

5 Multinomial logistic regression

This section provides guidance on a method that can be used to explore the association between a multiple-category outcome measure and other potentially explanatory variables. Multinomial logistic regression can offer us useful insights when we are working with longitudinal data and this section breaks down and discusses each of the key steps involved.

5.1 What is multinomial logistic regression?

Multinomial regression is an extension of logistic regression that is used when a categorical outcome variable has more than two values and predictor variables are continuous or categorical. We can use multinomial regression to predict which of two or more categories a person is likely to belong to, compared to a baseline (or reference) category and given certain other information. With our longitudinal data we can use multinomial logistic regression to test the probability of an event occurring (A) in later life compared to other potential outcomes (B, C), applying information gathered in earlier life. In order to make comparisons, we can use any of the events (A, B or C) as the baseline category.

5.2 Example research question: Is childhood intelligence related to normal/healthy body-mass index (BMI) compared to being overweight or obese in middle age?

In this regression, we will again explore the links between childhood intelligence and body mass index (BMI) at age 42, but this time we will categorise participants' BMI score into three groups: 'normal/healthy', 'overweight' and 'obese'. We are going to treat this variable as being nominal and so we will use a method called multinomial logistic regression that is appropriate for use with outcome variables with multiple categories.

In the next section, we will show you how to create the variable for use in the analysis.

5.3 Preparing the outcome variable: BMI categories

We will group the categories together based on the World Health Organisation (WHO) standards (http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro_3.htm). Few of the sample were underweight (n=54, <1%) so in this example they will be included in the normal or healthy category.

<i>Command</i>	<pre> gen BMI42_C = . replace BMI42_C = 1 if inrange(bmi42,14,24.99999) replace BMI42_C = 2 if inrange(bmi42,25,29.99999) replace BMI42_C = 3 if inrange(bmi42,30,52) label define BMI42_CL 1 "normal/healthy" 2 "overweight" 3 "obese", modify label values BMI42_C BMI42_CL </pre>
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Once we have created the variable, we can use the ‘**tab**’ command to look at the number of participants that fall into each BMI category .

<i>Command</i>	tab BMI42_C			
<i>Output</i>	BMI42_C	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
	normal/healthy	2,151	47.83	47.83
	overweight	1,664	37.00	84.83
	obese	682	15.17	100.00
	Total	4,497	100.00	

Just under half (48%) of our sample were normal or healthy weight, over a third (37%) were overweight and 15% were obese.

All of the predictor variables are the same as those used in the [general linear](#) and [logistic regression](#) sections. It is always important to explore the data before running statistical

models. To examine the data, please look at [exploring the data](#). If you have not done so already you will also need to construct a few of the explanatory variables before creating your regression model, see [main variables of interest](#).

5.4 Running the regression

In Stata, we use the **‘mlogit’** command to run a multinomial logistic regression. As with the [logistic regression method](#), the command produces untransformed beta coefficients (in log-odd units) along with their confidence intervals. (These are often difficult to interpret, so are sometimes converted into relative risk ratios. If we wanted to get the relative risk ratios we could add the **‘rrr’** option (**‘, rrr’**) to the **‘mlogit’** example below). With the **‘mlogit’** command, we also include the option **‘base’** to specify which category is the reference group. For our analysis, we will use ‘normal or healthy’ weight as the reference category.

In the first regression we run, there will only be one predictor variable, ‘general ability at age 11’ (*n920*), which is a continuous variable.

Command	mlogit BMI42_C n920, base(1)					
Output	Iteration 0: log likelihood = -4526.9851					
	Iteration 1: log likelihood = -4499.3001					
	Iteration 2: log likelihood = -4499.1205					
	Iteration 3: log likelihood = -4499.1205					
	Multinomial logistic regression			Number of obs = 4497		
				LR chi2(2) = 55.73		
				Prob > chi2 = 0.0000		
	Log likelihood = -4499.1205			Pseudo R2 = 0.0062		
	<hr/>					
		BMI42_C	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z
	normal_healthy	(base outcome)				
	overweight					
	n920	-.0080337	.0022092	-3.64	0.000	-.0123637 - .0037037
	_cons	.1221181	.1089746	1.12	0.262	-.0914682 .3357044
	obese					
	n920	-.0215579	.0029388	-7.34	0.000	-.0273178 - .015798
	_cons	-.1647579	.1379386	-1.19	0.232	-.4351126 .1055968

The iterations 0 through 3 listed in the top left-hand corner of the output above are the log likelihoods at each iteration of the maximum likelihood estimation. Iteration 0 is the log likelihood of the model with no predictors. When the difference between successive iterations is very small, the model has ‘converged’. The final iteration is the log likelihood of the fitted model. The log likelihood of the fitted model is -4499.12. The number itself does not have much meaning, but is used to make comparisons across the models and to identify if the reduced model fits significantly better than the full model. The overall model is statistically significant (chi-square = 55.73, $p < .001$ which means the model including aria-describedby="tt" class="glossaryLink" data-cmtooltip="General ability is a term used to describe cognitive ability, and is sometimes used as a proxy for intelligent quotient (IQ) scores.">general ability at age 11’ fits the data statistically significantly better than the model without it, i.e. a model with no predictors. The ‘pseudo R-squared’ value (*Pseudo R2*) gives a very general idea of the proportion of variance accounted for by the model, but it is just an approximation and not very reliable which is why we call it ‘pseudo’.

In the output above, we also get a tabulation of the coefficient, standard error, the z statistic, associated p-values and the 95% confidence intervals of the coefficients. This table is in two

parts, labelled with the categories of the outcome variable *BMI42_C*. In both outputs, 'general ability at age 11' (*n920*) is statistically significant. A 1 unit decrease in 'general ability' is associated with a 0.008 decrease in the relative log odds of being overweight compared to a normal/healthy weight, and a 0.022 decrease in the relative log odds of being obese compared to a normal/healthy weight.

In the next step, we will extend the model further to explore the influence of other variables on this association between general ability and the different categories of BMI.

5.5 Updating the regression model

5.5.1 Including potential confounding variables

In the next model, we will add a set of possible confounding variables to the regression: sex, parents' education and family social class. First, we will add sex where 0=Male and 1=Female. As explained in previous sections, this type of binary variable is also known as a dummy variable. In our analysis, the reference group will be 'male' (as this group is coded as 0). We are also going to include a few family background factors in the model: whether the cohort's mother (*n016nmed*) and father (*n716dade*) left school at the minimum age or not, and the social class of the study participant's father (*n1171_2*). Social class *n1171_2* has 5 categories: 'I/II Prof & Managerial', 'III Skilled non-manual', 'III Skilled manual', 'IV Partly skilled' and 'V unskilled'. With multi-category variables such as this, you can use the prefix of 'i.' in the variable name *i.n1171_2* and Stata will automatically create dummy variable(s) for each category. The first category 'I/II Prof & Managerial' will be treated as the reference category.

Command	mlogit BMI42_C n920 i.sex n016nmed n716dade i.n1171_2, base(1)							
Output	Iteration 0: log likelihood = -4526.9851 Iteration 1: log likelihood = -4374.7751 Iteration 2: log likelihood = -4374.4954 Iteration 3: log likelihood = -4374.4954							
	Multinomial logistic regression				Number of obs	=	4,497	
					LR chi2(16)	=	304.98	
					Prob > chi2	=	0.0000	
	Log likelihood = -4374.4954				Pseudo R2	=	0.0337	
		BMI42_C	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
		normal_healthy	(base outcome)					
		overweight						
		n920	-.0024719	.0024314	-1.02	0.309	-.0072374	.0022937
		sex						
	female	-.9530439	.0676005	-14.10	0.000	-1.085539	-.8205493	
	n016nmed	-.3151754	.0827246	-3.81	0.000	-.4773127	-.1530382	
	n716dade	-.0607015	.0868848	-0.70	0.485	-.2309926	.1095896	
	n1171_2							
	III Skilled non-manual	.1258947	.1204799	1.04	0.296	-.1102415	.3620309	
	III Skilled manual	.1509468	.0944926	1.60	0.110	-.0342552	.3361488	
	IV Partly skilled	.0949538	.1177955	0.81	0.420	-.1359212	.3258287	
	V unskilled	.2071978	.1748493	1.19	0.236	-.1355005	.549896	
	_cons	.3509449	.148248	2.37	0.018	.0603842	.6415056	
	obese							
	n920	-.0142966	.0031694	-4.51	0.000	-.0205085	-.0080846	
	sex							
	female	-.4200618	.0897764	-4.68	0.000	-.5960203	-.2441034	
	n016nmed	-.2687072	.1145065	-2.35	0.019	-.4931358	-.0442786	
	n716dade	-.1750389	.1221591	-1.43	0.152	-.4144663	.0643886	
	n1171_2							
	III Skilled non-manual	.0116868	.1792527	0.07	0.948	-.339642	.3630156	
	III Skilled manual	.3188583	.1313633	2.43	0.015	.061391	.5763256	
	IV Partly skilled	.3317233	.156482	2.12	0.034	.0250242	.6384225	
	V unskilled	.5060802	.2172254	2.33	0.020	.0803262	.9318342	
	_cons	-.3634021	.1962144	-1.85	0.064	-.7479753	.021171	

Interestingly in the output we can see that ‘general ability’ is significant in the ‘obese’ versus ‘normal/healthy’ BMI comparison, but not in the ‘overweight’ versus ‘normal/healthy’ BMI comparison after controlling for all the other predictors. A 1 unit decrease in ‘general ability’ test score is associated with a .014 increase in the relative log odds of being obese v normal/healthy BMI at age 42. Father’s social class also predicts obesity; it is associated with the odds of the study participant being overweight compared to normal/healthy BMI in the study participant. Males (compared to females) and participants whose mothers left

education at the minimum age were more likely to be overweight or obese compared to normal/healthy BMI.

5.5.2 Including a childhood measure of BMI

For our final model, we are going to include *bmi11*, the BMI of the participant when they were aged 11. Doing so means that we will be adjusting for participant's baseline BMI, and that will allow us to focus on the subsequent change in BMI from age 11 to age 42, and therefore to measure both BMI and general ability over a comparable period, from childhood to middle age.

Command	mlogit BMI42_C n920 i.sex n016nmed n716dade i.n1171_2 bmi11, base(1)								
Output	Iteration 0: log likelihood = -4526.9851								
	Iteration 1: log likelihood = -4033.6693								
	Iteration 2: log likelihood = -3991.7248								
	Iteration 3: log likelihood = -3991.1008								
	Iteration 4: log likelihood = -3991.1006								
	Multinomial logistic regression								
	Number of obs = 4497								
	LR chi2(18) = 1071.77								
	Prob > chi2 = 0.0000								
	Pseudo R2 = 0.1184								
	Log likelihood = -3991.1006								
		BMI42_C	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]		
		normal_healthy	(base outcome)						
		overweight							
		n920	-.0039818	.0025077	-1.59	0.112	-.0088968	.0009333	
	sex								
	female	-1.070566	.0702184	-15.25	0.000	-1.208192	-.932941		
	n016nmed	-.2835888	.0850214	-3.34	0.001	-.4502277	-.11695		
	n716dade	-.0321597	.0893179	-0.36	0.719	-.2072196	.1429003		
	n1171_2								
	III Skilled non-manual	.1880709	.1239453	1.52	0.129	-.0548574	.4309992		
	III Skilled manual	.2095402	.097347	2.15	0.031	.0187437	.4003368		
	IV Partly skilled	.1312279	.1210964	1.08	0.279	-.1061166	.3685724		
	V unskilled	.2621817	.1791823	1.46	0.143	-.0890091	.6133726		
	bmi11	.2591989	.0175762	14.75	0.000	.2247503	.2936476		
	_cons	-4.004781	.3305199	-12.12	0.000	-4.652588	-3.356974		
	obese								
	n920	-.0172042	.0034883	-4.93	0.000	-.024041	-.0103673		
	sex								
	female	-.763342	.1003417	-7.61	0.000	-.9600081	-.5666759		
	n016nmed	-.1711971	.1259803	-1.36	0.174	-.4181139	.0757197		
	n716dade	-.0921214	.1335095	-0.69	0.490	-.3537953	.1695525		
	n1171_2								
	III Skilled non-manual	.1986026	.194555	1.02	0.307	-.1827181	.5799234		
	III Skilled manual	.4516593	.1446866	3.12	0.002	.1680788	.7352399		
	IV Partly skilled	.4600025	.1726833	2.66	0.008	.1215494	.7984555		
	V unskilled	.6980658	.239024	2.92	0.003	.2295875	1.166544		
	bmi11	.5077231	.0212067	23.94	0.000	.4661587	.5492876		
	_cons	-9.25069	.427725	-21.63	0.000	-10.08902	-8.412365		

In the output above, we can see that after controlling for BMI at age 11 ‘general ability’ is significant in the comparison of obese versus normal/healthy BMI, but not in the overweight versus normal/healthy BMI comparison. A 1 unit decrease in ‘general ability’ test score is associated with a .017 increase in the relative log odds of being obese versus normal/healthy BMI at age 42. Lower parental social class, compared to professional and managerial is also important. In addition, as in the previous model, males are more likely than females to be

either overweight or obese than to have a normal/healthy BMI.

5.6 Exploring predictors' influence and predicted probabilities on the outcome

5.6.1 Testing the influence of a categorical variable

The above results suggest that there are differences in the association of family background (education and social class) with obesity and being overweight compared to normal/healthy BMI. We can test these formally, by examining the overall effect of mother's education using the **'test'** command.

<i>Command</i>	<pre>test [overweight]n016nmed = [obese]n016nmed</pre>
<i>Output</i>	<pre>(1) [overweight]n016nmed - [obese]n016nmed = 0 chi2(1) = 0.80 Prob > chi2 = 0.3711</pre>

We can see that there is no significant difference between the association of when the participant's mother left education and the participant's own BMI in later life.

We can also test the overall influence of fathers social class using the **'test'** command.

Command	test 2.n1171_2 3.n1171_2 4.n1171_2 5.n1171_2
Output	<pre> (1) [normal_healthy]2o.n1171_2 = 0 (2) [overweight]2.n1171_2 = 0 (3) [obese]2.n1171_2 = 0 (4) [normal_healthy]3o.n1171_2 = 0 (5) [overweight]3.n1171_2 = 0 (6) [obese]3.n1171_2 = 0 (7) [normal_healthy]4o.n1171_2 = 0 (8) [overweight]4.n1171_2 = 0 (9) [obese]4.n1171_2 = 0 (10) [normal_healthy]5o.n1171_2 = 0 (11) [overweight]5.n1171_2 = 0 (12) [obese]5.n1171_2 = 0 Constraint 1 dropped Constraint 4 dropped Constraint 7 dropped Constraint 10 dropped chi2(8) = 15.79 Prob > chi2 = 0.0455 </pre>

Here we see the overall influence of father’s social class on BMI category is statistically significant (chi-square = 15.79, $p < 0.05$). (NB the commands 1,4,7 and 10 are constrained as they are the baseline reference category, i.e. normal/healthy weight).

5.6.2 Testing predicted probabilities of our explanatory variable of interest on our outcome variable

Focusing on our predictor of interest ‘general ability’, we can use predicted probabilities to help understand the relationship between ‘general ability’ and obesity, overweight and normal/healthy BMI in the model. In this example we want to calculate the predicted probability of the three BMI categories for a given score on the ‘general ability’ test. Predicted probabilities can be calculated using the ‘**margins**’ command. We create the predicted probabilities for values of the ‘general ability’ test ($n920$ which ranges from 0 to 79) from 10 to 80 in increments of 10. The values in the table are the average predicted probabilities calculated using the sample values of other predictor variables. The example below shows the predicted probability for healthy BMI given the ‘general ability’ test score.

Command	margins, at(n920=(10(10)80)) predict(outcome(1)) vsquish					
Output	Predictive margins			Number of obs	=	4497
	Model VCE : OIM					
	Expression : Pr(BMI42_C==normal_healthy), predict(outcome(1))					
	1._at	: n920	=	10		
	2._at	: n920	=	20		
	3._at	: n920	=	30		
	4._at	: n920	=	40		
	5._at	: n920	=	50		
	6._at	: n920	=	60		
	7._at	: n920	=	70		
	8._at	: n920	=	80		
			Delta-method			
		Margin	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
	_at					
	1	.4205484	.0192639	21.83	0.000	.3827919 .4583049
2	.4371663	.0148733	29.39	0.000	.4080151 .4663175	
3	.4532692	.0107853	42.03	0.000	.4321304 .474408	
4	.4688456	.007659	61.22	0.000	.4538343 .4838569	
5	.4838923	.0070662	68.48	0.000	.4700429 .4977418	
6	.4984135	.0095565	52.15	0.000	.4796832 .5171439	
7	.5124191	.0135473	37.82	0.000	.485867 .5389713	
8	.5259237	.0180749	29.10	0.000	.4904976 .5613498	

The first part of the output tells us which row is associated with which ‘general ability’ test score. Row 1 (*Expression = 1._at*) relates to a test score of 10, while row 8 equal to a test score of 80. As the test score at age 11 increases, the probability of a healthy BMI at age 42 being a 1 is increasing from a probability of 0.421 to 0.526.

5.6.3 Plotting the predicted probabilities

We can use the ‘**marginsplot**’ command to create a graph of the predicted probabilities and their confidence intervals for each of the BMI categories. We can also combine those graphs using the command ‘**graph combine**’. This last command has the option ‘**ycommon**’ which we will use to ensure the combined graphs have the same y axis.

<i>Command</i>	<pre> margins, at(n920=(10(10)80)) predict(outcome(1)) vsquish marginsplot, name(healthy) margins, at(n920=(10(10)80)) predict(outcome(2)) vsquish marginsplot, name(overweight) margins, at(n920=(10(10)80)) predict(outcome(3)) vsquish marginsplot, name(obese) graph combine healthy overweight obese, ycommon </pre>
<i>Output</i>	<p>The output consists of three line graphs arranged in a 2x2 grid (the bottom-right cell is empty). Each graph plots the predicted probability of a specific BMI category at age 42 against the '2T Total score on general ability test, CM age 11' (ranging from 10 to 80). The y-axis for all graphs ranges from 0.1 to 0.6. Each data point includes a vertical error bar representing the 95% confidence interval.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Top Left Graph (Healthy): The y-axis is labeled 'Pr(Bmi42_C==Normal_Healthy)'. The probability increases from approximately 0.42 at a score of 10 to 0.52 at a score of 80. Top Right Graph (Overweight): The y-axis is labeled 'Pr(Bmi42_C==Overweight)'. The probability remains relatively flat, starting at approximately 0.36 and ending at 0.37. Bottom Left Graph (Obese): The y-axis is labeled 'Pr(Bmi42_C==Obese)'. The probability decreases from approximately 0.22 at a score of 10 to 0.10 at a score of 80.

The predicted probability of a normal weight (top left graph), overweight (top right graph) or obesity (bottom left graph) at age 42 is on the Y axis and the ‘general ability’ test score at age 11 is on the X axis. The fitted line increases from left to right, is flat and decreases from left to right for normal weight, overweight and obesity respectively as general ability scores increase.

Suggested citation: Moulton, V., O'Neill, D., Park, A. & Ploubidis, G.B. (2020). *Regression analysis of longitudinal data*. CLOSER Learning Hub, London, UK: CLOSER

5.7 Regression diagnostics

When modelling a categorical outcome variable, unlike in linear regression there are no typically agreed statistical tests that can be used in the diagnostic process. However, you can find out more from the following sources:

- Menard, S. (2010). *Logistic regression: From introductory to advanced concepts and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Hilbe, J.M. (2009). *Logistic regression models*. Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC.
- Hosmer, D.W. & Lemeshow, S. (2000). *Applied logistic regression* (2nd edition). New York, NY: Wiley.

If the purpose of the analysis is to investigate repeated measures over time for example BMI at a number of different time points, the analysis should account for the clustered nature of the data, i.e. allow that measurements within individuals be correlated. Therefore, general linear, logistic and multinomial regression models may not be the most appropriate methods when analysing this type of longitudinal data. We will be adding new sections soon that will illustrate a number of methods that can be applied when analysing repeated measures data.