- The ratio of the probability of choosing one outcome category over the probability of choosing the baseline category is often referred as relative risk
- It is also sometimes referred as odds

- ► 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 (next slide).

Extract the coefficients from the model then and exponentiate

```
exp(coef(test))

(Intercept) sesmiddle seshigh write general 17.33 0.5867 0.3126 0.9437 vocation 184.61 1.3383 0.3743 0.8926
```

- ► The relative risk ratio for a one-unit increase in the variable **write** is 0.9437 for being in general program vs. academic program.
- ► The relative risk ratio switching from ses = 1 to 3 is 0.3126 for being in general program vs. academic program.

- 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

```
head(pp <- fitted(test))</pre>
```

```
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
```

Prediction

- Suppose we want to examine the changes in predicted probability associated with one of our two variables, we can create small datasets varying one variable while holding the other constant.
- We will first do this holding write at its mean and examining the predicted probabilities for each level of ses.
- Three Cases

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

```
academic general vocation
```

- 1 0.4397 0.3582 0.2021
- 2 0.4777 0.2283 0.2939
- 3 0.7009 0.1785 0.1206

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.

Store the predicted probabilities for each value of ses and write

```
dwrite <- data.frame(
  ses = rep(c("low", "middle", "high"), each = 41),
  write = rep(c(30:70), 3))

pp.write <- cbind(dwrite,
      predict(test, newdata = dwrite,
      type = "probs", se = TRUE))</pre>
```

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
academic general vocation
 0.4256 0.2011 0.3733
```

- ▶ 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.

```
remark: melt data set to long for ggplot2
lpp <- melt(pp.write, id.vars = c("ses", "write"),</pre>
           value.name = "probability")
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
```

each level of ses facetted by program type

ggplot(lpp aes(x = write y = probability o

plot predicted probabilities across write values for

- ► 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 multinomial logistic regression models.

Things to consider

- For the purpose of detecting outliers or influential data points, one can run separate logit models and use the diagnostics tools on each model.
- ► Sample size: Multinomial regression uses a maximum likelihood estimation method, it requires a large sample size. It also uses multiple equations. This implies that it requires an even larger sample size than ordinal or binary logistic regression.

Complete or quasi-complete separation: Complete separation means that the outcome variable separate a predictor variable completely, leading perfect prediction by the predictor variable.

Things to consider

 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 then rerun the model without the problematic variable.

Empty cells or small cells: You should check for empty or small cells by doing a cross-tabulation between categorical predictors and the outcome variable. If a cell has very few cases (a small cell), the model may become unstable or it might not even run at all.