# Econometrics II Tutorial No. 1

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#### Outline

- Summary
- 2 Extra Topics
  - The Perfect Classifier Problem
  - Simulation from the latent variable model
- 3 Lecture Problems
- 4 Exercises
- 6 Computer Exercises

Summary

# Key terms

- Binary Response Model: A model for a binary (or dummy, i.e. with two possible outcomes 0 and 1) dependent variable.
- Response Probability: In a binary response model, the probability that the dependent variable takes on the value one, conditional on explanatory variables.
- Linear Probability Model: The multiple linear regression model with a binary dependent variable, where the response probability is linear in the parameters.

[bad idea! the probability can be estimated outside the [0,1] interval

# Key terms - cont'd

• Logit Model: A model for binary response where the response probability is the logit function evaluated at a linear function of the explanatory variables.

$$G(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-z)} = \frac{\exp(z)}{1 + \exp(z)}.$$

• **Probit Model:** A model for binary responses where the response probability is the standard normal cumulative distribution function (CDF) evaluated at a linear function of the explanatory variables.

$$G(z) = \Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{z} \phi(v)dv = \int_{-\infty}^{z} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{v^2}{2}\right) dv.$$

• Latent Variable Model: A model where the observed dependent variable is assumed to be a function of an underlying latent, or unobserved, variable. [interpretation of binary logit/probit model]

## Key terms - cont'd

• Partial Effect at the Average (PEA): In models with nonconstant partial effects, the partial effect evaluated at the average values of the explanatory variables.

[Substitute averages  $\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_k$ , where k is the number of regressors.

• Average Partial Effect (APE): For nonconstant partial effects, the partial effect averaged across the specified population.

$$\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{\partial \mathbb{P}(y_{i}=1|x_{i})}{\partial x_{i}} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}g(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1}x_{i1}+\cdots+\hat{\beta}_{k}x_{ik})\cdot\beta_{j}\right]$$

### Key terms - cont'd

• Akaike Information Criterion (AIC): A general measure for relative quality of models estimated with maximum likelihood, computed as

$$AIC = -2\frac{\ln L}{n} + 2\frac{k}{n},$$

where  $\ln L$  is the maximum value of likelihood, n is the number of observations and k is the number of parameters.

• Schwarz Criterion (SC): A general measure for relative quality of models estimated with maximum likelihood, computed as

$$SC = -2\frac{\ln L}{n} + \ln(n)\frac{k}{n},$$

where  $\ln L$  is the maximum value of likelihood, n is the number of observations and k is the number of parameters.

# • Percent Correctly Predicted (Hit Rate): In a binary response model, the percentage of times the prediction of zero or one coincides with the actual outcome. Percentage of observations with $\tilde{y}_i = y_i$ , where

$$\tilde{y}_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \hat{\mathbb{P}}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = G(x_i' \hat{\beta}) > c, \\ 0, & \text{if } \hat{\mathbb{P}}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = G(x_i' \hat{\beta}) \le c, \end{cases}$$

where c is typically chosen as 0.5.

Extra Topics

#### The Perfect Classifier Problem

Recall – the loglikelihood:

$$\ln L(\beta) = \ln p(y_1, \dots, y_n | x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \underbrace{y_i \ln[G(x_i'\beta)]}_{(*)} + \underbrace{(1 - y_i) \ln[1 - G(x_i'\beta)]}_{(**)} \right\}. \quad (1)$$

We have

$$0 < G(x_i'\beta) < 1$$
,

hence

$$-\infty < \ln[G(x_i'\beta)] < 0.$$

Notice that

$$y_i = 1 \Rightarrow (*) < 0 \& (**) = 0,$$
  
 $y_i = 0 \Rightarrow (*) = 0 \& (**) < 0.$ 

#### Perfect fit:

$$y_i = 1 \iff G(x_i'\beta) = 1,$$
  
 $y_i = 0 \iff G(x_i'\beta) = 0.$ 

This could happen only when

$$y_i = 1 \iff x_i'\beta = \infty,$$
 (2)

$$y_i = 0 \iff x_i'\beta = -\infty.$$
 (3)

We say that the loglikelihood (1) is bounded above by 0, and it achieves this bound if (2) and (3) hold.

Now, suppose that there is some linear combination of the independent variables, say  $x_i'\beta^{\bullet}$ , such that

$$y_i = 1 \iff x_i' \beta^{\bullet} > 0, \tag{4}$$

$$y_i = 0 \iff x_i' \beta^{\bullet} < 0. \tag{5}$$

In other words, there is some range of the regressor(s) for which  $y_i$  is always 1 or 0.

 $x_i'\beta^{\bullet}$  is said to be a **perfect classifier**, since it allows us to predict  $y_i$  with perfect accuracy for every observation.

Summary Extra Topics Lecture Problems Exercises Computer Exercises

#### Problem?

Yes, for ML estimation!

Then, it is possible to make the value of  $\ln L$  arbitrarily close to 0 (the upper bound) by choosing  $\beta$  arbitrarily large (in an absolute sense)<sup>1</sup>.

Hence, no finite ML estimator exists.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Formally: by setting  $\beta = \gamma \beta^{\bullet}$  and letting  $\gamma \to \infty$ .

# Computer arithmetic

This is exactly what any nonlinear maximization algorithm will attempt to do if there exists a vector  $\beta^{\bullet}$  for which conditions (4) and (5) are satisfied.

Because of the numerical limitations, the algorithm will eventually terminate (with some numerical error) at a value of  $\ln L$  slightly less than 0.

This is likely to occur in practice when the sample is very small, when almost all of the  $y_i$  are equal to 0 or almost all of them are equal to 1, or when the model fits extremely well.

Figure 2.1: Figure 11.2 from Davidson and MacKinnon (1999), "Econometric Theory and Methods": A perfect classifier yields a separating hyperplane.

#### Consider the latent variable model

$$y_i^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + e_i,$$

$$e_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1),$$

$$y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y_i^* > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } y_i^* \le 0 \end{cases}$$

Suppose that  $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ . We will generate 5,000 samples of 20 observations on  $(x_i, y_i)$  pairs in the following way:

- 1,000 assuming that  $\beta_0 = 0$  and  $\beta_1 = 1$ :
- 1,000 assuming that  $\beta_0 = 1$  and  $\beta_1 = 1$ :
- 1,000 assuming that  $\beta_0 = -1$  and  $\beta_1 = 1$ ;
- 1,000 assuming that  $\beta_0 = 0$  and  $\beta_1 = 2$ :
- 1,000 assuming that  $\beta_0 = 0$  and  $\beta_1 = 3$ .

For each of the 5,000 samples, we will attempt to estimate a probit model.

We are interested in the following question:

In each of the five cases, what proportion of the time does the estimation fail because of perfect classifiers?

We also want to explain why there will be more failures in some cases than in others.

Next, we will repeat this exercise for five sets of 1,000 samples of size 40, with the same parameter values.

This will allow us to draw a conclusion about the effect of sample size on the perfect classifier problem.

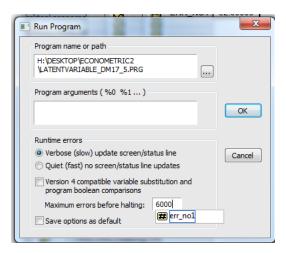
```
Program: LATENTVARIABLE_DM17_5 - (h:\desktop\econometric2\latentvariable_dm1...
Run Print Save SaveAs Cut Copy Paste InsertTxt Find Replace Wrap+/- LineNum+/- Encrypt
wfcreate(wf=latentyariable_dm17_5_0_1) u 20
 Control Variables
!N = 20
IM =1000
setmaxerrs 6*IM '6 because if the estimation fails no coefs, stderrs and loglik are created, and
assigning of these creates next errors
'Parameters
lbeta0 = 0
!beta1 = 1
matrix(!N,!M) xs
matrix(!N.!M) us
matrix(!N,!M) ys
matrix(IN,IM) v stars
matrix(2,!M) eq coeff
matrix(2.!M) eq stderrs
matrix(1,!M) eq loglik
for li=1 to IM
   series u = nmd
   matplace(us.u.1.li)
   series x = nmd
   matplace(xs.x.1.!i)
   series y star = !beta0 + !beta1*x + u
   matplace(v stars.v star.1,li)
   series v = @recode(v star>0, 1, 0)
   matplace(ys,y,1,!i)
   equation eq.binary(d="n") y c x
   eg coeff(1,li) = eg.@coefs(1)
   eq_coeff(2,li) = eq.@coefs(2)
   eq_stderrs(1,!i) = eq.@stderrs(1)
   ea stderrs(2.!i) = ea.@stderrs(2)
   ea loalik = ea.@loal
scalar err_no1 = @errorcount/6
wfsave "H:\Desktop\Econometric2\DM17 5 N20 betas 0 1"
```

If you are interested, you can check the results of each probit estimation: the coefficients estimates, their standard errors and the loglikelihood values are stored in matrices eq\_coeff, eq\_stderrs and eq\_log1, respectively.

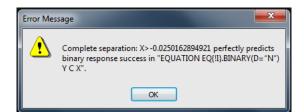
But what we are truly after, is the error count variable, err\_no1, which reports how many times an estimation error occurred.

Notice, that we used the command setmaxerr to set the maximum number of error that the program may encounter before execution is halted.

Alternatively, you can specify it in the box showing up after clicking on the run button.



Without changing the value of maximum error allowed, the program would shortly break with the error message reporting the perfect separation problem.



The proportion of the time that perfect classifiers were encountered for each of the five cases and each of the two sample sizes:

Parameters	n=20	n = 40
$\beta_0 = 0,  \beta_1 = 1$	0.012	0.000
$\beta_0 = 1,  \beta_1 = 1$	0.074	0.001
$\beta_0 = -1,  \beta_1 = 1$	0.056	0.002
$\beta_0 = 0,  \beta_1 = 2$	0.143	0.008
$\beta_0 = 0,  \beta_1 = 3$	0.286	0.052

The proportion of samples with perfect classifiers increases as both  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  increase in absolute value. When  $\beta_0 = 0$ , the unconditional expectation of  $y_i$  is 0.5.

As  $\beta_0$  increases in absolute value, this expectation becomes larger, and the proportion of 1s in the sample increases.

As  $\beta_1$  becomes larger in absolute value, the model fits better on average, which obviously increases the chance that it fits perfectly.

The results for parameters (1,1) are almost identical to those for parameters (-1,1) because, with  $x_i$  having mean 0, the fraction of 1s in the samples with parameters (1,1) is the same, on average, as the fraction of 0s in the samples with parameters (-1,1).

Comparing the results for n = 20 and n = 40, it is clear that the probability of encountering a perfect classifier falls very rapidly as the sample size increases.

#### Lecture Problems

#### Lecture Problems: Exercise 1.

This exercise is about the reason why we can use the standard normal (or standard logistic) distribution. Consider the binary probit model

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i), \\ \mathbb{P}(y_i = 0 | x_i) = 1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i),$$

where  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the standard normal distribution. This stems from the assumption that

$$y_i^* = \beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + e_i,$$

where  $e_i$  is an error term with standard normal distribution (independent of  $x_i$ ), where

$$y_i = \mathbb{I}\{y_i^* > 0\} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y_i^* > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } y_i^* \le 0. \end{cases}$$

# Lecture Problems: Exercise 1(1)

Suppose that we would assume that  $e_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are parameters to be estimated (instead of setting  $\mu=0$  and  $\sigma = 1$ ).

(1) Show that

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i) = \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right),$$

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 0|x_i) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

Hint: use the 'standard' trick that  $\frac{e_i - \mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  if  $e_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

0000000000 **00** 

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = \mathbb{P}(y_i^* > 0 | x_i)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(x_i'\beta + e_i > 0 | x_i)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(e_i > -x_i'\beta | x_i)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{e_i - \mu}{\sigma} > \frac{-x_i'\beta - \mu}{\sigma} \middle| x_i\right)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(symm)}}{=} \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{e_i - \mu}{\sigma} < \frac{x_i'\beta + \mu}{\sigma} \middle| x_i\right)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(cont)}}{=} \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{e_i - \mu}{\sigma} \le \frac{x_i'\beta + \mu}{\sigma} \middle| x_i\right)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(ind)}}{=} \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{e_i - \mu}{\sigma} \le \frac{x_i'\beta + \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

$$= \Phi\left(\frac{x_i'\beta + \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i) = \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

Further, we have either  $y_i = 0$  or  $y_i = 1$ , so that

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 0 | x_i) + \mathbb{P}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = 1,$$

so that

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 0|x_i) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

# Lecture Problems: Exercise 1(2)

(2) What happens to  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  if we change  $\beta_0$  and  $\mu$  into  $\beta_0 + 1$  and  $\mu - 1$ ?

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = \Phi\left(\frac{(\beta_0 + 1) + \beta_1 z_i + (\mu - 1)}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right),$$

so nothing happens to  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  in this case.

The model with parameters  $\beta_0 + a$  and  $\mu - a$   $(-\infty < a < \infty)$  is the same Data Generating Process (DGP) as the model with parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\mu$ .

It yields the same probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 0|x_i)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  for each observation  $\Rightarrow$  the same Bernoulli distributions and the same properties of the  $y_i$  (conditionally upon  $x_i$ ).

Even if we would have infinitely many observations, we could not distinguish between the model with parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\mu$  and the model with parameters  $\beta_0 + a$  and  $\mu - a$ .

Therefore we can set  $\mu = 0$  without loss of generality.

# Lecture Problems: Exercise 1(3)

(3) What happens to  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  if we change  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  into  $2\beta_0$ ,  $2\beta_1$ ,  $2\mu$  and  $2\sigma$ ?

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = \Phi\left(\frac{2\beta_0 + 2\beta_1 z_i + 2\mu}{2\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right),\,$$

so nothing happens to  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  in this case.

The model with parameters  $b \cdot \beta_0$ ,  $b \cdot \beta_1$ ,  $b \cdot \mu$  and  $b \cdot \sigma$  is (b > 0) is the same DGP as the model with parameters  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .

It yields the same probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 0|x_i)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  for each observation  $\Rightarrow$  the same Bernoulli distributions and the same properties of the  $y_i$  (conditional upon  $x_i$ ).

Even if we would have infinitely many observations, we could not distinguish between the model with parameters  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  and the model with parameters  $b \cdot \beta_0$ ,  $b \cdot \beta_1$ ,  $b \cdot \mu$  and  $b \cdot \sigma$ .

Therefore we can set  $\sigma = 1$  without loss of generality.

#### Lecture Problems: Exercise 1(4)

(4) What is the difference in  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  between the model with parameters  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  and the model with parameters  $b \cdot (\beta_0 + a)$ ,  $b \cdot \beta_1$ ,  $b \cdot (\mu - a)$  and  $b \cdot \sigma$  (with  $-\infty < a < \infty \text{ and } b > 0)$ ?

$$\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1 | x_i) = \Phi\left(\frac{b \cdot (\beta_0 + a) + b \cdot \beta_1 z_i + b \cdot (\mu - a)}{b \cdot \sigma}\right)$$
$$= \Phi\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i + \mu}{\sigma}\right).$$

So there is no difference in  $\mathbb{P}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  between the model with parameters  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  and the model with parameters  $b \cdot (\beta_0 + a), b \cdot \beta_1, b \cdot (\mu - a)$  and  $b \cdot \sigma$  (with  $-\infty < a < \infty$  and b > 0).

Therefore  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \mu$  and  $\sigma$  are **not identified!** 

We we can set  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$  without loss of generality.

Only after imposing these restrictions  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$ , the parameters  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are identified: a different value of  $(\beta_0, \beta_1)$ implies a different distribution of  $y_i$  (conditional upon  $x_i$ ).

## Lecture Problems: Exercise 2(1)

The data are in the EViews file bank\_employees.wf1.

(1) Change the threshold from 0.5 to  $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$ . Compare the percentage correctly predicted between the binary probit and binary logit model.

Expectation-Prediction Evaluation for Binary Specification Equation: BINARY PROBIT Success cutoff C = 0 1879

	Estimated Equation			Constant Probability		
	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total
P(Dep=1)<=C	333	5	338	0	0	0
P(Dep=1)>C	30	79	109	363	84	447
Total	363	84	447	363	84	447
Correct	333	79	412	0	84	84
% Correct	91.74	94.05	92.17	0.00	100.00	18.79
% Incorrect	8.26	5.95	7.83	100.00	0.00	81.21
Total Gain*	91.74	-5.95	73.38			
Percent Gain**	9174	NA	90.36			

<sup>\*</sup>Change in "% Correct" from default (constant probability) specification

Expectation-Prediction Evaluation for Binary Specification Equation: BINARY LOGIT Success cutoff: C = 0.1970

Success cuton.	5 - 0.1079					
	Estimated Equation			Constant Probability		
	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total
P(Dep=1)<=C	333	5	338	0	0	0
P(Dep=1)>C	30	79	109	363	84	447
Total	363	84	447	363	84	447
Correct	333	79	412	0	84	84
% Correct	91.74	94.05	92.17	0.00	100.00	18.79
% Incorrect	8.26	5.95	7.83	100.00	0.00	81.21
Total Gain*	91.74	-5.95	73.38			
Percent Gain**	9174	NA	90.36			

<sup>\*</sup>Change in "% Correct" from default (constant probability) specification

Percentage correctly predicted = 92.17% in both models.

<sup>\*\*</sup>Percent of incorrect (default) prediction corrected by equation

<sup>\*\*</sup>Percent of incorrect (default) prediction corrected by equation

Now we have 109 predictions  $\tilde{y}_i = 1$  instead of 50.

In this case this threshold 0.1878 leads to a better percentage correctly predicted of 92.17% instead of 89.71%.

The latter does not need to be the case in general.

## Lecture Problems: Exercise 2(2)

(2) Change the threshold from 0.5 to 0.4. Compare the percentage correctly predicted between the binary probit and binary logit model.

	Estimated Equation			Constant Probability		
	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total
P(Dep=1)<=C	357	40	397	363	84	447
P(Dep=1)>C	6	44	50	0	0	0
Total	363	84	447	363	84	447
Correct	357	44	401	363	0	363
% Correct	98.35	52.38	89.71	100.00	0.00	81.21
% Incorrect	1.65	47.62	10.29	0.00	100.00	18.79
Total Gain*	-1.65	52.38	8.50			
Percent Gain**	NA	52.38	45.24			

<sup>\*</sup>Change in "% Correct" from default (constant probability) specification \*\*Percent of incorrect (default) prediction corrected by equation

Expectation-Prediction Evaluation for Binary Specification Equation: BINARY LOGIT Success cutoff: C = 0.4

	Estimated Equation			Constant Probability		
	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total
P(Dep=1)<=C	333	5	338	363	84	447
P(Dep=1)>C	30	79	109	0	0	0
Total	363	84	447	363	84	447
Correct	333	79	412	363	0	363
% Correct	91.74	94.05	92.17	100.00	0.00	81.21
% Incorrect	8.26	5.95	7.83	0.00	100.00	18.79
Total Gain*	-8.26	94.05	10.96			
Percent Gain**	NA	94.05	58.33			

<sup>\*</sup>Change in "% Correct" from default (constant probability) specification \*\*Percent of incorrect (default) prediction corrected by equation

Percentage correctly predicted = 89.71% in binary probit model.

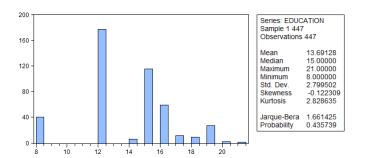
Percentage correctly predicted = 92.17\% in binary logit model.

So, for this value of the threshold 0.4 the binary logit model has a better percentage correctly predicted than the binary probit model.

## Lecture Problems: Exercise 2(3)

(3) Can you find a threshold so that  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{y}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$ ? Motivate your answer.

No. The explanatory variable education (the only explanatory variable in this model) takes a finite number of values, so that the estimated probability  $\hat{\mathbb{P}}(y_i = 1|x_i)$  is exactly the same for groups of individuals that have exactly the same *education*.



We have  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i = 84$  observations with  $y_i = 1$  in dataset.

There are 50 individuals with education  $\geq$  17; these have  $\hat{\mathbb{P}}(y_i = 1|x_i) > 0.5$  in the binary logit model.

There are 59 individuals with education = 16; these have  $\hat{\mathbb{P}}(y_i = 1|x_i) = 0.4036$  in the binary logit model.

Summary Extra Topics

- We have 50 predictions with  $\tilde{y}_i = 1$ , if we take a threshold like 0.5, so that each individual with education  $\geq 17$  gets prediction  $\tilde{y}_i = 1$  and so that each individual with education  $\leq 16$  gets prediction  $\tilde{y}_i = 0$ .
- We have 50 + 59 = 109 predictions with  $\tilde{y}_i = 1$ , if we take a threshold like 0.4, so that each individual with education  $\geq 16$  gets prediction  $\tilde{y}_i = 1$  and so that each individual with education  $\leq 15$  gets prediction  $\tilde{y}_i = 0$ .
- We can not get exactly 84 observations with  $\tilde{y}_i = 1$ .

## Lecture Problems: Exercise 2(4)

(4) Change the value of education of the last observation from 12 to 120 (to create an extreme outlier with enormous education and  $y_i = 0$ ).

Note: first you may need to click the Edit +- button above the spreadsheet with values. Re-estimate the binary probit and logit models. Compare the percentage correctly predicted between the binary probit and binary logit model. Can you explain the difference in quality between the probit and logit models?

Note: Here we have a binary logit/probit model, where we have added an outlier by changing the *education* of the last observation to 120 (instead of 12), where  $y_i = 0$  for this last observation.

So, we created an extreme observation with an extremely high value of education and still  $y_i = 0$ .

The person of the last observation has an administrative job, not a management job.

Note: if the last observation would have  $y_i = 1$ , then this would not be an outlier!

Then, the extremely high value of education would simply 'match' with  $y_i = 1$ , so that changing 12 into 120 would hardly affect the parameter estimates.

Summary Extra Topics

Computer Exercises

#### For threshold = 0.5 we obtain:

Expectation-Prediction Evaluation for Binary Specification Equation: BINARY PROBIT Success cutoff: C = 0.5

	Estimated Equation			Constant Probability		
	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total
P(Dep=1)<=C	362	84	446	363	84	447
P(Dep=1)>C	1	0	1	0	0	0
Total	363	84	447	363	84	447
Correct	362	0	362	363	0	363
% Correct	99.72	0.00	80.98	100.00	0.00	81.21
% Incorrect	0.28	100.00	19.02	0.00	100.00	18.79
Total Gain*	-0.28	0.00	-0.22			
Percent Gain**	NA	0.00	-1.19			

<sup>\*</sup>Change in "% Correct" from default (constant probability) specification

Expectation-Prediction Evaluation for Binary Specification Equation: BINARY\_LOGIT Success cutoff: C = 0.5

	Estimated Equation			Constant Probability			
	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	Dep=0	Dep=1	Total	
P(Dep=1)<=C	359	48	407	363	84	447	
P(Dep=1)>C	4	36	40	0	0	0	
Total	363	84	447	363	84	447	
Correct	359	36	395	363	0	363	
% Correct	98.90	42.86	88.37	100.00	0.00	81.21	
% Incorrect	1.10	57.14	11.63	0.00	100.00	18.79	
Total Gain*	-1.10	42.86	7.16				
Percent Gain**	NA	42.86	38.10				

<sup>\*</sup>Change in "% Correct" from default (constant probability) specification \*\*Percent of incorrect (default) prediction corrected by equation

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Now we see a substantial difference in percentage correctly predicted between the binary probit model and the binary logit model: 80.98% versus 88.37%.

(The binary probit model does not even beat the approach of simply predicting  $\tilde{y}_i = 0$  for each observation, which has percentage correctly predicted of 81.21%.)

**Explanation:** the tails of the logistic distribution are fatter than the tails of the normal distribution!

Outliers can occur in the logistic distribution, so that the parameter estimates are relatively less affected by outliers.

In the normal distribution, the presence of one outlier can have a huge effect on the parameter estimates.

Roughly stated, in the binary probit model the parameter estimates  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are enormously changed in order to "keep the last observation with (education = 120, y = 0) out of the extreme tail".

Exercises

## $W17/1 \ (i)$

(i) For a binary response y, let  $\bar{y}$  be the proportion of ones in the sample (which is equal to the sample average of the  $y_i$ ).

Let  $\hat{q}_0$  be the percent correctly predicted for the outcome y=0and let  $\hat{q}_1$  be the percent correctly predicted for the outcome u = 1.

If  $\hat{p}$  is the overall percent correctly predicted, show that  $\hat{p}$  is a weighted average of  $\hat{q}_0$  and  $\hat{q}_1$ :

$$\hat{p} = (1 - \bar{y})\hat{q}_0 + \bar{y}\hat{q}_1.$$

 $n_0$  – the number of observations when  $y_i = 0$ ,  $n_1$  – the number of observations when  $y_i = 1$ ,  $n = n_0 + n_1$  the sample size,

 $m_0$  – the number (not the percent!) correctly predicted when  $y_i = 0$  (so the prediction is also zero),  $m_1$  – the number correctly predicted when  $y_i = 1$ .

Then, the proportion correctly predicted is

$$\frac{m_0 + m_1}{n}$$

$$\frac{m_0+m_1}{n} = \frac{n_0}{n} \cdot \frac{m_0}{n_0} + \frac{n_1}{n} \cdot \frac{m_1}{n_1} = (1-\bar{y})\frac{m_0}{n_0} + \bar{y}\frac{m_1}{n_1},$$

since:

$$\bar{y} = \frac{n_1}{n}$$
 (the proportion of the sample with  $y_i = 1$ )

and

$$1 - \bar{y} = \frac{n_0}{n}$$
 (the proportion of the sample with  $y_i = 0$ ).

Next, notice that:

 $\frac{m_0}{n_0}$  – the proportion correctly predicted when  $y_i = 0$ , and

 $\frac{m_1}{n_1}$  – the proportion correctly predicted when  $y_i = 1$ .

Hence:

$$\frac{m_0 + m_1}{n} = (1 - \bar{y})\frac{m_0}{n_0} + \bar{y}\frac{m_1}{n_1}.$$

Multiplying both sides by 100 yields

$$\hat{p} = (1 - \bar{y})\hat{q}_0 + \bar{y}\hat{q}_1,\tag{6}$$

where we use the fact that, by definition,

$$\hat{p} = 100 \cdot \frac{m_0 + m_1}{n}, \qquad \hat{q}_0 = 100 \cdot \frac{m_0}{n_0}, \qquad \hat{q}_1 = 100 \cdot \frac{m_1}{n_1}.$$

## $W17/1 \ (ii)$

(ii) In a sample of 300, suppose that  $\bar{y} = 0.70$ , so that there are 210 outcomes with  $y_1 = 1$  and 90 with  $y_i = 0$ .

Suppose that the percent correctly predicted when y = 0 is 80, and the percent correctly predicted when y = 1 is 40.

Find the overall percent correctly predicted.

Computer Exercises

We just use formula (6) from part (i):

$$\hat{p} = 0.30 \cdot 80 + 0.70 \cdot 40 = 52.$$

Therefore, overall we correctly predict only 52% of the outcomes.

This is because, while 80% of the time we correctly predict y = 0, the observations where  $y_i = 0$  account for only 30 percent of the outcomes.

More weight (i.e. 0.70) is given to the predictions when  $y_i = 1$ , and we do much less well predicting that outcome (getting it right only 40% of the time).

## W17/2

Let grad be a dummy variable for whether a student-athlete at a large university graduates in five years. Let hsGPA and SAT be high school grade point average and SAT score, respectively. Let study be the number of hours spent per week in an organized study hall. Suppose that, using data on 420 student-athletes, the following logit model is obtained:

$$\hat{\mathbb{P}}(grad=1|hsGPA,SAT,study) = \\ \Lambda(-1.17+0.24\,hsGPA+0.00058\,SAT+0.073\,study),$$

where  $\Lambda(z) = \exp(z)/[1 + \exp(z)]$  is the logit function. Holding hsGPA fixed at 3.0 and SAT fixed at 1,200, compute the estimated difference in the graduation probability for someone who spent 10 hours per week in study hall and someone who spent 5 hours per week.

Computer Exercises

We first need to compute the estimated probability at hsGPA = 3.0, SAT = 1,200, and study = 10,second at hsGPA = 3.0, SAT = 1,200, and study = 5, and then subtract the former from the latter.

To obtain the first probability, we start by computing the linear function inside  $\Lambda(\cdot)$ :

$$-1.17 + 0.24 \cdot hsGPA + 0.00058 \cdot SAT + 0.073 \cdot study = -1.17 + 0.24 \cdot 3.0 + 0.00058 \cdot 1,200 + 0.073 \cdot 10 = 0.9760.$$

Next, we plug this into the logit function:

$$\frac{\exp(0.9760)}{1 + \exp(0.9760)} \approx 0.7263.$$

This is the estimated probability that a student-athlete with the given characteristics graduates in five years.

For the student-athlete who attended study hall five hours a week, we compute:

$$-1.17 + 0.24 \cdot 3.0 + 0.00058 \cdot 1,200 + 0.073 \cdot 5 = 0.6110.$$

Evaluating the logit function at this value gives

$$\frac{\exp(0.6110)}{1 + \exp(0.6110)} \approx 0.6482.$$

Computer Exercises

$$0.7263 - 0.6482 = 0.0781$$

which is under 0.10.

Note how far off the calculation would be if we simply use the coefficient on study (in the linear function inside  $\Lambda$ ) to conclude that the difference in probabilities is

$$0.073 \cdot (10-5) = 0.365.$$

Computer Exercises

## W17/C1

Use the data in pntsprd.wf1 for this exercise.

N=553, cross-sectional gambling point spread data for the 1994–1995 men's college basketball seasons. The spread is for the day before the game was played.

#### Spread?

The number of points added to the score of the "underdog".

So if team A is the favourite and team B the underdog, where the betting office quotes a spread of 10, and if the result is 70-65 (e.g., in basketball), then team B has "won" if we take into account the spread (since 70 < 65 + 10).

So, betting with spread 10 is the same as betting that the score of team A is higher or lower than the score of team B plus 10.

The larger the spread, the larger the expected difference in strength between the teams. It is a "trick" to make betting interesting even on matches between teams with very different levels, because it is sometimes almost sure that the favourite team wins, but it is then not sure if they win with more or less than e.g. 20 points difference.

# W17/C1 (i)

(i) The variable favmin is a binary variable if the team favoured by the Las Vegas point spread wins.

A linear probability model to estimate the probability that the favoured team wins is

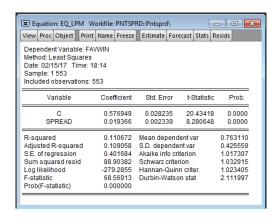
$$\mathbb{P}(favin = 1|spread) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 spread.$$

Explain why, if the spread incorporates all relevant information, we expect  $\beta_0 = 0.5$ .

If *spread* is zero, there is no favourite, and the probability that the team we (arbitrarily) label the favourite should have a 50% chance of winning.

## W17/C1 (ii)

(ii) Estimate the model from part (i) by OLS. Test  $H_0: \beta_0 = 0.5$  against a two-sided alternative.



The linear probability model estimated by OLS gives

$$\widehat{favwin} = 0.577 + 0.0194 \, spread$$

$$(0.028) \, (0.0023)$$

with n = 553 and  $R^2 = 0.111$ , where the usual standard errors are in parentheses.

The t-statistic for  $H_0: \beta_0 = 0.5$  is

$$\frac{0.577 - 0.500}{0.028} = 2.75,$$

which leads to rejecting  $H_0$  against a two-sided alternative at the 1% level (critical value  $t_{553-2} \approx 2.5848$ ).

### W17/C1 (iii)

(iii) Is spread statistically significant? What is the estimated probability that the favoured team wins when spread = 10?

The t-statistic for  $H_0: \beta_1 = 0.0$  is

$$\frac{0.0194 - 0}{0.0023} = 8.4348,$$

so as we expect, *spread* is very statistically significant.

If spread = 10 the estimated probability that the favoured team wins is

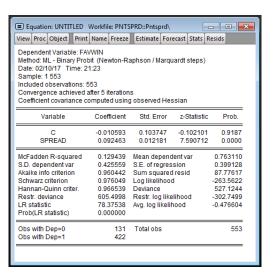
$$0.577 + 0.0194 \cdot 10 = 0.771.$$

### W17/C1 (iii)

(iii) Now, estimate a probit model for P(favwin = 1|spread).

Interpret and test the null hypothesis that the intercept is zero.

*Hint:* Remember that  $\Phi(0) = 0.5$ .



In the Probit model

$$\mathbb{P}(favwin = 1|spread) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 spread),$$

where  $\Phi(\cdot)$  denotes the standard normal cdf. If  $\beta_0 = 0$ , then

$$\mathbb{P}(favwin = 1|spread) = \Phi(\beta_1 spread)$$

and, in particular,

$$\mathbb{P}(favwin = 1|spread = 0) = \Phi(0) = 0.5.$$

This is the analog of testing whether the intercept is 0.5 in the LPM. From the EViews output, the t statistic (or, actually, the z statistic, only valid asymptotically) for testing  $H_0: \beta_0 = 0$  is only about -0.102 so there are no grounds to reject  $H_0$ .

# W17/C1 (iv)

(iv) Use the probit model to estimate the probability that the favoured team wins when spread = 10.

Compare this with the LPM estimate from part (iii).

When spread = 10 the predicted response probability from the estimated probit model is

$$\Phi(-0.0106 + 0.0925 \cdot 10) = \Phi(0.9144) \approx 0.820.$$

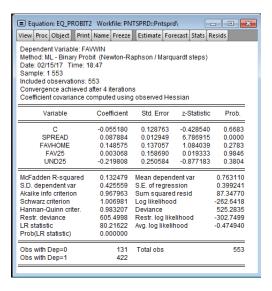
This is somewhat above the estimate for the LPM.

# W17/C1 (v)

Add the variables favhome, fav25, and und25 to the probit model and test joint significance of these variables using the likelihood ratio test.

(How many df are in the  $\chi^2$  distribution?)

Interpret this result, focusing on the question of whether the spread incorporates all observable information prior to a game.



When favhome, fav25, and und25 are added to the probit model, the value of the loglikelihood becomes -262.64, while it used to be -263.56.

Therefore, the likelihood ratio statistic is

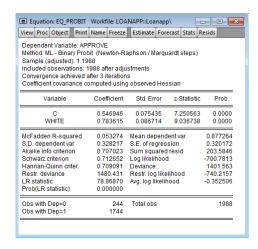
$$2 \cdot [-262.64 - (-263.56)] = 2 \cdot (263.56 - 262.64) = 1.84.$$

The p-value from the  $\chi_3^2$  (df = 3 because we add 3 variables) distribution is about 0.61, so favhome, fav25, and und25 are jointly very insignificant. Once spread is controlled for, these other factors have no additional power for predicting the outcome.

# W17/C2 (i)

Use the data in loanapp.wf1 for this exercise.

(i) Estimate a probit model of approve on white. Find the estimated probability of loan approval for both whites and nonwhites. How do these compare with the linear probability estimates?



As there is only one explanatory variable that takes on just two values, there are only two different predicted values: the estimated probabilities of loan approval for white and nonwhite applicants. Rounded to three decimal places these are:

$$\mathbb{P}(approve = 1|white = 0) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot 0)$$

$$= \Phi(0.547) = 0.708,$$

$$\mathbb{P}(approve = 1|white = 1) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot 1)$$

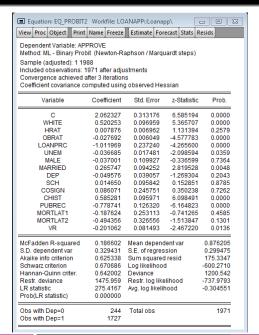
$$= \Phi(0.547 + 0.784) = 0.908,$$

for nonwhites and whites, respectively.

(In other words, 0.708 is the proportion of loans approved for nonwhites and 0.908 is the proportion approved for whites.)

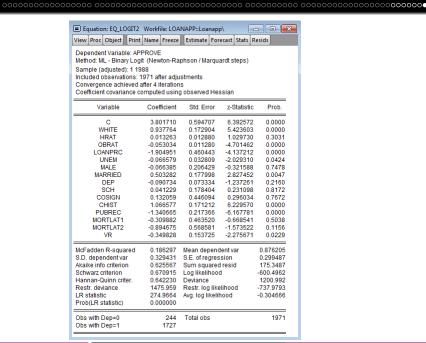
# W17/C2 (ii)

(ii) Now, add the variables hrat, obrat, loanprc, unem, male, married, dep, sch, cosign, chist, pubrec, mortlat1, mortlat2, and vr to the probit model. Is there statistically significant evidence of discrimination against nonwhites?



#### W17/C2 (iii)

(iii) Estimate the model from part (ii) by logit. Compare the coefficient on white to the probit estimate.



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### W17/C1 (iv)

(iv) Use equation

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ G \left[ \hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i1} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_{k-1} x_{ik-1} + \hat{\beta}_{k} (c_{k} + 1) \right] - G \left[ \hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} x_{i1} + \dots + \hat{\beta}_{k-1} x_{ik-1} + \hat{\beta}_{k} c_{k} \right] \right\}$$
(17.17)

to estimate the sizes of the discrimination effects for probit and logit.

Note that (17.17) is the average partial effect for a discrete explanatory variable.

We consider all the variables but white. Instead, for each individual we consider two counterfactual scenarios: as if he or she was white and otherwise (new generated variables white1 and white0), which we use to create two groups (variables\_white1 and variables\_white0).

Then, we use the coefficients from two estimations (coef\_probit and coef\_logit) to sum all the variables multiplied by their respective coefficient.

This gives us the arguments inside  $G(\cdot)$  in (17.17).

To evaluate  $G(\cdot)$  we need to apply the appropriate function for each model.

For probit, it is  $\Phi(z)$ , the cdf of the standard normal distribution; for logit, it is  $\frac{1}{1+\exp(-z)}$ .

Finally, we subtract the vector with  $G(\cdot)$  applied to the sum under the "nonwhites scenario" from that under the "whites scenario" and average out.

The obtained values are  $APE_{probit} = 0.1042$  and  $APE_{logit} = 0.1009$ , hence quite similar.

Program: LOANAPP - (h:\desktop\loanapp.prg) - - X Run Print Save SaveAs Cut Copy Paste InsertTxt Find Replace Wrap+/- LineNum+/- Encrypt equation eq\_probit.binary(d=n) approve c white hrat obrat loanprc unem male married dep sch cosign chist pubrec mortlat1 mortlat2 vr equation eq\_logit binary(d=1) approve c white hrat obrat loanprc unem male married dep sch cosign chist pubrec mortlat1 mortlat2 vr vector(16) coef\_probit coef probit = eq probit.@coefs vector(16) coef\_logit coef logit = eq logit@coefs counterfactual scenarios genr white 1 = 1 genr white0 = 0 ' all variables under counterfactual scenarios group variables, white 1 white 1 hrat obrat loanprc unem male married depisch cosign chist pubrec mortlat1 mortlat2 w group variables, white0 white0 hrat obrat loanprc unem male married depisch cosign chist pubrec mortlat1 mortlat2 vr ' sum inside the G functions series sum white0 probit series sum white1 probit series sum white0 logit series sum white1 logit start summing with the intercept (beta0) sum white0 probit = coef probit(1) sum white1 probit = coef probit(1) sum white0 logit = coef logit(1) sum white1 logit = coef logit(1) add subsequent variables multiplied by their coefficients '(there are more coefs because the one for the constant term is also there - hence !!-1 for the grouped variables) for !i = 2 to 16 series temp = coef\_probit(!i)\* variables\_white0(!i-1) sum white0 probit = sum white0 probit + temp series temp = coef\_probit(!i)\* variables\_white1(!i-1) sum white1 probit = sum white1 probit + temp series temp = coef logit(!i)\* variables white0(!i-1) sum white0 logit = sum white0 logit + temp series temp = coef logit(!i)\* variables white1(!i-1) sum white1 logit = sum white1 logit + temp for probit compute G as the cdf of the standard normal distribution series G white0 probit = @cnorm(sum white0 probit) series G white1 probit = @cnorm(sum white1 probit) series diff\_probit = G\_white1\_probit - G\_white0\_probit scalar apf probit = @mean(diff probit) for logit: compute G as the logistic function series G white0 logit = 1/(1+@exp(-sum white0 logit)) series G white1 logit = 1/(1+@exp(-sum\_white1\_logit)) series diff logit = G white1 logit - G white0 logit scalar apf logit = @mean(diff logit)

15.02.2017