Generalized Linear Models for Binary and Categorical Outcomes

- Topics:
 - > 3 parts of a generalized (single-level or multilevel) model
 - > Binary outcomes:
 - Link functions and conditional distributions
 - Significance testing, effect sizes, and correlations
 - > From binary to ordinal outcomes
 - Thresholds vs intercepts; correlations
 - > Categorical outcomes: Same distribution, different link functions

3 Parts of Generalized Linear Models



_____2. Link _____Function

3. Linear Predictor of Fixed (and Random) Effects

1. Non-normal conditional distribution of y_i :

- ▶ General linear models use a **normal** conditional distribution to describe the y_i variance remaining after prediction via the fixed effects → this is the e_i residual variance σ_e^2 , which is estimated separately and **usually assumed constant** across observations (unless modeled otherwise)
- Other distributions are more plausible for categorical/bounded/skewed outcomes, so ML function maximizes the likelihood using those instead
- Btw, most conditional distributions do NOT have a single, separately estimated residual variance! (will be missing or replaced by multipliers)
- > Agresti calls this part the "random component" (≠ random effects!)
- > Why care? To get the most correct standard errors for fixed effects

3 Parts of Generalized Linear Models



- 2. Link Function = $g(\cdot)$: How the conditional mean to be predicted is transformed so that the model directly predicts an **unbounded** outcome
 - > Inverse link $g^{-1}(\cdot)$ = how to go back to conditional mean in data scale
 - > Predicted outcomes (expected values from $g^{-1}(\cdot)$) then stay in bounds
 - > e.g., binary outcome: **conditional mean to be predicted is probability of** $y_i = 1$, so the model predicts a linked outcome: when inverse-linked, the predicted (i.e., expected) probability will stay between 0 and 1
 - e.g., count outcome: conditional mean is expected count, so log of the expected count is predicted so that the expected count stays > 0
 - > e.g., GLM outcome: an "**identity**" link function ($y_i * 1$) is used given that the conditional mean is already unbounded... (in theory)

A Real-Life Bummer of an Identity Link



3 Parts of Generalized Linear Models



- **3. Linear Predictor**: How the fixed (and random) effects of predictors combine additively to predict a link-transformed conditional mean
 - This is the same as usual, except the linear predictor directly predicts the link-transformed (model-scale) conditional mean, which we then convert (via inverse link) back into the data-scale conditional mean
 - e.g., predict **logit** of probability directly, but inverse-link back to probability
 - e.g., predict log of expected count, but inverse-link back to expected count
 - > That way we can still use the familiar "one-unit change" language to describe effects of model predictors (on the linked conditional mean)
 - Btw, fixed effects are no longer determined: They have to be found through ML iteratively, the same as any variance-related parameters

Normal GLM for Binary Outcomes?

- The unconditional mean (i.e., expected value from an empty model) of a binary outcome is the proportion of 1 values
 - So given each person's predictor values, the model predicts their conditional mean: the probability of a 1: prob(y_i = 1)
 - The conditional mean has more possible values than the outcome!
 - > What about a GLM? $\operatorname{prob}(y_i = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i) + e_i$
 - β_0 = expected probability of $y_i = 1$ when all predictors = 0
 - β_1 and β_2 = change in **prob**($y_i = 1$) for per unit change in predictor
 - *e_i* = difference of observed from predicted **binary** values
 - > Model becomes $y_i = (predicted probability of 1) + e_i$
 - > What could possibly go wrong???

Normal GLM for Binary Outcomes?

- <u>Problem #1</u>: A **linear** relationship between x_i and y_i ???
- Probability of a 1 is bounded between 0 and 1, but predicted probabilities from a linear model aren't going to be bounded
- Linear slope needs to shut off \rightarrow made nonlinear



Generalized Models for Binary Outcomes

- <u>Solution to #1</u>: Rather than predict $prob(y_i = 1)$ directly, the model transforms it into an unbounded outcome using a **link function**:
 - > Step 1: Transform **probability** into **odds** = $\frac{\text{prob}(y_i=1)}{\text{prob}(y_i=0)}$
 - If $prob(y_i = 1) = 0.7$ then $odds(y_i = 1) = 2.33$ and $odds(y_i = 0) = 0.43$
 - The odds scale is skewed, asymmetric, and ranges 0 to $+\infty \rightarrow$ Not a good outcome!

> Step 2: Take *natural log of odds* \rightarrow "logit" link: $\log \left[\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=0)} \right]$

- If $prob(y_i = 1) = 0.7$, then $logit(y_i = 1) = 0.85$ and $logit(y_i = 0) = -0.85$
- Logit scale is now symmetric ab<u>out 0, range is $\pm \infty \rightarrow \text{Now a good outcome to predict!}$ </u>

y Scale	Probability → "data scale"	Logit → "model scale"	
	0.99	4.6	what prob =
pat	0.90	2.2	.01 would be
	0.50	0.0	scale?
	0.10	-2.2	

Solution #1: From Probability to Logits



• A Logit link is a <u>nonlinear</u> transformation of probability:

- > Equal intervals in logits are NOT equal intervals of probability
- Linear model creates a predicted logit (ranging from ±∞), which inverse-links into a predicted probability that shuts off by 0 or 1

Normal GLM for Binary Outcomes?

- What about a GLM? $\operatorname{prob}(y_i = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i) + e_i$
- If y_i is binary, then e_i can only be 2 things: $e_i = y_i \hat{y}_i$
 - > If $y_i = 0$ then $e_i = (0 predicted probability)$
 - > If $y_i = 1$ then $e_i = (1 \text{predicted probability})$
- Problem #2a: So the residuals can't be normally distributed
- <u>Problem #2b</u>: The residual variance can't be constant over \hat{y}_i because the **mean and variance are dependent for binary**
 - > Variance of binary variable: $Var(y_i) = prob(y_i = 1) * prob(y_i = 0)$

	(Con	dition	al) M	ean a	nd Va	rianc	e of a	Binar	' <mark>y Var</mark> i	iable	
Mean	.0	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9	1.0
Variance	.0	.09	.16	.21	.24	.25	.24	.21	.16	.09	.0

Solution to #2: Bernoulli Distribution

• Rather than using a **normal conditional distribution** for the outcome, we will use a **Bernoulli conditional distribution**



Top image borrowed from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Normal_distribution

Bottom image borrowed from: <u>https://www.boost.org/doc/libs/1_70_0/libs/math/doc/html/math_toolkit/dist_ref/dists/bernoulli_dist.html</u> PSQF 6270: Lecture 2

3 Scales of Predicted Binary Outcomes

• logit: $\log\left[\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=0)}\right] = \mu_i \text{ or } \widehat{\mu}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$

Predictor slopes are linear and additive like usual, but *Predictor slopes are linear and additive like usual, but*

 β = difference in **logit** per one-unit difference in predictor

• odds:
$$\left[\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=0)}\right] = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i)$$

• probability:
$$\operatorname{prob}(y_i = 1) = p_i \text{ or } \widehat{p}_i = \frac{\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i)}{1 + \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i)}$$

or
$$\text{prob}(y_i = 1) = p_i \text{ or } \hat{p}_i = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[-1(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \beta_2 z_i)]}$$

 This "logistic regression" model (as it is usually called) can be estimated using SAS PROC GLIMMIX (LINK=LOGIT, DIST=BINARY) or PROC LOGISTIC;
 STATA LOGIT/GLM; or R GLM family = binomial(link = logit))

 $g(\cdot)$ link

Converting Across the 3 Outcome Scales

• e.g., for $\log \left[\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=0)} \right] = \mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$

Direction	Conditional	Slope	Slope
	Mean	for x _i	for z _i
Predicted logit outcome (i.e., given by "the link"):	μ_i	β ₁	β ₂
From logits to odds (or odds ratios for effect sizes):	Odds:	Odds ratio:	Odds ratio:
	exp(<mark>µ</mark> i)	exp(<mark>β</mark> 1)	exp(<mark>β</mark> 2)
From logits to probability (given by the "inverse link"):	$\frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\mu_i})}{1+\exp(\boldsymbol{\mu_i})}$	Doesn't make any sense!	Doesn't make any sense!

- You can "unlogit" the model-predicted conditional mean μ_i all the way back into probability to express predicted outcomes, but you can only unlogit the slopes back into odds ratios (not all the way back to changes in probability)
- Order of operations: build predicted logit outcome, then logit \rightarrow probability

What happened to *e_i*?

- **logit:** $\log\left[\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=0)}\right] = \mu_i \text{ or } \widehat{\mu}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$
 - > No residual is shown—not because the prediction is perfect, but because residual variance (σ_e^2 , the variance of the e_i terms) is not an estimated model parameter—it is a direct function of μ_i
- However, the same model is sometimes described this way: $y_i^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i) + e_i^*$
 - y^{*}_i is the underlying "latent" response variable that is actually continuous, but we've only observed the binary version
 - > Because y_i^* is imaginary, setting a scale for it (i.e., for the variance of e_i^*) requires borrowing one from a continuous distribution
 - Which distribution maps onto your choice of link function!

Distribution of Latent Response y_i^*

- Example of predicting an underlying continuous imaginary ("latent") response: $y_i^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i) + e_i^*$
 - > This explanation borrows the scale of the logistic distribution for e_i^*



So when predicting y_i^* , then $e_i^* \sim \text{logistic}(0, \sigma_e^2 = 3.29)$

From the **Logistic** Distribution: Mean = \hat{y}_i^* , Variance = $\frac{\pi^2}{3}s^2$, where s = scale factor for "over-dispersion" (must be fixed to 1 in binary outcomes)

3.29 replaces residual variance in formulas for "pseudo-R²" but **it can never be reduced**!

Other Link Functions for Binary Data

- The idea that a "latent" continuous variable underlies an observed binary response also appears in a "probit regression" model:
 - > Using a **probit** link, the linear model predicts a different transformed y_i : probit $(y_i = 1) = \Phi^{-1}[\text{prob}(y_i = 1)] = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$
 - Φ = standard normal cumulative distribution function, so the link-transformed y_i is the *z*-value that corresponds to the location on standard normal curve **below** which the conditional mean probability is found (i.e., *z*-value for area to the left)
 - Requires integration to inverse link from probits to predicted probabilities
 - Same Bernoulli conditional distribution is used for the actual binary outcome, in which residual variance is still not separately estimated
 - If probit is used to predict "latent" response y_i^* , then probit says $e_i^* \sim \operatorname{normal}(0, \sigma_{e^*}^2 = 1.00)$, whereas logit says $e_i^* \sim \operatorname{logistic}(0, \sigma_{e^*}^2 = 3.29)$
 - So given this difference in variance, probit coefficients are on a different scale than logit coefficients, and so their estimates won't match... however...

Probit vs. Logit: Should you care? Pry not.



- Other fun facts about probit:
 - > Probit = "ogive" in the Item Response Theory (IRT) world
 - Probit has no odds ratios (because it's not made from odds)
 - > Probit is the **only** option in models using limited-information estimation!
- Both logit and probit assume symmetry of the probability curve, but there are other asymmetric options as well...

Other Link Functions for Binary Outcomes



logit = **probit***1.701 → symmetry of prediction

log-log is for outcomes in which 1 is more frequent

complementary log-log is for outcomes in which 0 is more frequent

Below, $p_i = \text{prob}(y_i = 1)$

Model	logit	probit	log-log	complement. log-log
$g(\cdot)$ link	$\log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right) = \mu_i$	$\Phi^{-1}(p_i) = \mu_i$	$-\log[-\log(p_i)] = \mu_i$	$\log[-\log(1-p_i)] = \mu_i$
$g^{-1}(\cdot)$ inverse link (go back to probability):	$p_i = \frac{\exp(\mu_i)}{1 + \exp(\mu_i)}$	$p_i = \Phi^{-1}(\mu_i)$	$p_i = \exp[-\exp(-\mu_i)]$ $e_i^* \sim \log Weibull "extremeAlso known as "Gu$	$p_i = 1 - \exp[-\exp(\mu_i)]$ e value" $\left(0.577, \sigma_{e^*}^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)$ <u>mbel</u> "

Another Complication: Thresholds!

- Back to the idea of a continuous underlying response...
- For example, using probit = standard normal, the purple line indicates the "threshold" at which $y_i = 0$ switches to $y_i = 1$



Here, the threshold = -1: \rightarrow prob($y_i = 0$) = .16 !!!

Some logit/probit software gives thresholds instead of intercepts, especially for ordinal models (stay tuned)!

intercept \rightarrow prob $(y_i = 1)$ threshold \rightarrow prob $(y_i = 0)$

intercept = threshold∗ −1 (because symmetry)

Image borrowed from: https://www.scribbr.com/statistics/standard-normal-distribution/

Significance Testing for Binary Outcomes

 Wald tests can be used to test fixed slopes, but
 Most programs do NOT
 Uses Denominator DF
 Ves: adjusts base

Uses Denominator Degrees of Freedom?	Test 1 Slope*	Test >1 Slope*
No: implies infinite N	Ζ	$\chi^2(=z^2)$
Yes: adjusts based on N	t	$F(=t^2)$

> If so, p-values may be too optimistic in small samples $F * \# slopes = \chi^2$

- > Btw, R results for Wald test χ^2 can differ from SAS/STATA because of how fixed effect standard errors are found (expected vs. observed info)
- For models estimated using ML, the **model log-likelihood (***LL***)** can also be used to assess relative fit (i.e., through model comparisons)
 - LL = sum across individual LL values that results from the optimum values of the model parameters (that make the outcomes the tallest)
 - > Two flavors: **Maximum Likelihood** (**ML**) or Restricted ML (REML)
 - REML is only possible for conditionally normal outcomes, in which it works better for smaller samples (is equivalent to ordinary least squares)
 - > Two directions: *LL* (bigger is better) or -2LL (smaller is better)

Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRTs)

- ➢ Nested models can be compared using an LRT: (−2∆LL Test)
- 1. Calculate $-2\Delta LL$: $(-2LL_{fewer}) (-2LL_{more}) OR 2*(LL_{fewer} LL_{more})$
- 2. Calculate Δdf : (# Parms_{more}) –(# Parms_{fewer})
- 3. Compare $-2\Delta LL$ to χ^2 distribution with df = Δdf CHIDIST in excel gives exact p-values for the difference test; so will STATA LRTEST and various functions in R

1. & 2. must be positive values!

- Add parameters? Model fit can be **BETTER** (if signif) or **NOT BETTER**
- **Remove** parameters? Model fit can be **WORSE** (if signif) or **NOT WORSE**
- Non-nested models can be compared by Information Criteria (IC) that also reflect model parsimony
 - > No *p*-values or critical values, just "smaller is better"
 - > **AIC** = Akaike IC = -2LL + 2 *(#parameters)
 - > **BIC** = Bayesian IC = $-2LL + \log(N)^*(\# \text{parameters})$
 - AIC and BIC can also be used to compare the fit of different link functions for the same conditional distribution (e.g., logit vs. log-log)

Comparing Distributions for alpha = .05



Top left image borrowed from: <u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chi-squared_distribution</u> Top right image borrowed from: <u>https://www.globalspec.com/reference/69569/203279/11-9-the-f-distribution</u> PSQF 6270: Lecture 2

Effect Sizes for Binary Outcomes

- Odds Ratio (OR) → effect size for predictors of binary outcomes
- e.g., if x_i is binary and z_i is quantitative $\log \left[\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i=0)} \right] = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$
 - > **OR** for x_i slope = $\exp(\beta_1) = \frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i = 1 | x_i = 1) / \operatorname{prob}(y_i = 0 | x_i = 1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i = 1 | x_i = 0) / \operatorname{prob}(y_i = 0 | x_i = 0)}$
 - > **OR** for z_i slope = $\exp(\beta_2)$: same idea, but denominator is some reference value (e.g., mean) and numerator is "one unit" higher
 - For each, you'll have to decide at what value to hold other predictors to get the exact probabilities, but the odds ratio will only change if the predictors are part of an interaction (from marginal to conditional)
- OR is asymmetric: ranges from 0 to +∞; where 1 = no effect → logit slope = 0
 - > e.g., if $\beta_1 = 1$, then exp(β_1) = 2.72 → odds of $y_i = 1$ are 2.72 times higher per unit greater x_i
 - > e.g., if $\beta_1 = -1$, then exp(β_1) = 0.37 → odds of $y_i = 1$ are 0.37 times higher per unit greater x_i
 - > Can be more intuitive to phrase results as positive!

slope	pred logit	pred odds	odds ratio
1	1	2.72	
1	2	7.39	2.72
1	3	20.09	2.72
1	4	54.60	2.72

slope	pred logit	pred odds	odds ratio
-1	-1	0.37	
-1	-2	0.14	0.37
-1	-3	0.05	0.37
-1	-4	0.02	0.37

Converting Across the 3 Outcome Scales

e.g., for $\log \left[\frac{\text{prob}(y_i=1)}{\text{prob}(y_i=0)} \right] = \mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$					
Direction	Conditional Mean	Slope for x _i	Slope for z _i		
Predicted logit outcome (i.e., given by "the link"):	μ _i	β ₁	β ₂		
From logits to odds (or odds ratios for effect sizes):	Odds: exp(µ _i)	Odds ratio: exp(β₁)	Odds ratio: exp(<mark>β</mark> 2)		
From logits to probability (given by the "inverse link"):	$\frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\mu_i})}{1+\exp(\boldsymbol{\mu_i})}$	Doesn't make any sense!	Doesn't make any sense!		

- You can "unlogit" the model-predicted conditional mean μ_i all the way back into probability to express predicted outcomes, but you can only unlogit the slopes back into odds ratios (not all the way back to changes in probability)
- Order of operations: build predicted logit outcome, then logit \rightarrow probability

R^2 for binary outcomes? Not really

- General linear models use a conditional normal distribution for y_i (i.e., the e_i residuals are normal) in which a SINGLE residual variance (around \hat{y}_i) is estimated separately from the fixed effects
 - > Allows direct calculation of R^2 for variance explained and change in R^2 between nested models (and *F*-tests thereof)
- In contrast, **general***ized* **linear models** for binary outcomes use a conditional Bernoulli distribution for y_i in which there is **no single separately estimated residual variance (that is constant around** \hat{y}_i)
 - > Instead, residual variance is determined by AND varies with the conditional mean, so an exact R^2 is not possible in the same way
 - There are lots of attempts at "pseudo-R²" variants that disagree wildly in practice, see some here: <u>https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/other/mult-pkg/faq/general/faq-what-are-pseudo-r-squareds/</u>
 - > Btw, STATA LOGIT provides McFadden's $R^2 = 1 \frac{LL_{model}}{LL_{empty}}$ but the user-created function fitstat provides several others

Pseudo- R^2 through Expected Variances

- This approach (credited to McKelvey & Zavoina, 1975) applies to many kinds of generalized linear (and mixed-effects) models:
 - > M&Z pseudo- R^2 on **logit** scale = $\frac{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i)}{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i) + \operatorname{Var}(e_i^*)} = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i)}{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i) + 3.29}$

> M&Z pseudo- R^2 on **probit** scale = $\frac{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i)}{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i) + \operatorname{Var}(e_i^*)} = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i)}{\operatorname{Var}(\mu_i) + 1.00}$

- > $Var(\mu_i)$ = variance of the predicted outcomes in linked metric
 - Save model-scale predicted outcomes, then calculate their variance
- Var(e^{*}_i) = conditional variance of "underlying residuals"
 - Use known value based on underlying distribution of $y_i^* \leftarrow \text{link}$
 - Keep in mind this uses model scale, not data scale (not probabilities), and so these R^2 values are not really comparable to OLS variants
- Btw, this expected variance approach generalizes to calculation of intraclass correlation (ICC) when random effects are also included...

Bivariate Association of Binary Variables

• The possible **Pearson's** *r* **for binary variables will be limited** when they are not evenly split into 0/1 because their variance depends on their mean

> Mean = prob $(y_i = 1) = p_i$, Variance = $p_i(1 - p_i) = p_iq_i$

- If two binary variables (x_i and y_i) differ in p_i , such that $p_y > p_x$
 - > Maximum covariance: $Cov(x_i, y_i) = p_x(1 p_y)$
 - > This problem is known as "range restriction"
 - Here this means the maximum Pearson's r will be smaller than ±1 it should be:

$$r_{x,y} = \sqrt{\frac{p_x(1 - p_y)}{p_y(1 - p_x)}}$$

- > Some examples using this formula to predict maximum Pearson r values \rightarrow
- So Pearson correlations may not adequately describe relations of categorical variables...

рх	ру	max r
0.1	0.2	0.67
0.1	0.5	0.33
0.1	0.8	0.17
0.5	0.6	0.82
0.5	0.7	0.65
0.5	0.9	0.33
0.6	0.7	0.80
0.6	0.8	0.61
0.6	0.9	0.41
0.7	0.8	0.76
0.7	0.9	0.51
0.8	0.9	0.67

Meet Tetrachoric Correlation

Data	$y_2 = 0$	y ₂ = 1
y ₁ = 0	а	С
y ₁ = 1	b	d

Tetrachoric reasoning:

Given a bivariate normal distribution of the underlying continuous variables (y_i^* version), what correlation would have created the observed proportion in each quadrant (\rightarrow cell)?





Too Logit to Quit* <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HFCv86Olk8E</u>

- The **logit** is the basis for many other generalized models for categorical (ordinal or nominal; IRT "polytomous") outcomes
- Next we'll see how C possible response categories can be predicted using C – 1 binary "submodels" whose link functions carve up the categories in different ways, in which each binary submodel (usually) uses a logit or probit link to predict its outcome
- Types of categorical outcomes and their link function types:
 - > Definitely ordered categories: "**cumulative**" \rightarrow ordinal
 - Maybe ordered categories: "adjacent category" (not used much)
 - ▷ Definitely NOT ordered categories: "generalized" → nominal (or "baseline category logit" or "multinomial regression")

* Starts about 8 minutes into 15-minute video (and MY joke for the last 12+ years!)

Logit Models for C Ordinal Categories

- Known as "cumulative logit" or "proportional odds" model in generalized models; known as "graded response model" in IRT
 - SAS GLIMMIX (LINK=CLOGIT DIST=MULT) or PROC LOGISTIC;
 STATA OLOGIT/GOLOGIT2/GLM; R VGLM family=cumulative(parallel=TRUE)
- Models the probability of **lower vs. higher** cumulative categories via C 1 submodels (e.g., if C = 4 possible responses of c = 0,1,2,3):



Example with intercepts in an empty model (subscripts=parm, submodel)

> Submodel 1:
$$\log\left(\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i>0)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i\le 0)}\right) = \beta_{01} \rightarrow \operatorname{prob}(y_i>0) = \exp(\beta_{01})/[1 + \exp(\beta_{01})]$$

> Submodel 2:
$$\log\left(\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i>1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i\leq 1)}\right) = \beta_{02} \rightarrow \operatorname{prob}(y_i>1) = \exp(\beta_{02})/[1 + \exp(\beta_{02})]$$

> Submodel 3:
$$\log\left(\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i>2)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i\leq 2)}\right) = \beta_{03} \rightarrow \operatorname{prob}(y_i>2) = \exp(\beta_{03})/[1 + \exp(\beta_{03})]$$

Logit/Probit Models for C Ordinal Categories

• Models the probability of **lower vs. higher** cumulative categories via C - 1 submodels (e.g., if C = 4 possible responses of c = 0,1,2,3):



Model predicts the middle category responses *indirectly*

• Example if predicting UP with intercepts with an empty model:

> Probability of $0 = 1 - Prob_1$ Probability of $1 = Prob_1 - Prob_2$ Probability of $2 = Prob_2 - Prob_3$ Probability of $3 = Prob_3 - 0$

The cumulative submodels that create these probabilities are each estimated using **all the data** (good, especially for categories not chosen often), but **assume order in doing so** (may be bad or ok, depending on your response format)

 Ordinal models usually use a logit or probit link, but they can also use cumulative log-log or cumulative complementary log-log links

Remember Thresholds? It gets worse...

- For example, using probit = standard normal, the lines indicates the "threshold" τ at which the response goes to the next category
 - > For 0 vs. 1,2,3 → τ_{01} = -2.0 = prob = .16 → probit of 0 instead of 1,2,3
 - > For 0,1 vs. 2,3 → $\tau_{02} = -0.5 = \text{prob} = .38 \rightarrow \text{probit of 0,1 instead of 2,3}$
 - > For 0,1,2 vs. 3 → τ_{02} = 1.5 = prob = .82 → probit of 0,1,2 instead of 3



- Most ordinal software using logit or probit links default to thresholds ⁽²⁾
- intercept → prob(upper)
 threshold → prob(lower)
- intercept = threshold* -1 (because symmetry)
 - I prefer to report intercepts!

Ordinal Models: Which way is up?



 $\underbrace{0 \text{ vs. } \mathbf{1,2,3}}_{\text{Submodel}_1} \qquad \underbrace{0,1 \text{ vs. } \mathbf{2,3}}_{\text{Submodel}_2} \qquad \underbrace{0,1,2 \text{ vs. } \mathbf{3}}_{\text{Submodel}_3}$



- Most common software uses a logically inconsistent parameterization using thresholds predicting DOWN and slopes predicting UP
 - > Threshold = τ = logit/probit of lower category (when predictors = 0)
 - Slopes still provide change in logit/probit of upper category per unit predictor!
- e.g., $logit[prob(y_i > 0)] = -\tau_{01} + \beta_1(x_i)$

> $-\tau_{01}$ = logit of 0 (instead of 1,2,3) when $x_i = 0 \otimes$

> β_1 = change in logit of 1,2,3 (instead of 0) per unit $x_i \odot$

- We are going to turn these into intercepts instead in our software
- e.g., $logit[prob(y_i > 0)] = \beta_{01} + \beta_1(x_i)$
 - > β_{01} = logit of 1,2,3 (instead of 0) when $x_i = 0$ \odot
 - > β_1 = change in logit of 1,2,3 (instead of 0) per unit $x_i \odot$

Logit Models for C Ordinal Categories

 Most ordinal software defaults to "proportional odds": that SLOPES of predictors ARE THE SAME across binary submodels—for example (subscripts = parm, submodel, using intercepts)

Submodel 1:
$$\log\left(\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i > 0)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i \le 0)}\right) = \beta_{01} + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$$
Submodel 2: $\log\left(\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i > 1)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i \le 1)}\right) = \beta_{02} + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$
Submodel 3: $\log\left(\frac{\operatorname{prob}(y_i > 2)}{\operatorname{prob}(y_i \le 2)}\right) = \beta_{03} + \beta_1(x_i) + \beta_2(z_i)$

- Proportional odds essentially means no interaction between submodel and predictor slope, which greatly reduces the number of estimated parameters
 - Can be tested and changed to "partial" or "non" proportional odds in SAS LOGISTIC, STATA GOLOGIT2, and R VGLM; harder to find in mixed-effects models
 - If the proportional odds assumption fails, you can use a nominal model instead; dummy-coding to create separate outcomes can approximate a nominal model for models with more complexity (like mixed-effects models)

• So what's different about a nominal model...?

Multi-Category Conditional Distribution

• Uses **multinomial distribution**: e.g., PDF for C = 4 categories of c = 0,1,2,3; an observed $y_i = c$; and indicators *I* if $c = y_i$

$$f(y_i = c) = p_{i0}^{I[y_i=0]} p_{i1}^{I[y_i=1]} p_{i2}^{I[y_i=2]} p_{i3}^{I[y_i=3]} \quad \text{Only } p_{ic} \text{ for response} \\ y_i = c \text{ gets used}$$

- > Works out to be the predicted probability of your response category (and probabilities must sum to 1: $\sum_{c=1}^{C} p_{ic} = 1$)
- Maximum likelihood estimation finds the most likely model parameters to predict the probability of each response category through ***some kind of*** (usually logit or probit) link function
- Regression predicting nominal outcomes (instead of ordinal) is often called "multinomial regression" (e.g., in STATA), but this is strange because ordinal and nominal both use a multinomial distribution!
- So what's the difference between ordinal and nominal? The *some kind of* link function! (and there's a third one...)

Alternative Link Functions for C Categories, Each Built Using C - 1 Submodels

 Cumulative logit/probit (used in IRT "graded response"): lower vs. higher category (using all categories in each submodel)

0 vs. **1,2,3 0,1** vs. **2,3 0,1,2** vs. **3**

- > Slopes usually constrained equal across submodels by default
- Adjacent category logit/probit (used in IRT "partial credit"): each next highest category (2 categories per submodel)
 I like this the best,
 - **0** vs. **1 1** vs. **2 2** vs. **3**

Slopes usually constrained equal across submodels by default
 but no one uses it

- Baseline category logit (used in IRT "nominal response"):
 reference (=0 here) vs. each other category (2 categories per submodel):
 - **0** vs. **1 0** vs. **2 0** vs. **3**
 - > Slopes usually not constrained equal across submodels by default
 - > Assumes "independence of irrelevant alternatives"—that the same fixed effects would be found if the possible choices were not the same (empirically testable)

Remember Tetrachoric Correlation?

Data	$y_2 = 0$	y ₂ = 1
y ₁ = 0	а	С
y ₁ = 1	b	d

Tetrachoric reasoning:

Given a bivariate normal distribution of the underlying continuous variables (y_i^* version), what correlation would have created the observed proportion in each quadrant (\rightarrow cell)?





Tetrachoric \rightarrow Polychoric Correlation

Data	$y_2 = 0$	y ₂ = 1
y ₁ = 0	а	С
y ₁ = 1	b	d

Tetrachoric reasoning:

Given a bivariate normal distribution of the underlying continuous variables (y_i^* version), what correlation would have created the observed proportion in each quadrant (\rightarrow cell)?



- Polychoric and tetrachoric correlations are similar
 - Both based on a bivariate normal distribution,
 - Both try to represent the correlation that would have created the proportion of responses in each cross-tab cell (unique combo of row by column)
- Unfortunately, no such analog exists for nominal
- See <u>this website</u> for a more thorough example of an extension to polychoric!



Correlations for Binary or Ordinal Variables

- **Pearson correlation**: between two quantitative variables, using the observed distributions (computed using means, variances, and covariance)
- **Phi correlation**: between two binary variables, still using the observed distributions (= Pearson with formula shortcut)
- **Point-biserial correlation**: between one binary and one quantitative variable, still using the observed distributions (and still = Pearson)

Line of Suspended Disbelief to Reduce Impact of Range Restriction

- Tetrachoric correlation: between "underlying continuous" distributions of two actually binary variables (not = Pearson) → based on probit!
- Polychoric correlation: between "underlying continuous" distributions of two ordinal variables (not = Pearson) → based on probit!
- **(Bi/Poly)serial correlation**: between "underlying continuous" (but really binary/ordinal) and observed quantitative variables (and not = Pearson)
- Bivariate statistics related to categorical variables should be provided using tetrachoric, biserial, or polychoric correlations instead of Pearson

Effect Size for Categorical Outcomes

- Because models for categorical outcomes are built using submodels for binary outcomes, **odds ratios** (OR) can still be used as an effect sizes for individual slopes in submodels for categorical outcomes
- Pseudo-R² for categorical outcomes will be trickier to compute...
 - To use M&Z pseudo-R², you'd need to represent the sources of variance for each binary submodel, which translates readily into nominal models, but not so much into cumulative or adjacent-category models
 - When it doubt (and you must provide some type of R² value), find a way to correlate actual outcomes with a similarly-ranged model-predicted outcome that still maintains error; here, do this for each person:
 - Binary: draw a random 0/1 value from a Bernoulli distribution with a mean given by their predicted probability of a 1
 - **Categorical:** calculate predicted probability of each of *C* categories, then draw from a random multinomial distribution with those probabilities
 - Type of correlation will be dictated by outcome type (e.g., tetrachoric for binary or nominal submodels, polychoric or Spearman for ordinal response)

Wrapping Up: Significant Differences

	General(ized) Models for Conditionally Normal Outcomes	General <i>ized</i> Models for Categorical Outcomes
What is predicted directly?	y_i (via "identity link function" of *1)	Link-transformed probability of "1" or "0" (via logit, probit, etc.)
What estimator and conditional distribution (i.e., for y_i after predictors) are typically used?	REML (is equal to OLS) and normal	ML and multinomial (with Bernoulli as special case when $C = 2$)
How are global and specific effect sizes assessed?	Global: True R ² Specific: <i>d</i> , <i>r</i> , semi- partial eta ² , or standardized slopes	Global: Pseudo- <i>R</i> ² Specific: usually odds ratios (or less commonly, convert <i>t</i> into <i>d</i> or <i>r</i>)
Can fixed effect estimates be compared directly between models?	Yes	No, because they change scale due to different total variance see Winship & Mare (<u>1983</u> , <u>1984</u>)