SOC542 Statistical Methods in Sociology II Categorical outcomes

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Course updates

- Homework 4 will be released on Wednesday
 - Count outcomes
 - Categorical and ordered outcomes
- Replication project workshops (instead of lab final two weeks)

Plan

- Categorical outcomes
- Multinomial logistic regression
- ► Ordered logistic regression

Categorical outcomes

Categories of categories

- A categorical outcome consists of three or more discrete categories
- Ordered categorical outcomes
 - e.g. Very good, good, okay, bad, very bad.
- Unordered (or nominal) categorical outcomes
 - e.g. Single, in a relationship, married, its complicated, etc.

Categorical outcomes

Intervals

- If a categorical variable is ordered there is some sense of an interval between categories such that each category can be positioned on a single dimension.
 - ► These intervals may vary between categories:
 - e.g. The difference between good and very good may be larger than difference between good and okay.
- Categories without order do not have clearly defined intervals between categories.

Categorical outcomes

Modeling categories using existing approaches

- OLS regression
 - Only suitable if there are many categories and intervals are even
- One-versus-rest logistic regression models
 - One model for each category with a binary outcome
 - Limitations: Loss of information

Data

GSS 2018

- ▶ Two outcomes from the GSS 2018:
 - Unordered: Marital status
 - Married, widowed, divorced, separated, never
 - Ordered: Self-reported health
 - Excellent, good, fair, poor

Models for categorical outcomes

- We will be considering two different approaches using variations of logistic regression:
 - Unordered outcomes modeled using multinomial logistic regression
 - 2. Ordered outcomes modeled using ordinal logistic regression

- Multinomial logistic regression models allow us to generalize logistic regression to categorical outcomes and is suitable for unordered categories.
- ► For a set of *K* outcomes, we can model the linear propensity for outcome *k* using a linear model with *n* predictors.

$$\lambda_k = \beta_{0k} + \beta_{1k} x_1 + \dots + \beta_{nk} x_n$$

▶ Rather than estimating a series of separate models, we can jointly estimate a set of equations.

The probability of outcome y_k is represented by the **softmax** link function.¹ The probability of outcome k is the exponentiated linear propensity of outcome k relative to the sum of exponentiated linear propensities of all outcomes in the set K (Kruschke 2015: 650).

$$P(y = k|X) = \operatorname{softmax}_{K}(\lambda_{k}) = \frac{e^{\lambda_{k}}}{\sum_{i \in K} e^{\lambda_{i}}}$$

The approach is therefore sometimes referred to as softmax regression.

▶ Due to the constraints on the system, one category will always produce the following equation:

$$\lambda_r = \beta_{0r} + \beta_{1r}x_1 + ... + \beta_{nr}x_n = 0 + 0x_1 + ... + 0x_n = 0$$

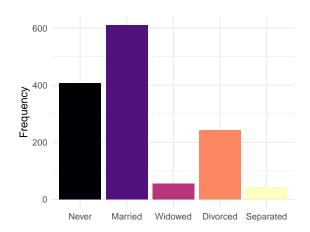
- ▶ We therefore select a category to leave out as the *reference* category.
- Model coefficients can then be considered as the log odds of each outcome, relative to the reference category.

Estimation

- ▶ The standard glm function cannot be used for multinomial outcomes
- Maximum likelihood models can be estimated using the multinom function from the nnet package²
- Bayesian models can be estimated by supplying the family = categorical(link = "logit") argument to brms models.

²Other packages are available but require additional data manipulation before modeling. See this blog for further discussion.

Data: Marital status



Estimation

```
library(nnet)
gss$marital <- relevel(gss$marital, ref = "Never")
m1 <- multinom(marital ~ age + sex + log(realrinc) + educ, data = gss)
## # weights: 30 (20 variable)
## initial value 2184.007247
## iter 10 value 1667.335362
## iter 20 value 1459.416635
## iter 30 value 1441.935116
## final value 1441.935011
## converged</pre>
```

| | | Married | Widowed | Divorced | Separated |
|---------|---------------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| Model 1 | (Intercept) | -6.546*** | -10.986*** | -8.047*** | -7.817*** |
| | , | (0.669) | (1.500) | (0.860) | (1.544) |
| | age | 0.092*** | 0.187*** | 0.122*** | 0.096*** |
| | | (0.007) | (0.015) | (0.008) | (0.014) |
| | sexMale | -0.365* | -1.422*** | -0.900*** | -0.689* |
| | | (0.153) | (0.347) | (0.196) | (0.347) |
| | log(realrinc) | 0.385*** | 0.262* | 0.413*** | 0.500** |
| | | (0.069) | (0.128) | (0.087) | (0.167) |
| | educ | -0.014 | -0.125* | -0.081* | -0.197*** |
| | | (0.028) | (0.058) | (0.035) | (0.055) |

Ref: Never married.

$$+ p < 0.1$$
, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

| | | Married | Widowed | Divorced | Separated |
|---------|---------------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Model 1 | (Intercept) | 0.001*** | 0.000*** | 0.000*** | 0.000*** |
| | | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.001) |
| | age | 1.096*** | 1.206*** | 1.130*** | 1.100*** |
| | | (0.007) | (0.018) | (0.009) | (0.015) |
| | sexMale | 0.694* | 0.241*** | 0.407*** | 0.502* |
| | | (0.107) | (0.084) | (0.080) | (0.174) |
| | log(realrinc) | 1.470*** | 1.299* | 1.511*** | 1.649** |
| | | (0.102) | (0.166) | (0.131) | (0.275) |
| | educ | 0.987 | 0.882* | 0.922* | 0.821*** |
| | | (0.027) | (0.051) | (0.032) | (0.045) |

Ref: Never married.

+ p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Interpretation

- Each column is a model comparing a group to the baseline (Never married).
- ▶ For example, the first column represents the following equation:

$$log(\frac{y = married}{y = never married}) = \beta_{10} + \beta_{11}Age + \beta_{12}Sex + \beta_{13}Income + \beta_{14}Educ$$

Interpretation

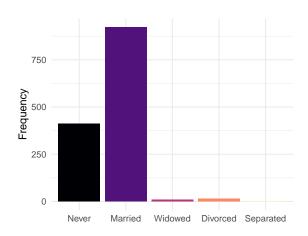
- β_{11} indicates that a one-year increase in age is associated with a .092 change in the log odds of being married compared to never married.
- Like standard logistic regression $e^{\beta_{11}}$ allows us to interpret the coefficient as an odds ratio.
 - ► This is sometimes interpreted as the **relative risk ratio** of being married vs. never married.

Predictions

The predict function returns a factor variable containing the highest probability category for each observation.

```
preds <- predict(m1, gss %>% drop_na(age, sex, realrinc, educ, marital)
preds %>% head(20)
```

```
## [1] Married Married Married Divorced Married Married ## [9] Married Widowed Married Married Married Married ## [17] Divorced Never Married Warried ## Levels: Never Married Widowed Divorced Separated
```



Predictions

- ► This shows that the model predicts almost all people to be never married or married.
- ➤ The model rarely predicts widowed or divorced and did not predict any people to be separated.
- Data imbalances make never/married the most likely categories and omitted variables may help to predict other categories.

Predictions

Setting type = "probs" returns a vector of probabilities for each observation. Each element indicates $P(y_i = k)$.

```
probs <- predict(m1, type = "probs", gss %>% drop_na())
probs %>% round(3) %>% head(5)

##  Never Married Widowed Divorced Separated
## 1 0.052  0.459  0.117  0.331  0.042
## 2 0.278  0.522  0.010  0.148  0.042
## 3 0.059  0.692  0.025  0.205  0.019
## 4 0.215  0.611  0.007  0.140  0.027
## 5 0.008  0.265  0.370  0.328  0.029
```

Predictions

The probabilities for each observation all sum to one.

```
probs %>% head(5) %>% rowSums() %>% as.numeric()
```

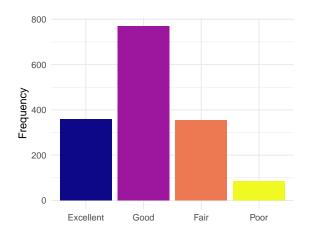
[1] 1 1 1 1 1

Limitations

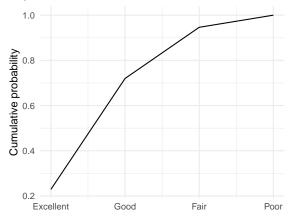
- Larger samples required compared to more simple models
- Difficult to evaluate model fit
- ► Unstable if some variables perfectly predict category membership or have no overlap with certain categories.

- ► The multinomial framework could be used for ordinal data, but it ignores any information about the order of categories.
- Ordinal logistic regression accounts for ordering by using cutpoints to map the intervals between categories onto a linear scale.
- Process:
 - Map categorical outcome onto cumulative probability scale using cumulative link.
 - Convert to log-cumulative-odds, analogue of the logit link for cumulative scale.
 - Construct a linear model to examine association between predictors and outcome, while maintaining information on order.

Data: Self-reported health

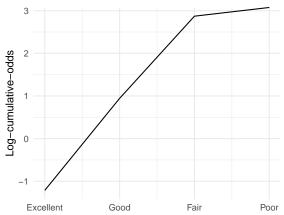


Cumulative probabilities of each class



[1] 0.229 0.720 0.946 1.000

Log cumulative odds



[1] -1.213 0.944 2.871 Inf

Estimation

Each cutpoint on the previous graph representing the log-cumulative-odds that y_i is less than or equal to some value k. These can be considered as group-level intercepts.

$$log(\frac{P(y_i \le k)}{1 - P(y_i \le k)}) = \alpha_k$$

▶ The intercept for the final value is ∞ since $log(\frac{1}{1-1}) = \infty$. Therefore we only need K-1 intercepts.

Estimation

▶ If we use the inverse link, we can go back from cumulative-log-odds to cumulative probabilities. The likelihood of k is expressed as

$$p_k = P(y_i = k) = P(y_i \le k) - P(y_i \le k - 1)$$

▶ In the context of your example, we could express the likelihood of "Good" health as

$$p_{good} = P(y_i = good) = P(y_i \leq good) - P(y_i \leq excellent)$$

Estimation

▶ Given this K-1 length vector of intercepts, $\alpha_{k \in K-1}$, we can use a linear model to predict the log-cumulative-odds that $y_i = k$ given a matrix of predictors X:

$$\phi_i = \beta X_i$$

$$log(\frac{P(y_i \le k)}{1 - P(y_i \le k)}) = \alpha_k - \phi_i$$

Estimation

- Once again, we cannot fit such models using glm. Instead, we can use the polr function from the MASS package.
- rstanarm includes a stan_polr function, which implements a Bayesian version of polr.

Estimation

The argument Hess = TRUE ensures the Hessian matrix is stored, which is necessary for subsequent model evaluation.

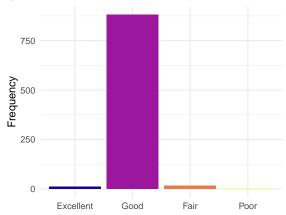
Ordinal logistic regression³

| | Log odds | Odds ratios |
|------------------|----------|-------------|
| age | 0.004 | 1.004 |
| | (0.005) | (0.005) |
| I(log(realrinc)) | -0.204 | 0.815 |
| | (0.058) | (0.047) |
| educ | -0.102 | 0.903 |
| | (0.024) | (0.022) |
| sexMale | 0.098 | 1.102 |
| | (0.130) | (0.144) |
| raceBlack | 0.148 | 1.160 |
| | (0.174) | (0.201) |
| raceOther | 0.248 | 1.282 |
| | (0.207) | (0.265) |
| Num.Obs. | 906 | 906 |
| Log.Lik. | -984.749 | -984.749 |

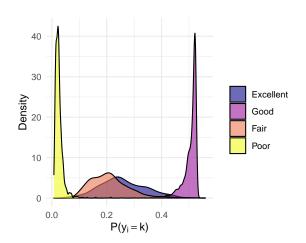
 $^{^3}$ Significance tests are not provided as standard in ordinal regression output from polr so no stars are displayed here.

Predictions

Predictions



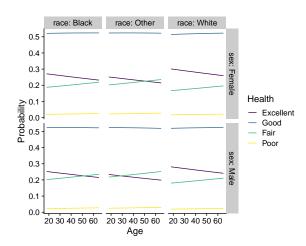
Predictions



More predictions

We can easily generate predictions for all combinations of predictors.

```
newdat <- expand_grid(</pre>
 race = c("Black", "White", "Other"),
  sex = c("Female", "Male"),
  educ = 12,
 realrinc = c(50000),
  age = 18:65)
newpreds <- predict(m2, newdat, type = "probs")</pre>
head(newpreds, 5) %>% round(3)
##
    Excellent Good Fair Poor
## 1
        0.271 0.521 0.187 0.021
## 2 0.270 0.521 0.188 0.021
## 3 0.269 0.521 0.189 0.021
## 4 0.268 0.521 0.189 0.021
## 5 0.268 0.522 0.190 0.021
```



Cutpoints

The cutpoints can be extracted from the model using the zeta parameter.

```
cuts <- m2$zeta
print(cuts)

## Excellent|Good Good|Fair Fair|Poor
## -4.1986283 -1.8720014 0.6567534</pre>
```

Cutpoints

We can obtain the probability associated with each cutpoint by using the inverse logit function, $\frac{e^x}{1+e^x}$.

```
inv.logit <- function(x) {
    return(exp(1)^x / (1 + exp(1)^x))
    }

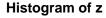
cut.probs <- inv.logit(cuts)
cut.probs %>% round(3) %>% print()

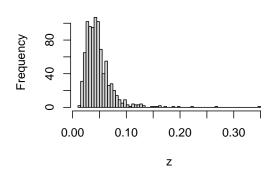
## Excellent|Good Good|Fair Fair|Poor
## 0.015 0.133 0.659
```

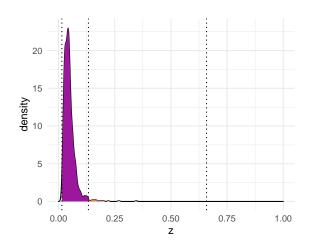
Latent variables

One way to understand the model is to extract a latent variable representing the predicted position of each outcome on the cumulative probability scale without subtracting the intercepts. We can then observe where each observation falls between the cutpoints.

```
z <- m2$lp %>% inv.logit()
z %>% head(10) %>% round(3)
## 7 8 11 14 16 19 21 24 25 27
## 0.059 0.051 0.022 0.033 0.067 0.018 0.033 0.048 0.038 0.051
```







Limitations

- Similar to multinomial logistic regression
 - Larger samples required compared to more simple models
 - ▶ Difficult to evaluate model fit
 - Unstable if some variables perfectly predict category membership or have no overlap with certain categories
- ▶ Additionally, the models assume that the relationship between the predictors and each pair of outcomes is the same (hence on set of coefficients). This is known as the **proportional odds** assumption. Additional tests are required to verify this is met.⁴

⁴See the UCLA stats blog for details.

Categorical outcomes

Frequentist and Bayesian approaches

- ▶ Due to the complexity of the models, many frequentist approaches require additional testing and analysis to diagnose issues and assess model fit
- ► In contrast, we can use the same tools to evaluate Bayesian models:
 - ► Trace plots and MCMC diagnostics for estimation issues
 - LOO-CV and WAIC for fit
 - ► PSIS diagnostics for outliers
 - Posterior predictive checks for predictions and fit
- ► Either way, these models are more cumbersome to work with than other single-equation GLMs

Summary

- ► Categorical outcomes can be modeled using specialized types of generalized linear models
- Unordered categories
 - Multinomial logistic regression
- Ordered categories
 - Orderinal logistic regression
 - OLS if many categories and equal intervals
- ► These models are complex and more difficult to fit and interpret than previous models we have covered

Next week

- Data structures
 - Clustering and nesting
 - Standard errors
 - Fixed effects
 - Random effects
 - Autocorrelation
 - ► Time
 - Space
 - Networks
- Project workshop