

Multinomial Regression with R

- ▶ The ratio of the probability of choosing one outcome category over the probability of choosing the baseline category is often referred as relative risk (and it is also sometimes referred as odds as we have just used to described the regression parameters above).
- ▶ The relative risk is the right-hand side linear equation exponentiated, leading to the fact that the exponentiated regression coefficients are relative risk ratios for a unit change in the predictor variable.
- ▶ We can exponentiate the coefficients from our model to see these risk ratios.

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extract the coefficients from the model and
exponentiate

```
exp(coef(test))
```

	(Intercept)	sesmiddle	seshigh	wri
general	17.33	0.5867	0.3126	0.94
vocation	184.61	1.3383	0.3743	0.89

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- ▶ The relative risk ratio for a one-unit increase in the variable write is .9437 for being in general program vs. academic program.
- ▶ The relative risk ratio switching from $\text{ses} = 1$ to 3 is .3126 for being in general program vs. academic program.

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- ▶ You can also use predicted probabilities to help you understand the model.
- ▶ You can calculate predicted probabilities for each of our outcome levels using the fitted function.
- ▶ We can start by generating the predicted probabilities for the observations in our dataset and viewing the first few rows

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```
head(pp <- fitted(test))
```

	academic	general	vocation
1	0.1483	0.3382	0.5135
2	0.1202	0.1806	0.6992
3	0.4187	0.2368	0.3445
4	0.1727	0.3508	0.4765
5	0.1001	0.1689	0.7309
6	0.3534	0.2378	0.4088

Next, if we want to examine the changes in predicted probability associated with one of our two variables, we can create small datasets varying one

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```
dses <- data.frame(ses = c("low", "middle", "high"),  
  predict(test, newdata = dses, "probs")
```

	academic	general	vocation
1	0.4397	0.3582	0.2021
2	0.4777	0.2283	0.2939
3	0.7009	0.1785	0.1206

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Another way to understand the model using the predicted probabilities is to look at the averaged predicted probabilities for different values of the continuous predictor variable write within each level of ses.

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```
dwrite <- data.frame(ses = rep(c("low", "middle", "high"),  
                               3))
```

```
store the predicted probabilities for each variable  
pp.write <- cbind(dwrite, predict(test, newdata = dwrite,
```


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calculate the mean probabilities within each level of
ses

```
by(pp.write[, 3:5], pp.write$ses, colMeans)
```

```
pp.write$ses: high
```

academic	general	vocation
0.6164	0.1808	0.2028

```
pp.write$ses: low
```

academic	general	vocation
0.3973	0.3278	0.2749

```
pp.write$ses: middle
```

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- ▶ Sometimes, a couple of plots can convey a good deal amount of information.
- ▶ Using the predictions we generated for the `pp.write` object above, we can plot the predicted probabilities against the writing score by the level of `ses` for different levels of the outcome variable.

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melt data set to long for ggplot2

```
lpp <- melt(pp.write, id.vars = c("ses", "write"))  
head(lpp) # view first few rows
```

	ses	write	variable	probability
1	low	30	academic	0.09844
2	low	31	academic	0.10717
3	low	32	academic	0.11650
4	low	33	academic	0.12646
5	low	34	academic	0.13705
6	low	35	academic	0.14828

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plot predicted probabilities across write values for
each level of ses faceted by program type

```
ggplot(lpp, aes(x = write, y = probability, color =  
  ., scales = "free"))
```

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Things to consider

- ▶ The Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA) assumption: Roughly, the IIA assumption means that adding or deleting alternative outcome categories does not affect the odds among the remaining outcomes. There are alternative modeling methods, such as alternative-specific multinomial probit model, or nested logit model to relax the IIA assumption.
- ▶ Diagnostics and model fit: Unlike logistic regression where there are many statistics for performing model diagnostics, it is not as straightforward to do diagnostics with

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Things to consider

- ▶ Complete or quasi-complete separation:
Complete separation means that the outcome variable separate a predictor variable completely, leading perfect prediction by the predictor variable.
- ▶ Perfect prediction means that only one value of a predictor variable is associated with only one value of the response variable. But you can tell from the output of the regression coefficients that something is wrong. You can then do a two-way tabulation of the outcome variable with the problematic variable to confirm this and