

Categorical predictors, interactions, logistic regression, and hierarchical models

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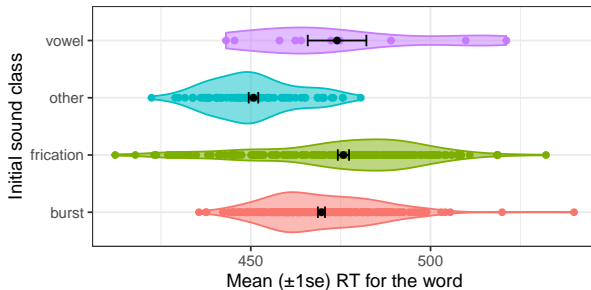
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The reporter who the senator attacked (object-extracted)
 - ▶ Is the vowel lax or tense?
- ▶ Example in word naming: the category of the initial sound of the word

burst	<i>bait</i>
frication	<i>chess</i>
other consonant	<i>wrist</i>
vowel	<i>inch</i>

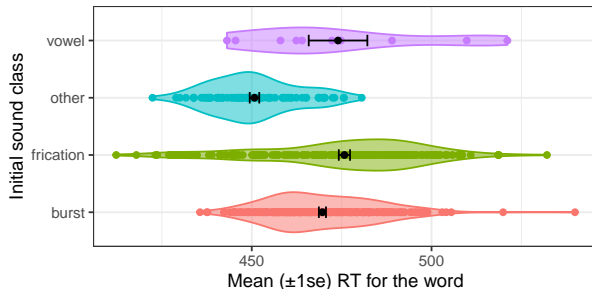
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- ▶ **Note:** within-class variance seems to differ across classes—this is sometimes called **heteroskedasticity**. We won't worry about this for now, but it's something to keep in mind and we can eventually incorporate ways to deal with it

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- ▶ Many different coding schemes available (I'll cover three); critically, these models are **equivalent** in the following key sense: they can express the same set of probability distributions $P(Y|X)$!
- ▶ Hence, your choice of coding scheme should generally be guided by how you want to interpret model parameters

Dummy coding

With dummy coding, you drop the intercept term and create one 0/1 “dummy” predictor per value of your categorical predictor:

Level of Init	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4
burst	1	0	0	0
frication	0	1	0	0
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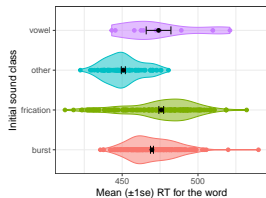
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(Note: you cannot use dummy coding for more than one additively combined categorical predictor, since you can only sacrifice the intercept once)

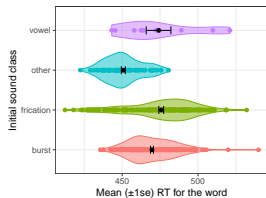
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Predictor	$\hat{\beta}$	$SE(\hat{\beta})$	$p(> t)$
burst	469.65	1.15	$\ll 0.001$
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- ▶ The t statistics reflect the null hypothesis that mean RT for that initial phone type is 0 (not a very useful null hypothesis!)

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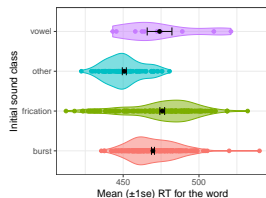
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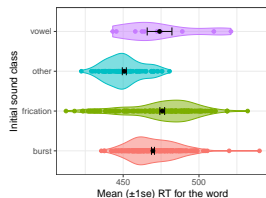
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- ▶ The t -statistic-based p -value indicates that fricative-initial words are slower than burst-initial words, and that words starting with other consonants are faster, but that we have insufficient information to conclude that vowel-initial words are either faster or slower

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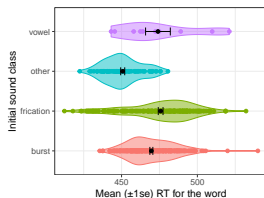
subject to the constraint that

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 + \beta_4 = 0$$

Or equivalently

$$\beta_4 = -\beta_1 - \beta_2 - \beta_3$$

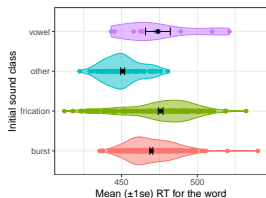
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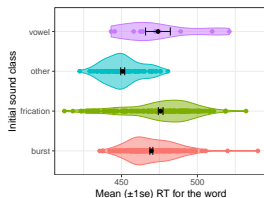


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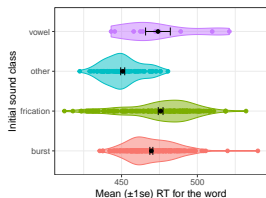


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This gives us $\hat{\beta}_4 = -6.45$; using the formula for variance of the sum of random variables we can recover that $SE(\hat{\beta}_4) = 4.33$ and hence the p -value for that offset is 0.136

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- ▶ Consulting the cumulative distribution function for $F_{3,535}$, we find that this is highly significant— $p \ll 0.001$
- ▶ Rather, your choice of contrasts should reflect how you want to *interpret* the parameters in your model!

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- ▶ Example: back to age of acquisition and word frequency: let's make a **median split** on AoA and examine frequency effects on lexical decision time:



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- ▶ Effect on the model matrix for our problem:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \text{Freq}_1 & \text{AoA}_1 & \text{Freq}_1 \text{AoA}_1 \\ 1 & \text{Freq}_2 & \text{AoA}_2 & \text{Freq}_2 \text{AoA}_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \text{Freq}_n & \text{AoA}_n & \text{Freq}_n \text{AoA}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Interpreting interactions

Resulting model fit:

Predictor	$\hat{\beta}$	$SE(\hat{\beta})$	$p(> t)$
$\hat{\alpha}$	488.55	47.92	$\ll 0.001$
$\hat{\beta}_{\text{Freq}}$	6.07	5.73	0.29
$\hat{\beta}_{\text{AoA}}$	33.47	7.35	$\ll 0.001$
$\hat{\beta}_{\text{Freq} \times \text{AoA}}$	-2.84	0.912	0.00193

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- ▶ **Critically important issue:** when there is a higher-order interaction in the model, care must be taken with the interpretation of lower-order terms involved in the interaction
- ▶ Here, the “main” effect of frequency ($\hat{\beta}_{\text{Freq}}$) indicates the effect on RT of increasing word frequency **for a hypothetical word with age of acquisition at 0 years!**
- ▶ But such words can't exist!

Interpreting interactions

- ▶ How do we interpret lower-order terms—e.g., “main effects” of X_1, X_2 —in the presence of an interaction term $X_{1 \times 2}$?

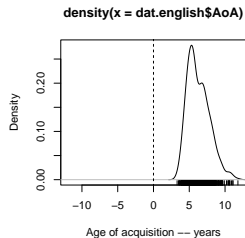
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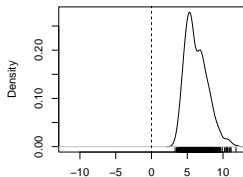
- ▶ How do we interpret lower-order terms—e.g., “main effects” of X_1, X_2 —in the presence of an interaction term $X_1 \times X_2$?
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- ▶ We can achieve this by centering the predictor(s)

Interpreting interactions—centering predictors

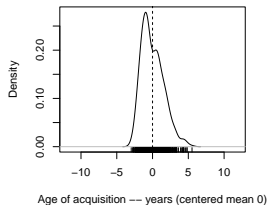


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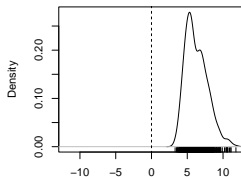


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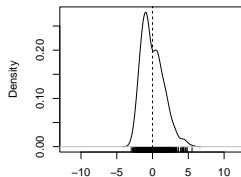


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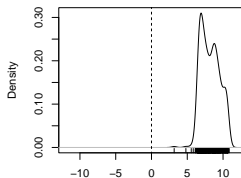
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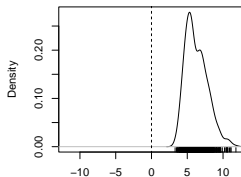
density(x = dat.english\$WrittenFrequencyL)



Written frequency count (log base 2)

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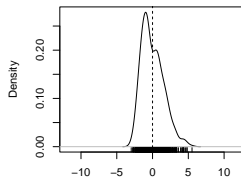
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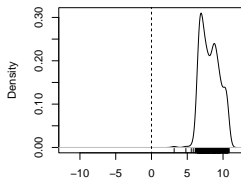


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Age of acquisition --- years (centered mean 0)

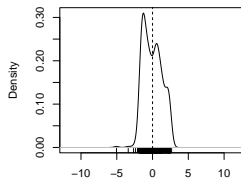
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Written frequency count (log base 2)



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Written frequency count (log base 2, centered to mea

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$\hat{\alpha}$	602.04	1.94	$\ll 0.001$
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- ▶ Because the estimates $\{\hat{\beta}_i\}$ are multivariate-normal distributed, we can also use this to compute a standard error (and thus confidence intervals) of the effect size of X_2 **for a given value of X_1**

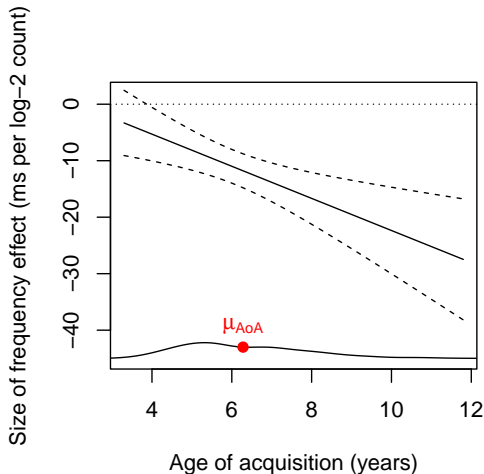
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- ▶ What are some possible theoretical interpretations of this

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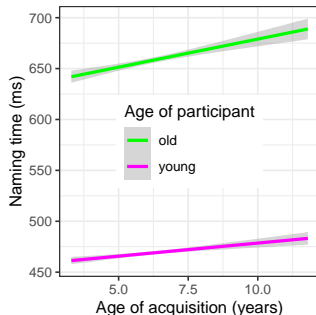
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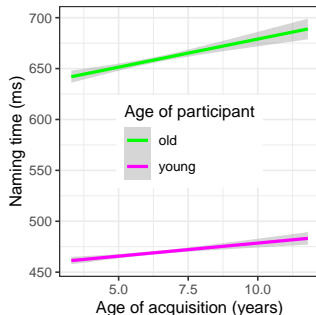
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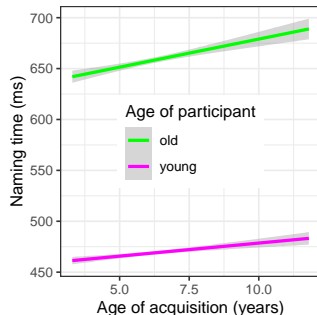


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- ▶ We can use the F -test to do this instead—comparing with a 3-parameter model (sans interaction) gives us $F_{1,1074} = 7.84$, for a p -value of 0.00519

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- ▶ Model comparisons (for simple linear regression, the F test; more generally, the likelihood ratio test) are your friend!

Dichotomous categorical response variables

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- ▶ Example: the dative alternation (Bresnan et al., 2007)

Sally sent [the children]_{Recip} [toys]_{Theme}

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Double Object

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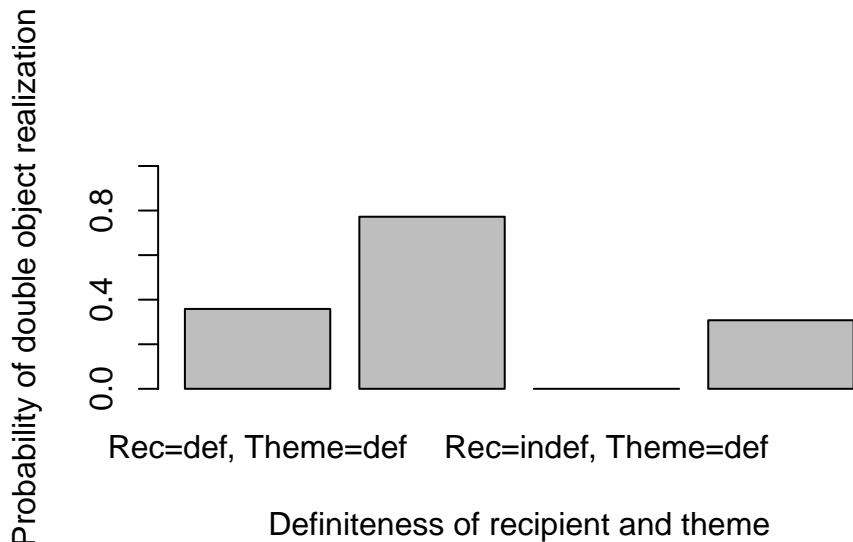
Sally sent [toys]_{Theme} to [the children]_{Recip}

Double Object

Prepositional Object

- ▶ We looked briefly before at the effects of definiteness of the **theme** (*toys/the toys*) and **recipient** (*children/the children*)

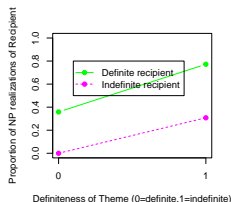
Dichotomous categorical responses



- ▶ We could learn these four separate means, but we would fail to capture the systematicity of the effects seen here

Dichotomous categorical responses

Another way of representing the four means:



- ▶ This looks like what we called an *additive pattern* for linear regression

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon$$

where X_1 is 1 iff the theme is indefinite, and X_2 is 1 iff the recipient is indefinite (both 0 otherwise)

Problems for linear models with categorical response

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \epsilon \quad X_1 = 1 \text{ iff theme indefinite, } X_2 = 1 \text{ iff recipient indefinite (both 0 otherwise)}$$

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 - ▶ Remember that our observed “means” are averages of many 0 and 1 observations!

##	Definiteness of recipient and theme		
## Realization	Rec=def, Theme=def	Rec=def, Theme=indef	
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2. **Bad predicted means:** in linear regression, there is no guarantee that the predicted mean response \hat{y} will fall between 0 and 1, even if all individual observations fall within this range

Bad predicted means with linear regression for categorical response

- Consider a case where a predictor is continuous and the response is categorical:

Recipient is NP

Mary sent **John** a shiny toy

Mary sent **her friend** a shiny toy

Mary sent **every kid in the room** a shiny toy

Recipient is PP

Mary sent a shiny toy to **John**

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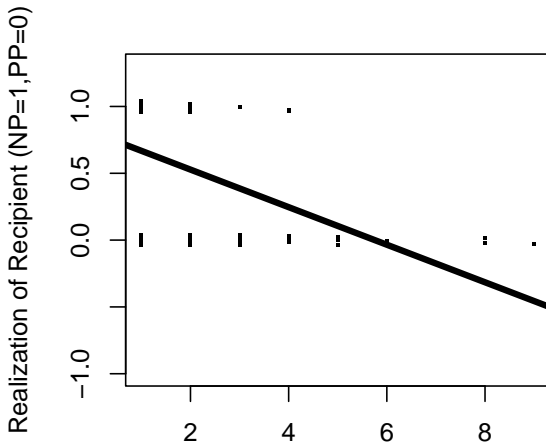
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- We could quantify the *size* of the recipient in any number of ways (here we'll use length in # of words)

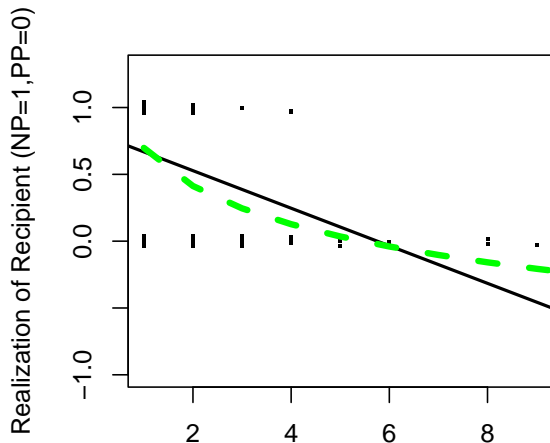
Dichotomous categorical response variables

Here's what happens when we learn a linear regression model on recipient length:



Bad predicted means with linear regression for categorical response

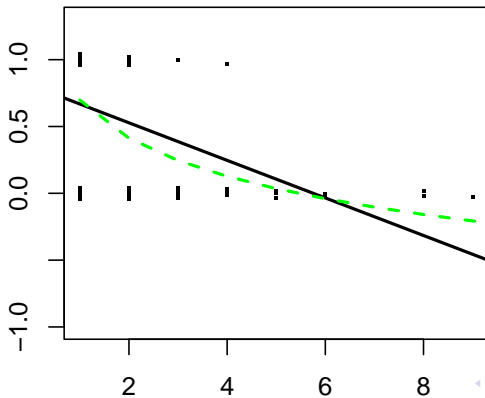
Same problem if we use *log* of recipient length as a predictor:



Bad predicted means with linear regression for categorical response

Even spline-based methods (which we haven't covered yet) give us the same problem, too, at the far end of the range of lengths:

Realization of Recipient (NP=1, PP=0)



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- ▶ So linear regression is bad for categorical response variables in:
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 2. The **range of the predicted mean** allowed
- ▶ Fortunately, the framework of generalized linear models (GLMs) gives us the flexibility to deal with these problems!

Reviewing GLMs

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- ▶ Using logit GLMs to fit data with dichotomous response variables is called **logistic regression**

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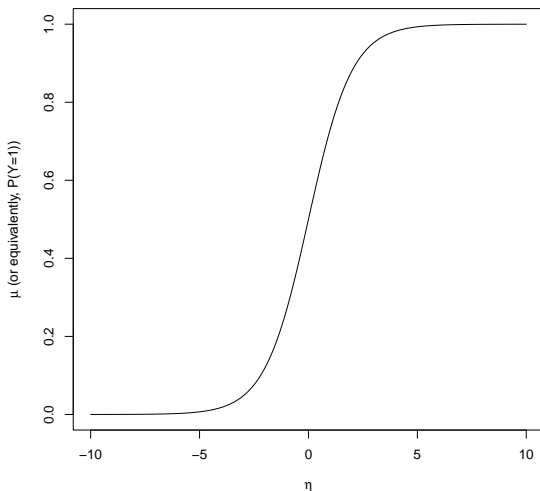
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- ▶ Unlike linear regression, there is no additional noise parameter to be learned (σ^2 in linear regression)
- ▶ Once again, we can use the **method of maximum likelihood** (which we use in the example here) or **Bayesian inference** to estimate parameters

Interpreting an additive logistic regression model

- ▶ Here's a logistic regression model for additive effects of theme and recipient definiteness:

$$\eta = \alpha + \beta_{\text{ThemeDef}} X_{\text{ThemeDef}} + \beta_{\text{RecDef}} X_{\text{RecDef}}$$

$$\mu = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}}$$

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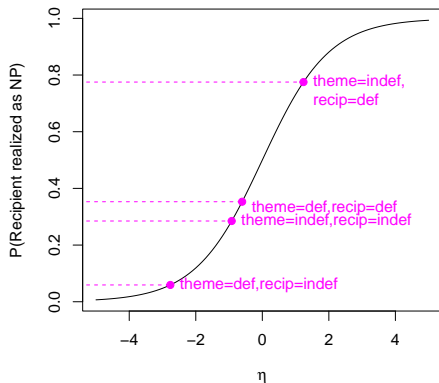
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- ▶ The maximum likelihood estimate for the three regression parameters is

$$\begin{array}{ll}\hat{\alpha} & -0.61 \\ \hat{\beta}_{\text{ThemeDef}} & 1.8 \\ \hat{\beta}_{\text{RecDef}} & -2.2\end{array}$$

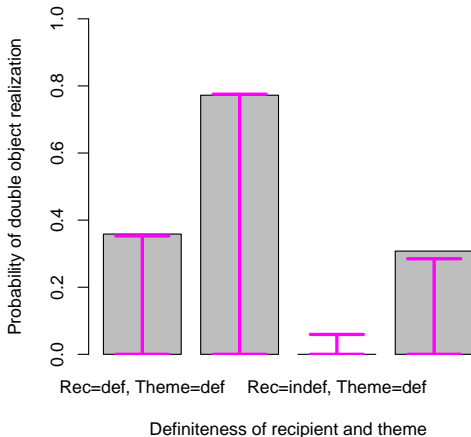
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Interpreting an additive logistic regression model

This additive model does a decent job of modeling the true means!



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- ▶ In logistic regression and other GLMs, we make confidence regions and model comparisons based on constructs whose *asymptotic* (=approximately true, and increasingly accurate as sample sizes increase) form we can state
- ▶ For confidence regions: asymptotically, the covariance matrix of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)}{\partial \beta_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)}{\partial \beta_1 \beta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_m)}{\partial \beta_1 \beta_m} \\ \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)}{\partial \beta_1 \beta_2} & \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)}{\partial \beta_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_m)}{\partial \beta_2 \beta_m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1)}{\partial \beta_1 \beta_m} & \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_2)}{\partial \beta_2 \beta_m} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 L(\boldsymbol{\beta}_m)}{\partial \beta_m^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

(when certain regularity conditions hold). This is known as the **Fisher information matrix**.

Confidence regions for logistic regression

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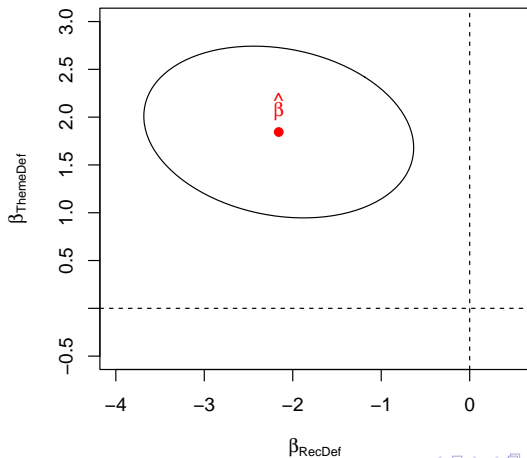
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- ▶ **Caution!** These approximations break down when the estimates $\hat{\beta}$ are large—most notably, when a single predictor allows *perfect* prediction of an outcome (always 0, or always 1)

Confidence regions in logistic regression

For example, a confidence region for the effects of recipient and theme definiteness:



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- ▶ Crucial to remember the coding scheme for these categorical predictors—here we'll stay with $X_{\text{ThemeDef}} = 1$ iff theme indefinite, $X_{\text{RecDef}} = 1$ iff recipient indefinite (both 0 otherwise)

Interactions in logistic regression

- MLE fit of the with-interactions model for the *send* data:

$\hat{\alpha}$	-0.5819215
$\hat{\beta}_{\text{RecDef}}$	-16
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- ▶ Remember, in these situations you cannot trust the Wald z-statistic $(\frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE(\hat{\beta})})!$

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- ▶ We saw this before, in the end of the chapter on frequentist hypothesis testing

The likelihood ratio test

- ▶ For *nested* models $M_0 \subset M_A$ with k_0 and k_A free parameters respectively, the statistic

$$-2 \log \frac{\max \text{Lik}_{M_0}(y)}{\max \text{Lik}_{M_A}(y)}$$

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- ▶ This statistic doesn't have the same problems that the Wald z statistic has, so it can be used very generally to compare nested models
- ▶ In our case, the additive model for recipient and theme animacy had log-likelihood of -97.1 , whereas the interactive model had log-likelihood of -96.8

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- ▶ This statistic doesn't have the same problems that the Wald z statistic has, so it can be used very generally to compare nested models
- ▶ In our case, the additive model for recipient and theme animacy had log-likelihood of -97.1 , whereas the interactive model had log-likelihood of -96.8
- ▶ They differed in 1 parameter, and the cumulative distribution function of χ^2_1 for 0.66 is 0.582, so we conclude that the interaction is statistically

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