Beta regression modeling: recent advances in theory and applications

Silvia L. P. Ferrari

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13ª Escola de Modelos de Regressão - Maresias - SP



Data measured in a continuous scale and restricted to the unit interval, i.e. 0 < y < 1:

- percentages,
- proportions,
- fractions,
- rates.



Examples

- percentage of time devoted to an activity;
- fraction of income spent on food;
- unemployment rate, poverty rate, etc.;
- math score, reading score, etc.;
- Gini's index:
- fraction of "good cholesterol" (HDL/total cholesterol);
- proportion of sand in the soil;
- fraction of surface covered by vegetation.

More later...



Limited range variables usually display:

- heteroskedasticity (the variance is smaller near the extremes);
- asymmetry.

A possible solution for regression analysis is to employ a transformation in the response, and use normality assumption. For example, $\tilde{y} = \log[y/(1-y)]$.

Drawbacks:

- difficult to correct for both heteroskedasticity and asymmetry;
- the model parameters cannot be easily interpreted in terms of the original response.



It is more appropriate to use a regression model that assumes that the response variable follows a continuous distribution with support in (0,1). Example: Beta regression.

Beta regression models employ a parameterization of the beta distribution in terms of its mean and a precision (or dispersion) parameter.

Simple beta regression models are similar to generalized linear models.

Some early references: Paolino (2001); Kieschnick & McCullough (2003); Ferrari & Cribari–Neto (2004); Cepeda & Gamerman (2005).



Beta regression models

Beta density:

$$f(y; \mu, \phi) = \frac{\Gamma(\phi)}{\Gamma(\mu\phi)\Gamma((1-\mu)\phi)} y^{\mu\phi-1} (1-y)^{(1-\mu)\phi-1}, \quad 0 < y < 1,$$

where $0 < \mu < 1$ and $\phi > 0$. Note that

$$E(y) = \mu$$

and

$$\operatorname{var}(y) = \frac{\mu(1-\mu)}{1+\phi}.$$

Hence, ϕ can be regarded as a precision parameter.

This is not the usual parameterization of the beta law, but is convenient for modeling purposes.

Beta regression models

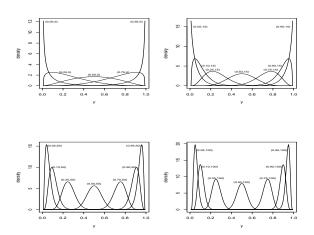


Figure 1. Beta densities for different combinations of (μ, ϕ) .



Ref.: Ferrari & Cribari-Neto (2004)

- \triangleright y_1, \ldots, y_n : independent r.v.;
- ▶ y_t , t = 1,...,n, follow a **beta distribution** with **mean** μ_t and unknown **precision** ϕ , i.e. $y_t \sim \text{Beta}(\mu_t, \phi)$;
- ▶ $g(\cdot)$: strictly monotone and twice differentiable **link function** that maps (0, 1) to \mathbb{R} .
- ▶ $\beta = (\beta_1, ..., \beta_k)^T \in \mathbb{R}$ is a vector of unknown regression parameters;
- $ightharpoonup x_{t1}, \ldots, x_{tk}$ are observations on k covariates (k < n).



Some possible link functions:

- 1. Logit: $g(\mu) = \log[\mu/(1-\mu)];$ 2. Probit: $g(\mu) = \Phi^{-1}(\mu);$ 3. Complimentary log-log: $g(\mu) = \log[-\log(1-\mu)];$ 4. Log-log: $g(\mu) = -\log[-\log(\mu)];$ 5. Cauchit: $g(\mu) = \tan[\pi(\mu - 0.5)].$
- ► The link functions above are the inverse cumulative distribution functions (quantile functions) of well-known distributions (1. logistic, 2. standard normal, 3. minimum extreme value, 4. maximum extreme value, 5. Cauchy).
- For a discussion on link functions, see Ramalho, Ramalho & Murteira (2010).



Log-likelihood:

$$\ell(\beta,\phi) = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \ell_t(\mu_t,\phi),$$

where

$$\ell_t(\mu_t, \phi) = \log \Gamma(\phi) - \log \Gamma(\mu_t \phi) - \log \Gamma((1 - \mu_t) \phi) + (\mu_t \phi - 1) \log y_t + \{(1 - \mu_t) \phi - 1\} \log (1 - y_t).$$

Let

$$y_t^* = \log \frac{y_t}{1 - y_t}$$

and

$$\mu_t^* = \mathrm{E}(y_t^*) = \psi(\mu_t \phi) - \psi((1 - \mu_t)\phi).$$

Score function for β :

$$U_{\beta}(\beta,\phi) = \phi X^{T} T(y^* - \mu^*),$$

where X is an $n \times k$ matrix whose t-th row is x_t^{\top} ,

$$T = \text{diag}\{1/g'(\mu_1)...,1/g'(\mu_n)\},\$$

$$\mathbf{y}^* = (\mathbf{y}_1^*, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n^*)^{\! op}$$
 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}^* = (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^*, \dots, \boldsymbol{\mu}_n^*)^{\! op}$.

Score function for ϕ :

$$U_{\phi}(\beta,\phi) = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \{\mu_{t}(y_{t}^{*} - \mu_{t}^{*}) + \log(1 - y_{t}) - \psi((1 - \mu_{t})\phi) + \psi(\phi)\}.$$

Fisher information:

$$K = K(\beta, \phi) = \begin{pmatrix} K_{\beta\beta} & K_{\beta\phi} \\ K_{\phi\beta} & K_{\phi\phi} \end{pmatrix},$$
 where $K_{\beta\beta} = \phi X^T W X$, $K_{\beta\phi} = K_{\phi\beta}^T = X^T T c$, $K_{\phi\phi} = \operatorname{tr}(D)$,
$$W = \operatorname{diag}\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}, \ c = (c_1, \dots, c_n)^T \ \text{and} \ D = \operatorname{diag}\{d_1, \dots, d_n\},$$
 with
$$w_t = \phi \left\{ \psi'(\mu_t \phi) + \psi'((1 - \mu_t) \phi) \right\} \frac{1}{\{g'(\mu_t)\}^2},$$

$$c_t = \phi \left\{ \psi'(\mu_t \phi) \mu_t - \psi'((1 - \mu_t) \phi)(1 - \mu_t) \right\},$$

$$d_t = \psi'(\mu_t \phi) \mu_t^2 + \psi'((1 - \mu_t) \phi)(1 - \mu_t)^2 - \psi'(\phi).$$

 β and ϕ are not orthogonal.



In large samples,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \widehat{\beta} \\ \widehat{\phi} \end{pmatrix} \ \sim \ \mathcal{N}_{k+1} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \phi \end{pmatrix}, K^{-1} \right),$$

approximately, where $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\phi}$ are the MLEs of β and ϕ , and

$$K^{-1} = K^{-1}(\beta, \phi) = \begin{pmatrix} K^{\beta\beta} & K^{\beta\phi} \\ K^{\phi\beta} & K^{\phi\phi} \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$K^{\beta\beta} = \frac{1}{\phi} (X^{\top} W X)^{-1} \left\{ I_k + \frac{X^{\top} T c c^{\top} T^{\top} X (X^{\top} W X)^{-1}}{\gamma \phi} \right\},\,$$

with
$$\gamma = \operatorname{tr}(D) - \phi^{-1} c^{\mathsf{T}} T^{\mathsf{T}} X (X^{\mathsf{T}} W X)^{-1} X^{\mathsf{T}} T c$$
,

$$K^{\beta\phi} = (K^{\phi\beta})^{\mathsf{T}} = -\frac{1}{\gamma\phi}(X^{\mathsf{T}}WX)^{-1}X^{\mathsf{T}}Tc, \quad K^{\phi\phi} = \gamma^{-1}.$$



- MLEs: obtained numerically by maximizing the log-likelihood function.
- Ferrari & Cribari–Neto (2004) suggest reasonable initial estimates for β and ϕ .
- Also in Ferrari & Cribari–Neto (2004): some simple diagnostic tools and applications.
- R implementation of beta regression inference and diagnostics: betareg package (Cribari–Neto & Zeiles, 2010).
- A Bayesian approach to beta regression: Branscum, Johnson & Thurmond (2007).

More general beta regression models

- Varying dispersion beta regression models: the mean and the precision parameters are modeled through linear regression structures. Smithson & Verkuilen (2006).
- A general class of beta regression models: the mean and the precision parameters are modeled through linear or nonlinear regression structures. Simas, Barreto-Souza & Rocha (2010).
- Inflated beta regression models: allow zero and/or one occurrences by incorporating degenerate distributions to model the extreme values. Cook, Kieschnick, McCullough (2008), Ospina & Ferrari (2010, 2012a), Calabrese (2012).
- ▶ Truncated inflated beta regression models: allow truncation in a subset [c, 1] of the unit interval, and mass points at c, zero and one. Pereira, Botter & Sandoval (2011, 2013).

More general beta regression models

- Semi-parametric beta regression: Branscum, Jonhson & Thurmond (2007), Weihua et al (2012).
- ► Time series: Rydlewski (2007), Rocha & Cribari–Neto (2009), Billio & Casarin (2011), Casarin, Dalla Valle, Leisen (2012); da-Silva, Migon & Correia (2011), da-Silva & Migon (2012), Guolo & Varin (2012).
- ▶ Multivariate beta regression: Souza & Moura (2012a, 2012b)
- Mixed beta regression: Zimprich (2010), Verkuilen & Smithson (2012), Figueroa–Zúñiga, Arellano–Valle & Ferrari (2013), Bonat, Ribeiro Jr & Zeviani (2013).
- ► Errors-in-variables beta regression models: Carrasco, Ferrari, Arellano–Valle (2012) (more later).
- Beta rectangular regression models: Bayes, Bazán & García (2012).



Special topics in beta regression

▶ Diagnostics:

- Espinheira, Ferrari, Cribari–Neto (2008a, 2008b) and Chien (2011, 2012) [beta regression with constant precision]
- ► Ferrari, Espinheira & Cribari–Neto (2011), Rocha & Simas (2011) [varying dispersion/nonlinear beta regression models]
- Anholeto, Sandoval & Botter (2012) [beta regression with constant precision; adjusted residuals]
- Specification tests: Ramalho, Ramalho & Murteira (2010) [with review on models for fractional data], Pereira & Cribari–Neto (2013).
- Robust inference in varying dispersion beta regression: Cribari–Neto & Souza (2012).
- ▶ Optimal designs: Wu, Fedorov & Propert (2005).



Special topics in beta regression

- Consistency and asymptotic normality of MLEs: Rydlewski & Mielczarek (2012).
- Bias correction of MLEs:
 - Ospina, Cribari–Neto, Vasconcellos (2006) and Kosmidis & Firth (2010) [beta regression with constant precision]
 - ► Simas, Barreto-Souza & Rocha (2010) [general beta regression]
 - Ospina & Ferrari (2012b) [inflated beta regression]
- Size-corrected tests:
 - Ferrari & Pinheiro (2011) [general beta regression; Skovgaard's adjustment]
 - Bayer & Cribari–Neto (2012) [simple beta regression; Bartlett correction]
 - Cribari–Neto & Queiroz (2012) [varying dispersion beta regression;
 Skovgaard, bootstrap, comparison among various tests]
 - ► Pereira & Cribari–Neto (2012) [inflated beta regression; Skovgaard]



Ref.: Carrasco, Ferrari, Arellano-Valle (2012)

- $y_t \sim \text{Beta}(\mu_t, \phi_t)$, for t = 1, ..., n;
- mean and precision submodels:

$$g(\mu_t) = \mathbf{z}_t^{\top} \boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{x}_t^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}, \tag{1}$$

$$h(\phi_t) = \mathbf{v}_t^{\top} \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \mathbf{m}_t^{\top} \boldsymbol{\lambda};$$
 (2)

- $m{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^{p_{\alpha}}, \, m{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^{p_{\beta}}, \, m{\gamma} \in \mathbb{R}^{p_{\gamma}}, \, m{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^{p_{\lambda}}$ are column vectors of unknown parameters;
- ▶ $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_{t1}, \dots, x_{tp_\beta})^\top$ and $\mathbf{m}_t = (m_{t1}, \dots, m_{tp_\lambda})^\top$ are unobservable (observed with error) covariates;
- the vectors of covariates measured without error, z_t and v_t, may contain variables in common, and likewise, x_t and m_t.
- \blacktriangleright given the covariates, y_1, \ldots, y_n are assumed to be independent.



- ▶ **s**_t: vector containing all the unobservable covariates;
- **w**_t is observed in place of \mathbf{s}_t ;
- it is assumed that

$$\mathbf{W}_t = \boldsymbol{\tau}_0 + \boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \circ \mathbf{S}_t + \mathbf{e}_t, \tag{3}$$

where \mathbf{e}_t is a vector of random errors, τ_0 and τ_1 are (possibly unknown) parameter vectors and \circ is the element-wise product;

- $ightharpoonup au_0$ and au_1 : additive and multiplicative biases of the measurement error mechanism, respectively;
- ▶ classical additive model: $\mathbf{w}_t = \mathbf{s}_t + \mathbf{e}_t$;
- we follow the structural approach; the unobservable covariates are regarded as random variables;
- we assume that $\mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_n$ are iid;
- ▶ it is assumed that they are independent of the measurement errors e₁,...,e_n;
- ▶ the normality assumption for the joint distribution of s_t and e_t is assumed;
- **>** parameters of the joint distribution of \mathbf{w}_t and \mathbf{s}_t : δ .

- $(y_1, \mathbf{w}_1), \dots, (y_n, \mathbf{w}_n)$: observable variables.
- ▶ We omit the observable vectors \mathbf{z}_t and \mathbf{v}_t in the notation as they are non-random and known.
- ► The joint density of (y_t, w_t) is obtained by integrating the joint density of the complete data (y_t, w_t, s_t),

$$f(y_t, \mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \theta, \delta) = f(y_t | \mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \theta) f(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{w}_t; \delta),$$

with respect to \mathbf{s}_t .

- $\theta = (\alpha^{\top}, \beta^{\top}, \gamma^{\top}, \lambda^{\top})^{\top}$ represents the parameter of interest, and δ is the nuisance parameter.
- ▶ The joint density associated to the measurement error model, $f(\mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \delta)$, can be written as $f(\mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \delta) = f(\mathbf{w}_t | \mathbf{s}_t; \delta) f(\mathbf{s}_t | \delta)$ as well as $f(\mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \delta) = f(\mathbf{s}_t | \mathbf{w}_t; \delta) f(\mathbf{w}_t | \delta)$.



- ▶ We assume that, given the true (unobservable) covariates \mathbf{s}_t , the response variable y_t does not depend on the surrogate covariates \mathbf{w}_t ; i.e. $f(y_t|\mathbf{w}_t,\mathbf{s}_t;\theta) = f(y_t|\mathbf{s}_t;\theta)$.
- ▶ The density function of (y_t, \mathbf{w}_t) is given by

$$f(y_t, \mathbf{w}_t; \theta, \delta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_t, \mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \theta, \delta) d\mathbf{s}_t,$$

=
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_t | \mathbf{s}_t; \theta) f(\mathbf{w}_t, \mathbf{s}_t; \delta) d\mathbf{s}_t.$$

Log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\delta}) = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \log \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{t}|\mathbf{s}_{t}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) f(\mathbf{s}_{t}|\mathbf{w}_{t}; \boldsymbol{\delta}) f(\mathbf{w}_{t}; \boldsymbol{\delta}) d\mathbf{s}_{t},$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{n} \log f(\mathbf{w}_{t}; \boldsymbol{\delta}) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{t}|\mathbf{s}_{t}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) f(\mathbf{s}_{t}|\mathbf{w}_{t}; \boldsymbol{\delta}) d\mathbf{s}_{t}.$$

- ▶ The likelihood function involves analytically intractable integrals.
- Approximate inference methods needed.



In order to facilitate the description of the estimation methods, we consider the following model:

$$\begin{aligned} y_t | x_t, x_t &\sim \text{Beta}(\mu_t, \phi_t), \\ g(\mu_t) &= \mathbf{z}_t^{\top} \alpha + x_t \beta, \quad h(\phi_t) = \mathbf{v}_t^{\top} \gamma + x_t \lambda, \\ w_t &= \tau_0 + \tau_1 x_t + e_t, \quad x_t \overset{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2), \quad e_t \overset{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma_e^2), \end{aligned}$$

with x_t and $e_{t'}$, for $t,t'=1,\ldots,n$, being independent. The unknown parameter vectors α and γ were defined above, and $\beta\in\mathbb{R},\,\lambda\in\mathbb{R},\,\mu_{x}\in\mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma_{x}^{2}>0$ are unknown parameters.

We have

$$\mathbf{w}_t \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \mathbf{N}(\tau_0 + \tau_1 \mu_{\mathbf{x}}, \tau_1^2 \sigma_{\mathbf{x}}^2 + \sigma_{\mathbf{e}}^2), \quad \mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{w}_t \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \mathbf{N}(\mu_{\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{w}_t}, \sigma_{\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{w}_t}^2),$$

where

$$\mu_{x_t|w_t} = \mu_x + k_x [w_t - (\tau_0 + \tau_1 \mu_x)], \ \ \sigma_{x_t|w_t}^2 = \sigma_e^2 k_x / \tau_1,$$

with $k_x = \tau_1 \sigma_x^2/(\tau_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_e^2)$ being known as the reliability ratio.

To avoid non-identifiability of parameters we assume that $(\tau_0, \tau_1, \sigma_e^2)$ or (τ_0, τ_1, k_x) are either known parameters or they are estimated from supplementary information, typically replicate measurements or partial observation of the error-free covariate.

In any case, either of these vectors are regarded as known quantities in the inferential procedure. Hence, the nuisance parameter vector is $\boldsymbol{\delta} = (\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)^{\top}$.



Log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\delta}) = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \ell_{1t}(\boldsymbol{\delta}) + \sum_{t=1}^{n} \ell_{2t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\delta}),$$

where

$$\ell_{1t}(\delta) = -\frac{1}{2} \log[2\pi(\tau_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_e^2)] - \frac{[w_t - (\tau_0 + \tau_1 \mu_x)]^2}{2(\tau_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_e^2)},$$

$$\ell_{2t}(\theta, \delta) = \log \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_t | x_t; \theta) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \sigma_{x_t|w_t}^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x_t - \mu_{x_t|w_t})^2}{2\sigma_{x_t|w_t}^2}\right] dx_t.$$

Carrasco, Ferrari & Arellano–Valle present three estimation methods:

- Approximate maximum likelihood
 - $\ell_{2t}(\theta, \delta)$ is approximated using the Gauss-Hermite quadrature, resulting in an approximate log-likelihood function, $\ell_a(\theta, \delta)$;
 - ▶ the estimator of $(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top}, \boldsymbol{\delta}^{\top})^{\top}$, $(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\top}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}^{\top})^{\top}$ say, is obtained by solving the system of equations $\partial \ell_a(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\delta})/\partial \boldsymbol{\theta} = 0$;
 - for n and Q (the number of quadrature points) sufficiently large, $(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\top}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}^{\top})^{\top}$ is approximately normally distributed with mean $(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top}, \boldsymbol{\delta}^{\top})^{\top}$ and covariance matrix $\mathbf{J}_a^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\delta})$, where

$$\mathbf{J}_{a}(\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{\delta}) = -\frac{\partial^{2}\ell_{a}(\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{\delta})}{\partial(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top},\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\top})^{\top}\partial(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top},\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\top})}$$

Guolo (2011);

• for computational implementation, the derivatives of $\ell_a(\theta, \delta)$ with respect to the parameters can be analytically obtained or numerical derivatives can be used.



- Approximate maximum pseudo-likelihood
 - ightharpoonup The nuisance parameter vector δ is estimated by maximizing the reduced log-likelihood function

$$\ell_r(\boldsymbol{\delta}) = \sum_{t=1}^n \ell_{1t}(\boldsymbol{\delta}).$$

▶ The estimate of δ , $\widehat{\delta}$, is inserted in the original log-likelihood function, which results in the pseudo-log-likelihood function

$$\ell_{\rho}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}) = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \ell_{1t}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}) + \sum_{t=1}^{n} \ell_{2t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\delta}}).$$

- ► The second term in $\ell_p(\theta; \hat{\delta})$ is analytically intractable. Unlike the integral in $\ell(\theta, \delta)$, the integral in $\ell_p(\theta; \hat{\delta})$ depends on the parameter of interest only.
- $\ell_{2t}(\theta, \hat{\delta})$ is approximated using the Gauss-Hermite quadrature.
- ► Carrasco, Ferrari & Arellano–Valle (2012) present the limiting distribution of $\hat{\theta}$, the resulting estimator of θ .



Regression calibration estimation

- ▶ Idea: replace the unobservable variable, x_t , by an estimate of $E(x_t|w_t)$ in the likelihood function.
- ▶ $E(x_t|w_t) = \mu_{x_t|w_t}$ (calibration function).
- ▶ $\overline{w} = \sum_{t=1}^{n} w_t/n$ and $s_w^2 = \sum_{t=1}^{n} (w_t \overline{w})^2/(n-1)$ are optimal estimates of $\tau_0 + \tau_1 \mu_x$ and $\tau_1^2 \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_e^2$, respectively.
- These estimates can be used to estimate the calibration function.
- By inserting the estimated calibration function in the conditional density function of y_t given x_t , we obtain a modified log-likelihood function, $\ell_{rc}(\theta)$, which equals the log-likelihood function for a beta regression model without errors in covariates and with x_t replaced by \widetilde{x}_t , the estimated calibration function.
- ▶ The regression calibration estimate of θ is obtained from the system of equations $\partial \ell_{rc}(\theta)/\partial \theta = 0$, which requires a numerical algorithm; e.g. betareg package.
- Numerical evidence indicates that the regression calibration estimator is not consistent.



Simulation

- ▶ Mean submodel: $\log(\mu_t/(1-\mu_t)) = \alpha + \beta x_t$.
- ▶ Precision submodels: $\log(\phi_t) = \gamma$ (constant precision model) and $\log(\phi_t) = \gamma + \lambda x_t$ (varying precision model).
- ▶ Parameter values: α =2.0, β = −0.6, λ = 0.5, μ_{X} = 2.5, σ_{X}^2 = 2.7, and γ = 2.5 (constant precision model) and γ = 4 (varying precision model).
- Parameters of the measurement error mechanism (known): $\tau_0 = 0$, $\tau_1 = 1$, and values for σ_e^2 : 0.05 and 0.50 ($k_x = 0.98$, and 0.84).
- Settings:
 - 1. we ignored the measurement error in x_t naïve method (ℓ_{naive}) ;
 - 2. we recognized that x_t is measured with error approximate maximum likelihood (ℓ_a), approximate maximum pseudo-likelihood (ℓ_p), and regression calibration (ℓ_{rc}).
- Number of quadrature points: Q = 50.



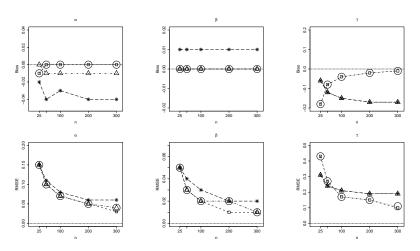


Figure : Bias and RMSE for the estimators of α , β and γ for $k_x = 0.98$, constant precision model; ℓ_a (square), ℓ_p (circle), ℓ_{rc} (triangle) and ℓ_{naive} (star).

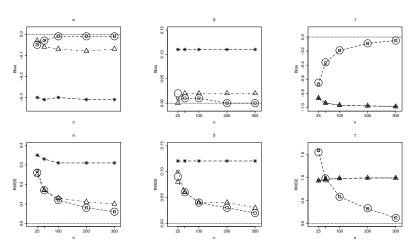


Figure : Bias and RMSE for the estimators of α , β and γ for $k_x = 0.84$, constant precision model; ℓ_a (square), ℓ_p (circle), ℓ_{rc} (triangle) and ℓ_{naive} (star).

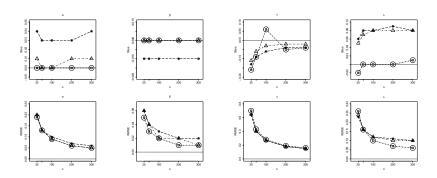


Figure : Bias and RMSE for the estimators of α , β , γ and λ for $k_x = 0.98$, varying precision model; ℓ_a (square), ℓ_p (circle), ℓ_{rc} (triangle) and ℓ_{naive} (star).

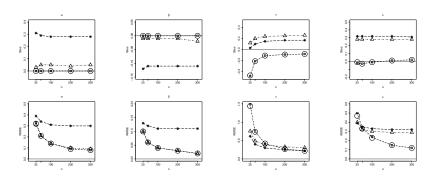


Figure : Bias and RMSE for the estimators of α , β , γ and λ for $k_x = 0.84$, varying precision model; ℓ_a (square), ℓ_p (circle), ℓ_{rc} (triangle) and ℓ_{naive} (star).

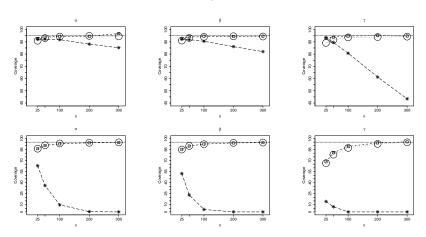


Figure : Coverage of 95% confidence intervals of α , β and γ for: $k_x = 0.98$, constant precision model (first row), and $k_x = 0.84$, constant precision model (second row); ℓ_a (square), ℓ_p (circle), and ℓ_{naive} (star).

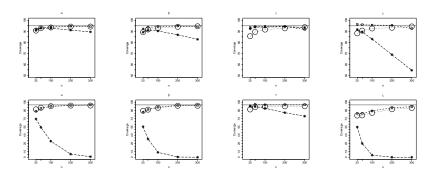


Figure : Coverage of 95% confidence intervals of α , β , γ and λ for: $k_x = 0.98$, varying precision model (first row), and $k_x = 0.84$, varying precision model (second row); ℓ_a (square), ℓ_p (circle), and ℓ_{naive} (star).

- ► The naïve estimator is clearly not consistent.
- The approximate maximum likelihood and maximum pseudo-likelihood estimators perform similarly.
- Their performance is clearly better than that of the regression calibration and naïve estimators.
- ▶ Under constant precision the regression calibration estimator is as biased as the naïve estimator for estimating the precision parameter. For estimating β , the coefficient associated to the covariate measured with error, it performs well if the measurement error variance is small.
- ▶ The regression calibration, approximate maximum likelihood and maximum pseudo-likelihood estimators are virtually unbiased for estimating β when $k_x = 0.98$. Their mean-square errors converge to zero as n grows.
- There is evidence that the regression calibration estimator is not consistent.
- Under the varying precision model similar conclusions are reached.

Errors-in-variables beta regression

Simulation: Confidence intervals

- ► For all the cases, the estimated true coverages of the confidence intervals based on the naïve estimator decrease as n grows. It cannot be recommended.
- ► The confidence intervals constructed from the approximate maximum likelihood and maximum pseudo-likelihood estimators present true coverage close to 95%, more so if the sample size is large.
- Under the varying precision model, we arrive at similar conclusions.

Errors-in-variables beta regression

Simulation: Conclusion

- Ignoring the measurement error produces misleading inference.
- Inference based on the approximate likelihood and the approximate pseudo-likelihood methods present good performance for the estimation of all the parameters.
- Since the pseudo-likelihood approach is computationally less demanding than the approximate maximum likelihood approach, we recommend the approximate maximum pseudo-likelihood estimation for practical applications.

Also in Carrasco, Ferrari & Arellano-Valle (2012): residual analysis, application.



- Applications of beta regression are found in various fields.
- I found approximately 100 papers.
- Beta regression is useful and software is available. E.g.
 - ► R:
 - betareg (Cribari-Neto & Zeiles, 2010; Grün, Kosmidis & Zeiles, 2012),
 - gamlss (Stasinopoulos & Rigby, 2007)
 - SAS PROC NLMIXED: Macro Beta_Regression (Swearingen et al., 2011, 2012)
 - examples using R, SPLUS, SAS and SPSS: http://psychology3.anu.edu.au/people/smithson/details/betareg/
- More on computational implementation: Raydonal Ospina later.

Some examples follow.



Medicine

- proportion of baseline (no glasses) UVB exposure that a person receives if he wears glasses (Egleston et al, 2006)
- measure of lens opacity (cataract) (Chylack Jr et al, 2009)
- proportion of assigned treatment actually taken (Ma, Roy, Marcus, 2010)
- proportion of myocardial necrosis area in patients with acute myocardial infarction (Pinto et al, 2011)
- quality of life measured on a scale of 0-1 of HIV/AIDS patients (Hubben et al. 2008)
- ▶ health-related quality of life in stroke patients measured by the Stroke Impact Scale (SIS) (Hunger, Döring, Holle 2012)
- percent mammographic density (high MD is a marker of breast cancer) (Peplonska, 2012)



Veterinary medicine (genetics)

genetic difference between two foot-and-mouth virus strains measured as the proportion of nucleotides that differ for a defined portion of the genome (Branscum, Jonhson & Thurmond 2007).

Pharmacology

 score of cognitive impairment in Alzheimer's patients (Rogers et al, 2012) – meta-analysis

Odontology

▶ percentage of clinical attachment loss (CAL) ≥ 3.5mm and ≥ 7.0mm (CAL measured at six sites per tooth) (Abdo et al, 2012)

Hydrobiology

 fraction of organic matter of the total suspended particulate matter in a sampling zone of a river (Wallis, 2009)



Aquaculture nutrition

▶ protein and lipid egg content (gkg⁻¹) of female channel catfish (Quintero et al, 2011)

Forest Science

- percent canopy cover (Korhonen et al, 2007)
- percent shrub cover (Ekleston et al, 2011)

Education

- score of educational performance (Carmichael, 2006)
- score of reading accuracy (Smithson & Verkuilen, 2006)

Political Science

 percentage of individuals who feel that race is the most important problem facing America (Gillion, 2008)

Economics

- percentage of females in municipal councils and executive committees (De Paola, Scoppa, Lombardo, 2010)
- proportion of total annual Asian Development Bank lending committed to a particular country for environmentally risky (non-risky) projects (Buntaine, 2011)
- central-bank independence measured in terms of an index bounded between 0 and 1 (Berggren, Daunfeldt & Hellströn, 2012)
- Artist Price Heterogeneity (APH) measured by Gini's index calculated on artist price distribution (Castellani, Pattitoni & Scorcu 2012)

Credit risk

Loss given default (LGD) (Huang & Oosterlee, 2011)

Waste management

 municipal waste separation rates in Spanish cities (Ibáñez, Prades & Simó, 2011; Gallardo et al, 2012)

Social Science

 subjective survival probability (SSP) derived from the question "What are the chances that you will live to be age T or more?" (Balia, 2011)

Conclusion

- Beta regression is useful for practical applications.
- Growing literature on beta regression over the last few years.
- Computational implementation is available.
- ▶ There is room for new research.

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Theory

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Computational implementation

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