





## **Econométrie 3**

# Binary Choice & Logistic Regression

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#### Introduction (1)

#### Context

- Assume we observe the output from a binary choice
- We have to analyse a binary variable (0 or 1)
- Are the classic linear regression a suitable tool to analyse binary choice?

**Linear Probability Model** 

# **Linear Probability Model (1)**

### **Simple Linear Regression Model**

- $Y_i = \alpha + \beta X_i + u_i$
- assuming  $E(u_i) = 0$
- $E(Y_i|X_i) = \alpha + \beta X_i$
- The hypothetical model is simple linear regression (Fig. 1)

# **Linear Probability Model (2)**

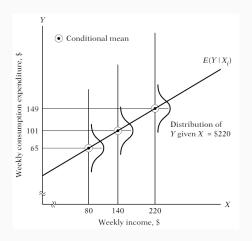


FIGURE 1 – Simple Linear Regression (Gujarati, 2003)

## **Linear Probability Model (1)**

#### Simple Linear Regression Model

Hypothetical Data on Home Ownership and Income

FAMILY: 40 families

Y: Home Ownership where

1:Owns a House

0: Does Not Own a House

X: Family Income, Thousands of \$

Estimate Y over X

 Interpret this regression (intercept, slope, predicted probabilities, residuals)

## **Linear Probability Model (2)**

```
tab151 <- read.table("Rscripts\\Tab151.txt", header = T)
head(tab151)
lm(data=tab151, Y~X)</pre>
```

```
## FAMILY Y X

## 1 1 0 8

## 2 2 1 16

## 3 3 1 18

## 4 4 0 11

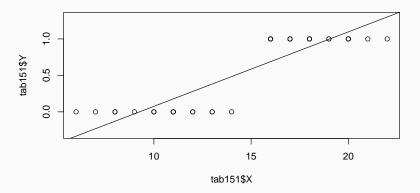
## 5 5 0 12

## 6 6 1 19
```

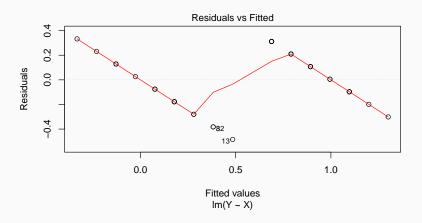
# **Linear Probability Model (3)**

```
##
## Call:
\#\# lm(formula = Y \sim X, data = tab151)
##
## Residuals:
## Min 10 Median 30 Max
## -0.4842 -0.1777 0.0052 0.2095 0.3329
##
## Coefficients:
##
      Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## X 0.10213 0.00816 12.515 4.73e-15 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ''
##
## Residual standard error: 0.2264 on 38 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.8048, Adjusted R-squared: 0.7996
```

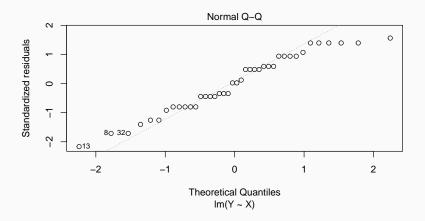
# **Linear Probability Model Problems (1)**



# **Linear Probability Model Problems (2)**



# **Linear Probability Model Problems (3)**



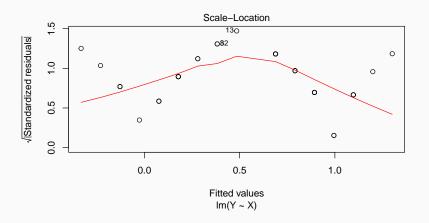
# **Linear Probability Model Problems (4)**

#### Non normality of the Disturbances $u_i$

The probability distribution of  $u_i$  is given by  $u_i = Y_i - \alpha - \beta X_i$ 

	Uį	Prob.
When $Y_i = 1$	$1-\alpha-\beta X_i$	Pi
When $Y_i = 0$	$\alpha - \beta X_i$	$(1 - P_i)$

# **Linear Probability Model Problems (5)**



## **Linear Probability Model Problems (6)**

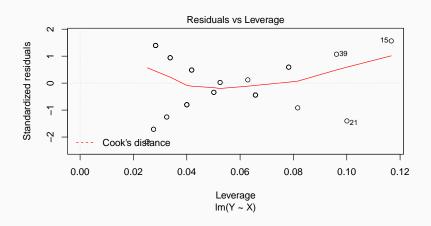
#### Heteroscedastic Variances of the Disturbances

Even if 
$$E(u_i) = 0$$
 and  $cov(u_i, u_j) = 0$ 

The variance of the  $u_i$  is

$$var(u_i) = P_i(1 - P_i)$$

# **Linear Probability Model Problems (7)**



## **Problems with LPM (1)**

#### **Problems with LPM**

LPM is plagued with several problems

- non-normality of  $u_i$
- heteroscedasticity of u<sub>i</sub>
- possibility of  $\hat{Y}_i$  lying outside [0,1]
- generally lower R<sup>2</sup>

That can be surmountable...

• assumes  $P_i = E(Y = 1|X)$  increases linearly with X: constant marginal effect of X

## **Problems with LPM (2)**

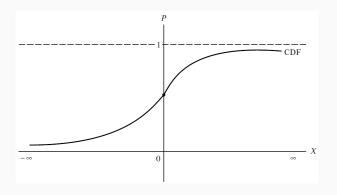


FIGURE 2 – A cumulative distribution function (cdf) (Gujarati, 2003)

**Logistic Regression Model** 

## Logit Model - v1

The LPM focuses on:

$$P_i = E(Y = 1 | X_i) = \alpha + \beta X_i$$

#### Logit Model - v1

This linear form can be replaced by the logistic cdf:

$$P_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z_i}} = \frac{e^{Z_i}}{1 + e^{Z_i}}$$

where  $Z_i = \alpha + \beta X_i$ 

- ranges between 0 and 1
- $P_i$  is non linearly related to  $Z_i$
- can be estimated after simple transformation : see v2

## Logit Model - v2

#### Logit Model - v2

The logistic model is a regression of the logit (log odds) (in favor of succes at  $X_i$ ):

$$L_i = \text{logit}(P_i) = In\left(\frac{P_i}{1 - P_i}\right) = \alpha + \beta X_i$$

We can write

$$\frac{P_i}{1 - P_i} = \frac{1 + e^{Z_i}}{1 + e^{-Z_i}} = e^{Z_i}$$

## How can we interpret $\beta$ ?

- The sign of  $L_i$  gives the relative position of  $P_i$  vs  $1 P_i$
- β measures the change in L<sub>i</sub> for a unit change of X<sub>i</sub>: the log-odds change!
- $\beta$  sign determines whether  $L_i(x)$  is increasing or decreasing as x increases.
- $\alpha$  is the value of the log-odds when  $X_i = 0...$
- Logit v2 : odds are an exponential function of x.
   The odds multiply by e<sup>β</sup> for every 1-unit increase in x.
   In other words, e<sup>β</sup> is an odds ratio, the odds at X = x + 1 divided by the odds at X = x
- For dummy variables  $d : e^{\beta}$  is the odds ratio for d = 1 vs d = 0.

Logistic regression function has curved appearance (rather than linear) then the rate of change in  $P_i(x)$  per unit change in x varies

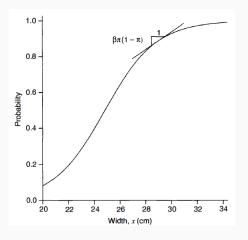


FIGURE 3 – Linear approximation to logistic regression curve (Agresti, 2013)

• Calculating  $\partial P_i(x)/\partial x$ : Marginal effect (m.e.):

$$\frac{\partial P_i(x)}{\partial x_i} = \beta \times P_i(x) \times (1 - P_i(x))$$

(fairly complex function)

- m.e. is large when  $P_i(x) \sim$  0.5 (steepest slope) that x value is  $x = -\alpha/\beta$
- Near x where  $P_i(x) = 1/2$ , a change in x of  $1/\beta$  corresponds to a change in  $P_i(x)$  of roughly  $(1/\beta)(\beta/4) = 1/\beta$  that is  $1/\beta$  approximates the distance between x values where  $P_i(x) = 0.50$  and where  $P_i(x) = 0.25$  or 0.75.
- Since the rate of change varies with x, summary of them is average partial effects: average of βP<sub>i</sub>(x)[1 - P<sub>i</sub>(x)] for the subjects in the sample

### Derivative of the probability

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P_i(x)}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial (e^{Z_i}/1 + e^{Z_i})}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{e^{Z_i}(1 + e^{Z_i}) - e^{Z_i}e^{Z_i}}{(1 + e^{Z_i})^2} \frac{\partial Z_i}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{e^{Z_i}}{(1 + e^{Z_i})^2} \frac{\partial Z_i}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{\partial Z_i}{\partial x} P_i(1 - P_i) \end{aligned}$$

With 
$$P_i(x) = \frac{e^{Z_i}}{1 + e^{Z_i}}$$
 and  $1 - P_i(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{Z_i}}$ 

#### **Computing marginal effects**

- Quantitative x
  - 1. Evaluate the marginal effects at the sample means of the data  $(\bar{x})$
  - 2. Evaluate the average partial effects :  $APE = E[\frac{\partial P_i(x)}{\partial x}]$  use the sample average of the individual marginal effects  $(m\overline{.}e.)$   $\frac{\partial P_i(x)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial F(t)}{\partial t} \frac{\partial t}{\partial x} = f(\alpha + \beta x)\beta$   $APE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} X_i)\hat{\beta}$  with the logistic c.d.f. :  $F(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$  and  $f(x) = \frac{e^x}{(1 + e^x)^2}$  (or the probit density function for probit)
  - 3. Equivalent results in large samples
  - 4. Current practice favors averaging the individual marginal effects

#### **Computing marginal effects**

• Marginal effect for dummy variables *d* :

$$m.e. = P(Y = 1 | \bar{x}_{(d)}, d = 1) - P(Y = 1 | \bar{x}_{(d)}, d = 0)$$

where  $\bar{x}_{(d)}$  denotes the means of all other variables.

### Elasticity of the probability

$$E_{X} = \frac{\partial P_{i}(x)}{\partial x} \frac{x}{P_{i}}$$

$$= \frac{\partial Z_{i}}{\partial x} P_{i} (1 - P_{i}) \frac{x}{P_{i}}$$

$$= \frac{\partial Z_{i}}{\partial x} x (1 - P_{i})$$

If  $Z_i$  is linear in x with  $\beta$ , then  $E_x = \beta x(1 - P_i)$ 

**Estimation and Inference in Binary** 

**Logistic Regression** 

## **Estimation in Binary Logit**

#### **Estimation in Binary Logit**

- · Estimation of binary models is usually based on ML.
- Each observation is a single draw from a Bernoulli distribution (binomial with one draw).
- The model (resp. Logit) with success probability  $P_i = F(\alpha + \beta X_i)$  (resp.  $F(\alpha + \beta X_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta X_i}}$ ) and n iid observations
- · leads to the joint probability (likelihood function):

$$P(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, ..., Y_n = y_n | X) = \prod_{i=1}^n F_i(Y_i)$$
$$= \prod_{y_i=1} F(\alpha + \beta X_i) \prod_{y_i=0} [1 - F(\alpha + \beta X_i)]$$

## Estimation in Binary Logit

The likelihood function for a sample of n observations

$$\mathcal{L} = f(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_n = y_n | X) = \prod_{i=1}^n P_i^{y_i} (1 - P_i)^{1 - y_i}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^n [F(\alpha + \beta X_i)]^{y_i} [1 - F(\alpha + \beta X_i)]^{1 - y_i}$$

the log likelihood function :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i ln[F(\alpha + \beta X_i)] + (1 - y_i) ln[1 - F(\alpha + \beta X_i)]$$

 $ln \mathcal{L} = lnf(Y_1 = V_1, Y_2 = V_2, \dots, Y_n = V_n | X) =$ 

• with the logit function :  $F(\alpha + \beta X_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta X_i}}$  for logit model

## **Estimation in Binary Probit**

#### **Estimation in Binary Probit**

· For the normal distribution, the log-likelihood is

$$\textit{InL} = \sum_{y_i=1} \Phi(\alpha + \beta X_i) \sum_{y_i=0} \textit{In}[1 - \Phi(\alpha + \beta X_i)]$$

**Likelihood and Properties of** 

estimates

# Likelihood equations

#### Likelihood equations

$$\frac{\partial In \mathcal{L}}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{i}^{n} \left( \frac{y_{i} f_{i}}{F_{i}} + (1 - y_{i}) \frac{-fi}{1 - F_{i}} \right) x_{i} = 0$$

- where  $fi = dF_i/d(\beta x_i)$
- choice of F<sub>i</sub> leads to the empirical model

## Likelihood equations (1)

#### Likelihood equations

- Unless for LPM, these equation are non-linear and require an iterative solution
- if x<sub>i</sub> contains a constant term, the first-order conditions imply that the average of the predicted probabilities must equal the proportion of ones in the sample

## **Optimisation method (1)**

#### Likelihood equations

Second derivatives for the logit model :

$$H = \frac{\partial^2 \ln \mathcal{L}}{\partial \beta \partial \beta'}$$

do not involve the random variable  $y_i$ , so Newton's method is also the method of scoring

- Hessian is always negative definite, so the log-likelihood is globally concave (less obvious for probit)
- Newton's method will usually converge to the maximum of the log-likelihood in just a few iterations

## Asymptotic covariance matrix (1)

## Likelihood equations

- Asymptotic covariance matrix for the maximum likelihood estimator can be estimated by using the inverse of the Hessian evaluated at the maximum likelihood estimates
- Hessian for the logit model does not involve y<sub>i</sub>, so H = E[H], not true for probit.

## Asymptotic covariance matrix (1)

## For the logit model:

$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_{i}^{n} p_{i}^{y_{i}} (1 - p_{i}^{1 - y_{i}}) = \prod_{i}^{n} \left(\frac{p_{i}}{1 - p_{i}}\right)^{y_{i}} (1 - p_{i})$$

$$In(\mathcal{L}) = \sum_{i} y_{i} In\left(\frac{p_{i}}{1 - p_{i}}\right) + \sum_{i} In(1 - p_{i})$$

$$= \sum_{i} \beta x_{i} y_{i} - \sum_{i} In(1 + e^{\beta x_{i}})$$

# Asymptotic covariance matrix (2)

## For the logit model:

$$\frac{\partial ln\mathcal{L}}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} - \sum_{i} x_{i} (1 + e^{-\beta x_{i}})^{-1}$$

$$= \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} - \sum_{i} x_{i} \hat{y}_{i}$$

$$\frac{\partial^{2} ln\mathcal{L}}{\partial \beta \partial \beta} = -\sum_{i}^{n} x_{i} x_{i}' \hat{y}_{i} (1 - \hat{y}_{i})$$

where 
$$\hat{y}_i = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\beta x_i}}$$

**Exercise: Binary Logit and Probit** 

## **Estimating a Binary Logit**

## **Exercise : Effect of Personalized system of instruction**

- Research question <sup>a</sup>: Does a new method of teaching economics (Personalized System of Instructions, PSI) influence performance in later economics courses
- Data available
- GRADE: Indicator of improving grade between basic and intermediate economics courses (binary)
- GPA: Grade point average (number in range)
- TUCE : Score on pretest : entering knowledge (number in range)
- PSI: Exposure to new teaching method (binary)
- a. Example (*Greene*, 2008) p.694 : Study of (*Spector and Mazzeo*, 1980) Data : http://people.stern.nyu.edu/wgreene/Text/Edition6/tablelist6.htm

## **Estimating a Binary Logit**

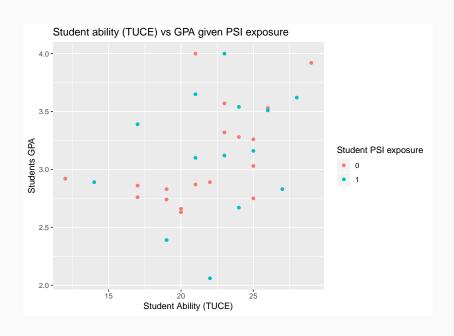
## **Exercise : Effect of Personalized system of instruction**

```
library(faraway)
head(spector)
spector$psi <- factor(spector$psi)
spector$grade <- factor(spector$grade)</pre>
```

```
## grade psi tuce gpa
## 1 0 0 20 2.66
## 2 0 0 22 2.89
## 3 0 0 24 3.28
## 4 0 0 12 2.92
## 5 1 0 21 4.00
## 6 0 0 17 2.86
```

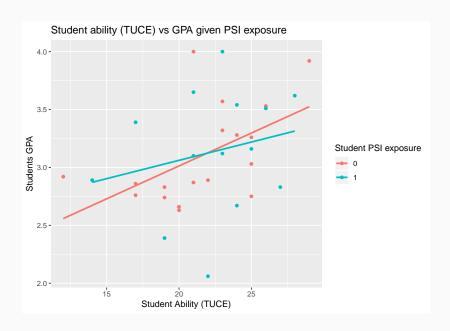
# **Estimating a Binary Logit**

```
ggplot(data = spector, aes(x=tuce, y=gpa))
+ geom_point(aes(colour=psi))
+ ggtitle("Student Ability (TUCE) vs GPA given PSI exposure")
+ xlab("Student Ability (TUCE)") + ylab("Students GPA")
+ labs(colour="Student PSI exposure")
```



```
ggplot(data = spector, aes(x=tuce, y=gpa, colour=psi))
+ geom_point() + geom_smooth(method = 'lm', formula = y~x, se=FALSE)
+ ggtitle("Student Ability (TUCE) vs GPA given PSI exposure")
+ xlab("Student Ability (TUCE)") + ylab("Students GPA")
```

+ labs(colour="Student PSI exposure")



## **Estimating the corresponding Binary Logit**

#### **Exercise**

• Let estimate the logit model :

$$L_i = In\left(rac{P_i}{1 - P_i}
ight) = lpha + eta_2 GPA_i + eta_3 TUCE_i + eta_3 PSI_i + u_i$$

- Calculate effects of variables on odds-ratio
- · Calculate marginal effects on probabilities at the mean point

```
Logit1 <- glm(grade ~ gpa + tuce + psi, x = TRUE,
    data = spector, family = binomial(link = "logit"))
summary(Logit1)
exp(coefficients(Logit1))</pre>
```

```
##
## Call:
## qlm(formula = grade ~ gpa + tuce + psi, family = binomial(link = "logi
## data = spector, x = TRUE)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
## Min 10 Median 30 Max
## -1.9551 -0.6453 -0.2570 0.5888 2.0966
##
## Coefficients:
##
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## gpa 2.82611 1.26293 2.238 0.02524 *
## tuce 0.09516 0.14155 0.672 0.50143
## psi1 2.37869 1.06456 2.234 0.02545 *
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '. 0.1 ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
     Null deviance: 41.183 on 31 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 25 779 on 28 degrees of freedom
```

#### Odds Ratios

```
## [1] "exp(beta)"

## (Intercept) gpa tuce psi1

## 2.212590e-06 1.687971e+01 1.099832e+00 1.079073e+01
```

logit\_slopes <- dlogis(xb\_logit)\*betas ; logit\_slopes</pre>

print("Slopes:")

```
## coef.Logit1. -13.02135 2.826113 0.09515766 2.378688

## [1] 1.000000 3.117188 21.937500 0.437500

## [1] "XBetas:"

## [1] -1.083627

## [1] "Slopes:"
```

## (Intercept) gpa tuce psi1 ## coef.Logit1. -2.459761 0.5338588 0.01797549 0.4493393

# **Estimating the corresponding Binary Probit**

#### **Exercise**

- Let estimate the probit model
- Calculate effects of variables on odds-ratio
- Calculate marginal effects on probabilities at the mean point

```
probit1 <- glm(grade ~ gpa + tuce + psi, x = TRUE,
    data = spector, family = binomial(link = "probit"))</pre>
```

summary (probit1)

```
##
## Call:
## qlm(formula = grade ~ gpa + tuce + psi, family = binomial(link = "prob
## data = spector, x = TRUE)
##
## Deviance Residuals:
## Min 10 Median 30 Max
## -1.9392 -0.6508 -0.2229 0.5934 2.0451
##
## Coefficients:
##
             Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) -7.45231 2.57152 -2.898 0.00376 **
## gpa 1.62581 0.68973 2.357 0.01841 *
## tuce 0.05173 0.08119 0.637 0.52406
## psi1 1.42633 0.58695 2.430 0.01510 *
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '. 0.1 ' 1
##
## (Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
##
     Null deviance: 41.183 on 31 degrees of freedom
## Residual deviance: 25 638 on 28 degrees of freedom
```

# Optional: we could calculate the CI of the estimates

## tuce -0.1044397 0.2279414 ## psi1 0.3286434 2.7031621

```
confint(probit1)
## Waiting for profiling to be done...
## 2.5 % 97.5 %
## (Intercept) -13.1148789 -2.9737780
## gpa 0.3740450 3.1314162
```

```
# Probit # xb*:
betas<-t(data.frame(coef(probit1))); betas
xmean <- c(1, mean(spector$gpa), mean(spector$tuce),</pre>
         mean (as.numeric (spector$psi))-1)
print("XBetas")
```

probit\_slopes <- dnorm(xb\_probit)\*betas ; probit\_slopes</pre>

xb\_probit <- sum(xmean\*betas); xb\_probit # Slopes (at mean): Lambda (mean (xb)) \* (b)

print("Slopes")

## coef.probit1. -2.444734 0.5333484 0.01696954 0.4679083

(Intercept) gpa tuce psi1

##

## Comparison of marginal effects at mean:

```
## [1] "PROBIT MEM"

## (Intercept) gpa tuce psi1

## coef.probit1. -2.444734 0.5333484 0.01696954 0.4679083

## [1] "LOGIT MEM"

## (Intercept) gpa tuce psi1
```

## coef.Logit1. -2.459761 0.5338588 0.01797549 0.4493393

# **Estimating the corresponding Binary Logit**

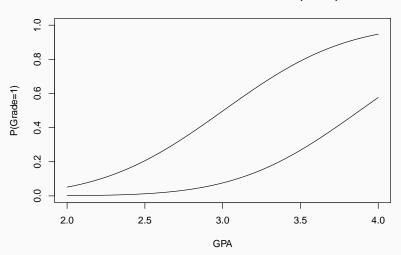
#### **Exercise**

 Draw Predicted probabilities with varying GPA, fixed TUCE (at its average), and for PSI = 0 or PSI = 1, for logit and probit

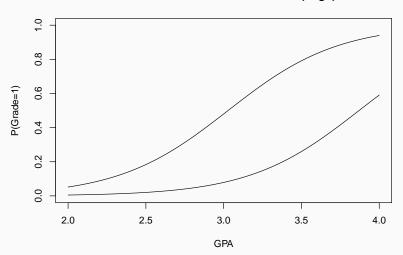
psi1 <- function(x) plogis(-13.021 + 2.826\*x + 0.095\*21.938 + 2.379)
curve(psi0, xlim=c(2,4), ylim=c(0,1), main="Effect of PSI on Pred.
 Probabilities (Logit)", ylab="P(Grade=1)", xlab="GPA")</pre>

curve(psi1, add=T)

### Effect of PSI on Pred. Probabilities (Probit)



### Effect of PSI on Pred. Probabilities (Logit)



# **Estimating the corresponding Binary Logit**

#### **Exercise**

Calculate Average Partial Effect, for logit and probit

# **Average Marginal effects (1)**

## predict() returns $X\beta$

```
# Probit
fav_probit <- mean(dnorm(predict(probit1, type = "link")))
fav_probit * coef(probit1)
# Logit
fav_Logit <- mean(dlogis(predict(Logit1, type = "link")))
fav_Logit * coef(Logit1)</pre>
```

## Average Marginal effects (2)

- · LPM, logit, and probit give qualitatively similar results
- Between logit and probit, which model is preferable?
- In most applications the models are quite similar
- Main difference being slightly fatter tails of the logistic distribution
- Conditional probability P<sub>i</sub> approaches 0 or 1 at a slower rate in logit than in probit
- There is no compelling reason to choose one over the other
- In practice, logit model because of its comparative mathematical simplicity

**Inference in Binary Logit Model** 

## **Computing Standard Errors**

## **Asymptotic Covariance Matrix**

 The asymptotic covariance matrix for the maximum likelihood estimator can be estimated by using the inverse of the Hessian evaluated at the maximum likelihood

$$H = \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta \partial \beta'}$$

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{1}^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{1} \partial \beta_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{1} \beta_{k}} \\ \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{2} \partial \beta_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{2}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{2} \partial k} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$\frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{k} \partial \beta_{1} \beta_{k}} & \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{k} \beta_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} lnL}{\partial \beta_{k}^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $-\nabla 2L(\beta^*)^{-1}$  is a consistent estimator of the variance-covariance matrix of the estimates.

## **Computing Standard Errors (1)**

## **Computing Standard Errors of partial effects**

- Standard errors for partial effects are usually computed using the delta method.
- An alternative approach is the method of (Krinsky and Robb, 1986).

# Hypothesis tests (1)

Three familiar procedures for conventional hypothesis tests about restrictions on the model coefficients

#### Likelihood Ratio test

- The likelihood ratio statistic is :  $\lambda_{LR} = 2[InL_1 InL_0](ddI)$
- where InL<sub>1</sub> indicates the log-likelihood computed at the unrestricted (alternative) estimator
- InL<sub>0</sub> at the restricted (null) estimator
   item And dll are the degree of freedom = number of restrictions

## Hypothesis tests (2)

#### Wald test

- Hypothesis: r(θ, c) = 0
   r(θ, c) is a vector of J functionally independent restrictions on θ and c is a vector of constants.
- The Wald statistic uses the delta method to obtain an asymptotic covariance matrix for  $r(\theta, c)$ .

The statistic is :  $W = r(\theta, c)'[Var(r(\theta, c))]^{-1}r(\theta, c)$ 

# Hypothesis tests (3)

## Lagrange multiplier (LM) statistic

- LM = g'Vg,
- where *g* is the first derivatives of the unrestricted model evaluated at the restricted parameter vector
- V is the estimator of the asymptotic covariance matrix of the maximum likelihood estimator.

### **Example: Wald test**

```
# For Probit
# a) joint significance of all regressors
#install.packages("aod")
library (aod)
wald.test(b = coef(probit1), Sigma = vcov(probit1),
         Terms =2:length(coef(probit1)))
# b) linear combination of coefficients
# (e.g. are the coefficients signif. different?)
restr <- cbind(0, -1, 1, 0)
wald.test(b = coef(probit1), Sigma = vcov(probit1), L = restr)
# T.R test
library (lmtest)
probit 0 < -qlm (qrade ~ 1 , x = TRUE,
   data = spector, family = binomial(link = "probit"))
summary (probit0)
lrtest(probit1, probit0)
```

### **Example: Wald test**

a) joint significance of all regressors

```
## Wald test:
## -----
##
## Chi-squared test:
## X2 = 10.6, df = 3, P(> X2) = 0.014
```

## b) linear combination of coefficients

```
## Wald test:
## -----
##
## Chi-squared test:
## X2 = 4.8, df = 1, P(> X2) = 0.028
```

### **Example :LR test**

```
## Likelihood ratio test
##
## Model 1: grade ~ gpa + tuce + psi
## Model 2: grade ~ 1
## #Df LogLik Df Chisq Pr(>Chisq)
## 1 4 -12.819
## 2 1 -20.592 -3 15.546  0.001405 **
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

# **Fit Measures for Binary Choice (1)**

# $\rho^2$ or LRI

In Logit and Probit models:

- There is no R squared
- There are no residuals or sums of squares
- The model is not computed to optimize the fit of the model to the data
- Null Deviance : = -2ln(L<sub>0</sub>), with L<sub>0</sub> likelihood of the model with only intercept.

# Fit Measures for Binary Choice (2)

```
sum(as.numeric(spector$grade)-1)
## [1] 11
length (spector$grade)
## [1] 32
sum(as.numeric(spector$grade)-1)/length(spector$grade)
## [1] 0.34375
-2*(11*log(0.34375)+21*log(1-0.34375))
## [1] 41.18346
```

```
anova (probit0, test="Chisq")
## Analysis of Deviance Table
##
## Model: binomial, link: probit
##
## Response: grade
##
## Terms added sequentially (first to last)
##
##
##
       Df Deviance Resid. Df Resid. Dev Pr(>Chi)
```

31 41.183

## NULL

```
anova (probit1, test="Chisq")
## Analysis of Deviance Table
##
## Model: binomial, link: probit
##
## Response: grade
##
## Terms added sequentially (first to last)
##
##
## Df Deviance Resid. Df Resid. Dev Pr(>Chi)
## NULL.
                              41.183
                        31
## gpa 1 8.3744 30
                              32.809 0.003805 **
## tuce 1 0.5048 29
                              32.304 0.477420
## psi 1 6.6667 28 25.638 0.009823 **
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '*** 0.001 '** 0.01 '* 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' 1
```

- The full model or satured model is :  $E(Y_i) = y_i$  : mean of the variable is defined by the observation.
- in our case p = 1 if  $y_i = 1$  and p = 0 if y = 0. The likelihood is 1
  - and lnL = 0

  - Null deviance is :  $D_0 = -2ln\frac{L_0}{L_f} = 2(LL_f LL_0)$

• Variable effet is measured by  $D_x - D_0 = -2ln\frac{L_x}{L_0} = 2(LL_0 - LL_x)$ 

• Residual deviance is  $D_x = -2ln\frac{L_x}{L_f} = 2(LL_f - LL_x)$ 

- Generalized R-squared :  $R^2 = 1 exp\{-\frac{L^2}{n}\}$
- Likelihood ratio index (LRI) ou Pseudo-R<sup>2</sup>:

$$\rho^2 = 1 - \frac{lnL}{lnL_0}$$

Where  $L(\beta^*)$  is the Likelihood of the estimated model (full model) and L(0) the Likelihood of the model with no regressors (only intercept)

- McFadden  $R^2 : R^2_{MCF} = 1 \frac{ln(L)}{ln(L_0)}$
- Cox and Snell  $R^2$  is :  $R_{C\&S}^2 = 1 (\frac{L_0}{I})^{2/n}$

#### Likelihood Ratio Index

- $LRI = 1 (InL/InL_0)$
- · Bounded by 0 and 1
- If all the slope coefficients are zero, then LRI equals zero.
- There is no way to make LRI equal 1, although one can come close
- LRI rises when the model is expanded

#### To Compare Models:

You can also use:

- logL
- Use information criteria to compare nonnested models (AIC, BIC,...)
  - $AIC = -2 \times InL + 2 \times k$ , where k represents the number of parameters in the fitted model
  - It should be used when the number of fitted parameters is large compared to sample size, i.e., when n/k < 40 (Hurvich and Tsai, 1995).
  - $BIC = -2 \times InL + k \times log(n)$ ,

#### Adjusted Likelihood ratio index (ALRI)

- $\rho^2$  is increasing with the number of parameters.
- A higher fit (that is a higher  $\rho^2$ ) does not mean a better model.
- An adjustment is needed.

$$\bar{\rho}^2 = 1 - \frac{\mathcal{L}(\hat{\beta}) - K}{\mathcal{L}(0)}$$

### **Example: Log-Likelihood calculation with R**

- $(-2) \times \log$ -likelihood
- Likelihood Ratio Index :  $LRI = 1 (InL/InL_0)$

```
logL_probit<-logLik(probit1) ; -2*logL_probit</pre>
## 'log Lik.' 25.63761 (df=4)
logL_logit<-logLik(Logit1) ; -2*logL_logit</pre>
## 'log Lik.' 25.77927 (df=4)
LRI_probit<-with (probit1, deviance/null.deviance) # -2 cancels out
LRI_probit<-1-LRI_probit
LRI_logit<-with(Logit1, deviance/null.deviance)</pre>
LRI logit <- 1-LRI logit
LRI<-data.frame(LRI_probit,LRI_logit)
T.RT
## LRI_probit LRI_logit
## 1 0.377478 0.3740383
```

```
AIC_logit <- -2*logL_logit+2*length(coef(Logit1)); AIC_logit

## 'log Lik.' 33.77927 (df=4)

AIC_probit <- -2*logL_probit+2*length(coef(probit1)); AIC_probit

## 'log Lik.' 33.63761 (df=4)
```

## Fit Measures Based on Predictions (1)

## **Predicting the Outcome**

- Predicted probabilities and Predicting outcomes : Predict Y=1 if  $\hat{P}$  is "large" Use 0.5 for "large" (more likely than not)
- · Count successes and failures
- For example, suppose n=200, we observe  $n_{Y_i=0}=180$ , we predict  $n_{\hat{Y}_i=1}=150$ : we predict at least 75% of the outcomes correctly.
  - Because of this, report the percent correctly predicted for each of the two outcomes.

## A Test of Structural Stability (1)

### **Structural Change Over Groups**

- Counterpart to the Chow test for linear models.
- · Fit the same model in each subsample
- Unrestricted log likelihood is the sum of the subsample log likelihoods: InL<sub>1</sub>
- Pool the subsamples, fit the model to the pooled sample
- Restricted log likelihood is that from the pooled sample : InL<sub>0</sub>

$$\chi^2(dII) = 2 \times (InL_1 - InL_0)$$

with  $dII = (K-1) \times \text{model size}$ .

# A Test of Structural Stability (1)

### **Exercise: PSI**

• Test the structural change over PSI groups

$$\chi^2(\textit{dll}) = 2 \times (\textit{InL}_1 - \textit{InL}_0)$$

with  $dII = (nb restriction - 1) \times nb parameters in model.$ 

```
library(faraway)
head(spector)
    grade psi tuce gpa
##
## 1
        0 0
               20 2.66
```

```
0 0 22 2.89
```

## 4 0 0 12 2.92 ## 5 1 0 21 4.00

```
0 0 17 2.86
## 6
```

```
## 2
## 3 0 0 24 3.28
```

spector\$psi <- factor(spector\$psi)</pre> spector\$grade <- factor(spector\$grade)</pre>

```
Logit1 <- glm(grade ~ gpa + tuce + psi, x = TRUE,
    data = spector, family = binomial(link = "logit"))
LogitPSI0 <- glm(grade ~ gpa + tuce, x = TRUE,
    data = spector[spector$psi==0,], family = binomial(link = "logit"))
LogitPSI1 <- glm(grade ~ gpa + tuce, x = TRUE,
    data = spector[spector$psi==1,], family = binomial(link = "logit"))
summary(Logit1); summary(LogitPSI1); summary(LogitPSI0);
LL1 <- logLik(Logit1)
LLPSI1 <- logLik(LogitPSI1)</pre>
```

LLPSI0 <- logLik (LogitPSI0)

qchisq(0.95,ChiTddl)

ChiT <- 2\* ( LLPSI0+LLPSI1) - (LL1) ; ChiT ChiTddl <- (2-1)\*length(coef(Logit1)); ChiTddl

```
## 'log Lik.' -10.98064 (df=3)
## [1] 4
```

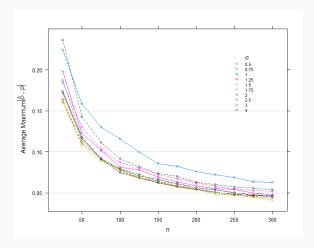
## [1] 9.487729

# Minimum Sample Size Requirement (1)

- Suppose no covariates, only the intercept.
   What is the sample size required to a precision of 0.1 of the predicted probability with 0.95 confidence, when the true intercept near from zero?
- The answer is n = 96
- The general formula for the sample size required to achieve a margin of error of  $\delta$  in estimating a **true probability** of  $\theta$  at the 0.95 confidence level is  $n = \left(\frac{1.96}{\delta}\right)^2 \times \theta(1-\theta)$ . Set  $\theta = 1/2$  (intercept=0) for the worst case.

# **Minimum Sample Size Requirement (2)**

**FIGURE 4 –** Simulated expected maximum error in estimating probabilities for  $x \in [-1.5, 1.5]$  with a single normally distributed X with mean zero



# Exercise (1)

## **Exercise MROZ - Woolridge**

• Reproduce results from the textbook

## References (1)

## Références

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Greene, W. (2008). Econometric Analysis, 6th. Prentice-HallOxford: Clarendon Press edition.

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Krinsky, I. and Robb, A. (1986). On approximating the statistical properties of elasticities. The Review of Economics and Statistics. 64:715–719.

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