Logistic Regression for Ordinal Responses

Edps/Psych/Soc 589

Carolyn J. Anderson

Department of Educational Psychology

ILLINOIS

©Board of Trustees, University of Illinois

Outline

Common models for ordinal responses:

- Cumulative logit model typically assuming “proportional odds”.
- Adjacent categories logit model typically assuming common slopes
- Continuation ratio logits.
- Baseline multinomial logistic regression but use the order to interpret and report odds ratios.

They differ in terms of

- How logits are formed.
- Whether they summarize association with 1 parameter per predictor.
- Whether they allow for different models for different logits.

Logit Models for Ordinal Responses

The logit models for this situation

- Use the ordering of the categories in forming logits.
- Yield simpler models with simpler interpretations than (baseline) multinomial model.
- Are more powerful than nominal models.

Proportional Odds Model

or Cumulative Logit Model

Form logits (dichotomize categories of Y) incorporating the ordinal information.

Cumulative Probabilities:

- $Y = 1, 2, \ldots, J$ and order is relevant.
- $\{\pi_1, \pi_2, \ldots, \pi_J\}$.
- $P(Y \leq j) = \pi_1 + \ldots + \pi_j = \sum_{k=1}^{j} \pi_k$ for $j = 1, \ldots, J-1$.
- "Cumulative logits"

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log\left(\frac{P(Y \leq j)}{P(Y > j)}\right) &= \log\left(\frac{P(Y \leq j)}{1 - P(Y \leq j)}\right) \\
&= \log\left(\frac{\pi_1 + \ldots + \pi_j}{\pi_{j+1} + \ldots + \pi_J}\right) \quad \text{for} \quad j = 1, \ldots, J-1
\end{aligned}
$$

"Proportional Odds Model"

$$\text{logit}(P(Y \le j)) = \log\left(\frac{P(Y \le j)}{P(Y > j)}\right) = \alpha_j + \beta x \qquad \text{for} \quad j = 1, \ldots, J-1$$

- α_j (intercepts) can differ.
- β (slope) is constant.
  - The effect of x is the same for all $J-1$ ways to collapse Y into dichotomous outcomes (cumulatively).
  - A single parameter describes the effect of x on Y (versus $J-1$ slopes in the baseline model).
- Interpretation in terms of odds ratios.

Interpretation

For a given level of Y (say $Y = j$)

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{P(Y \leq j|X=x_2)/P(Y > j|X=x_2)}{P(Y \leq j|X=x_1)/P(Y > J|X=x_1)} &= \frac{P(Y \leq j|x_2)P(Y > j|x_1)}{P(Y \leq j|x_1)P(Y > j|x_2)} \\
&= \exp(\alpha_j + \beta x_2)/\exp(\alpha_j + \beta x_1) \\
&= \exp[\beta(x_2 - x_1)]
\end{aligned}$$

or $\log$ odds ratio $= \beta(x_2 - x_1)$.

The log cumulative odds ratio is proportional to the difference (distance) between x_1 and x_2.

Since the proportionality coefficient β is constant, this model is called the "Proportional Odds Model".

Properties of Model

- Note that the cumulative probabilities are given by

$$P(Y \leq j) = \frac{\exp(\alpha_j + \beta x)}{1 + \exp(\alpha_j + \beta x)}$$

  Since β is constant, curves of cumulative probabilities plotted against x are parallel.

- We can compute the probability of being in category j by taking differences between the cumulative probabilities.

$$P(Y = j) = P(Y \leq j) - P(Y \leq j-1) \quad \text{for} \quad j = 2, \ldots, J$$

  and

$$P(Y = 1) = P(Y \leq 1)$$

  Since β is constant, these probabilities are guaranteed to be non-negative.

- In fitting this model to data, it must be simultaneous.

Example: HSB

Example: High School and Beyond

$$X = \text{mean of 5 achievement test scores.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \text{high school program type} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Academic} \\ 2 & \text{General} \\ 3 & \text{VoTech} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

So the logit model is

Academic vs (Gen & VoTech): $\text{logit}(Y \leq 1) = \alpha_1 + \beta x$

(Academic & Gen) vs VoTech: $\text{logit}(Y \leq 2) = \alpha_2 + \beta x$

Test of Proportional Odds Assumption

```
 Score Test for the Proportional
         Odds Assumption

 Chi-Square   DF       Pr > ChiSq

     0.8194    1           0.3653
```

If this test is significant, then proportional odds model is not good one for the data. (Late we'll talk about what to do it it's significant.)

I will show R a bit latter.

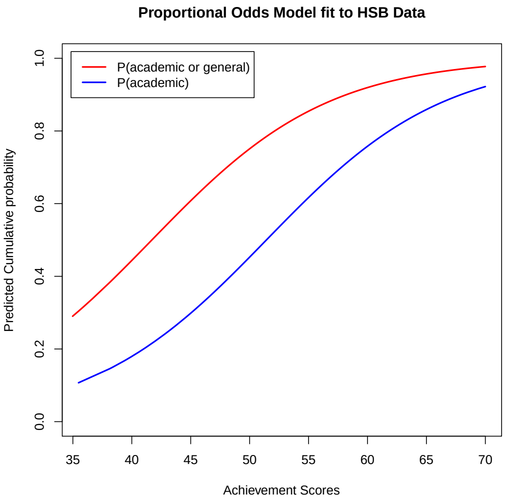
Example: Parameter Estimates

Parameter	Estimate	e^{β}	ASE	Wald	p
α_1	-6.8408		.6118	125.04	$< .001$
α_2	-5.5138		.5866	88.37	$< .001$
β	.1330	1.142	.0118	127.64	$< .001$

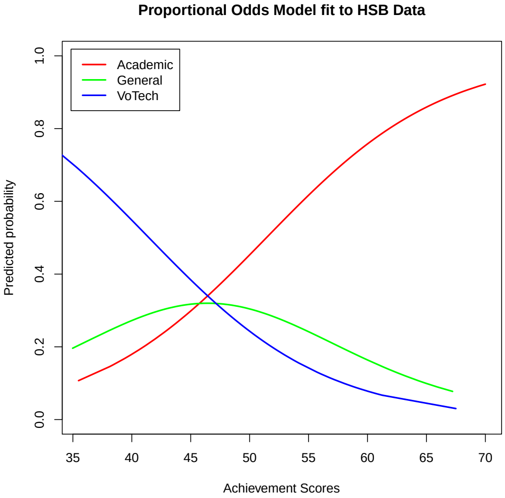
For a 10 point increase in mean achievement, the odds ratio (for either case) equals

$$\exp(10(.1330)) = 3.78$$

Fitted Cumulative Probabilities

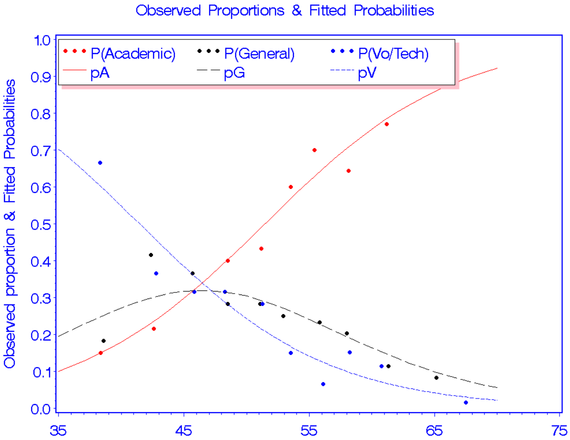


Fitted Category Probabilities



Observed Proportions and Fitted π_js

(Grouped only for plot)



Estimation in SAS and R

SAS:

- LOGISTIC (maximum likelihood).
- CATMOD (weighted least squares).
- GENMOD
- NLP or NLMIXED (maximum likelihood).
- Others?

For larger samples with categorical explanatory variables, results from MLE and WLS should be about same.

R:

- `plor` in the `MASS` package
- `vglm` in the `VGAM` package
- `lrm` in the `rms` package
- `ordinal` in the `clm` package

SAS Logistic & GENMOD Code

```
proc logistic ;
   model hsp = achieve;
```

In proc logistic, the cumulative logit model is the default if the response variable has more than 2 categories.

```
proc genmod;
   model = achieve / dist=multinomial link=clogit type3;
```

"clogit" for Cumulative Logit, which is the default.

SAS PROC LOGISTIC: proportional odds assumption

Score Test for the Proportional Odds Assumption

Chi-Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
0.8194	1	0.3653

SAS PROC LOGISTIC (edited) Output

```
       Response Profile

 Ordered                  Total
  Value     program    Frequency

    1      academic      308
    2       general      145
    3      vocation      147
Probabilities modeled are cumulated over the lower Ordered
Values.
```

R: clm in ordinal package

```
# response has to be a factor
hsb$hsp ← as.factor(hsb$hsp)

po ← clm(hsp ∼ achieve, data=hsb)
anova(po)

# test proportional odds assumption (before really looking at model)
# — the test statistics is in column label "LRT"
nominal_test(po)

# Look at parameters
summary(po)

# Fitted probabilities for each type of hsp:
hsb$po.fit ← po$fitted
```

R: vglm in VGAM package

```
# Proportional odds model
# Note: response should be numeric (ordered)
po.vglm1 ← vglm(hsprog ∼ achieve,family=cumulative(parallel=TRUE),
                data=hsb)
summary(po.vglm1)
# Cumulative logits but allow slopes to differ
po.vglm2 ← vglm(hsprog ∼ achieve,family=cumulative(parallel=FALSE),
                data=hsb)
summary(po.vglm1)
# Difference in deviances of these two models:
lr ← 1082.413 - 1081.608
# p for testing proportional odds assumption
1 - pchisq(lr,1)
po.vglm1 ← vglm(hsprog ∼ achieve,family=multinomial,
                data=hsb)
summary(po.vglm1)
```

R: vglm in VGAM package

For the 2nd model (parakkel=FALSE)you will get the following message:

> *Warning: Hauck-Donner effect detected in the following estimate(s): 'achieve:2*

- The Hauck-Donner effect occurs when the Wald statistic (i.e., z^2 or z) does not increase monotonically with larger differences between the null and estimated parameter.
- This can result in a large effect being rejected (not statistically significant); that is, a loss of power.
- vglm checks for Hauck-Donner effect but not all packages do.
- For more about this effect, see Yee (2020), https://arxiv.org/pdf/2001.08431.pdf
- The likelihood ratio test does not suffer from this.

R polr from MASS package

```
# response has to be a factor
hsb$hsp ← as.factor(hsb$hsp)
summary(po.polr ← polr(hsp ∼ achieve, data=hsb,Hess=TRUE )
# Check manual for definitions of these
names(po.polr)
# calculate and store p values
ctable ← coef(summary(po.polr))
p <- pnorm(abs(ctable[, "t value"]),lower.tail = FALSE)*2
# combined table of coefficeints, se, t and pvalues
ctable ← cbind(ctable, "p value" = p)
```

R polr (continued)

```
# default method gives profiled CIs
ci ← confint(po.polr, level=.99)
#odds ratios
exp(coef(po.polr))
fit ← po.polr$fitted.values
```

Note on Example

We would get the exact same results regarding interpretation if we had used (i.e., put in descending option in proc LOGISTIC).

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \text{high school program type} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{VoTech} \\ 2 & \text{General} \\ 3 & \text{Academic} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

This reversal of the ordering of Y would

- Change the signs of the estimated parameters.
- Yield curves of cumulative probabilities that decrease (rather than increase).
- Essentially the same results.

Example 2: PIRLS

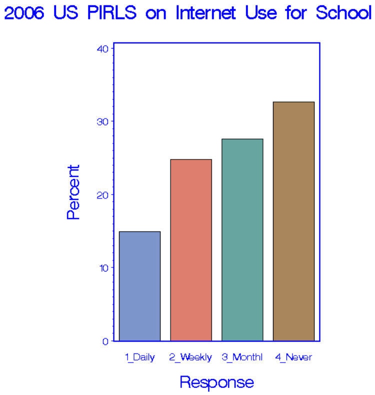
US 2006 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) responses to item "How often to you use the Internet as a source of information for school-related work?" with responses

- Every day or almost every data ($y_1 = 746$, $p_1 = .1494$)
- Once or twice a week ($y_2 = 1,240$, $p_2 = .2883$)
- Once or twice a month ($y_3 = 1,377$, $p_3 = .2757$)
- Never or almost never ($y_4 = 1,631$, $p_4 = .3266$)

Predictors/Explanatory:

- Shortages at school.
- Time student spends in front of screen (electronic entertainment)
- Gender of student.

Graph of PIRLS Distribution



Problem with Model?

```
Score Test for the Proportional
        Odds Assumption

Chi-Square  DF      Pr > ChiSq

   49.1500   6          <.0001
```

H_o: βs are same over logits for all predictors.
H_a: They are not all the same.

If Reject Proportional Odds Assumption

- If test is rejected this result could be due to large sample but not practical or substantively important. To investigate this fit separate logistic regressions to each logit.**
- Add additional terms.
- Try non-symmetric link function.
- Use a different ordinal model.
- Add dispersion parameters.
- Permit separate effects for some variables ("partial proportional odds")**
- Use the baseline model but use order to interpret the results.**

Is Problem Substantively Important?

		Separate Binary Logistic Regression		
Effect	Proportional Odds	$P(Y=1)/P(Y>1)$	$P(Y\leq 2)/P(Y>2)$	$P(Y\leq 3)/P(Y=4)$
shortages	-0.2055	-0.0685	-0.1986	-0.2571
girl	0.2225	0.1223	0.1213	0.3548
screenT	0.0599	0.1904	0.0725	-0.0028

- Shortages: Differ in terms of magnitude.
- Gender: Similar values.
- Screen Time: Different direction of effects.

Not just statistical but also substantive differences

Partial Proportional Odds

Relax assumption for shortages and alow different parameters for it.
Edited Output from PROC NLMIXED:

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr $> \|t\|$	Gradient
Intercept 1	-1.9499	0.08314	4377	-23.45	$< .0001$	-0.00027
Intercept 2	-0.8769	0.06464	4377	-13.57	$< .0001$	0.000807
Intercept 3	0.6976	0.07237	4377	9.64	$< .0001$	-0.0008
Girl	0.1138	0.04423	4377	2.57	$.0101$	0.000621
ScreenT	0.0471	0.02001	4377	2.35	$.0187$	-0.00057
Shortage 1	-0.0603	0.08061	4377	-0.75	$.4543$	0.000023
Shortage 2	-0.1394	0.04256	4377	-3.27	$.0011$	0.000087
Shortage 3	-0.2560	0.05864	4377	-4.37	$< .0001$	-0.00045

Interpretation of Shortages

For fixed gender and screen time,

- The odds ratio daily versus more than daily usage for shortages $x + 1$ equals $\exp(-.0603) = 0.94$ the odds for shortage $x \longrightarrow$ equal odds.
- The odds ratio for daily or weekly use versus monthly or never for $x + 1$ shortages equals $\exp(-0.1394) = 0.87$ the odds for x shortages.
- The odds ratio for monthly or more usage versus never for shortages $x + 1$ equals $\exp(-.2560) = .77$

What does this mean:

- More shortages less frequently use computers?
- More shortage more frequently use computers?

Baseline Model but Use Order

All possible odds ratios: For 1 unit increase in shortages, the odds ratios for row versus column equal

	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Never
Daily	—	1.11	.98	.80
Weekly	0.90	—	.89	.72
Monthly	1.02	1.12	—	.81
Never	1.25	1.39	1.23	—

- The odds of Daily versus Weekly are 1.11 the odds for 1 unit more on shortages.
- For greater shortages, daily use of computers is more likely than weekly.
- For fewer shortages, monthly or never using computers is more likely than daily use.

Interpretation of Shortages

For better and more proper analysis of data see Anderson, Kim & Keller (2010) and see results for multinomial model. . .

When take into account hierarchical structure, missing data and unequal probability sampling (particularly of the school), the impact of shortages of computer use quite different.

Final Comments on Cumulative Logit Models

- It takes into account the ordering of the categories of the response variable.
- One probability is monotonically increasing as a function of x. (see figure of estimated probabilities from HSB example).
- One probability is monotonically decreasing as a function of x. (see figure of estimated probabilities).
- Curves of probabilities for intermediate categories are uni-modal with the modes (maximum) corresponding to the order of the categories.
- The conclusions regarding the relationship between Y and x are not affected by the response category.

Final Comments on Cumulative Logit Models

- The specific combination of categories examined does not lead to substantially difference conclusions regarding the relationship between responses and x.
- IRT connection: Samejima's (1969) graded response model for polytomous items is the same as the proportional odds model except that x is a latent continuous variable.

Adjacent–Categories Logit Models

Rather than using all categories in forming logits, we can just use $J-1$ pairs of them.

To incorporate the ordering of the response, we use adjacent categories:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_j}{\pi_{j+1}}\right) \qquad j = 1, \ldots, J-1$$

The logit model for one (continuous) explanatory variable x is

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_j}{\pi_{j+1}}\right) = \alpha_j + \beta x \qquad j = 1, \ldots, J-1$$

Adjacent–Categories Logit Models

- This model is a special case of the baseline model. (shown below)
- It would not work for the PIRLs example

	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Never
Daily	—	1.11		
Weekly	0.90	—	.89	
Monthly		1.12	—	.81
Never			1.23	—

- If we had a single β, these odds ratios would all be equal.

An Example for Adjacent Categories

GSS Happiness data from Agresti (2013):

- Response variable is happiness with categories 1= very happy, 2=pretty happy, and 3=not too happy.
- Predictors are
  - Race with categories 1=black and 0=white.
  - Number of traumatic events that happened to respondent or relatives in the last year. Values range from 0 to 5.
- Estimated model:

$$\log(P(Y_i = j)/P(Y_i = j+1)) = \hat{\alpha}_j - 0.357(\text{traumatic})_i - 1.84(\text{race})_i$$

note: $\hat{\alpha}_1 = 2.532$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2 = 3.028$

Interpretation

Estimated model:

$$\log(P(Y=j)/P(Y=j+1)) = \hat{\alpha}_j - 0.357(\text{traumatic})_i - 1.842(\text{race})_i$$

- Given number of traumatic events, the estimated odds of being very happy versus pretty happy for whites are $\exp(1.842) = 6.31$ times the odds for blacks.
- Given number of traumatic events, the estimated odds of being pretty happy versus not too happy for whites are $\exp(1.842) = 6.31$ times the odds for blacks — the same.
- Given race, the estimated odds of very happy versus pretty happy for x traumatic events are $1/\exp(-.357) = 1.429$ times the odds for $x+1$ events.
- Odd ratio for pretty happy versus not too happy are the same as above.

Estimation

SAS:

- CATMOD: Weighted least squares, but it there are 0s, need to add small number to each cell.
- CATMOD: Maximum likelihood estimation involves design matrix that puts restrictions on parameters of the baseline model.
- NLMIXED: MLE for baseline but modify to correspond to adjacent categories.

R:

- vglm in VGAM
- others?

CATMOD and WLS

```
title'Check for zeros';
proc freq data=gss;
 tables race*trauma*happy / nopercent norow nocol sparse out=table;
data fillin;
 set table;
 count2=count+ .01;
title 'Adjacent Categories (WLS)';
proc catmod data=fillin;
 weight count2;
 response alogits;
 population race trauma;
 direct trauma race ;
 model happy = _response_  race trauma;
```

To Use NLMIXED

We make use of the fact that the adjacent categories models is a special case of the baseline model.

Baseline odds = Product of adjacent categories odds ,and logarithm of odds equals sum

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_{ij}}{\pi_{iJ}}\right) = \log\left(\frac{\pi_{ij}}{\pi_{ij+1}}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\pi_{i(j+1)}}{\pi_{i(j+2)}}\right) + \ldots \log\left(\frac{\pi_{i(J-1)}}{\pi_{iJ}}\right)$$

for $j = 1, \ldots, J-1$.

e.g., Taking a simple model for the adjacent categories,

$$\begin{aligned}
\log\left(\frac{\pi_{ij}}{\pi_{iJ}}\right) &= (\alpha_j + \beta x_i) + (\alpha_{j+1} + \beta x_i) + \ldots (\alpha_{J-1} + \beta x_i) \\
&= \underbrace{\sum_{k=j}^{J-1} \alpha_k}_{\alpha_j^*} + \underbrace{\beta(J-j)}_{\beta_j^*} x_i
\end{aligned}$$

NLMIXED & MLE

```
title'Adjacent Categories (MLE)';
proc nlmixed data=gss;          * <— un-collapsed data;
 parms a1=0.1 a2=0.1 br=0.1 bt=0.1;
/* Linear predictors */
 eta1 = a1 + br*(3-1)*race + bt*(3-1)*trauma;
 eta2 = a2 + br*(3-2)*race + bt*(3-2)*trauma;
/* Define likelihood */
 if happy=1 then prob= exp(eta1)/(1 + exp(eta1) + exp(eta2));
 if happy=2 then prob= exp(eta2)/(1 + exp(eta1) + exp(eta2));
 if happy=3 then prob= 1 /(1 + exp(eta1) + exp(eta2));
/* To make sure that probabilities are valid ones */
 p = (prob>0 and prob<=1)*prob + (prob<=0)*1e-8 + (prob>1);
 loglike = log(p);
/* Specify distribution for response variable */
 model happy ~ general(loglike);
```

Comparison of WLS & MLE

Weighted Least Squares Estimates from CATMOD

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	-1.1148	0.3698	9.09	0.0026
_RESPONSE_1	1.7341	0.3056	32.20	<.0001
race	1.7317	0.8031	4.65	0.0311
trauma	0.2053	0.1876	1.20	0.2740

MLE from NLMIXED

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	df	t	$Pr > \|t\|$
a1	2.5315	0.7464	23	3.39	0.0025
a2	3.0276	0.5740	23	5.27	<.0001
br	-1.8424	0.6419	23	-2.87	0.0087
bt	-0.3570	0.1640	23	-2.18	0.0400

R: vglm

```
summary(adj.cat1 ← vglm(happy ∼ race + trauma, data=gss,
                    family=acat(parallel=TRUE, reverse=TRUE)))
# odds ratio for race (see notes for interpretation)
exp(1.8423)
# odds ratio for number of traumatic events
exp(.3570)
# Relax assumption on equality of slopes summary(adj.cat2 ←
vglm(happy∼ race + trauma, data=gss,
                    family=acat(parallel=FALSE, reverse=TRUE)))
# Difference in deviances
lr ← 148.1996 - 146.8737
df ← 190-188
1-pchisq(lr,df)
```

Adjacent Categories or Proportional Odds Model?

(from Agresti, 2013)

- Both tend to fit (or not) for a particular data set.
- If prefer effects to refer to individual categories, use adjacent categories.
- If want to use entire scale for each logit or hypothesize underlying continuous latent variable, use proportional odds model.
- Effects for proportional odds tend to be larger because whole scale is used.
- Proportional odds models not effected by choice and number of response categories.
- Adjacent is more general than proportional odds model—if replace β by β_j in the adjacent model, cumulative probabilities will be in correct order—this isn't true for the partial proportional odds model.

Adjacent Categories for Ordered Grouped Data

- Recall... General Social Survey (1994) data from before.
  - Item 1: A working mother can establish just as warm and secure of a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.
  - Item 2: Working women should have paid maternity leave.
- When using $u_i = i$ and $v_j = j$ as scores and fitting the independence log-linear model and the uniform association model

$$\log(\mu_{ij}) = \lambda + \lambda_i^I + \lambda_j^{II} + \beta ij$$

- Results from model fitting

Model/Test	df	G^2	p	Estimates
Independence	12	44.96	$< .001$	
Uniform Assoc	11	8.67	$.65$	$\hat{\beta} = .24$, $ASE = .0412$

Adjacent Categories for Ordered Grouped Data

Suppose that we consider item 2 as the response variable and model adjacent category logits with the restriction that $\beta_j = \beta =$ a constant.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log\left(\frac{\mu_{i(j+1)}}{\mu_{ij}}\right) &= \lambda + \lambda_i^I + \lambda_{j+1}^{II} + \beta i(j+1) \\
&\quad -(\lambda + \lambda_i^I + \lambda_j^{II} + \beta ij) \\
&= (\lambda_{j+1}^{II} - \lambda_j^{II}) + \beta(ij + i - ij) \\
&= \alpha_j^* + \beta i
\end{aligned}
$$

So the estimated local odds ratio equals (and the effect of response on item 1 on item 2 for adjacent categories)

$$e^{\hat{\beta}} = e^{.24} = 1.28$$

Continuation–ratios Logit

In this approach, the order of the categories of the response variable is used to form $(J-1)$ logits as follows:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_1}{\pi_2}\right), \log\left(\frac{\pi_1+\pi_2}{\pi_3}\right), \ldots, \log\left(\frac{\pi_1+\ldots+\pi_{J-1}}{\pi_J}\right)$$

or

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_1}{\pi_2+\ldots+\pi_J}\right), \log\left(\frac{\pi_2}{\pi_3+\ldots+\pi_J}\right), \ldots, \log\left(\frac{\pi_{J-1}}{\pi_J}\right)$$

These are called "continuation–ratio logits"

.

Continuation–ratios Logit

- Just apply regular binary logistic regression to each one.
- The fitting is separate (no restrictions on parameters across the logits).
- The sum of the separate df and G^2 provide an overall global goodness of fit test and measure.

Example

NYLS Example from Powers & Xie (2000) *Statistical Methods for Categorical Data Analysis* (1st edition). page 236=238.
$n = 978$ of 20-22 year old men from NYLS.

Race	Father's education	Employment Status: In school 1	Working 2	Inactive 3
White/other	≤ 12 yr	204	195	131
Black	≤ 12 yr	100	53	67
White/other	> 12 yr	78	90	28
Black	> 12 yr	18	5	9

Best baseling/mulitnomial model was (R,F).

Example

Logit Model	P(School) vs P(Working) df	G^2	p	P(School or Working) vs P(Not Working) df	G^2	p
null	3	19.1576	$< .01$	3	16.5575	$< .01$
(F)	2	17.8385	$< .01$	2	9.7941	$< .01$
(R)	2	2.6484	$.27$	2	6.0043	$.05$
(F,R)	1	2.3879	$.12$	1	1.3512	$.25$

- Test between (R) and (F,R), $G^2((R)|(F,R)) = 6.0043 - 1.3512 = 4.6531$, $df = 1$, $p = .03$.
- Total: $G^2 = 2.3879 + 1.3512 = 3.7391$, $df = 3$, $p = .29$
- Only Race is needed for P(School)/P(Working).
- Father's education and race needed for P(School or Working)/P(Inactive).

Recommendation

The overriding determinate of which model you should reflect the goals of the analysis and that the model fits the data well.

e.g., Buki, Jamison, Anderson & Curdera (2007). Predictors of mammography and pap smear screening in Latina women. *Cancer, 110*, 1578-1585.

Research Questions:

- What predicts whether a woman has even been screened?
- Among those who have ever been screened, what predicts whether screening is up to date?

What model should (did) we use?