

Estimation of nested and zero-inflated ordered probit models

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Abstract

We introduce three new STATA commands, `nop`, `ziop2` and `ziop3`, for the estimation of a three-part nested ordered probit model, the two-part zero-inflated ordered probit models of Harris and Zhao (2007, *Journal of Econometrics* 141: 1073–1099) and Brooks, Harris and Spencer (2012, *Economics Letters* 117: 683–686), and a three-part zero-inflated ordered probit model, with both exogenous and endogenous switching. The three-part models allow the probabilities of positive, neutral (zero) and negative outcomes to be generated by distinct processes. The zero-inflated models address the preponderance of zero responses and allow the zeros to emerge in two or three latent regimes. We provide the postestimation commands to compute the predicted probabilities and outcomes, the expected values of dependent variable, the marginal effects on the probabilities, the classification tables, and to perform model comparison using the Vuong test (1989, *Econometrica* 57: 307–333). We investigate the finite-sample performance of proposed maximum likelihood estimators by Monte Carlo simulations, discuss the relations among the models, and illustrate them with an empirical application to the U.S. federal funds rate target.

Keywords: ordinal outcomes, zero inflation, nested ordered probit, zero-inflated ordered probit, endogenous switching, maximum likelihood, Vuong test, federal funds rate target.

1 Introduction

We introduce the STATA commands, `nop`, `ziop2` and `ziop3`, which estimate the two-level nested and zero-inflated ordered probit (OP) models including the zero- and middle-inflated models of Harris and Zhao (2007), Bagozzi and Mukherjee (2012), Brooks, Harris and Spencer (2012) and Sirchenko (2013). The rationale behind the two-level nested decision process is standard in the discrete-choice modeling when the set of alternatives faced by a decision-maker can be partitioned into subsets (or nests) with similar alternatives correlated due to the common unobserved factors. A choice among the nests and a choice among the alternatives within each nest can be driven by different sets of observed and unobserved factors (and common factors can have different weights).

In the case of unordered categorical data, in which choices can be grouped into the nests of similar options, the nested logit model is a popular method. The nested models for ordinal data are rare although the rationale behind them is similar: choosing among a negative response (decrease), a neutral response (no change) or a positive response (increase) is quite different from choosing the magnitude of negative response; and choosing the magnitude of negative response can be driven by quite different determinants than choosing the magnitude of positive response. This leads to three implicit decisions: an upper-level regime decision — a choice among the nests, and two lower-level outcome decisions — the choices of the magnitude of negative and positive responses (see the top left panel of Figure 1).

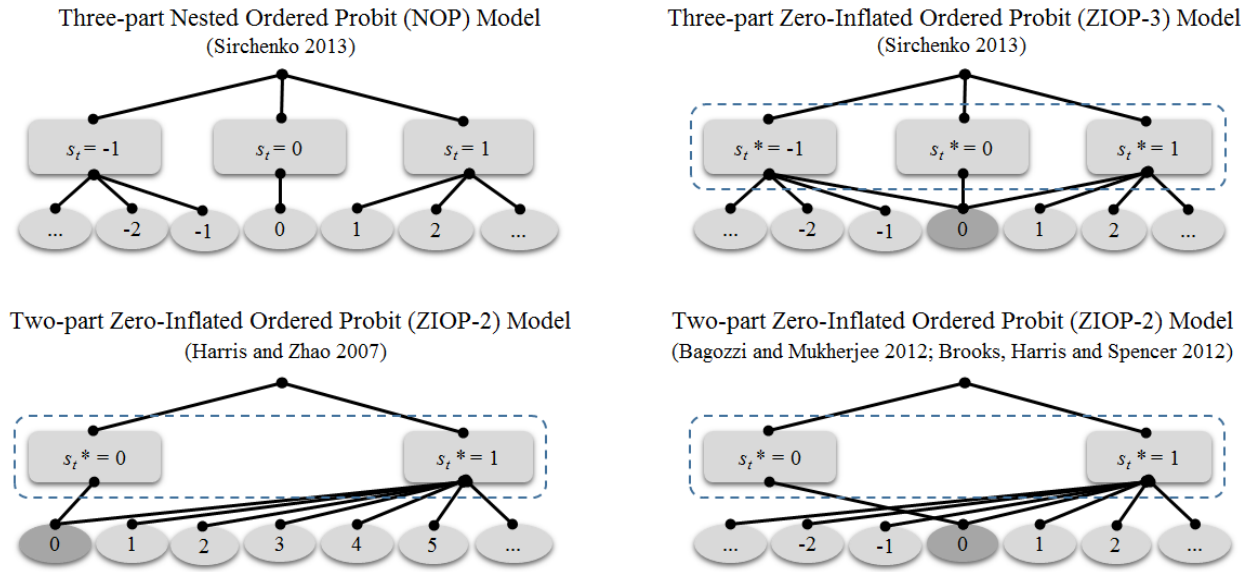
Furthermore, it would be reasonable for the zero (no-change) alternative to be in three nests: its own one, one with negative responses and one with positive responses; so some zeros can be driven by similar factors as negative or positive responses. This leads to a three-part cross-nested model with the nests overlapping at a zero response; hence, the probability of zeros is ‘inflated’. Since the regime decision is not observable, the zeros are observationally equivalent — it is never known to which of the three nests the observed zero belongs. While several types of models with overlapping nests for unordered categorical responses are developed (Vovsha 1997; Wen and Koppelman 2001), the cross-nested models for ordinal outcomes are very scarce.¹

The prevalence of status quo, neutral or zero outcomes is observed in many fields, including economics, sociology, technometrics, psychology and biology. The heterogeneity of zeros is widely recognized — see Winkelmann (2008) and Greene and Hensher (2010) for a review. Studies identify different types of zeros such as: no visits to doctor due to good health, iatrophobia, or medical costs; no illness due to strong immunity or lack of infec-

¹Small (1987) introduced an ordered-choice model with overlapping nests, which contain two adjacent choices.

tion; no children due to infertility or choice. In the studies of survey responses using an odd-point Likert-type scale, where the respondents must indicate the negative, neutral or positive attitude or opinion, the heterogeneity of indifferent responses (a true neutral option versus an undecided, or ambivalent, or uninformed one, commonly reported as neutral) is also well-recognized and sometimes labeled as the middle category endorsement or inflation (Bagozzi and Mukherjee 2012; Hernández, Drasgow and González-Romá 2004; Kulas and Stachowski 2009).

Figure 1. Decision trees of nested and zero-inflated ordered probit models



Notes: Decisionmakers are not assumed to choose sequentially. The tree diagrams simply represent a nesting structure of the system of OP models.

The two-part zero-inflated models, developed to address the unobserved heterogeneity of zeros, combines a binary choice model for the probability of crossing the hurdle (to participate or not to participate; to consume or not to consume) with a count or ordered-choice model for nonnegative outcomes above the hurdle: the two parts are estimated jointly, and the zero observations can emerge in both parts. The two-part zero-inflated models include the zero-inflated Poisson (Lambert 1992), negative binomial (Greene 1994), binomial (Hall 2002) and generalized Poisson (Famoye and Singh 2003) models for count outcomes, and the zero-inflated OP model (Harris and Zhao 2007) and zero-inflated proportional odds model (Kelley and Anderson 2008) for non-negative ordinal responses.²

²The zero-inflated models, estimation of which is currently implemented in STATA, include: the zero-

The model of Harris and Zhao (2007) is suitable for explaining decisions such as the levels of consumption, when the upper hurdle is naturally binary (to consume or not to consume), the responses are non-negative and the inflated zeros are situated at one end of the ordered scale (see the bottom left panel of Figure 1). Bagozzi and Mukherjee (2012) and Brooks, Harris and Spencer (2012) modified the model of Harris and Zhao (2007) and developed the middle-inflated OP model for an ordinal outcome, which ranges from negative to positive responses, and where an abundant outcome is situated in the middle of the choice spectrum (see the bottom right panel of Figure 1).

The three-part cross-nested zero-inflated OP model (see the top right panel of Figure 1) introduced in Sirchenko (2013) is a natural generalization of the models of Harris and Zhao (2007), Bagozzi and Mukherjee (2012) and Brooks, Harris and Spencer (2012). A trichotomous regime decision is more realistic and flexible than a binary decision (change or no change) if applied to ordinal data with negative, zero and positive values.

2 Models

2.1 Notation and assumptions

The observed dependent variable y_t , $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$ is assumed to take on a finite number of ordinal values j coded as $\{-J^-, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, J^+\}$, where a potentially heterogeneous (and typically predominant) response is coded as zero. The latent unobserved (or only partially observed) variables are denoted by $*$. Each model assumes an ordered-choice regime decision and the ordered-choice outcome decisions conditional on the regime. The regime decision is allowed to be correlated with each outcome decision. We denote by \mathbf{x}_t , \mathbf{x}_t^- , \mathbf{x}_t^+ and \mathbf{z}_t the t^{th} rows of the observed data matrices (which in addition to predetermined explanatory variables may also include the lags of y_t); by $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^+$ and $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ the vectors of unknown slope parameters; by $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^+$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ the vectors of unknown threshold parameters; by ρ , ρ^- and ρ^+ the vectors of unknown correlation coefficients; by ε_t , ε_t^- , ε_t^+ and ν_t the error terms that are independently and identically distributed (*iid*) across t with normal cumulative distribution function (CDF) Φ , the zero mean and the variances σ^2 , σ_-^2 , σ_+^2 and σ_ν^2 , respectively; and by $\Phi_2(g_1; g_2; \sigma_1^2; \sigma_2^2; \rho)$ the CDF of the bivariate normal distribution of the two random variables g_1 and g_2 with the zero means, the variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 and the correlation coefficient ρ :

inflated Poisson model (the zip command), the negative binomial model (the zinb command), and the binomial model (the zib command) and the beta-binomial model (the zibbin command) developed by Hardin and Hilbe (2014).

$$\Phi_2(g_1; g_2; \sigma_1^2; \sigma_2^2; \rho) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{g_1} \int_{-\infty}^{g_2} \exp\left(-\frac{u^2/\sigma_1^2 - 2\rho uw/\sigma_1\sigma_2 + w^2/\sigma_2^2}{2(1-\rho^2)}\right) dudw.$$

2.2 Three-part nested ordered probit (NOP) model

Despite a wide-spread use of nested logit models for unordered categorical responses, we are aware of only one example of the nested ordered probit model in the literature (Sirchenko 2013). The two-level NOP model can be described as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Upper-level decision: } r_t^* &= \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \nu_t, \quad s_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu_2 < r_t^*, \\ 0 & \text{if } \mu_1 < r_t^* \leq \mu_2, \\ -1 & \text{if } r_t^* \leq \mu_1. \end{cases} \\ \text{Lower-level decisions: } y_t^{-*} &= \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^- + \varepsilon_t^-, \quad y_t^{+*} = \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ + \varepsilon_t^+, \\ y_t &= \begin{cases} j(j > 0) & \text{if } s_t = 1 \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1}^+ < y_t^{+*} \leq \alpha_j^+, \\ 0 & \text{if } s_t = 0, \\ j(j < 0) & \text{if } s_t = -1 \text{ and } \alpha_j^- < y_t^{-*} \leq \alpha_{j+1}^-, \end{cases} \\ \text{where } -\infty &= \alpha_0^+ \leq \alpha_1^+ \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{j+}^+ = \infty \\ \text{and } -\infty &= \alpha_{-J-}^- \leq \alpha_{-J-+1}^- \leq \dots \leq \alpha_0^- = \infty. \\ \text{Correlation among} & \begin{bmatrix} \nu_t \\ \varepsilon_t^i \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}\left(0, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\nu^2 & \rho^i \sigma_\nu \sigma_i \\ \rho^i \sigma_\nu \sigma_i & \sigma_i^2 \end{bmatrix}\right), i \in \{-, +\}. \\ \text{decisions:} & \end{aligned}$$

The probabilities of the outcome j in the NOP model are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+) &= I_{j < 0} \Pr(r_t^* \leq \mu_1 \text{ and } \alpha_j^- < y_t^{-*} \leq \alpha_{j+1}^- | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-) \\ &+ I_{j=0} \Pr(\mu_1 < r_t^* \leq \mu_2 | \mathbf{z}_t) + I_{j > 0} \Pr(\mu_2 < r_t^* \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1}^+ < y_t^{+*} \leq \alpha_j^+ | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^+) \\ &= I_{j < 0} \Pr(\nu_t \leq \mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} \text{ and } \alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^- < \varepsilon_t^- \leq \alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-) \\ &+ I_{j=0} \Pr(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} < \nu_t \leq \mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \\ &+ I_{j > 0} \Pr(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} < \nu_t \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ < \varepsilon_t^+ \leq \alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+) \quad (1) \\ &= I_{j < 0} [\Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_-^2; \rho^-) - \Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_-^2; \rho^-)] \\ &+ I_{j=0} [\Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) - \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2)] \\ &+ I_{j > 0} [\Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_+^2; -\rho^+) \\ &- \Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_+^2; -\rho^+)], \end{aligned}$$

where $I_{j < 0}$ is an indicator function such that $I_{j < 0} = 1$ if $j < 0$, and $I_{j < 0} = 0$ if $j \geq 0$ (analogously for $I_{j=0}$ and $I_{j > 0}$).

In the case of exogenous switching (when $\rho^- = \rho^+ = 0$), the probabilities of the outcome j in the NOP can be computed as

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+, \rho^- = \rho^+ = 0) \\
&= I_{j < 0} \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) [\Phi(\alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_-^2) - \Phi(\alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_-^2)] \\
&+ I_{j=0} [\Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}) - \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma})] \\
&+ I_{j > 0} [1 - \Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2)] [\Phi(\alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_+^2) - \Phi(\alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_+^2)].
\end{aligned}$$

In the case of two or three outcome choices the NOP model degenerates to the conventional single-equation OP model.

2.3 Two-part zero-inflated ordered probit (ZIOP-2) model

The ZIOP-2 model, which represents the two part zero-inflated OP models of Bagozzi and Mukherjee (2012) and Brooks, Harris and Spencer (2012), can be described by the following system

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Regime decision:} \quad & r_t^* = \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \nu_t, \quad s_t^* = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu < r_t^*, \\ 0 & \text{if } r_t^* \leq \mu. \end{cases} \\
\text{Outcome decision:} \quad & y_t^* = \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_t, \\
& y_t = \begin{cases} j & \text{if } s_t^* = 1 \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1} < y_t^* \leq \alpha_j, \\ 0 & \text{if } s_t^* = 0, \end{cases} \\
& \text{where } -\infty = \alpha_{-J-1} \leq \alpha_{-J} \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{J+1} = \infty. \\
\text{Correlation among} \quad & \begin{bmatrix} \nu_t \\ \varepsilon_t \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\nu^2 & \rho \sigma_\nu \sigma \\ \rho \sigma_\nu \sigma & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix} \right). \\
\text{decisions:} \quad &
\end{aligned}$$

The probabilities of the outcome j in the ZIOP-2 model are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t) &= I_{j=0} \Pr(r_t^* \leq \mu | \mathbf{z}_t) + I_{j \geq 0} \Pr(\mu < r_t^* \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1} < y_t^* \leq \alpha_j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t) \\
&= I_{j=0} \Pr(\nu_t \leq \mu - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}) + I_{j \geq 0} \Pr(\mu - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} < \nu_t \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} < \varepsilon_t \leq \alpha_j - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad (2) \\
&= I_{j=0} \Phi(\mu - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) + \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_j - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma^2; -\rho) \\
&\quad - \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_{j-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma^2; -\rho).
\end{aligned}$$

In the case of exogenous switching (when $\rho = 0$), the probabilities of the outcome j in the ZIOP-2 model can be computed as

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t, \rho = 0) &= I_{j=0} \Phi(\mu - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) \\
&+ [1 - \Phi(\mu - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2)] [\Phi(\alpha_j - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; \sigma^2) - \Phi(\alpha_{j-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; \sigma^2)].
\end{aligned}$$

If $y_t \geq 0$ for $\forall t$, the ZIOP-2 model becomes the model of Harris and Zhao (2007).

2.4 Three-part zero-inflated ordered probit (ZIOP-3) model

The ZIOP-3 model developed by Sirchenko (2013) is a three-part generalization of the ZIOP-2 model, and can be described by the following system

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Regime decision:} \quad & r_t^* = \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \nu_t, \quad s_t^* = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu_2 < r_t^*, \\ 0 & \text{if } \mu_1 < r_t^* \leq \mu_2, \\ -1 & \text{if } r_t^* \leq \mu_1. \end{cases} \\
\text{Outcome decisions:} \quad & y_t^{-*} = \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^- + \varepsilon_t^-, \quad y_t^{+*} = \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ + \varepsilon_t^+, \\
& y_t = \begin{cases} j(j \geq 0) & \text{if } s_t^* = 1 \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1}^+ < y_t^{+*} \leq \alpha_j^+, \\ 0 & \text{if } s_t^* = 0, \\ j(j \leq 0) & \text{if } s_t^* = -1 \text{ and } \alpha_j^- < y_t^{-*} \leq \alpha_{j+1}^-, \end{cases} \\
& \text{where } -\infty = \alpha_{-1}^+ \leq \alpha_0^+ \leq \dots \leq \alpha_{J^+}^+ = \infty \\
& \text{and } -\infty = \alpha_{-J^-}^- \leq \alpha_{-J^-+1}^- \leq \dots \leq \alpha_1^- = \infty. \\
\text{Correlation among} \quad & \begin{bmatrix} \nu_t \\ \varepsilon_t^i \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\nu^2 & \rho^i \sigma_\nu \sigma_i \\ \rho^i \sigma_\nu \sigma_i & \sigma_i^2 \end{bmatrix} \right), i \in \{-, +\}. \\
\text{decisions:} \quad &
\end{aligned}$$

The probabilities of the outcome j in the ZIOP-3 model are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+) = I_{j \leq 0} \Pr(r_t^* \leq \mu_1 \text{ and } \alpha_j^- < y_t^{-*} \leq \alpha_{j+1}^- | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-) \\
& + I_{j=0} \Pr(\mu_1 < r_t^* \leq \mu_2 | \mathbf{z}_t) + I_{j \geq 0} \Pr(\mu_2 < r_t^* \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1}^+ < y_t^{+*} \leq \alpha_j^+ | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^+) \\
& = I_{j \leq 0} \Pr(\nu_t \leq \mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} \text{ and } \alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^- < \varepsilon_t^- \leq \alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-) \\
& + I_{j=0} \Pr(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} < \nu_t \leq \mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \\
& + I_{j \geq 0} \Pr(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} < \nu_t \text{ and } \alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ < \varepsilon_t^+ \leq \alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+) \tag{3} \\
& = I_{j \leq 0} [\Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_-^2; \rho^-) - \Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_-^2; \rho^-)] \\
& + I_{j=0} [\Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) - \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2)] \\
& + I_{j \geq 0} [\Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_+^2; -\rho^+) \\
& - \Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_\nu^2; \sigma_+^2; -\rho^+)],
\end{aligned}$$

where $I_{j \leq 0}$ is an indicator function such that $I_{j \leq 0} = 1$ if $j \leq 0$, and $I_{j \leq 0} = 0$ if $j > 0$ (analogously for $I_{j \geq 0}$).

In the case of exogenous switching (when $\rho^- = \rho^+ = 0$), the probabilities of the outcome j in the ZIOP-3 model can be computed as

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+, \rho^- = \rho^+ = 0) = I_{j \leq 0} \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) [\Phi(\alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_-^2) \\
& - \Phi(\alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \sigma_-^2)] + I_{j=0} [\Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2) - \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2)] \\
& + I_{j \geq 0} [1 - \Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}; \sigma_\nu^2)] [\Phi(\alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_+^2) - \Phi(\alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \sigma_+^2)].
\end{aligned}$$

The inflated outcome does not have to be in the *very* middle of the ordered choices. If it is located at the *end* of the ordered scale, i.e. if $y_t \geq 0$ for $\forall t$, the ZIOP-3 model reduces to the ZIOP-2 model of Harris and Zhao (2007).

2.5 Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation

The probabilities in each OP equation can be consistently estimated under fairly general conditions by an asymptotically normal ML estimator (Basu and de Jong 2007). The simultaneous estimation of the OP equations in the NOP, ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models can be also performed using an ML estimator of the vector of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ that solves

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j=-J^-}^{J^+} I_{tj} \ln[\Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{x}_t^{all}, \boldsymbol{\theta})], \quad (4)$$

where I_{tj} is an indicator function such that $I_{tj} = 1$ if $y_t = j$ and $I_{tj} = 0$ otherwise; $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ includes $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^+$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^+$, ρ^- and ρ^+ for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models, and $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ and ρ for the ZIOP-2 model; Θ is a parameters' space; \mathbf{x}_t^{all} is a vector that contains the values of all covariates in the model; and $\Pr(y_t = j | \mathbf{x}_t^{all}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ are the probabilities from either (1) or (2) or (3). The asymptotic standard errors of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ can be computed from the Hessian matrix.

The intercept components of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^+$ and $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ are identified up to scale and location, that is only jointly with the corresponding threshold parameters $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^+$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and variances σ^2 , σ_-^2 , σ_+^2 , and σ_ν^2 . As is common in the identification of discrete choice models, the variances σ^2 , σ_-^2 , σ_+^2 , and σ_ν^2 are fixed to one, and the intercept components of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^-$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}^+$ and $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ are fixed to zero. The probabilities in (1), (2) and (3) are invariant to these (arbitrary) identifying assumptions: up to scale and location, we can identify all parameters in $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ because of the nonlinearity of OP equations, i.e. via the functional form (Heckman 1978; Wilde 2000). However, since the normal CDF is approximately linear in the middle of its support, the simultaneous estimation of two or three equations may experience a weak identification problem if regime and outcome equations contain the same set of covariates. To enhance the precision of parameter estimates we may impose exclusion restrictions on the specification of covariates in each equation.

The three regimes (nests) in the NOP model are fully observable, contrary to the latent (only partially observed) regimes in the ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models. The likelihood function of the NOP model — again in contrast with the ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models — is separable with respect to the parameters in the three equations. Thus, solving (4) for the NOP model

is equivalent to maximizing separately the likelihoods of the three OP models representing the upper- and lower-level decisions.³

2.6 Marginal effects (ME)

The marginal effect of a continuous covariate k (the k^{th} element of $\mathbf{x}_t^{\text{all}}$) on the probability of each discrete outcome j are computed for the ZIOP-3 model as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ME}_{k,j,t} &= \frac{\partial \Pr(y_t=j|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{t,k}^{\text{all}}} = I_{j \leq 0} \left\{ \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \rho^- (\alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-)}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^-)^2}} \right) f(\alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-) \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. - \Phi \left(\frac{\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \rho^- (\alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-)}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^-)^2}} \right) f(\alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-) \right] \boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{-\text{all}} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\alpha_{j+1}^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^- - \rho^- (\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma})}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^-)^2}} \right) - \Phi \left(\frac{\alpha_j^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^- - \rho^- (\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma})}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^-)^2}} \right) \right] f(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}} \right\} \\ &\quad - I_{j=0} [f(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma}) - f(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma})] \boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}} \\ &\quad + I_{j \geq 0} \left\{ \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu_2 + \rho^+ (\alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+)}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^+)^2}} \right) f(\alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+) \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. - \Phi \left(\frac{\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu_2 + \rho^+ (\alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+)}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^+)^2}} \right) f(\alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+) \right] \boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{+\text{all}} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\alpha_j^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ + \rho^+ (\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^+)^2}} \right) - \Phi \left(\frac{\alpha_{j-1}^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ + \rho^+ (\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{1-(\rho^+)^2}} \right) \right] f(\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu_2) \boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}} \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

where f is the probability density function of the standard normal distribution, and $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{-\text{all}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{+\text{all}}$ are the coefficients on the k^{th} covariate in $\mathbf{x}_t^{\text{all}}$ in the regime equation, outcome equation conditional on $s_t^* = 1$ and outcome equation conditional on $s_t^* = -1$, respectively ($\boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{-\text{all}}$ or $\boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{+\text{all}}$ is zero if the k^{th} covariate in $\mathbf{x}_t^{\text{all}}$ is not included into the corresponding equation). For a discrete-valued covariate, the ME can be computed as the change in the probabilities when this covariate changes by one increment and all other covariates are fixed.

The MEs for the NOP model are computed by replacing in the above formula $I_{j \geq 0}$ with $I_{j > 0}$ and $I_{j \leq 0}$ with $I_{j < 0}$.

The MEs for the ZIOP-2 model are computed as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ME}_{k,j,t} &= \frac{\partial \Pr(y_t=j|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{t,k}^{\text{all}}} = -I_{j=0} [f(\mu - \mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma})] \boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}} \\ &\quad + \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu + \rho (\alpha_{j-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \right) f(\alpha_{j-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}) - \Phi \left(\frac{\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu + \rho (\alpha_j - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \right) f(\alpha_j - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}) \right] \boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{\text{all}} \\ &\quad + \left[\Phi \left(\frac{\alpha_j - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + \rho (\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu)}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \right) - \Phi \left(\frac{\alpha_{j-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta} + \rho (\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu)}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \right) \right] f(\mathbf{z}_t \boldsymbol{\gamma} - \mu) \boldsymbol{\gamma}_k^{\text{all}}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{\text{all}}$ is the coefficient on the k^{th} covariate in $\mathbf{x}_t^{\text{all}}$ in the outcome equation ($\boldsymbol{\beta}_k^{\text{all}}$ is zero if the k^{th} covariate in $\mathbf{x}_t^{\text{all}}$ is not included into the outcome equation).

³The data matrices in the lower-level decisions should be truncated to contain only those rows of \mathbf{x}_t^- or \mathbf{x}_t^+ for which $y_t < 0$ or $y_t > 0$, respectively.

The asymptotic standard errors of the MEs are computed using the Delta method as the square roots of the diagonal elements of

$$\widehat{Var}(\widehat{\mathbf{ME}}_{k,j,t}) = \nabla_{\theta} \widehat{\mathbf{ME}}_{k,j,t} \widehat{Var}(\widehat{\theta}) \nabla_{\theta} \widehat{\mathbf{ME}}_{k,j,t}'.$$

2.7 Relations among the models and their comparison

We discuss now the choice of a formal statistical test to compare the NOP, ZIOP-2, ZIOP-3 and conventional OP models. The choice depends on whether the models are nested in each other.

The exogenous-switching version of each model is nested in its endogenous-switching version as its uncorrelated special case; their comparison can be performed using any classical likelihood-based test for nested hypotheses, such as the likelihood ratio (LR) test.

The OP is not nested either in the NOP or ZIOP-3 model. We can compare the OP model with them using a likelihood-based test for non-nested models, such as the Vuong test (Vuong 1989). The OP model is however nested in the ZIOP-2 model. The latter reduces to the former if $\mu \rightarrow -\infty$; hence, $\Pr(y_t = 0 | \mathbf{x}_t, s_t^* = 1) \rightarrow 0$. Therefore, the Vuong test for non-nested hypothesis may not be used to compare the OP and ZIOP-2 model. For nested hypothesis, the Vuong test reduces to the LR test, which can be performed for the comparison of the OP and ZIOP-2 models. However, the critical values of the classical LR test are invalid in this case since some standard regularity conditions of the classical LR test fail to hold. In particular, the value of μ in the null hypothesis is not an interior point of the parameter space; hence, the asymptotic distribution of the LR statistics is not standard. Instead, one may use the simulated adjusted critical values, which can be computed following an algorithm provided in Andrews (2001).⁴

The NOP model is nested in the ZIOP-3 model. The latter becomes the former if $\alpha_{-1}^- \rightarrow \infty$ and $\alpha_1^+ \rightarrow -\infty$; therefore, $\Pr(y_t = 0 | \mathbf{x}_t^+, s_t^* = 1) \rightarrow 0$ and $\Pr(y_t = 0 | \mathbf{x}_t^-, s_t^* = -1) \rightarrow 0$. The values of α_{-1}^- and α_1^+ in the null hypothesis are not the interior points of the parameter space; thus, the asymptotic distribution of the LR statistics is not standard. The comparison of the NOP and ZIOP-3 models can also be performed using the LR test with the simulated adjusted critical values following Andrews (2001).

Generally, the ZIOP-2 model is not a special case of the ZIOP-3 model, and vice versa. We can compare them using the Vuong test. A special case when the ZIOP-3 model nests the ZIOP-2 model emerges under some restrictions on the parameters as explained below.

⁴Analogously, the use of the Vuong test for non-nested hypothesis to test for zero-inflation in the Poisson, binomial and negative binomial models, which is implemented in the `zip`, `zib` and `zinb` STATA commands, is inappropriate because these models are actually nested in their two-part zero-inflated extensions (Wilson 2015).

In this case, the selection between the ZIOP-3 and ZIOP-2 models can be performed using any classical likelihood-based test for nested hypotheses.

The special case emerges if y_t takes on only three discrete values $j \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$, the regressors in \mathbf{x}_t^- and \mathbf{x}_t^+ in the outcome equations of the ZIOP-3 model contain all regressors in the ZIOP-2 regime equation (denoted below by \mathbf{z}_{2t} with the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2$), and the regressors in the regime equation of the ZIOP-3 model (denoted below by \mathbf{z}_{3t} with the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3$) include all regressors in the \mathbf{x}_t in the ZIOP-2 outcome equation. According to (2) the probabilities of the outcome j in the ZIOP-2 model are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(y_t = -1 | \mathbf{z}_{2t}, \mathbf{x}_t) &= \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; -\rho); \\
\Pr(y_t = 0 | \mathbf{z}_{2t}, \mathbf{x}_t) &= \Phi(\mu - \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2) + \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \alpha_0 - \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; -\rho) \\
&\quad - \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; -\rho) = 1 - \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; -\alpha_0 + \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; \rho) \\
&\quad - \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; -\rho); \\
\Pr(y_t = 1 | \mathbf{z}_{2t}, \mathbf{x}_t) &= \Phi(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2) - \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \alpha_0 - \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; -\rho) \\
&= \Phi_2(-\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; -\alpha_0 + \mathbf{x}_t\boldsymbol{\beta}; \rho),
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

since $\Phi_2(x; y; \rho) = \Phi(x) - \Phi_2(x; -y; -\rho)$.

Similarly, according to (3) the probabilities of the outcome j in the ZIOP-3 model are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(y_t = -1 | \mathbf{z}_{3t}, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+) &= \Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; \alpha_0^- - \mathbf{x}_t^-\boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \rho^-); \\
\Pr(y_t = 0 | \mathbf{z}_{3t}, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+) &= \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3) - \Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; \alpha_0^- - \mathbf{x}_t^-\boldsymbol{\beta}^-; \rho^-) \\
&\quad + \Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3) - \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3) + \Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; \alpha_0^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+\boldsymbol{\beta}^+; -\rho^+) \\
&= \Phi_2(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; -\alpha_0^- + \mathbf{x}_t^-\boldsymbol{\beta}^-; -\rho^-) + \Phi(\mu_2 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3) \\
&\quad - \Phi(\mu_1 - \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3) + \Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; \alpha_0^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+\boldsymbol{\beta}^+; -\rho^+); \\
\Pr(y_t = 1 | \mathbf{z}_{3t}, \mathbf{x}_t^-, \mathbf{x}_t^+) &= \Phi(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3) - \Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; \alpha_0^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+\boldsymbol{\beta}^+; -\rho^+) \\
&= \Phi_2(-\mu_2 + \mathbf{z}_{3t}\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3; -\alpha_0^+ + \mathbf{x}_t^+\boldsymbol{\beta}^+; \rho^+).
\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Suppose the covariates in \mathbf{x}_t^- and \mathbf{x}_t^+ in the ZIOP-3 outcome equations are identical to the covariates in \mathbf{z}_{2t} in the ZIOP-2 regime equation, the covariates in \mathbf{z}_{3t} in the ZIOP-3 regime equation are identical to the covariates in the \mathbf{x}_t in the ZIOP-2 outcome equation, and the parameters are restricted as follows: $-\boldsymbol{\beta}^- = \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ = \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2$, $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \boldsymbol{\gamma}_3$, $\mu_1 = \alpha_{-1}$, $\mu_2 = \alpha_0$, $-\alpha_0^- = \alpha_0^+ = \mu$ and $-\rho^- = \rho^+ = \rho$. Then, since $\mathbf{x}_t^- = \mathbf{x}_t^+ = \mathbf{z}_{2t}$, $\mathbf{z}_{3t} = \mathbf{x}_t$ and $\Phi(-x) = 1 - \Phi(x)$, the probabilities for the ZIOP-3 model in (6) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(y_t = -1 | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}_{2t}) &= \Phi_2(\alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; -\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; -\rho); \\
\Pr(y_t = 0 | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}_{2t}) &= \Phi_2(\alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; \mu - \mathbf{z}_{2t} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \rho) + \Phi(\alpha_0 - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}) - \Phi(\alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}) \\
&+ \Phi_2(-\alpha_0 + \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; \mu - \mathbf{z}_{2t} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; -\rho) = -\Phi_2(\alpha_{-1} - \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; -\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; -\rho) + 1 \\
&- \Phi_2(-\alpha_0 + \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; -\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \rho); \\
\Pr(y_t = 1 | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}_{2t}) &= \Phi_2(-\alpha_0 + \mathbf{x}_t \boldsymbol{\beta}; -\mu + \mathbf{z}_{2t} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2; \rho),
\end{aligned}$$

which are identical to the probabilities for the ZIOP-2 model in (5).

Notice that the restrictions $-\boldsymbol{\beta}^- = \boldsymbol{\beta}^+ = \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2$ and $-\alpha_0^- = \alpha_0^+ = \mu$ impose a sort of symmetry in the ZIOP-3 model, because they imply that the conditional probability of a positive response is equal to the conditional probability of a negative response:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr(y_t = 1 | \mathbf{z}_{3t}, \mathbf{x}_t^+, s_t^* = 1) &= 1 - \Phi(\alpha_0^+ - \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+) = \\
&= \Phi(-\alpha_0^+ + \mathbf{x}_t^+ \boldsymbol{\beta}^+) = \Phi(\alpha_0^- - \mathbf{x}_t^- \boldsymbol{\beta}^-) = \Pr(y_t = -1 | \mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{x}_t^-, s_t^* = -1).
\end{aligned}$$

In general, if \mathbf{x}_t^- and \mathbf{x}_t^+ are not identical to \mathbf{z}_{2t} but contain all covariates in \mathbf{z}_{2t} , and if \mathbf{z}_{3t} is not identical to \mathbf{x}_t but contains all covariates in \mathbf{x}_t , the ZIOP-2 model is still nested in the ZIOP-3 model with the additional zero restrictions for the coefficients on all extra covariates in \mathbf{x}_t^- , \mathbf{x}_t^+ and \mathbf{z}_{3t} .

3 The nop, ziop2 and ziop3 commands in Stata

The accompanying software includes the command, postestimation and supporting files.

3.1 Syntax

The following commands estimate, respectively, the NOP, ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models for discrete ordinal outcomes:

```

nop depvar [indepvars_reg] [if] [in] [, pos_indepvars(varlist)
    neg_indepvars(varlist) infcat(choice) endoswitch cluster(varname)
    robust nolog vuong initial(string)]
ziop2 depvar [indepvars_reg] [if] [in] [, indepvars(varlist) infcat(choice)
    endoswitch cluster(varname) robust nolog initial(string)]
ziop3 depvar [indepvars_reg] [if] [in] [, pos_indepvars(varlist)
    neg_indepvars(varlist) infcat(choice) endoswitch cluster(varname)
    robust nolog vuong initial(string)]

```

The dependent variable *depvar* is assumed to take on at least five discrete ordinal values in the NOP model, at least two — in the ZIOP-2 model, and at least three — in the ZIOP-3 model. The set of the covariates *indepvars_reg* in the regime equation may differ from the sets of the covariates `pos_indepvars(varlist)` and `neg_indepvars(varlist)` in the NOP and ZIOP-3 outcome equations conditional on the regimes $s_t = 1$ and $s_t = -1$, respectively, and the set of the covariates `indepvars(varlist)` in the ZIOP-2 outcome equation. The models allow for either exogenous or endogenous switching among the latent regimes. Regime switching is endogenous if the unobserved random term in the regime equation is correlated with the unobserved random term in the outcome equation, and exogenous otherwise.

Options

`pos_indepvars(varlist)` specifies for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models the list of the covariates in the outcome equation conditional on the regime $s_t = 1$ for nonnegative outcomes; by default, it is identical to *indepvars_reg*, the list of the covariates in the regime equation.

`neg_indepvars(varlist)` specifies for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models the list of the covariates in the outcome equation conditional on the regime $s_t = -1$ for nonpositive outcomes; by default, it is identical to *indepvars_reg*, the list of the covariates in the regime equation.

`indepvars(varlist)` specifies for the ZIOP-2 model the list of the covariates in the outcome equation; by default, it is identical to *indepvars_reg*, the list of the covariates in the regime equation.

`infcat(choice)` is a value of the dependent variable in the regime $s_t = 0$ that should be modeled as inflated in the ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models, and as neutral in the NOP model; by default, it equals 0.

`endoswitch` specifies that endogenous regime switching is to be used instead of the default exogenous switching.

`robust` specifies that the robust sandwich estimator of variance is to be used; the default estimator is based on the observed information matrix.

`cluster(varname)` specifies a clustering variable for the clustered robust sandwich estimator of variance.

`initial(string)` specifies the space-delimited list *string* of starting values of the parameters, in the following order: γ , μ , β^+ , α^+ , β^- , α^- , ρ^- and ρ^+ for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models, and γ , μ , β , α and ρ for the ZIOP-2 model.

`vuong` specifies that the Vuong (1989) test of NOP (or ZIOP-3) model versus the conventional OP one should be performed. The reported Vuong test statistics (the classical one and the two adjusted ones using the AIC and BIC) has a standard normal distribution

with large positive values favoring the NOP (or ZIOP-3) model and large negative values favoring the OP model..

`nolog` suppresses the iteration log.

Stored results

The help files include the descriptions of the stored results by the `nop`, `ziop2`, and `ziop3` commands.

3.2 Postestimation commands

The following postestimation commands are available after `nop`, `ziop2` and `ziop3`.

The `predict` command

`predict varname [if] [in] [, zeros regimes output(string)]`

The `predict` command computes either the predicted probabilities of discrete choices (by default), or the predicted probabilities of the regimes and types of zeros, or the expected values of the dependent variable. `predict` creates $(-J^- + -J^+ + 1)$ new variables under the name with *varname* prefix. The following options are available:

zeros indicates that the probabilities of the different types of zeros (the outcomes in the inflated category), conditional on different regimes, must be predicted instead of the probabilities of different discrete choices.

regimes indicates that the regime probabilities must be predicted instead of the choice probabilities. This option is ignored if the **zeros** option is used.

`output(string)` specifies different types of predictions. The possible values of *string* are: *choice* for reporting the predicted outcome (the choice with the largest predicted probability); *mean* for reporting the expected value of the dependent variable computed as $\sum_i i \Pr(y_t = i)$; and *cum* for predicting the cumulative choice probabilities: $\Pr(y_t \leq -J^-)$, $\Pr(y_t \leq -J^- + 1)$, ..., $\Pr(y_t \leq J^+)$. If *string* is not specified, the usual choice probabilities $\Pr(y_t = -J^-)$, $\Pr(y_t = -J^- + 1)$, ..., $\Pr(y_t = J^+)$ are predicted and stores into the new variables with *varname* prefix.

The `ziopprobabilities` command

`ziopprobabilities [, at(string) zeros regimes]`

This command shows the predicted probabilities, estimated for the specified values of the covariates, along with the standard errors. The options **zeros** and **regimes** are specified as in **predict**. The option **at()** is specified as follows:

at(string) specifies for which values of the covariates to estimate the predictions. If **at(string)** is used (*string* is a list of *varname = value* expressions, separated by commas), the predictions are estimated for these values and displayed without saving to the dataset. If some covariate names are not specified, their mean values are taken instead. If **at()** is not used, by default the predictions are estimated for the covariate mean values.

The **ziopcontrasts** command

ziopcontrasts [, **at(string)** **to(string)** **zeros** **regime**]

This command shows the differences in the predicted probabilities, estimated first for the values of the covariates in **at()** and then in **to(string)**, along with the standard errors. The options **zeros**, **regimes** and **at()** are specified as in **ziopprobabilities**. The options **to()** is specified analogously to **at()**.

The **ziopmargins** command

ziopmargins [, **at(string)** **zeros** **regimes**]

This command prints the marginal effects of each covariate on the choice probabilities, estimated for the specified values of the covariates, along with the standard errors. The options **zeros**, **regimes** and **at()** are specified as in **ziopprobabilities**.

The **ziopclassification** command

ziopclassification

This command prints: the classification (contingency) table; the percentage of correct predictions; the two strictly proper scoring rules: the probability, or Brier, score (Brier 1950) and the ranked probability score (Epstein 1969); and the adjusted noise-to-signal ratios (Kaminsky and Reinhart 1999).

The classification table displays the predicted choices (ones with the highest predicted probability) in rows, the actual choices in columns, and the number of (mis)classifications in each cell.

The Brier probability score is computed as $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j=J-}^{J+} [\Pr(y_t = j) - I_{jt}]^2$, where indicator $I_{jt} = 1$ if $y_t = j$ and $I_{jt} = 0$ otherwise. The ranked probability score is computed as $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j=J-}^{J+} [Q_{jt} - D_{jt}]^2$, where $Q_{jt} = \sum_{i=J-}^j \Pr(y_t = i)$ and $D_{jt} = \sum_{i=J-}^j I_{it}$. The

better the prediction, the smaller both score values. Both scores have a minimum value of zero when all actual outcomes are predicted with a unit probability.

The adjusted noise-to-signal ratios are defined as follows. Let A denote the event that the outcome was predicted and occurred; let B denote the event that the outcome was predicted but did not occur; let C denote the event that the outcome was not predicted but occurred; and let D denote the event that the outcome was not predicted and did not occur. The desirable outcomes fall into categories A and D , while the noisy ones fall into categories B and C . A perfect prediction has no entries in B and C , while a noisy prediction has many entries in B and C , but few in A and D . The adjusted noise-to-signal ratio is defined for each choice as $[B/(B+D)]/[A/(A+C)]$.

The **ziopvuong** command

ziopvuong *modelspec*₁ *modelspec*₂

This command performs the non-nested Vuong test (Vuong 1989) which compares the closeness of two models to the true data distribution. Arguments *modelspec*₁ and *modelspec*₂ are the names under which the estimation results were saved using the **estimates store** command. Any model that stores the vector **e(ll_obs)** of observation-wise log-likelihood technically can be used to perform the test. The command provides three z-scores, the Vuong test statistics, the classical one and the two adjusted ones using the AIC and BIC for the difference of the pointwise log likelihoods of the two models. It can be used to test the hypothesis that one of the models explains the data better than the other. A significant positive Vuong test statistic indicates preference for the first model, while a significant negative value of the z-score indicates preference for the second model. Non significant z-score implies no preference for either model.

4 Monte Carlo simulations

We conducted extensive Monte Carlo experiments to illustrate the finite sample performance of the ML estimators of each model.

4.1 Monte Carlo design

We simulated six processes generated by the NOP, ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models, each of them with both exogenous and endogenous switching. The repeated samples with 200, 500 and 1,000 observations were independently generated and then estimated by the true model. The number of replications was 10,000 in each experiment.

Three covariates \mathbf{w}_1 , \mathbf{w}_2 and \mathbf{w}_3 were drawn in each replication as $\mathbf{w}_1 \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1) + 2$, $\mathbf{w}_2 \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, and $\mathbf{w}_3 = -1$ if $\mathbf{u} \leq 0.3$, 0 if $0.3 < \mathbf{u} \leq 0.7$, or 1 if $\mathbf{u} > 0.7$, where $\mathbf{u} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$. The repeated samples were generated for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models with $\mathbf{Z} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2)$, $\mathbf{X}^- = (\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_3)$, $\mathbf{X}^+ = (\mathbf{w}_2, \mathbf{w}_3)$, and for the ZIOP-2 model with $\mathbf{Z} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_3)$, $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{w}_2, \mathbf{w}_3)$. The dependent variable y was generated with five values: -2, -1, 0, 1 and 2. The parameters were calibrated to yield on average the following frequencies of the above outcomes: 7%, 14%, 58%, 14% and 7%, respectively. To avoid the divergence of ML estimates due to the problem of complete separation (perfect prediction), which could happen if the actual number of observations in any outcome category is very low, the samples with any outcome category frequency lower than 6% were re-generated. The matrix of the MEs has $3 \times 5 = 15$ elements; their values, which depend on the values of the regressors, are computed at the population medians of the covariates. The variances of the errors in all equations were fixed to one. The true values of all other parameters in the simulations are shown in Table A1 in Appendix. The starting values for slope and threshold parameters were obtained using the independent OP estimations of each equation. The starting values for ρ , ρ^- and ρ^+ were obtained by maximizing the likelihood functions of the endogenous-switching models holding the other parameters fixed at their estimates in the corresponding exogenous-switching model.

4.2 Monte Carlo results

Table 1 reports the measures of accuracy for the estimates of the probabilities and MEs. For each model, the bias and RMSE decrease as sample size increases. RMSE decreases in most cases faster than asymptotic rate \sqrt{n} . This may be caused by a small number of large deviations in parameter estimation in small samples. For most of models and sample sizes, the bias and RMSE are slightly higher for the endogenous-switching version. This is expected from a more complex model estimated with the same sample size.

Table 1. Monte Carlo results: The accuracy of ML estimators

Sample size	True and estimated model:	NOP ($\rho^-=\rho^+=0$)	NOP ($\rho=0$)	ZIOP-2 ($\rho=0$)	ZIOP-2 ($\rho=0$)	ZIOP-3 ($\rho^-=\rho^+=0$)	ZIOP-3 ($\rho^-=\rho^+=0$)
The accuracy of the estimates of the probabilities							
200	Bias, %	2.3	1.5	4.4	5.1	3.3	3.1
500		1.1	0.9	2.3	3.0	1.6	1.5
1000		0.4	0.4	1.3	1.7	0.8	1.0
200	RMSE, $\times 100$	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.9
500		1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.8
1000		1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3
200	Coverage rate (at 95% level), %	94.4	94.4	95.3	95.3	95.1	94.8
500		95.4	95.2	95.6	95.6	95.9	95.7
1000		95.5	95.5	95.7	95.7	95.6	95.6
200	Bias of standard error estimates, %	4.2	4.2	6.9	6.4	5.5	15.1
500		3.9	4.6	6.9	6.1	5.3	16.6
1000		2.6	3.4	5.7	5.9	3.7	13.9
The accuracy of the estimates of the MEs on the probabilities							
200	Bias, %	4.5	4.1	10.5	16.9	11.5	23.0
500		1.7	2.2	4.9	7.2	5.5	9.7
1000		0.8	1.3	2.5	3.7	2.6	5.3
200	RMSE, $\times 100$	1.8	2.1	2.5	3.6	2.8	3.4
500		1.1	1.3	1.5	2.3	1.7	2.0
1000		0.8	0.9	1.0	1.5	1.2	1.4
200	Coverage rate (at 95% level), %	95.8	93.9	91.7	87.9	94.6	91.8
500		95.9	94.6	94.8	91.5	95.0	93.0
1000		95.6	95.0	95.3	93.9	95.1	93.9
200	Bias of standard error estimates, %	4.7	5.7	8.0	6.1	21.4	39.1
500		4.0	5.0	5.8	6.0	27.0	8.1
1000		2.4	3.4	4.2	5.7	11.6	7.4

Notes: Bias – the absolute difference between the estimated and true values, divided by the true value; RMSE – the absolute root mean square error of the estimates; Coverage rate – the percentage of times the estimated asymptotic 95% confidence intervals cover the true values; Bias of standard error estimates – the absolute difference between the average of the estimated asymptotic standard errors of the estimates and the standard deviation of the estimates in all replications. The above measures are averaged across five outcome categories, and for the estimates of the MEs are also averaged across all three covariates.

Standard error estimates for parameters on average correspond to the actual standard errors. Large deviations make standard errors estimates biased, especially in small samples, but this problem rapidly decreases as sample size grows. Anyway, rare large deviations do not prevent asymptotic coverage rates to be close to the nominal values even with only 200 observations. The simulations show that the ML estimators are consistent and reliable even in samples with only 200 observations: the biases of probability estimates are smaller than five percent and coverage rates differ from the nominal level by less than one percent. The ME

estimates are less precise and approach the similar accuracy with about 1,000 observations: however, with 500 observations the ME biases are smaller than ten percent and the ME coverage rates differ from the nominal level by less than four percent only. The accuracy in the NOP models is expectedly higher than in the cross-nested zero-inflated models.

5 Application

The real-data application analyzes a time-series sample of all decisions of the U.S. Federal Open Market Committee (FOMC) on the federal funds rate target made at the scheduled and unscheduled meetings during the 9/1987 – 9/2008 period.

The dependent variable, the change to the rate target, is classified into five ordered categories: '-0.5' (a cut of 0.5% or more), '-0.25' (a cut less than 0.5% but more than 0.0625%), '0' (no change or change by not more than 0.0625%), '0.25' (a hike more than 0.0625% but less than 0.5%) and '0.5' (a hike of 0.5% or more). The FOMC decisions are aligned with the real-time values of the explanatory variables as they were truly available to the public on the previous day before each FOMC meeting. The explanatory variables include: **spread** (the difference between the one-year treasury constant maturity rate and the effective federal funds rate, five-business-day moving average, data source: ALFRED); **pb** (the trichotomous indicator that we constructed from the 'policy bias' statements at the previous FOMC meeting: it is equal to 1 if the statement was asymmetric toward tightening, 0 if the statement was symmetric, and -1 if the statement was asymmetric toward easing; data source: FOMC statements and minutes⁵); **houst** (the Greenbook projection for the current quarter of the total number of new privately owned housing units started, data source: RTDSM⁶); **gdp** (the Greenbook projection for the current quarter of quarterly growth in the nominal gross domestic (before 1992: national) product, annualized percentage points, data source: RTDSM).

We start by estimating the conventional OP model using the **oprobit** command:

⁵https://www.federalreserve.gov/monetarypolicy/fomc_historical.htm.

⁶RTDSM (Real-Time Data Set for Macroeconomists) is available at <https://www.philadelphiafed.org>.

```
. oprobit rate_change spread pb houst gdp, nolog
```

```
Ordered probit regression               Number of obs   =          210
                                         LR chi2(4)       =         214.54
                                         Prob > chi2      =          0.0000
Log likelihood = -159.56242             Pseudo R2       =          0.4020
```

rate_change	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
spread	1.574232	.1870759	8.41	0.000	1.20757	1.940894
pb	.9262378	.1479364	6.26	0.000	.6362877	1.216188
houst	1.373179	.3459397	3.97	0.000	.6951499	2.051209
gdp	.2390714	.0571926	4.18	0.000	.1269761	.3511668
/cut1	.4656819	.5382091			-.5891885	1.520552
/cut2	1.8382	.5339707			.7916362	2.884763
/cut3	4.835985	.6359847			3.589478	6.082492
/cut4	6.331172	.6875922			4.983516	7.678828

```
. estat ic
```

Akaike's information criterion and Bayesian information criterion

Model	Obs	ll(null)	ll(model)	df	AIC	BIC
.	210	-266.8308	-159.5624	8	335.1248	361.9017

We now allow the negative, zero and positive changes to the rate target to be generated by different processes, and run the three-part nested OP regression. The `nop` command with exogenous switching yields the following results:

```
. nop rate_change spread pb houst gdp, xn(spread gdp) xp(spread pb) infcat(0) nolog
Three-part nested ordered probit model with exogenous switching
Number of observations = 210
Log likelihood = -150.9638
AIC              = 325.9276
BIC              = 366.0929
```

rate_change	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Regime equation						
spread	1.579634	.2195074	7.20	0.000	1.149407	2.00986
pb	.8769436	.1582913	5.54	0.000	.5666983	1.187189
houst	2.303497	.4324382	5.33	0.000	1.455934	3.15106
gdp	.2742909	.0696122	3.94	0.000	.1378535	.4107283
/cut1	3.299825	.6832466	4.83	0.000	1.960686	4.638963
/cut2	6.496983	.8339921	7.79	0.000	4.862389	8.131578
Outcome equation (+)						
spread	1.627788	.6748859	2.41	0.016	.3050354	2.95054
pb	2.255519	.8805447	2.56	0.010	.5296829	3.981355
/cut1	3.13416	.9511016	3.30	0.001	1.270035	4.998285
Outcome equation (-)						
spread	.9489572	.3821965	2.48	0.013	.1998659	1.698049
gdp	.1339181	.1006124	1.33	0.183	-.0632785	.3311147
/cut1	-.4720761	.4202012	-1.12	0.261	-1.295655	.351503

The NOP model provides a substantial improvement of the likelihood, and is preferred to the standard OP model according to the AIC. The endogenous switching does not signif-

icantly change the likelihood, the correlation coefficients ρ^- and ρ^+ are not significant, and the AIC and BIC prefer the NOP model with exogenous switching:

```
. nop rate_change spread pb houst gdp, xn(spread gdp) xp(spread pb) infcat(0) endoswitch nolog
Three-part nested ordered probit model with endogenous switching
Number of observations = 210
Log likelihood = -150.2325
AIC              = 328.465
BIC              = 375.3246
```

rate_change	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Regime equation						
spread	1.626627	.2240853	7.26	0.000	1.187428	2.065826
pb	.8733051	.1596507	5.47	0.000	.5603955	1.186215
houst	2.370716	.4309395	5.50	0.000	1.52609	3.215342
gdp	.2583803	.072696	3.55	0.000	.1158988	.4008617
/cut1	3.31599	.6781702	4.89	0.000	1.986801	4.645179
/cut2	6.52286	.8276111	7.88	0.000	4.900772	8.144948
Outcome equation (+)						
spread	1.738494	.6426342	2.71	0.007	.4789541	2.998034
pb	2.241514	.8656279	2.59	0.010	.5449148	3.938114
/cut1	3.418268	.92534	3.69	0.000	1.604635	5.231901
Outcome equation (-)						
spread	1.220589	.4027208	3.03	0.002	.4312708	2.009907
gdp	.2099337	.1125002	1.87	0.062	-.0105625	.43043
/cut1	-.6292352	.4181413	-1.50	0.132	-1.448777	.1903067
Correlation coefficients						
rho(+)	.4950234	.7379739	0.67	0.502	-.9513788	1.941426
rho(-)	.5371233	.4628359	1.16	0.246	-.3700184	1.444265

We now allow for an inflation of zero outcomes and run the three-part zero-inflated OP regression. The `ziop3` command with exogenous switching yields the following results:

```
. ziop3 rate_change spread pb houst gdp, xn(spread gdp) xp(spread pb) infcat(0) nolog
```

(output omitted)

Three-part zero-inflated ordered probit model with exogenous switching
Number of observations = 210
Log likelihood = -139.5529
AIC = 307.1058
BIC = 353.9653

rate_change	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Regime equation						
spread	2.106257	.364262	5.78	0.000	1.392317	2.820198
pb	1.628486	.3356997	4.85	0.000	.9705269	2.286446
houst	5.311379	.9913486	5.36	0.000	3.368372	7.254387
gdp	.3809606	.1085468	3.51	0.000	.1682127	.5937084
/cut1	9.103481	1.772781	5.14	0.000	5.628894	12.57807
/cut2	12.3481	1.952013	6.33	0.000	8.522227	16.17398
Outcome equation (+)						
spread	1.809669	.7282205	2.49	0.013	.3823831	3.236955
pb	2.620109	.9836793	2.66	0.008	.6921334	4.548085
/cut1	-1.481781	1.015198	-1.46	0.144	-3.471532	.5079697
/cut2	3.509078	1.070858	3.28	0.001	1.410236	5.607921
Outcome equation (-)						
spread	1.072859	.2690323	3.99	0.000	.5455655	1.600153
gdp	.177697	.0742318	2.39	0.017	.0322055	.3231886
/cut1	-.6373707	.3361142	-1.90	0.058	-1.296142	.021401
/cut2	.7569744	.3460019	2.19	0.029	.0788232	1.435126

The empirical evidence in favor of zero-inflation is convincing: with only two extra parameters, the ZIOP-3 model has much higher likelihood than the NOP model (-139.6 vs. -151.0), and is clearly preferred by both the AIC and the BIC to the NOP and OP models. The endogenous switching does not significantly improve the likelihood of the ZIOP-3 model (the p -value of the LR test is 0.30, and both the AIC and BIC prefer the exogenous switching), though one of the correlation coefficients is significant at the 0.05 level:

```
. ziop3 rate_change spread pb houst gdp, xn(spread gdp) xp(spread pb) infcat(0) endoswitch
```

(output omitted)

```

Three-part zero-inflated ordered probit model with endogenous switching
Number of observations = 210
Log likelihood = -138.3437
AIC              = 308.6873
BIC              = 362.2411

```

rate_change	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Regime equation						
spread	2.170005	.3587548	6.05	0.000	1.466858	2.873151
pb	1.604927	.3413076	4.70	0.000	.9359764	2.273878
houst	5.094639	1.01693	5.01	0.000	3.101494	7.087785
gdp	.3705684	.1120885	3.31	0.001	.1508789	.5902579
/cut1	8.32119	1.82648	4.56	0.000	4.741356	11.90102
/cut2	11.96263	1.996745	5.99	0.000	8.049085	15.87618
Outcome equation (+)						
spread	1.927342	.7357275	2.62	0.009	.4853426	3.369342
pb	2.727153	1.010744	2.70	0.007	.7461309	4.708175
/cut1	-1.231859	1.116688	-1.10	0.270	-3.420528	.9568096
/cut2	3.79087	1.147661	3.30	0.001	1.541496	6.040243
Outcome equation (-)						
spread	1.181459	.2741386	4.31	0.000	.6441574	1.718761
gdp	.211475	.075256	2.81	0.005	.063976	.3589739
/cut1	-.6449164	.338096	-1.91	0.056	-1.307572	.0177396
/cut2	.8283362	.3497876	2.37	0.018	.142765	1.513907
Correlation coefficients						
rho(+)	.3677525	.673484	0.55	0.585	-.9522519	1.687757
rho(-)	.6815332	.33355	2.04	0.041	.0277872	1.335279

In contrast, the likelihood of the two-part zero-inflated OP model is even lower than that of the NOP model. According to the BIC the ZIOP-2 model is inferior to all the above models. The `ziop2` command with exogenous switching yields the following results:

The binary (change or no change, consume or not consume, etc.) regime decision of the ZIOP-2 model is designed for a nonnegative count dependent variable and is not well suitable for ordinal outcomes that can take on negative, zero and positive values. To accommodate the binary regime decision of the ZIOP-2 model we compute the deviations of the variables `spread`, `gdp` and `houst` from the sample means, break them into two pieces (`variable_u` is equal to the deviation if it is positive and zero otherwise, while `variable_d` is equal to the deviation if it is negative and zero otherwise) and include them into the regime equation. Nevertheless, according to both the AIC and BIC the ZIOP-2 model with endogenous switching is anyway inferior to all the above models:

Now we report the selected output of some postestimation commands for the ZIOP-3 model with exogenous switching, which is preferred by both the AIC and BIC. The `ziopprobabilities` command reports (by default) the choice probabilities and their standard errors, evaluated for the specified values of the covariates:

(output omitted)

Alternatively, it can report the probabilities of three types of zeros (using option `zeros`)

or the probabilities of the latent regimes (using option `regime`):

Analogously, the `ziopmargins` command reports (by default) the marginal effects of the covariates on the choice probabilities and their standard errors, evaluated for the specified values of the covariates:

The `ziopclassification` command reports such measures of fit as the classification (contingency) table, the percentage of correct predictions, the Brier probability and the ranked probability scores:

The command performs the Vuong test comparing the two competing models. The Vuong test prefers the ZIOP-3 model to the ZIOP-2 model at the 0.01 significance level using the standard critical values, and at the 0.03 level using the AIC and BIC corrections:

(output omitted)

6 Concluding remarks

This article describes the ML estimation of the nested and cross-nested zero-inflated ordered probit models using the new STATA commands `nop`, `ziop2` and `ziop3`. Such models can be applied to a variety of data sets in which the discrete ordinal outcomes can be divided into the groups (nests) of similar choices, for example, the decisions to reduce, or leave unchanged, or increase the choice variable (monetary policy interest rates, rankings, prices, consumption levels), or the negative, or neutral, or positive attitudes to the survey questions. The choice among the nests is driven by an ordered-choice switching mechanism that can be either exogenous or endogenous to the outcome decisions, which are also naturally ordered (large or small increase/decrease; disagree or strongly disagree; etc.). The models allow the probabilities of choices from different nests (e.g., no change and an increase) to be driven by distinct mechanisms. Moreover, the zero-inflated cross-nested models allow the often abundant no-change or neutral outcomes to belong to all nests and be inflated by several different processes. The results of Monte Carlo simulations indicate that the proposed ML estimators are consistent and perform well in small samples.

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Appendix

Table A1. Monte Carlo simulations: The true values of parameters

	NOP (exog)	NOP	ZIOP-2 (exog)	ZIOP-2	ZIOP-3 (exog)	ZIOP-3
γ	(0.6, 0.4)'	(0.6, 0.4)'	(0.6, 0.8)'	(0.6, 0.8)'	(0.6, 0.4)'	(0.6, 0.4)'
μ	(0.21, 2.19)'	(0.21, 2.19)'	0.45	0.45	(0.9, 1.5)'	(0.9, 1.5)'
β			(0.5, 0.6)'	(0.5, 0.6)'		
β^-	(0.3, 0.9)'	(0.3, 0.9)'			(0.3, 0.9)'	(0.3, 0.9)'
β^+	(0.2, 0.3)'	(0.2, 0.3)'			(0.2, 0.3)'	(0.2, 0.3)'
α			(-1.45, -0.55, 0.75, 1.65)' (-1.18, -0.33, 0.9, 1.76)'			
α^-	-0.17	-0.5			(-0.67, 0.36)'	(-0.88, 0.12)'
α^+	0.68	1.3			(0.02, 1.28)'	(0.49, 1.67)'
ρ			0	0.5		
ρ^-	0	0.3			0	0.3
ρ^+	0	0.6			0	0.6

Notes: (exog) – exogenous switching: $\rho = \rho^- = \rho^+ = 0$. The variances σ^2 , σ_-^2 , σ_+^2 , and σ_ν^2 are all fixed to one in all models.

To include into the help files:

store the following in `e()`:

Scalars

`e(N)` number of observations

`e(ll)` total log-likelihood of the model

Macros

`e(cmd)` `nop`, `ziop2`, or `ziop3`, respectively

`e(depvar)` dependent variable of regression

Matrices

`e(b)` parameters vector

`e(V)` variance-covariance matrix

`e(ll_obs)` vector of observation-wise log-likelihood

Functions

`e(sample)` marks estimation sample

<code>pos_indepvars(<i>pos_varlist</i>)</code>	specifies for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models the list of the covariates in the outcome equation conditional on the regime $s_t = 1$ for nonnegative outcomes; by default, it is identical to <code>indepvars_reg</code> , the list of the covariates in the regime-switching equation.
<code>neg_indepvars(<i>neg_varlist</i>)</code>	specifies for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models the list of the covariates in the outcome equation conditional on the regime $s = -1$ for nonpositive outcomes; by default, it is identical to <code>indepvars_reg</code> , the list of the covariates in the regime-switching equation
<code>indepvars(<i>varlist</i>)</code>	specifies for the ZIOP-2 model the list of the covariates in the outcome equation; by default, it is identical to <code>indepvars_reg</code> , the list of the covariates in the regime-switching equation
<code>infcat(<i>choice</i>)</code>	is a value of the dependent variable in the regime $s_t = 0$ that should be modeled as inflated in the ZIOP-2 and ZIOP-3 models, and as neutral in the NOP model; by default, it equals 0
<code>endoswitch</code>	specifies that endogenous regime switching is to be used instead of the default exogenous switching
<code>robust</code>	specifies that the robust sandwich estimator of variance is to be used; the default estimator is based on the observed information matrix
<code>cluster(<i>varname</i>)</code>	specifies a clustering variable for the clustered robust sandwich estimator of variance
<code>initial(<i>string</i>)</code>	specifies the space-delimited list <i>string</i> of starting values of the parameters, in the following order: γ , μ , β^+ , α^+ , β^- , α^- , ρ^- and ρ^+ for the NOP and ZIOP-3 models, and γ , μ , β , α and ρ for the ZIOP-2 model
<code>vuong</code>	specifies that the Vuong (1989) test of NOP (or ZIOP-3) model versus the conventional OP one should be performed. The reported Vuong test statistics (the classical one and the two adjusted ones using the AIC and BIC) has a standard normal distribution with large positive values favoring the NOP (or ZIOP-3) model and large negative values favoring the OP model.
<code>nolog</code>	suppresses the iteration log.