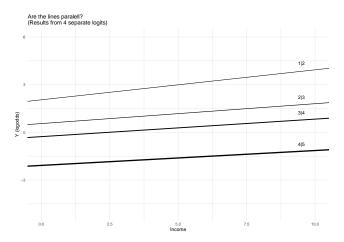
We can plot the β s for comparison:

The overall β is 0.12. If the ordered model describes the data well, then all the unconstrained β s should resemble that description.



A visual inspection

A more visual way of checking the "parallel lines assumption" is to inspect if the regression lines are parallel.



When is it smart to run an ordered logit?

- You have few ordered categories
- ▶ The effect is approximately the same across the categories (parallel lines assumption)

What do I do if the assumption doesn't hold?

- Run an OLS/linear model:
 - if you have many categories
 - fairly equal spread of observations between categories
- Run a multinomial model:
 - \triangleright i.e. estimate different β for each regression/threshold