# 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

- 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 categorical outcomes using existing tools:
  - 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.<sup>1</sup> 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:

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

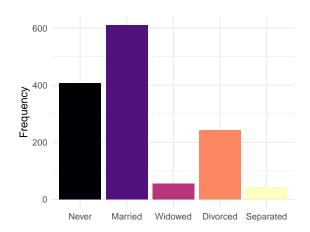
- ▶ We therefore select a category to leave out as the *reference* category.
- Model coefficients can then be considered as the log odds of each outcome, relative to the reference category.

#### **Estimation**

- ▶ The standard glm function cannot be used for multinomial outcomes
- Maximum likelihood models can be estimated using the multinom function from the nnet package<sup>2</sup>
- Bayesian models can be estimated by supplying the family = categorical(link = "logit") argument to brms models.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Other 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

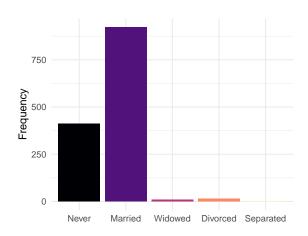
- $\beta_{11}$  indicates that a one-year increase in age is associated with a .092 change in the log odds of being married compared to never married.
- Like standard logistic regression  $e^{\beta_{11}}$  allows us to interpret the coefficient as an odds ratio.
  - ► This is sometimes interpreted as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

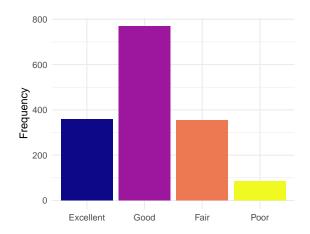
```
## [1] 1 1 1 1 1
```

#### Limitations

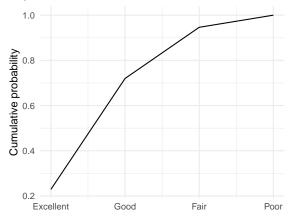
- Larger samples required compared to more simple models
- ▶ Difficult to evaluate model fit
- ► Unstable if some variables perfectly predict category membership or have no overlap with certain categories.

- ► 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

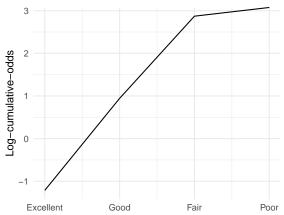


### Cumulative probabilities of each class



## [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<sub>i</sub> 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  $\infty$  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 regression**<sup>3</sup>

	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

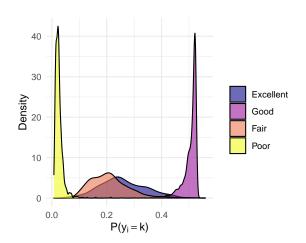
 $<sup>^3</sup>$ Significance tests are not provided as standard in ordinal regression output from polr so no stars are displayed here.

#### **Predictions**

#### **Predictions**



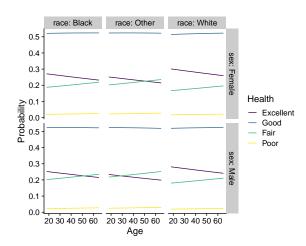
#### **Predictions**



#### 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))
    }

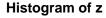
cut.probs <- inv.logit(cuts)
cut.probs %>% round(3) %>% print()

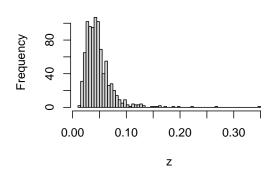
## Excellent|Good Good|Fair Fair|Poor
## 0.015 0.133 0.659
```

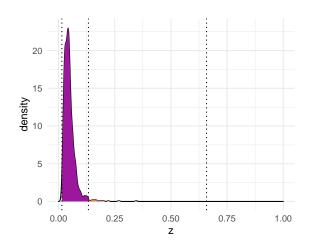
#### Latent variables

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.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>See 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