

Advanced Topics in Statistical Methods

PLSC 504

Models for Binary and Event Count Responses in Panel Data

October 31 & November 2, 2017

Introduction

Today we'll talk about models for binary and other "ugly" response variables in the panel/TSCS context. We'll discuss fixed-effects models, random-effects models, and the connection between these models and duration models. Next week we'll talk about GEEs.

A Quick Refresher on Binary-Response Logit and Probit

The latent variable approach treats dichotomous dependent variables as essentially a problem of measurement. That is, it starts with the idea that there is a continuous underlying variable in which we are interested, but we are unable to measure it. Instead, we have a dichotomous indicator of that underlying (latent) variable. Call the latent variable Y^* ; the underlying model is:

$$Y_i^* = \mathbf{X}_i\beta + u_i \quad (1)$$

This model has the usual OLS-type assumptions; in particular, that u_i is randomly-distributed according to some known distribution (e.g., Normal). However, we observe only the following realization of Y^* :

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= 0 \text{ if } Y_i^* \leq 0 \\ Y_i &= 1 \text{ if } Y_i^* > 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(Y_i = 1) &= \Pr(Y_i^* > 0) \\ &= \Pr(\mathbf{X}_i\beta + u_i > 0) \\ &= \Pr(u_i > -\mathbf{X}_i\beta) \\ &= \Pr(u_i \leq \mathbf{X}_i\beta) \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality holds because of the symmetry of the distribution of the u_i s. In other words, $Y = 1$ if the "random part" is less than (or equal to) the "systematic part." How do we figure out this probability?

If we assume that u follows some distribution, we could integrate over that distribution to get an idea of the probability that u_i fell above some point (e.g. $\mathbf{X}_i\beta$). And, in fact, this is exactly what we do. In particular, if we assume that the u_i s follow a standard logistic distribution, we get a logit model:

$$\Pr(u) \equiv \lambda(u) = \frac{\exp(u)}{[1 + \exp(u)]^2} \quad (2)$$

That's the PDF, the term for the probability that u takes on some specific value. If we want to know the probability that (e.g.) u is less than or equal to some value, we consider the cumulative distribution function of the logit, which is:

$$\Lambda(u) = \int \lambda(u) du = \frac{\exp(u)}{1 + \exp(u)} \quad (3)$$

This function represents the probability that a variable distributed as standard logistic will be above some value u . It defines the familiar S-shape of a logit curve. Once we've made this assumption, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(Y = 1) &= \Pr(Y^* > 0) \\
&= \Pr(u_i \leq \mathbf{X}_i\beta) \\
&= \frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

This is the basic form of the probability for the logit model. To get a probability statement for every observation i in our data, we want to think of the probability of getting a zero (one) given the values of the covariates and the parameters. That is, the likelihood for a given observation i is:

$$L_i = \left(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)} \right)^{Y_i} \left[1 - \left(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)} \right) \right]^{1-Y_i} \tag{5}$$

That is, observations with $Y = 1$ contribute $\Pr(Y_i = 1|\mathbf{X}_i)$ to the likelihood, while those for which $Y = 0$ contribute $\Pr(Y_i = 0|\mathbf{X}_i)$. Assuming independent observations, we can take the product over the N observations in our data to get the overall likelihood:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)} \right)^{Y_i} \left[1 - \left(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)} \right) \right]^{1-Y_i} \tag{6}$$

Taking the natural logarithm of this yields:

$$\ln L = \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i \ln \left(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)} \right) + (1 - Y_i) \ln \left[1 - \left(\frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)} \right) \right] \tag{7}$$

We can then maximize this log-likelihood with respect to the $\hat{\beta}$ s to obtain our MLEs. Alternatively, if we assume that our u_i s follow a *standard normal* distribution:

$$\phi(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{u^2}{2} \right) \tag{8}$$

then the cumulative distribution function (*cdf*) is:

$$\Phi(u) = \int_{-\infty}^u \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{u^2}{2} \right) du \tag{9}$$

which yields the *probit* model:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(Y_i = 1) &= \Phi(\mathbf{X}_i\beta) \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\mathbf{X}_i\beta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)^2}{2} \right) d\mathbf{X}_i\beta.
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The corresponding (log)likelihood is:

$$\ln L = \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i \ln \Phi(\mathbf{X}_i\beta) + (1 - Y_i) \ln \Phi(\mathbf{X}_i\beta) \tag{11}$$

Note a few things about both of these two models:

- Each has three necessary identifying assumptions:

1. That the “threshold” point for going from $Y = 0$ to $Y = 1$ is $Y^* > 0$. In this context, this is not a big deal, provided we include an intercept in the model.
2. That the conditional mean of the errors is zero; i.e. $E(u_i|\mathbf{X}, \beta) = 0$ (again, this is not a problem provided one has an intercept in the model).
3. That the variances are either $\frac{\pi^2}{3}$ or one (for logit and probit, respectively).

Of these, only the last assumption is ever particularly problematic

- Either can be motivated through a random utility model of individual choice, of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= A \text{ if } E[U(A)] > E[U(SQ)] \\ &= SQ \text{ if } E[U(SQ)] > E[U(A)] \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} E[U(A)] &= \mathbf{X}_{iA}\beta + u_{iA} \\ E[U(SQ)] &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(Y = A) &= \Pr\{E[U(A)] > E[U(SQ)]\} \\ &= \Pr\{(\mathbf{X}_{iA}\beta + u_{iA}) > 0\}. \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Finally, there is the *complementary log-log* (“c-log-log”) model:

$$\Pr(Y_i = 1) = 1 - \exp[-\exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)], \tag{13}$$

which has a likelihood and log-likelihood similar to those in (7) and (11), above. An important difference, however, is that – unlike logit and probit – the c-log-log response curve is asymmetrical, rising slowly at first, and then increasing more steeply in X . The three CDFs for these models are presented in Figure .

Panel/TSCS Data Issues

It’s no big surprise that panel/TSCS models for binary dependent variables introduce some complications vis-à-vis the continuous-variable models we’ve discussed so far. We’ll start with the basic binary-dependent-variable setup, as a latent-variable formulation:

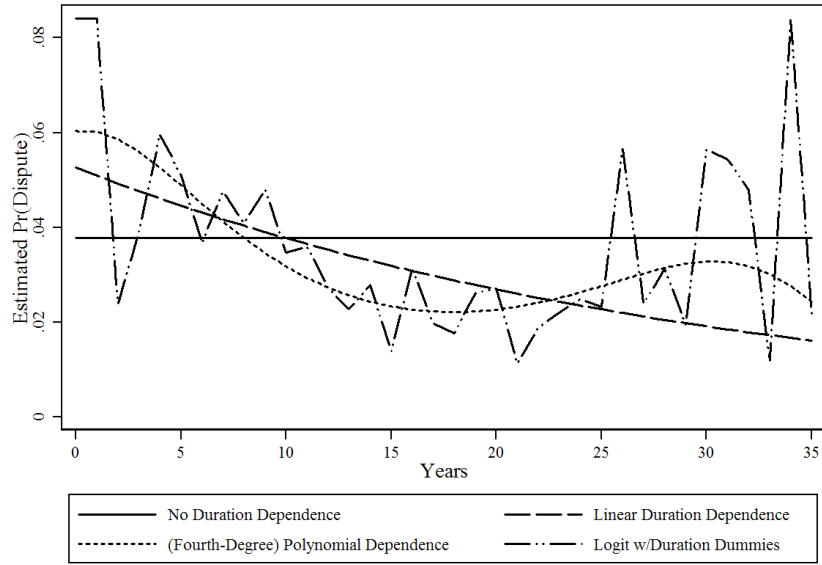
$$\begin{aligned} Y_{it}^* &= \mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + u_{it} \\ Y_{it} &= 0 \text{ if } Y_{it}^* \leq 0 ; \\ &= 1 \text{ if } Y_{it}^* > 0 \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

so that I’ll usually write

$$Y_{it} = f(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + u_{it}) \tag{15}$$

where the $f(\cdot)$ indicates either a logit or probit functional form (which one really doesn’t matter, at least not yet ... I’ll let you know when it does). This general models is no different than a standard logit/probit setup, except that we now have \mathbf{X} and Y indexed by both i and t .

Figure 1: Probit, Logit, and C-Log-Log CDFs



What Can Go Wrong?

The potential problems with panel/TSCS data in the binary context are similar to those for continuous variables: if there is unaccounted-for dependence across observations, it can mess up your estimates. Poirier and Ruud (1988) show that, when probit errors are correlated, ordinary probit still produces consistent estimates of the β s (albeit inefficient ones, and with incorrect standard errors); this is similar to the same result for standard time-series with autocorrelated errors. Beck and Katz (1997) simulate data that fits (14) with:

$$\begin{aligned} X_{it} &= \rho_X \mathbf{X}_{it-1} + \nu_{it} \\ u_{it} &= \rho_u u_{it-1} + \epsilon_{it} \end{aligned}$$

and found that, when the ρ s were high, plain-vanilla logit and probit models underestimate the variability of the β s by as much as 50 percent.

There are other issues as well, particularly if/when there is more direct autoregressiveness (e.g., when the value of Y depends directly on past values); we'll talk about these in a bit.

Solution #1: Fixed Effects

One way of dealing with dependence / heterogeneity in binary-response models is through the use of fixed effects:

$$Y_{it} = f(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + \alpha_i + u_{it}) \quad (16)$$

Note that the fixed-effects approach doesn't lend itself to a probit model, so we'll limit the discussion to fixed-effects logit:

$$\Pr(Y_{it} = 1) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + \alpha_i)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + \alpha_i)} \equiv \Lambda(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + \alpha_i) \quad (17)$$

General Issues

The fixed-effects logit specification is both similar to and a bit different than that for continuous dependent variables.

Variances

Because the variance of the latent variable is “lost”, we can identify β only up to a scale factor (that is, we can estimate $\frac{\beta}{\sigma_u}$). We typically have to impose some sort of normalization on the variance term – e.g., setting it to 1.0 in the probit case. In the fixed-effects case, we have the conditional variance, $\text{Var}(u_{it}|\alpha_i)$ which is subject to this normalization.

Incidental Parameters and Consistency

As in the case of a continuous variable, we have an incidental parameters problem: as $N \rightarrow \infty$, the number of α s increases as well. This means that the fixed-effects logit model is only consistent in T .

There’s another problem here, too, however, which is that, unlike in the linear case, *the fact that the α s are inconsistent “pollutes” the estimates of β as well*. This means that, even as $N \rightarrow \infty$, we still don’t get $\hat{\beta} \rightarrow \beta$. Statistically, we can’t “sweep out” the heterogeneity by taking deviations from within-group means, the way we did in the linear model. The practical importance of this fact is that, rather than simply estimating a fixed-effects logit model, we need to reconsider how we estimate this model.

Andersen (1970, 1973; see also Chamberlain 1980) came up with a way to rid ourselves of the heterogeneity, by considering a function of β that is independent of the α s. The unconditional likelihood for the model in (17) is similar to that in (6):

$$L^U = \prod_{i=1}^N \prod_{t=1}^T \Lambda(\mathbf{X}_{it} + \alpha_i)^{Y_{it}} [1 - \Lambda(\mathbf{X}_{it} + \alpha_i)]^{1-Y_{it}} \quad (18)$$

Chamberlain suggested conditioning each set of observations on the number of “1s” for that particular unit. This yields the *conditional likelihood*:

$$L^C = \prod_{i=1}^N \Pr \left(Y_{i1} = y_{i1}, Y_{i2} = y_{i2}, \dots, Y_{iT} = y_{iT} \mid \sum_{t=1}^T Y_{it} \right) \quad (19)$$

So, for example, suppose that we have a large N and $T = 2$. There are thus four possibilities: $(Y_{i1}, Y_{i2}) = (0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$. Note that:

- $\Pr(Y_{i1} = 0 \text{ and } Y_{i2} = 0 \mid \sum_T Y_{it} = 0) = 1.0$
- $\Pr(Y_{i1} = 1 \text{ and } Y_{i2} = 1 \mid \sum_T Y_{it} = 2) = 1.0$

This means (in the context of unit-level fixed effects) that these contribute a value of 1.0 to the likelihood in (19), and so tell us nothing about the process driving the difference between 0s and 1s. These observations thus “drop out” of the estimation.¹ For the other two possibilities, we have:

¹Another way to think about this is that when, for some observation i , Y_{it} always equals one, it becomes impossible to estimate α_i , since in order for $\Pr(Y_{it} = 1)$, α_i must equal infinity. Conversely, if Y_{it} always

$$\Pr\left(Y_{i1} = 0 \text{ and } Y_{i2} = 1 \mid \sum_T Y_{it} = 1\right) = \frac{\Pr(0, 1)}{\Pr(0, 1) + \Pr(1, 0)} \quad (20)$$

with a similar statement for $\Pr(Y_{i1} = 0 \text{ and } Y_{i2} = 1 \mid \sum_T Y_{it} = 1)$. Equation (20) yields probabilities in which the α s drop out of the likelihood (see Greene 1997 for a detailed exposition); these can then be maximized. Hence, the same “conditional likelihood”, or “conditional fixed effects logit”.

The intuition of all this is that, if we know the total number of “1s”, we can condition on this to get estimates of β . For a particular unit i , the α_i determines the overall proportion of 1s in the data, while the \mathbf{X}_i s (and the β s) determine *when* those 1s occur.

Other Practical Matters

- As with standard fixed effects, we cannot use fixed-effects logit to estimate the effects of variables that don’t vary over time.
- Interpretation is standard, but conditional on the value of the fixed effects. That means that, when you generate (e.g.) predicted probabilities, you have to select a value for α_i , since the nonlinearity of the functional form has an impact on the “location” along that S-curve (and thus on the marginal influence of \mathbf{X} on Y).
- As always, *think* about whether fixed effects make sense; in many instances (e.g., see below), they don’t. This is especially true (as in the linear case) when you have very large numbers of (and/or) uninteresting units (e.g., panel surveys, or dyadic IR data).

Fixed Effects and Dyadic IR Data

Green et al. (2001) make a case for fixed effects in the context of studies of international conflict. Their point is that dyadic data almost certainly have heterogeneity (i.e., unobserved, unmeasured variation) by dyad, that if we ignore that heterogeneity we get lousy estimates of the β s, and that fixed effects are a good way of dealing with the heterogeneity. They also show that, if one does account for fixed effects, a big chunk of the “liberal peace” result goes away (e.g., democracy and trade no longer cause peace...).

There are a number of critiques of their findings in the paper, but the ones we care about are those of Beck & Katz, and of King. B&K have several problems with the Green et al. analysis...

- Fixed effects eat up LOTS of degrees of freedom.
- They prevent you from estimating the effects of variables that don’t vary over time (e.g., contiguity).
- They don’t use any information from dyads that never (or always) go to war ... they assume that the (non-)presence of war in these cases is due entirely to the “proper noun” aspects of the dyad.
- Fixed effects don’t make a lot of sense in the context of dyadic IR data; we’d much prefer to have more theoretical explanations for conflict...

I’m with B&K on this one... But, we’ll talk a *lot* more about this when we get to survival models.

equals zero, then α_i must equal negative infinity. Thus, we can’t use these observations in our estimation. In fact, if you try to estimate such a model on such data in **Stata**, it will drop the observations that are uniformly $Y = 1$ (and/or $Y = 0$), albeit while informing you that it is doing so.

Random-Effects Probit

Random effects models for binary data offer many of the same advantages and disadvantages as do those for continuous data. We'll discuss these, and work through an example or two.

Derivation and Estimation

We start with the same model as before:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{it}^* &= \mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + u_{it} \\ Y_{it} &= 0 \text{ if } Y_{it}^* \leq 0 ; \\ &= 1 \text{ if } Y_{it}^* > 0 \end{aligned}$$

As in the linear case, we can then decompose the error term into two components:

$$u_{it} = \alpha_i + \eta_{it} \quad (21)$$

where we assume that $\eta_{it} \sim \text{i.i.d. } N(0,1)$, and that the α s are independent random draws from a normal distribution $\alpha_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\alpha^2)$. This means that:

$$\text{Var}(u_{it}) = 1 + \sigma_\alpha^2 \quad (22)$$

Furthermore, the common error component α_i means that, within units, the u_{it} s will be (equi)correlated. The magnitude of that correlation is given by:

$$\text{Corr}(u_{it}, u_{is}, t \neq s) \equiv \rho = \frac{\sigma_\alpha^2}{1 + \sigma_\alpha^2} \quad (23)$$

(Note that this, in turn, means that we can write $\sigma_\alpha^2 = \frac{\rho}{1-\rho}$).

Consider first random-effects probit. If the various realizations of Y_{it} for each i were independent, we could simply run a plain-vanilla probit. Because they are correlated, however, things are more difficult; the common α_i s mean that the T_i observations on unit i are conditionally distributed according to a T -variate normal distribution. This means that the likelihood is really complicated; the contribution of unit i to the likelihood is:

$$\begin{aligned} L_i &= \text{Prob}(Y_{i1} = y_{i1}, Y_{i2} = y_{i2}, \dots, Y_{iT} = y_{iT}) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{X_{i1}\beta} \int_{-\infty}^{X_{i2}\beta} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{X_{iT}\beta} \phi(u_{i1}, u_{i2} \dots u_{iT}) du_{iT} \dots du_{i2} du_{i1} \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

Similarly, if we consider random-effects logit, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} L_i &= \text{Prob}(Y_{i1} = y_{i1}, Y_{i2} = y_{i2}, \dots, Y_{iT} = y_{iT}) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{X_{i1}\beta} \int_{-\infty}^{X_{i2}\beta} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{X_{iT}\beta} \lambda(u_{i1}, u_{i2} \dots u_{iT}) du_{iT} \dots du_{i2} du_{i1} \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

Obviously, as T gets larger, this problem gets harder and harder. There are two ways of dealing with this issue. The classic econometric approach is due to Butler and Moffitt (1982; and others as well), who figured out that, because the dependence in the u s is completely due to the common variation in the α s, we can eliminate the higher-order integrals by conditioning on the α s, and integrating them out of the likelihood. So, for (e.g.) the random-effects probit, this gives:

$$\phi(u_{i1}, u_{i2}, \dots, u_{iT}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(u_{i1}, u_{i2}, \dots, u_{iT} \mid \alpha_i) \phi(\alpha_i) d\alpha_i \quad (26)$$

This approach limits us to evaluating one-dimensional integrals, which is easier. An approximation known as Gauss-Hermite quadrature is most often used to evaluate the likelihood.²

A second alternative is to adopt a formally Bayesian approach, and to sample from the posterior of (24) to arrive at estimates. I am somewhat (but not completely) certain that one can do this in WinBUGS, and/or in other Bayesian/MCMC-type statistical packages.

More Practical Stuff

As with the linear case, the standard random-effects probit model makes a few key assumptions, and has a few key characteristics as well:

- Most important is that $\text{Cov}(X_{it}, \alpha_i) = 0$; this assumption is critical in order to get consistent estimates of the β s (but we'll discuss a model that doesn't require this assumption in a minute...).
- The Butler and Moffitt simplification also requires that correlations be equal across all T periods (that is, that the induced dependence in u_{it} is the same, irrespective of the lag at which that dependence occurs). But this is a relatively minor thing, given how much simpler their approach makes computation.
- This model is most appropriate when you have a relatively large N , and relatively small T (that is, with "panel data"). The complexity of the problem (and the inaccuracy of the conditional estimator) grows as T gets larger, and becomes really intractable above $T = 15$ or so (or so says Greene the non-Bayesian...).
- The estimate $\hat{\rho}$ can be thought of as the proportion of the variance due to the random effects, and so tells you something about the importance of unit-specific effects on Y . In point of fact, there are lots of different ways of going about estimating $\hat{\rho}$ – more on this in a minute.
- Stata implements random-effects probit as `-xtprobit`, ... `re-`. It uses Gauss-Hermite quadrature, and can be pretty slow. Also, in order to ensure that your results are just do to a bad approximation, its a good idea to use `-quadchk-` after estimating such a model; that retries the model using a different number of quadrature "support points", and reports those results. If the results vary a lot by the number of points used, then `-xtprobit-` using quadrature may not be reliable.

Chamberlain's CRE Estimator

As in the linear model, the requirement that $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_{it}, \alpha_i) = 0$ is a doozy. Chamberlain (1984) derives a model in which this assumption is relaxed. He does this by assuming that:

$$\alpha_i = \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_{it} A_t + \nu_i \quad (27)$$

²Gauss-Hermite quadrature is a means of approximating a hard (i.e. non-closed-form) integral. Formally, $\int_L^U W(x)f(x)dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^M w_j f(a_j)$, where $W(x)$ is a "weighting function", the w_j s are the "quadrature weights," and the a_j s are the "quadrature abscissas" (or "support points") (Greene 1997, 190; Jäkel 2005). The intuition is to approximate the shape of the function by considering a weighted sum of its values at a number of points along its length. The greater the number of support points, the more accurate the approximation.

where $\nu_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\nu^2)$ and $\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_{it}, \nu_i) = 0$. That is, the estimator assumes that the relationship between the \mathbf{X}_{it} s and the α_i s is completely captured by a model that includes the leads and lags of the \mathbf{X} s. The basic equation in (14) then becomes:

$$Y_{it}^* = \mathbf{X}_{it}\beta + \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_{it}A_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (28)$$

where $\epsilon_{it} = \nu_i + \eta_{it}$.

This general model is known as the “correlated random effects” (CRE) model. This model was introduced to political science by Wawro (2001), in his study of campaign contributions and roll call votes. Note several things about the CRE model:

- Estimation is done by first estimating separate independent probits for each time period, and then “stacking” those reduced-form estimates and using (e.g.) a minimum-distance estimator to impose restrictions on that vector to obtain estimates of β and A_t . Hsiao (1986, 165-7) has details on this; there is also a source for GAUSS code listed in Greg’s article.
- An advantage of this approach is that one can do a standard Wald-type test to determine whether or not the X s and the α s are correlated.
- A disadvantage is that, because we’re including leads and lags of \mathbf{X}_{it} in the model, we can no longer include \mathbf{X} s that don’t vary over time (to do so would induce perfect collinearity). So, that’s a potentially large disadvantage, particularly if, as may be the case, some of those variables are correlated with the α s...
- Caveat emptor: some of the assumptions/restrictions necessary to identify this model may be no more realistic than those for a plain-vanilla-random effects probit...

Binary Panel/TSCS Models in Stata

There are a number of these models that can be estimated using **Stata**. The relevant ones for today are:

- **xtlogit**
 - This is the command to do panel/TSCS binary logistic regression.
 - Options include **fe** (fixed effects), **re** (random effects), and **pa** (population averaged / GEE).
 - Random effects models are estimated via Gauss-Hermite quadrature; use the **intp** option to denote the number of quadrature points (default = 12). You can also specify adaptive or nonadaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature; I don’t recommend mucking around with this unless you have to...
- **xtprobit**
 - This is (surprise!) the command to estimate panel/TSCS binary probit models.
 - Options are the same as for **xtlogit**, but without fixed effects: **re** is for random effects, and **pa** gets you population averaged / GEE models.
 - Same holds for the **intp** option for **re** models.
- **xtcloglog**
 - Estimates random-effects (**re** option) and population-averaged (**pa** option) models with a complimentary log-log link: $\Pr(Y_{it} = 1) = 1 - \exp[-\exp(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta)]$. This is a non-symmetrical CDF corresponding to an extreme-value PDF.

There are also a few useful non-estimation commands for these sort of data...

- **xttrans**

- A command that displays *transition probabilities* – that is, a unit-specific crosstab of Y_{it} and Y_{it-1} .
- The **freq** option also causes frequencies to be displayed; otherwise, the table just contains percentages.
- This can be useful for getting a sense of whether or not there are temporal trends in the data of any importance.

- **quadchk**

- Used after any of the **re** models mentioned above.
- A robustness check command; it reestimates the immediately preceding random effects model, using both smaller (-4) and larger (+4) numbers of quadrature points; it then presents the absolute and relative differences in the coefficients across the three models.
- In general, we'd like the relative differences to be less than one percent (i.e., 0.01) to be sure that the (arbitrary) choice of quadrature points isn't driving the results.

- **xtrho / xtrhoi**

- Estimates the within-unit covariance following any of the random effects models described above.
- According to its help file, "The distribution of the possible outcomes for two observations in the same group (as defined by the **i()** option in the estimation command) may be viewed as a 2×2 contingency table, with cell probabilities depending on the values of the linear predictor ($\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$) and the standard deviation of the random effect (σ_α). **xtrho** estimates this table using numerical integration and reports the marginal probability of a positive outcome and the joint probability of two positive outcomes in the same group. Together, these two quantities define all four cell probabilities. The command then calculates three standard measures of association based on the 2×2 table: Pearson's linear correlation coefficient r , the odds ratio, and Yule's Q coefficient, which in 2×2 tables coincides with Goodman and Kruskal's γ ."
- The command also reports the predicted marginal probability of a positive outcome (that is, $\Pr(Y_{it} = 1 \mid \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}, \sigma_\alpha)$), as well as the predicted joint probability (that is, $\Pr(Y_{it} = 1 \text{ and } Y_{is} = 1 \mid \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}, \sigma_\alpha)$).
- It does this for $\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$ values equal to the data medians in the estimation sample, and with $\sigma_\alpha = \hat{\sigma}_\alpha$, and reports standard errors for all quantities of interest.
- **xtrhoi** allows the user to set $\mathbf{X}\hat{\beta}$ to some value(s) of particular interest.
- The command also contains a very useful detail option that will calculate the same quantities for the first, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 99th percentiles of the data.

An Example: Comparing Fixed and Random Effects for Binary Data

To compare fixed and random effects models for binary data, I look at data from Segal (1986), on Supreme Court search and seizure cases, 1962-1981. The dependent variable is whether each justice ($N = 14$) voted to allow the search to occur (=1) or not (=0) in each case ($\bar{T} = 74.1$). This is a function of eight variables:

- **warrant**: Whether (=1) or not (=0) a warrant was issued,
- **house**: Whether (=1) or not (=0) the search was of a private home,

- **person:** Whether (=1) or not (=0) the search was of a person,
- **business:** Whether (=1) or not (=0) the search was of a business,
- **car:** Whether (=1) or not (=0) the search was of an automobile,
- **us:** Whether (=1) or not (=0) the U.S. government was the petitioner,
- **except:** The number of “exceptions” outlined by the Court under which the search fell, and
- **justideo:** The justice’s Segal-Cover (1989) ideology score, ranging from zero (most conservative) to 1 (most liberal).

Note that:

1. Because the justices’ Segal-Cover scores don’t vary over “time” (that is, cases), the fixed effects model can’t estimate the coefficient for that variable.
2. The results are generally pretty similar, though the coefficients are of different sizes (because one is logit, the other probit).
3. The `-quadchk-` indicates that there isn’t a large amount of variation in the coefficients as a function of the number of quadrature points used. (The rule of thumb is that you want less than a 1% relative change from one set of points to another). This is good; it means that we can be relatively confident that our results aren’t driven by that (mostly arbitrary) decision.

Tobit Models for Censored Panel Data

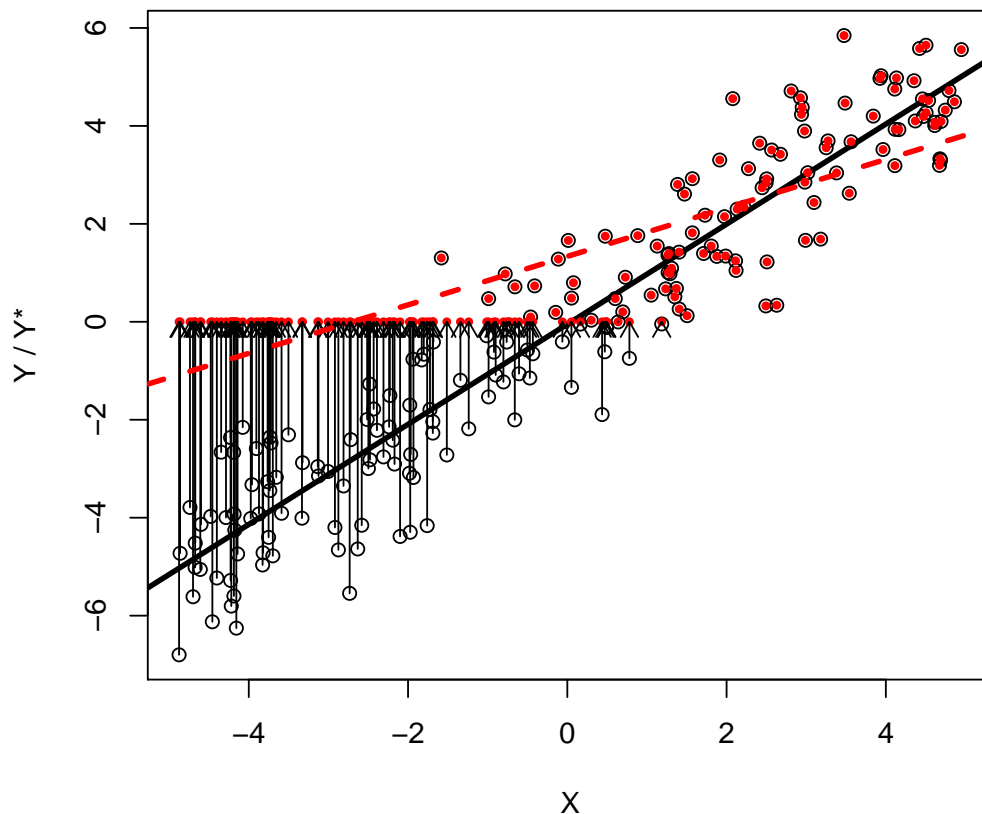
Another form of data we often encounter is *censored* data, of the form:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= Y_i^* \text{ if } Y_i^* > L \\ &= L \text{ if } Y_i^* \leq L \end{aligned}$$

Here, Y is censored from below; it is also possible to have “top”-censoring, or censoring both from below and from above. Often, censoring from below occurs at a value of zero, as in cases where the response measures the extent of some trait or characteristic and negative values are not possible.

It’s long been well-understood that using standard methods (e.g., OLS) on censored data will yield estimates that are both biased and inconsistent (e.g., Tobin 1958; Amemiya 1973). The direction of the bias is towards zero; the magnitude of the bias is more-or-less proportional to the fraction of data that are censored (e.g., Goldberger 1972; Greene 1981). Intuitively, the reason for this is that the censoring mechanism nonrandomly attenuates the variability in Y , leading to incorrect estimates of β . Additionally, the estimator is inconsistent because (intuitively) no amount of additional (censored) data will cause the bias to disappear (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Tobit – Intuition



Suppose (as we’ve been doing in the linear case) we begin with a model like

$$Y_i^* = \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + u_i, \quad (29)$$

and the usual assumption that $u_i \sim \text{i.i.d. } N(0, \sigma^2)$. The observed variable Y_i is therefore something like a mix between a binary indicator (below the cut-point L) and a more-or-less standard linear regression model above L . In particular, we can think of two types of observations: those with $Y^* > L$, and those with $Y^* \leq L$.

For the former cases, we observe the “real” value of Y^* , such that the likelihood for those observations conforms to a standard linear model:

$$\mathbf{L}_1(\beta, \sigma^2 | Y, L) = \prod_{Y_i > L} \phi(Y_i^* | \mathbf{X}_i, \beta, \sigma^2). \quad (30)$$

For the cases with $Y = L$, we know only that $Y^* \leq L$; we can think of this as one outcome of a binary response (i.e., $Y = L$ vs. $Y \neq L$). This suggests that:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(Y_i = L) &= \Pr(Y_i^* \leq L) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^L \phi(Y_i^* | \mathbf{X}_i, \beta, \sigma^2) dY^* \\ &= \Phi(L | \mathbf{X}_i, \beta, \sigma^2). \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

This second term is a lot like a probit probability, and leads to a likelihood for the observations with $Y = L$ of:

$$\mathbf{L}_2(\beta, \sigma^2 | Y, L) = \prod_{Y_i = L} \Phi(L | \mathbf{X}_i, \beta, \sigma^2). \quad (32)$$

The combined likelihood for the two models is then equal to

$$\mathbf{L}(\beta, \sigma^2 | Y, L) = \prod_{Y_i > L} \phi(Y_i^* | \mathbf{X}_i, \beta, \sigma^2) \prod_{Y_i = L} \Phi(L | \mathbf{X}_i, \beta, \sigma^2). \quad (33)$$

This is the tobit model (for “Tobin’s probit”). Amemiya (1973) showed that the likelihood in (33) yields consistent estimates of $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$. In addition, the β s can be interpreted in the standard way (i.e., as if they were OLS estimates).

A Panel Tobit Estimator

A number of individuals have developed modified Tobit estimators for panel/TSCS data. The two most commonly-seen are fixed- and random-effects models for unit intercepts:

$$Y_i^* = \mathbf{X}_i\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha_i + u_i \quad (34)$$

As with the logit model we discussed yesterday, the unconditional fixed effects Tobit model (that is, estimating the model in (33) with $N - 1$ indicator variables for each unit) yields coefficient estimates that are biased, for the same intuitive reasons as we discussed in the logit case. However, unlike the logit case (where we could condition on the sufficient statistic $\sum_T Y_{it}$ to remove the unit effects and derive a conditional estimator), there is no analogous sufficient statistic in the Tobit case. As a result, fixed effects are generally not estimated in a Tobit context.³

More commonly used is a random-effects specification of (34); this model is available in **Stata** as `xttobit`, and can also be estimated in **R** using the parametric models available in the `survival` package. We’ll review an illustration of this model in the examples.

³Honore (1992 *Econometrica*) develops a semiparametric fixed-effects Tobit estimator; read his article if this sounds like something you might have a use for.

Models for Panel/TSCS Event Counts

There are basically three kinds of panel/TSCS models for event count data: fixed-effects, random-effects and marginal (i.e., GEE) models.

Event Count Data

Data where the response variable is a nonnegative integer count – the number of occurrences of some event in a given period (or other defined unit).

The most basic model for counts of events is the Poisson:

$$\Pr(Y_i = y) = \frac{\exp(-\lambda_i)\lambda_i^y}{y!} \quad (35)$$

where μ_i is the expected value of Y_i and we typically introduce covariates as $\mu_i = \exp(\mathbf{X}_i\beta)$. I won't go into the Poisson distribution that much here; take the MLE class for the details. Importantly, though, the Poisson distribution has the property that $E(Y) = \text{Var}(Y)$; if this is not the case, then other models (e.g., the negative binomial model) are necessary.

Fixed Effects Models for Count Data

The fixed-effects Poisson model is:

$$Y_{it} \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_{it} = \alpha_i \lambda_{it}) \quad (36)$$

where, as above, $\lambda_{it} = \exp(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta)$. Note that this specification means that the conditional expectation of Y is:

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y_{it} \mid \mathbf{X}_{it}, \alpha_i) &= \mu_{it} \\ &= \alpha_i \exp(\mathbf{X}_{it}\beta) \\ &= \exp(\delta_i + \mathbf{X}_{it}\beta) \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

where $\delta_i = \ln(\alpha_i)$.

If N is small (and fixed), this model can be estimated in the standard fashion, simply by including dummy variables for each of the N units i . Thus, as with other kinds of models, fixed-effects are reasonable only when N is small relative to T , and when N is not increasing (that is, when one's asymptotics don't need to depend on N). However, Lancaster (in Cameron and Trivedi 1998) shows that there is no “incidental parameters problem” for Poisson regression, using a “concentrated likelihood” (see Cameron and Trivedi, pp. 281-2). One therefore needs to use a “conditional” approach, similar to that for fixed-effects logit, in which the fixed effects are conditioned on the sum of the event counts within the panel and then concentrated out of the likelihood. As with conditional fixed-effects logit, this relies on the fact that observations across units are independent (i.e., that the fixed effects completely capture the unobserved heterogeneity in the data).

In **Stata**, this is accomplished through the `-xtpois, fe-` command. Interpretation is standard for Poisson models, with the usual caveat that results are conditional on the values of the fixed effects. Note as well that, for overdispersed data, there is also a conditional fixed-effects negative binomial model (in **Stata**, `-xtnbreg, fe-`). In **R**, we can estimate the same model using the `glmmML` package.

Random-Effects Models for Event Count Data

The random-effects Poisson model is similar to that for (e.g.) logit and probit, in that we assume that the α_i s are distributed as some i.i.d. random variable, which we then integrate out of the likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(Y_{i1} = y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{iT} = y_{iT}) &= \int_0^\infty \Pr(Y_{i1} = y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{iT} = y_{iT}) f(\alpha_i) d\alpha_i \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left[\prod_{t=1}^T \Pr(Y_{it} | \alpha_i) \right] f(\alpha_i) d\alpha_i\end{aligned}\tag{38}$$

The simplest distribution to use for the α_i s is the *Gamma*, with an expected value and variance equal to some parameter θ . (The gamma is the conjugate distribution for the Poisson.) The result is a likelihood (see Cameron and Trivedi, p. 288) which is relatively straightforward to maximize. The random-effects Poisson model has $E(Y_{it}) = \lambda_{it}$ and $\text{Var}(Y_{it}) = \lambda_{it} + \frac{\lambda_{it}^2}{\theta}$. The **Stata** command is `-xtpois, re-`, while **glmmML** is the way to go in **R**; and interpretation is also as with other conditional-effect models.

One can also estimate this model assuming that the α_i s are distributed normally, in which case the quadrature procedure used for random-effects probit (or some other approach, e.g. MCMC, a la Chib et al. 1998) is necessary. Note as well that there is also a random-effects negative binomial model due to Hausman, Hall and Griliches (1984), which is available only for gamma-distributed α_i s and which is estimable in **Stata** using `-xtnbreg, re-`; negative binomial models are not included in **glmmML**.

An Example

Our example examines data from Phase III of the State Failure Task Force report, and includes examples of panel-data Tobit and event count models; see the slides for details.

Appendix: Materials from the Old Handout

State Failure Task Force Data

. xtides

```
countryid: 2, 3, ..., 195          n =      170
year:      1957, 1962, ..., 1997    T =        9
Delta(year) = 5; (1997-1957)/5 + 1 = 9
(countryid*year uniquely identifies each observation)
```

Distribution of T_i: min 5% 25% 50% 75% 95% max
 1 2 6 8 9 9 9

Freq.	Percent	Cum.	Pattern
79	46.47	46.47	111111111
28	16.47	62.94	.111111111
22	12.94	75.8811
9	5.29	81.18	...111111
9	5.29	86.47	..1111111
7	4.12	90.5911111
5	2.94	93.531
5	2.94	96.47	1111111..
2	1.18	97.65	1111.....
4	2.35	100.00	(other patterns)
170	100.00		XXXXXXXXX

. su countryid year SumEvents ciob cioc POLITY unuurbpc poldurab

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
countryid	1203	97.1064	54.72243	2	195
year	1203	1978.779	12.58559	1957	1997
SumEvents	1194	5.842127	11.88424	0	61
ciob	1203	18.78554	8.11198	0	38
cioc	1203	5.595179	4.541347	0	24
POLITY	1189	-.6644239	7.531924	-10	10
unuurbpc	1146	43.3468	24.57294	2.03	100
poldurab	1198	20.91653	22.83868	0	97

Panel Tobit Models

```
. xtreg SumEvents POLITY unuurbpc poldurab year, re
```

```
Random-effects GLS regression                Number of obs      =       1132
Group variable (i): countryid                Number of groups   =        160
R-sq:  within = 0.1273                       Obs per group: min =         1
        between = 0.0812                               avg =        7.1
        overall = 0.0841                               max =         9
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian                Wald chi2(4)       =       140.29
corr(u_i, X)      = 0 (assumed)              Prob > chi2        =        0.0000
```

```
-----+-----
SumEvents |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
POLITY |   -.1771263   .0554206    -3.20   0.001   -.2857486   -.0685039
unuurbpc |  -.0792978   .0274317    -2.89   0.004   -.133063   -.0255326
poldurab | -.1275142   .0201363    -6.33   0.000   -.1669806   -.0880478
year |   .2667588   .024654    10.82   0.000   .2184379   .3150797
_cons |   -516.75   48.19351   -10.72   0.000  -611.2075  -422.2924
-----+-----
sigma_u |  8.3658691
sigma_e |  7.7868834
rho |   .5357984   (fraction of variance due to u_i)
-----+-----
```

```
. xttobit SumEvents POLITY unuurbpc poldurab year, re ll(0)
```

```
Random-effects tobit regression                Number of obs      =       1132
Group variable (i): countryid                Number of groups   =        160
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian                Obs per group: min =         1
                                                avg =        7.1
                                                max =         9
                                                Wald chi2(4)       =       196.09
Log likelihood = -2042.2823                  Prob > chi2        =        0.0000
```

```
-----+-----
SumEvents |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----
POLITY |   -.4908305   .1005571    -4.88   0.000   -.6879188   -.2937422
unuurbpc | -.1194613   .0505678    -2.36   0.018   -.2185723   -.0203503
poldurab | -.2816857   .0386693    -7.28   0.000   -.3574762   -.2058952
year |   .552916   .0500738    11.04   0.000   .4547731   .6510588
_cons | -1085.844   98.46183   -11.03   0.000  -1278.826  -892.8623
-----+-----
/sigma_u |  18.94774   1.593354    11.89   0.000   15.82482   22.07066
/sigma_e |  12.66688   .4636415    27.32   0.000   11.75816   13.5756
-----+-----
rho |   .6911259   .0384133                .6122919   .7620124
-----+-----
```

```
Observation summary:      707  left-censored observations
                        425  uncensored observations
                        0    right-censored observations
```

Panel Models for Event Counts

```
. poisson ciob POLITY unuurbpc poldurab year
```

```
Poisson regression                                Number of obs   =       1132
                                                    LR chi2(4)      =      1547.22
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0000
Log likelihood = -4059.5127                      Pseudo R2      =       0.1601
```

ciob	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
POLITY	.0103559	.0009817	10.55	0.000	.0084317	.01228
unuurbpc	.0048643	.0003201	15.20	0.000	.004237	.0054916
poldurab	.0020246	.0002948	6.87	0.000	.0014468	.0026025
year	.011826	.000569	20.78	0.000	.0107107	.0129412
_cons	-20.74132	1.125035	-18.44	0.000	-22.94635	-18.53629

```
. xtppoisson ciob POLITY unuurbpc poldurab year, fe
note: 5 groups (5 obs) dropped because of only one obs per group
```

```
Conditional fixed-effects Poisson regression    Number of obs   =       1127
Group variable (i): countryid                  Number of groups =       155
                                                    Obs per group: min =        2
                                                    avg =       7.3
                                                    max =        9
                                                    Wald chi2(4)     =      1208.13
Log likelihood = -2558.3941                      Prob > chi2     =       0.0000
```

ciob	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
POLITY	-.0074369	.0019391	-3.84	0.000	-.0112375	-.0036363
unuurbpc	.0050111	.0015795	3.17	0.002	.0019153	.008107
poldurab	-.0004774	.0007489	-0.64	0.524	-.0019452	.0009905
year	.0184112	.0011151	16.51	0.000	.0162257	.0205966

```
. est store fixed
```

```
. xtpoisson ciob POLITY unuurbpc poldurab year, re
```

```
Random-effects Poisson regression      Number of obs      =      1132
Group variable (i): countryid          Number of groups    =      160
Random effects u_i ~ Gamma              Obs per group: min =      1
                                         avg =      7.1
                                         max =      9
                                         Wald chi2(4)        =    1181.51
Log likelihood = -3390.628              Prob > chi2          =      0.0000
```

ciob	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
POLITY	-.0034547	.0017936	-1.93	0.054	-.0069701	.0000608
unuurbpc	.0061469	.0010388	5.92	0.000	.0041109	.0081829
poldurab	.001147	.0006596	1.74	0.082	-.0001458	.0024398
year	.0163423	.0008313	19.66	0.000	.0147129	.0179717
_cons	-29.7832	1.618543	-18.40	0.000	-32.95549	-26.61092

/lnalpha	-1.951291	.1266443			-2.199509	-1.703072

alpha	.1420906	.017995			.1108576	.1821231

```
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: chibar2(01) = 1337.77 Prob>=chibar2 = 0.000
```

```
. hausman fixed .
```

---- Coefficients ----				
	(b)	(B)	(b-B)	sqrt(diag(V_b-V_B))
	fixed	.	Difference	S.E.
POLITY	-.0074369	-.0034547	-.0039822	.000737
unuurbpc	.0050111	.0061469	-.0011358	.0011899
poldurab	-.0004774	.001147	-.0016244	.0003546
year	.0184112	.0163423	.0020689	.0007431

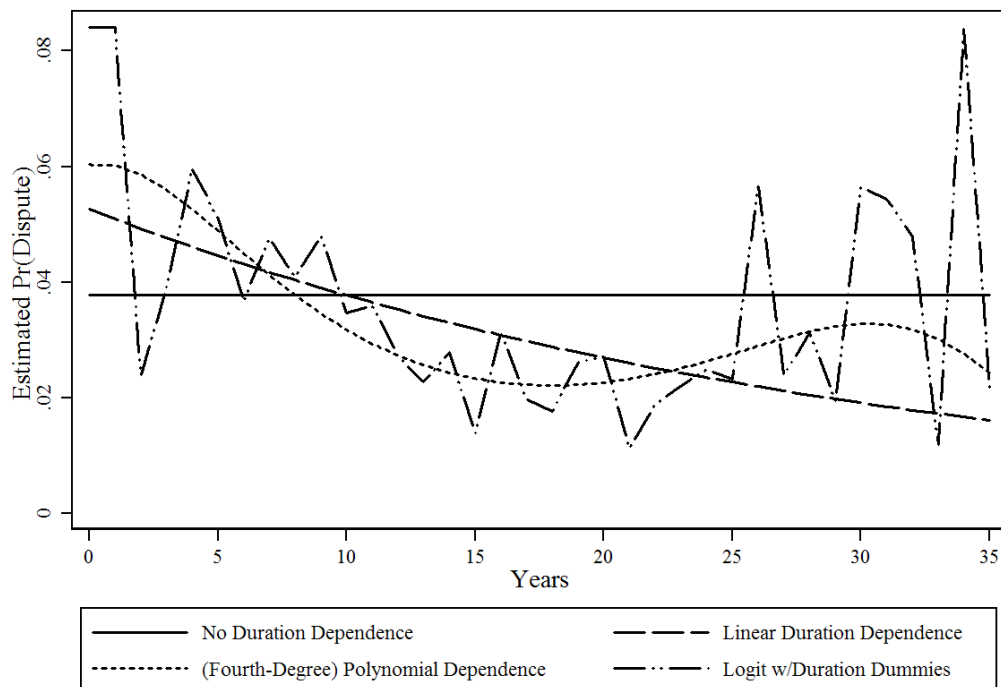
```
b = consistent under Ho and Ha; obtained from xtpoisson
B = inconsistent under Ha, efficient under Ho; obtained from xtpoisson
```

```
Test: Ho: difference in coefficients not systematic
```

```
chi2(4) = (b-B)'[(V_b-V_B)^(-1)](b-B)
        =      293.49
Prob>chi2 =      0.0000
```

Appendix: Material from Old Handout

Figure 3: Probit, Logit, and C-Log-Log CDFs



Segal (1986) Search and Seizure Voting Data...

```
. su vote warrant house person business car us except justideo
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
vote	1037	.5255545	.4995875	0	1
warrant	1037	.1456123	.3528873	0	1
house	1037	.2266152	.4188436	0	1
person	1037	.3114754	.4633201	0	1
business	1037	.1523626	.3595454	0	1
car	1037	.1996143	.3999033	0	1
us	1037	.4541948	.4981377	0	1
except	1037	.3539055	.6033343	0	3
justideo	1037	.5897155	.351096	.045	1

```
. logit vote warrant house person business car us except justideo
```

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	1037
	LR chi2(8)	=	238.15
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log likelihood = -598.36149	Pseudo R2	=	0.1660

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
warrant	.5335293	.2083363	2.56	0.010	.1251976	.9418609
house	-1.083996	.275565	-3.93	0.000	-1.624094	-.5438991
person	-.9438459	.256926	-3.67	0.000	-1.447412	-.4402801
business	-1.472197	.2974792	-4.95	0.000	-2.055245	-.8891481
car	-1.006622	.2816294	-3.57	0.000	-1.558606	-.4546385
us	.482438	.1482433	3.25	0.001	.1918864	.7729896
except	.864028	.138396	6.24	0.000	.5927768	1.135279
justideo	-2.402596	.2157913	-11.13	0.000	-2.825539	-1.979653
_cons	1.941878	.2798735	6.94	0.000	1.393336	2.49042

```
. xtlogit vote warrant house person business car us except justideo, fe
note: multiple positive outcomes within groups encountered.
note: justideo omitted due to no within-group variance.
```

```
Conditional fixed-effects logistic regression      Number of obs      =      1037
Group variable (i): justid                       Number of groups   =       14
                                                Obs per group: min =       24
                                                avg =      74.1
                                                max =      121
                                                LR chi2(7)        =     110.95
Log likelihood = -494.48223                      Prob > chi2        =     0.0000
```

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
warrant	.5911754	.2266173	2.61	0.009	.1470136	1.035337
house	-1.450236	.3027743	-4.79	0.000	-2.043663	-.8568096
person	-1.105403	.2794111	-3.96	0.000	-1.653039	-.5577677
business	-1.807048	.3235041	-5.59	0.000	-2.441105	-1.172992
car	-1.182927	.3054959	-3.87	0.000	-1.781688	-.5841663
us	.5291579	.1606706	3.29	0.001	.2142494	.8440664
except	1.07677	.1541784	6.98	0.000	.7745856	1.378954

```
. xtlogit vote warrant house person business car us except justideo, re
```

```
Random-effects logistic regression      Number of obs      =      1037
Group variable (i): justid             Number of groups   =       14
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian           Obs per group: min =       24
                                                avg =      74.1
                                                max =      121
                                                Wald chi2(8)      =     98.99
Log likelihood = -547.81799             Prob > chi2        =     0.0000
```

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
warrant	.5941799	.2258876	2.63	0.009	.1514483	1.036912
house	-1.433851	.3029375	-4.73	0.000	-2.027598	-.8401043
person	-1.103904	.2796611	-3.95	0.000	-1.65203	-.5557785
business	-1.798843	.3236931	-5.56	0.000	-2.43327	-1.164416
car	-1.180339	.3057377	-3.86	0.000	-1.779574	-.5811046
us	.5311769	.1604217	3.31	0.001	.2167561	.8455977
except	1.070343	.1539737	6.95	0.000	.7685604	1.372126
justideo	-2.34464	.7381789	-3.18	0.001	-3.791444	-.8978355
_cons	2.016532	.565363	3.57	0.000	.9084412	3.124623
/lnsig2u	-.150106	.4286465			-.9902378	.6900257
sigma_u	.9276943	.1988265			.6094984	1.412008
rho	.2073533	.0704514			.1014619	.3773476

```
Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0: chibar2(01) = 101.09 Prob >= chibar2 = 0.000
```

. quadchk

Quadrature check

	Fitted quadrature 12 points	Comparison quadrature 8 points	Comparison quadrature 16 points	
Log likelihood	-547.81799	-547.56451 .253479 -.00046271	-547.82111 -.00311279 5.682e-06	Difference Relative difference
vote: warrant	.59417991	.59590261 .00172269 .00289928	.59333942 -.00084049 -.00141454	Difference Relative difference
vote: house	-1.4338509	-1.432193 .00165794 -.00115628	-1.4371416 -.00329071 .00229502	Difference Relative difference
vote: person	-1.1039043	-1.1032623 .00064197 -.00058155	-1.1052357 -.00133141 .00120609	Difference Relative difference
vote: business	-1.7988429	-1.7987557 .00008726 -.00004851	-1.8010852 -.00224225 .0012465	Difference Relative difference
vote: car	-1.1803395	-1.1800101 .00032935 -.00027903	-1.1816055 -.00126608 .00107264	Difference Relative difference
vote: us	.53117691	.53237692 .00120001 .00225916	.53072834 -.00044857 -.00084448	Difference Relative difference
vote: except	1.0703434	1.0708716 .00052818 .00049347	1.0712912 .00094781 .00088552	Difference Relative difference
vote: justideo	-2.3446395	-2.2697539 .07488561 -.03193907	-2.4082016 -.06356202 .02710951	Difference Relative difference
vote: _cons	2.0165323	2.036018 .01948562 .00966294	2.0010609 -.01547142 -.00767229	Difference Relative difference
lnsig2u: _cons	-.15010605	-.18843793 -.03833189 .25536537	-.05033698 .09976907 -.6646572	Difference Relative difference

Reversing *i* and *t*...

```
. tsset caseid justid
      panel variable:  caseid, 1 to 123
      time variable:  justid, 1 to 14, but with gaps

. xtlogit vote justideo, fe
note: multiple positive outcomes within groups encountered.
note: 24 groups (205 obs) dropped due to all positive or
      all negative outcomes.
Conditional fixed-effects logistic regression   Number of obs   =       832
Group variable (i): caseid                    Number of groups =        99
                                              Obs per group: min =         6
                                              avg =          8.4
                                              max =          9
                                              LR chi2(1)      =      244.77
Log likelihood = -240.63245                    Prob > chi2      =       0.0000
```

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
justideo	-4.755163	.4001315	-11.88	0.000	-5.539407	-3.97092

```
. xtlogit vote warrant house person business car us except justideo, re

Random-effects logistic regression   Number of obs   =      1037
Group variable (i): caseid          Number of groups =      123
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian       Obs per group: min =         6
                                      avg =          8.4
                                      max =          9
                                      Wald chi2(8)    =      156.93
Log likelihood = -505.6138           Prob > chi2     =       0.0000
```

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
warrant	.8458856	.5639042	1.50	0.134	-.2593464	1.951117
house	-1.384585	.7358594	-1.88	0.060	-2.826843	.057673
person	-1.436958	.6908442	-2.08	0.038	-2.790988	-.0829287
business	-2.008578	.7849524	-2.56	0.011	-3.547057	-.4700997
car	-1.472248	.7601121	-1.94	0.053	-2.962041	.0175439
us	.7163863	.4088281	1.75	0.080	-.0849019	1.517675
except	1.248149	.3685106	3.39	0.001	.5258815	1.970417
justideo	-4.512786	.3731841	-12.09	0.000	-5.244213	-3.781359
_cons	3.393873	.6891457	4.92	0.000	2.043173	4.744574
/lnsig2u	1.300159	.2023601			.9035408	1.696778
sigma_u	1.915693	.1938299			1.571091	2.33588
rho	.5273008	.0504392			.4286634	.6238519

```
Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0: chibar2(01) = 185.50 Prob >= chibar2 = 0.000
```



```
. xtprobit vote warrant house person business car us except justideo, re
```

Random-effects probit regression

Group variable (i): justid

Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian

Number of obs = 1037

Number of groups = 14

Obs per group: min = 24

avg = 74.1

max = 121

Wald chi2(8) = 106.79

Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Log likelihood = -547.7384

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
warrant	.3703301	.1345058	2.75	0.006	.1067036	.6339566
house	-.8384161	.1772729	-4.73	0.000	-1.185865	-.4909677
person	-.6150002	.1622197	-3.79	0.000	-.9329449	-.2970555
business	-1.065552	.1876203	-5.68	0.000	-1.433281	-.6978225
car	-.6675218	.1777199	-3.76	0.000	-1.015846	-.3191972
us	.314654	.0943338	3.34	0.001	.1297631	.499545
except	.6349944	.0888851	7.14	0.000	.4607828	.809206
justideo	-1.377226	.4349103	-3.17	0.002	-2.229634	-.5248173
_cons	1.164314	.3313048	3.51	0.000	.5149686	1.81366
/lnsig2u	-1.198905	.4249006			-2.031695	-.3661148
sigma_u	.5491123	.1166591			.3620955	.8327204
rho	.2316701	.0756319			.1159151	.4094802

Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0: chibar2(01) = 100.31 Prob >= chibar2 = 0.000

```
. hausman fixedeffects randomeffects
```

---- Coefficients ----				
	(b)	(B)	(b-B)	sqrt(diag(V_b-V_B))
	fixedeffects	randomeffects	Difference	S.E.
warrant	.5911754	.5941799	-.0030046	.0181707
house	-1.450236	-1.433851	-.0163854	.
person	-1.105403	-1.103904	-.001499	.
business	-1.807048	-1.798843	-.0082053	.
car	-1.182927	-1.180339	-.0025878	.
us	.5291579	.5311769	-.002019	.0089383
except	1.07677	1.070343	.0064263	.0079414

b = consistent under Ho and Ha; obtained from xtlogit

B = inconsistent under Ha, efficient under Ho; obtained from xtlogit

Test: Ho: difference in coefficients not systematic

chi2(7) = (b-B)'[(V_b-V_B)^(-1)](b-B)

= 2.57

Prob>chi2 = 0.9215

(V_b-V_B is not positive definite)

Complementary Log-Log Model with Random Effects

```
. xtcloglog vote warrant house person business car us except justideo, re
```

```
Random-effects complementary log-log model      Number of obs      =      1037
Group variable (i): justid                     Number of groups   =       14

Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian                  Obs per group: min =       24
                                                avg  =      74.1
                                                max  =      121

Log likelihood = -548.09625                    Wald chi2(8)       =     107.03
                                                Prob > chi2        =     0.0000
```

vote	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
warrant	.475615	.1485608	3.20	0.001	.1844413	.7667887
house	-.8349422	.1878358	-4.45	0.000	-1.203094	-.4667909
person	-.6249166	.166492	-3.75	0.000	-.951235	-.2985983
business	-1.172796	.1995928	-5.88	0.000	-1.56399	-.7816008
car	-.6642929	.1829155	-3.63	0.000	-1.022801	-.3057852
us	.3441369	.1037698	3.32	0.001	.1407518	.5475219
except	.7031655	.0960792	7.32	0.000	.5148537	.8914772
justideo	-1.525852	.4986901	-3.06	0.002	-2.503267	-.5484372
_cons	.7518567	.3668267	2.05	0.040	.0328896	1.470824
/lnsig2u	-.9182567	.4244445			-1.750153	-.0863608
sigma_u	.6318342	.1340893			.4168302	.9577386
rho	.1952962	.0667038			.0955348	.3579987

```
Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0: chibar2(01) =    98.06 Prob >= chibar2 = 0.000
```

Binary-Response Panel Models in R

```
> library(foreign)

> SegalVotes<-read.dta("SegalVotes.dta")

> library(glmmML)
```

Random-Effects Logit

```
> SegalRE<-glmmML(vote~warrant+house+person+business+car+us+except+justideo,
  data=SegalVotes, family="binomial", cluster=justid)

> summary(SegalRE)
```

```
Call: glmmML(formula = vote ~ warrant + house + person + business + car +
  us + except + justideo, family = "binomial", data = SegalVotes,
  cluster = justid)
```

	coef	se(coef)	z	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	2.0164	0.5648	3.570	3.56e-04
warrant	0.5942	0.2259	2.630	8.53e-03
house	-1.4340	0.3029	-4.734	2.21e-06
person	-1.1041	0.2797	-3.948	7.89e-05
business	-1.7991	0.3237	-5.558	2.73e-08
car	-1.1805	0.3058	-3.861	1.13e-04
us	0.5312	0.1604	3.311	9.29e-04
except	1.0704	0.1540	6.952	3.59e-12
justideo	-2.3445	0.7372	-3.180	1.47e-03

```
Standard deviation in mixing distribution: 0.9263
Std. Error: 0.1952
```

```
Residual deviance: 1096 on 1027 degrees of freedom      AIC: 1116
```