Categorical predictors, interactions, logistic regression, and hierarchical models

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Is the vowel lax or tense?

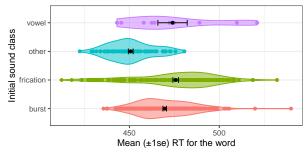
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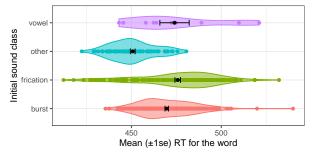
- ▶ Is the vowel lax or tense?
- Example in word naming: the category of the initial sound of the word

burst	bait
frication	chess
other consonant	wrist
vowel	inch

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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



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
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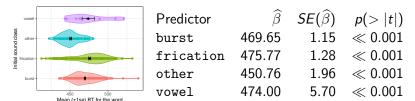
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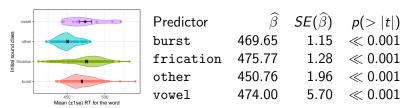
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(Note: you cannot use dummy coding for more than one additively combined categorical predictor, since you can only sacrifice the intercept once)



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- ► 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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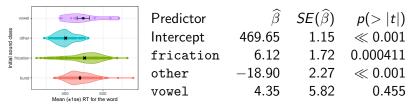
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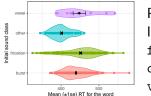
This leads to the model

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \epsilon$$





► Here, weights 2–4 indicate the *difference* between the mean RT for words of the given phone type and for burst-initial words



Predictor	\widehat{eta}	$SE(\widehat{\beta})$	p(> t)
Intercept	469.65	1.15	$\ll 0.001$
frication	6.12	1.72	0.000411
other	-18.90	2.27	$\ll 0.001$
vowel	4.35	5.82	0.455

- ► Here, weights 2–4 indicate the *difference* between the mean RT for words of the given phone type and for burst-initial words
- ► 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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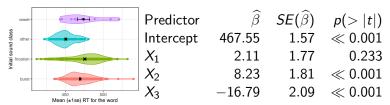
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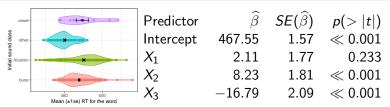
$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 + \beta_4 = 0$$

Or equivalently

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



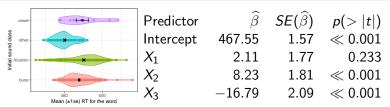
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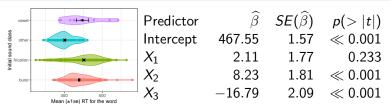


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This gives us $\hat{\beta}_4 = -6.45$; using the formula for variance of the sum of random variables we can recover that $SE(\hat{\beta}_4) = 4.33$ and hence the p=value for that offset is 0.136



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 - E.g., in our case, comparing our model M_A against the "null" model M_0 : $RT = \alpha + \epsilon$ gives the result

$$\frac{(RSS_0 - RSS_A)/(m_A - m_0)}{RSS_A/(n - m_A - 1)} = \frac{(211685.57 - 173916.95)/3}{173916.95/535}$$
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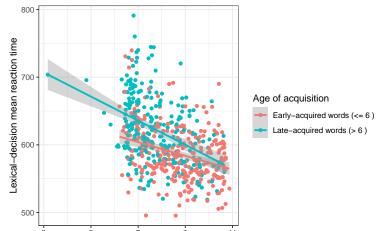
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- Consulting the cumulative distribution function for $F_{3,535}$, we find that this is highly significant— $p \ll 0.001$
- Rather, your choice of contrasts should reflect how you want to *interpret* the parameters in your model!



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- Sometimes X₁'s effect on your response Y will differ depending on the value of another predictor X₂
- 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:

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

Resulting model fit:

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

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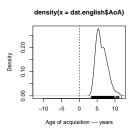
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- But such words can't exist!

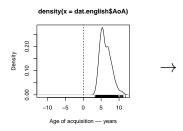


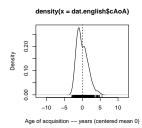
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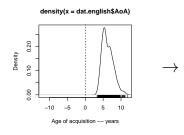
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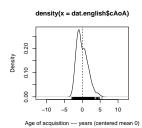
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- ► We can achieve this by centering the predictor(s)



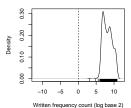


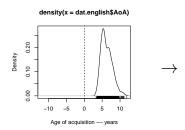




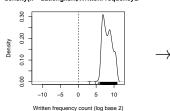


density(x = dat.english\$WrittenFrequencyL

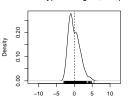






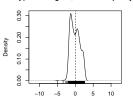


density(x = dat.english\$cAoA)



Age of acquisition -- years (centered mean 0)

density(x = dat.english\$cWrittenFrequencyL



Written frequency count (log base 2, centered to mea

With the centered predictors, our model becomes:

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$\widehat{\alpha}$	602.04	1.94	$\ll 0.001$
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► This shows that the "average"-AoA word in our dataset *does* have a substantial frequency effect

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$\widehat{\alpha}$	602.04	1.94	$\ll 0.001$
\widehat{eta}_{cFreq}	-11.79	1.53	$\ll 0.001$
\widehat{eta}_{cAoA}	10.14	1.30	$\ll 0.001$
$\widehat{\beta}_{cFreq \times cAoA}$	-2.84	0.912	0.00193

- ► This shows that the "average"-AoA word in our dataset *does* have a substantial frequency effect
- ► Likewise, the "average"-frequency word in our dataset *does* have an AoA frequency effect



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$$= \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + (\beta_2 + \beta_3 X_1) X_2 + \epsilon$$

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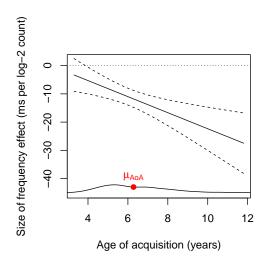
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- So the estimated effect size of X_2 is $(\widehat{\beta}_2 + \widehat{\beta}_3 X_1)$
- Because the estimates $\{\hat{\beta}_i\}$ are multivariate-normal distributed, we can also use this to compute a standard error (and thus confidence intervals) of the effect size of X_2 for a given value of X_1

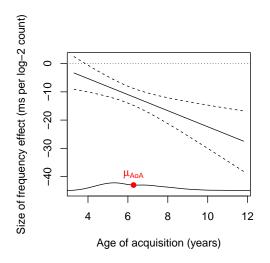
Visualizing interactions

► Let us explore the effect of a word's frequency as a function of its AoA in this model



Visualizing interactions

Let us explore the effect of a word's frequency as a function of its AoA in this model



► What are some possible theoretical interpretations of this



Interactions with categorical variables

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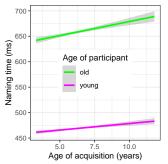


Example: different effects of AoA on naming time for old versus young native English speakers:

Predictor	\widehat{eta}	$SE(\widehat{\beta})$	p(> t)
$\widehat{eta}_{Age=old}$	623.81	4.81	$\ll 0.001$
$\widehat{eta}_{Age=young}$	452.88	4.81	$\ll 0.001$
\widehat{eta} AoA:Age $=$ old	5.52	0.744	$\ll 0.001$
\widehat{eta} AoA:Age=young	2.57	0.744	0.000581

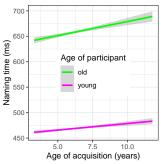
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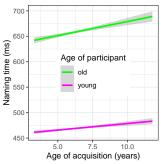
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- ▶ With this parameterization, the *t* statistics aren't useful in assessing the strength of evidence for the interaction
- We can use the F-test to do this instead—comparing with a 3-parameter model (sans interaction) gives us $F_{1,1074} = 7.84$, for a p-value of 0.00519



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- ► Hence this adds a total a total of $k_1k_2 k_1 k_2 + 1$ new parameters beyond the additive ("main effects") model

Example: the relationship between initial phone type and native speaker age on naming times

Predictor	\widehat{eta}	$SE(\widehat{eta})$	p(> t)
$\widehat{\beta}_{Age=old,Init=burst}$	654.83	1.66	$\ll 0.001$
$\widehat{\beta}_{Age=young,Init=burst}$	469.65	1.66	$\ll 0.001$
$\widehat{\beta}_{Age=old,Init=frication}$	669.72	1.84	$\ll 0.001$
$\widehat{\beta}_{Age=young,Init=frication}$	475.77	1.84	$\ll 0.001$
$\widehat{\beta}_{Age=old,Init=other}$	643.18	2.82	$\ll 0.001$
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- Because we're operating under maximum likelihood, if one model is a reparameterization of another, they make the same predictions and yield the same inferences for model comparison!
- ► Model comparisons (for simple linear regression, the *F* test; more generally, the likelihood ratio test) are your friend!

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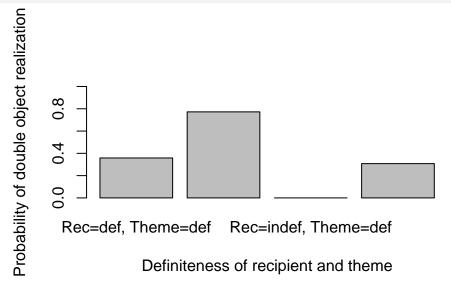
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Sally sent [the children]_{Recip} [toys]_{Theme}
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Double Object Prepositional Object

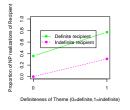
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 - Sally sent [the children] $_{Recip}$ [toys] $_{Theme}$ Double Object Sally sent [toys] $_{Theme}$ to [the children] $_{Recip}$ Prepositional Object
- We looked briefly before at the effects of definiteness of the theme (toys/the toys) and recipient (children/the children)

Dichotomous categorical responses



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)

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Y=\alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\epsilon X_1=1 iff theme indefinite, X_2=1 iff recipient indefinite (both 0 otherwise)
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1. Bad predictions for individual observations: in linear regression, the noise term ϵ is *Gaussian* (normally distributed)—it predicts that any continuous value is possible

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

```
Definiteness of recipient and theme
##
                  Rec=def. Theme=def Rec=def. Theme=indef
## Realization
                                   19
                                                         78
##
      Double obj.
      Prep. obj.
                                   34
                                                         23
##
##
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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
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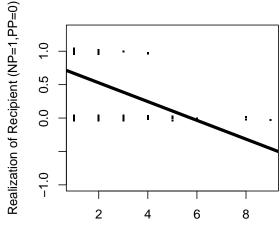
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We could quantify the size of the recipient in any number of ways (here we'll use length in # of words)

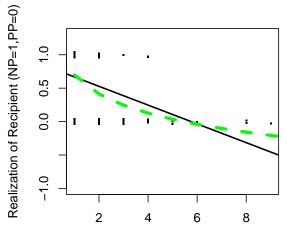
Dichotomous categorical response variables

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



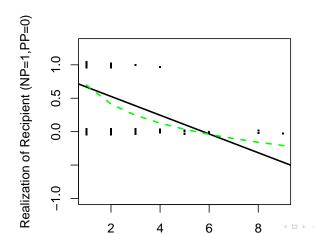
Bad predicted means with linear regression for categorical response

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:



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- ► So linear regression is bad for categorical response variables in:
 - 1. The noise distribution it assumes around the predicted mean
 - 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!

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$$\eta = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_m X_m$$
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- 2. η is a linear combination of the $\{X_i\}$:

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4. There is some noise distribution of Y around the predicted mean μ of Y:

$$P(Y = y; \mu)$$



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



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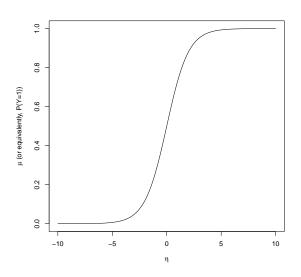
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Estimating parameters in logistic regression

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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

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

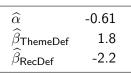
$$\begin{split} \eta &= \alpha + \beta_{\mathsf{ThemeDef}} X_{\mathsf{ThemeDef}} + \beta_{\mathsf{RecDef}} X_{\mathsf{RecDef}} \\ \mu &= \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}} \\ P(Y = y | \mu) &= \begin{cases} \mu & y = 1 \\ 1 - \mu & y = 0 \\ 0 & \mathsf{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

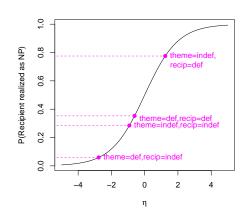
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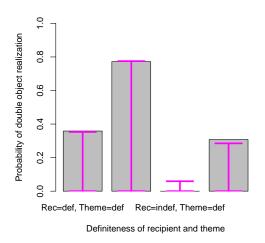
► The maximum likelihood estimate for the three regression parameters is

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





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



Confidence regions for logistic regression

Let us write the linear-predictor part of our GLM in matrix form:

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- lacktriangle For confidence regions: asymptotically, the covariance matrix of $\widehat{oldsymbol{eta}}$ is

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{1})}{\partial \beta_{1}^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{2})}{\partial \beta_{1} \beta_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{m})}{\partial \beta_{1} \beta_{m}} \\ \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{1})}{\partial \beta_{1} \beta_{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{2})}{\partial \beta_{2}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{m})}{\partial \beta_{2} \beta_{m}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{1})}{\partial \beta_{1} \beta_{m}} & \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{2})}{\partial \beta_{2} \beta_{m}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} L(\beta_{m})}{\partial \beta_{m}^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

A confidence region for predictors of a model estimated under maximum likelihood can be constructed similarly to the case in linear regression: for any size-k subset of predictors β' , the quantity

$$(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}' - \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathsf{T}} \left(\operatorname{Cov}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}') \right)^{-1} (\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}' - \boldsymbol{\beta})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

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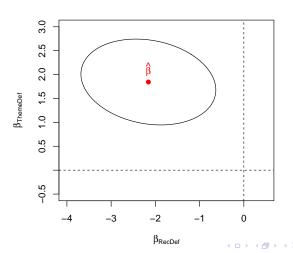
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Caution! These approximations break down when the estimates $\widehat{\beta}$ are large—most notably, when a single predictor allows *perfect* prediction of an outcome (always 0, or always 1)

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)

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

$$\begin{array}{ll} \widehat{\alpha} & -0.5819215 \\ \widehat{\beta}_{\mathsf{RecDef}} & -16 \\ \widehat{\beta}_{\mathsf{ThemeDef}} & 1.803136 \\ \widehat{\beta}_{\mathsf{RecDef:ThemeDef}} & 13.952 \end{array}$$

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Remember, in these situations you cannot trust the Wald z-statistic $(\frac{\widehat{\beta}}{SF(\widehat{\beta})})!$



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- ► Instead, the more general method for hypothesis testing is the likelihood ratio test
- We saw this before, in the end of the chapter on frequentist hypothesis testing

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is (asymptotically, in the limit of large data) distributed as $\chi^2_{k_A-k_0}$ if M_0 is true

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References I

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