Binary Logit/Probit

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Questions

- A medical researcher is interested in predicting the probability of getting a heart attack knowing the blood pressure, cholesterol, calorie intake, gender and physical
- Predict whether a household would subscribe to a package of premium channels
- A credit card issuing bank would like to predict the probability that a customer will default

What other prediction problems can you think of in each area?

- Insurance industry
- Finance industry
- Healthcare industry
- · Retail industry
- · Web analytics

When to use these methods?

- In all the previous situations, notice that the dependent variable is discrete and binary.
- If Y is continuous then regression is used.
- If Y is binary and discrete, then logit/probit can be used.
- used.

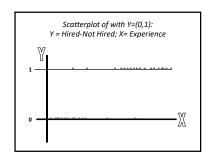
 If Y has more than 2 levels and is discrete, then use

 Multinomial Logit (MNL) or

 Multinomial Probit (MNP)

 e.g., Which brand will a person choose (A, B, C, or D)

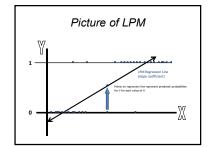
 Which major will an MBA student choose?



The Linear Probability Model (LPM)

If we estimate the slope using OLS regression: Hired = $\alpha + \beta*Exper + e$;

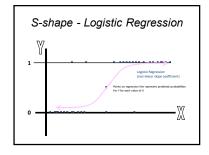
- The result is called a "Linear Probability Model"
- The predicted values are probabilities that Y
- The equation is linear the slope is constant



LPM Weaknesses

- The predicted probabilities can be greater than 1 or less than 0
- less than 0
 The error terms vary based on size of X-variable
 ("heteroskedastic") –

 * There may be models that have lower variance more
 "efficient"
 The errors are not normally distributed because Y
 takes on only two values



- Suppose our underlying dummy dependent variable depends on an unobserved utility
- Y is discrete—taking on the values 0 or 1 if someone buys a car, for instance
- Imagine a continuous variable Y* that reflects a person's desire to buy the car
- Y* would vary continuously with some explanatory variables like income, age
- Utility can be written as:
- $-Y_i^* = a + bX_{1i} + \epsilon_i$
- If the utility index is "high enough," a person will buy a car
- $-Y_{i} = 1$, if $Y_{i}^{*} > 0$
- If the utility index is not "high enough," a person will not buy a car
 - $-Y_{i} = 0$, if $Y_{i}^{*} <= 0$

$$\begin{split} P_i &= \operatorname{Prob}(Y_i = 1) \\ &= \operatorname{Prob}(Y_i^* \cong 0) \\ &= \operatorname{Prob}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \epsilon_i \cong 0) \\ &= \operatorname{Prob}(\epsilon_i \cong -\beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{1i}) \\ &= 1 - F(-\beta_0 - \beta_1 X_{1i}) \text{ where } F \text{ is the c.d.f. for } \epsilon \\ &= F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i}) \text{ if } F \text{ is symmetric} \end{split}$$

If cdf is Normal distribution, we get a probit model
If cdf is logistic distribution, then we get a logit model.

- Estimation of the $\beta ^{\prime }s$ typically done using a maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)
- Each outcome Yi has the density function f(Yi)
- = $P_i^{Y_i} (1 P_i)^{1 Y_i}$
- Each Yi takes on either the value of 0 or 1 with
- probability $f(0) = (1 P_i)$ and $f(1) = P_i$

Likelihood function

$$\begin{split} \ell &= f(Y_1,Y_2,\ldots,Y_s) \\ &= f(Y_1)/(Y_2)\ldots/(Y_s) \\ &= P_s^p(1-P_s)^{1-p}P_s^p(1-P_s)^{1-p_s}\ldots P_s^{p_s}(1-P_s)^{1-p_s} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^s P_s^p(1-P_s)^{1-p_s} \\ \text{and} \\ & \text{In } \ell = \sum_{i=1}^s Y_i \ln P_s + (1-Y_s) \ln (1-P_s) \\ \text{which, given } P_s &= P_s P_s + \beta_s X_s \text{ becomes} \\ & \text{In } \ell = \sum_{i=1}^s Y_i \ln P_s + (1-Y_s) \ln (1-P(\beta_0+\beta_s X_s)) ; \end{split}$$

· For the logit model we specify

Prob
$$(Y_i = 1) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i})}}$$

- Prob(Yi = 1) $\rightarrow 0$ as $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} \rightarrow -\infty$
- Prob(Yi = 1) \rightarrow 1 as $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} \rightarrow \infty$
- Thus, probabilities from the logit model will be between 0 and 1

- · A complication arises in interpreting the estimated β 's
- With a linear probability model, a β estimate measures the ceteris paribus effect of a change in the X variable on the probability Y equals 1

the logit model
$$\frac{\partial \text{Prob}(Y_i = 1)}{\partial X_1} = \frac{\partial F(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{li})}{\partial X_1} \hat{\beta}_1$$
$$= \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{li})}}{[1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{li})}]^2}$$

Probit Model

• In the probit model, we assume the error in the utility index model is normally distributed $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$

$$Prob(Y_i = 1) = F\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i}}{\sigma}\right)$$

- ullet Where F is the standard normal cumulative
- density function (c.d.f.)

Prob
$$(Y_i = 1) = F\left(\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i}}{\sigma}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i}}{\sigma}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

Which is better – logit/probit?

- From an empirical standpoint logits and probits typically yield similar estimates of the relevant derivatives
- Derivatives

 Because the cumulative distribution functions for the two models differ slightly only in the tails of their respective distributions

 The derivatives are different only if there are enough observations in the tail of the distribution
- While the derivatives are usually similar, the parameter estimates associated with the two models are not
- Multiplying the logit estimates by 0.625 makes the logit estimates comparable to the probit estimates

Are stocks of larger firms favored?

Favored Stock		Less Favored Stock	
Success	Size	Success	Size
1	- 1	0	1
1	1	0	0
1	- 1	0	0
1	- 1	0	0
1	1	0	0
1	- 1	0	0
1	- 1	0	0
1	- 1	0	0
1	1	0	0
1	- 1	0	0
1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0

Contingency Table

Type of Stock	Large	Small	Total	
Preferred	10	2	12	
Not Preferred	1	11	12	
Total	11	13	24	

Basic Concepts

- Probability
- Probability of being 'preferred' stock = 12/24 = 0.5

 Probability that a company's stock is preferred given that the company is large = 10/11 = 0.909

 Probability that a company's stock is preferred given that the company is small = 2/13 = 0.154

Odds and Probability

- Odds(Event) = Prob(Event)/(1-Prob(Event)) O = p/(1-p)
- Prob(Event) = Odds(Event)/(1+Odds(Event)) p = O/(1+O)

Concepts ... contd.

- Odds
- Odds of a preferred stock = 12/12 = 1
- Odds of a preferred stock given that the company is large = 10/1 = 10
- Odds of a preferred stock given that the company is small = 2/11 = 0.182

Logistic Regression

- · Combining these relationships
- Combining these relationships

 In[odds/[refreq]Size] = 1.704 + 4.007*Size

 Log of the odds (or logit) is a linear function of size

 The coefficient of size can be interpreted like the coefficient in regression analysis

 i.e., For I unit increase in Size, change in log-odds=4.007

 But what does it mean in plain english?

General Model

(1)

- In(odds) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_k X_k$
- Recall:
 Odds = p/(1-p)
- $ln(p/1-p) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + ... + \beta_k X_k$
- p = $\frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1}}$

Interpretation

- If size=10, log-odds (LO)= -1.704 + 4.007*10
 If size=11, log-odds (LO)= -1.704 + 4.007*11
 Difference(LO₁₁-LO₁₀)=4.007

- Take exp on both sides:

 Exp([(D₁:1:D₃)])=exp(4.007)
 Odds₁₄/Odds₆ = exp(4.007)
 For a unit change in size, Odds will increase by a multiple of 55 times.

- $\begin{aligned} Odds_{11} &= exp(4.007)^*Odds_{10} \\ Odds_{11}.Odds_{10} &= (exp(4.007)\text{-}1)Odds_{10} \\ Percentage change in odds for a unit change in size &= (exp(4.007)\text{-}1)^*100 \end{aligned}$

Interpretation of discrete variable coefficients

- If X is gender (M=1, F=0)
- $Odds_M/Odds_F = exp(\beta)$
- Percentage increase in Odds_M = (exp(β)-1)*100

Likelihood

- This is the joint probability of observing the 1s and 0s in the sample of data.
- For one observation y=1, lik = p₁
- For two observations y={1,0}, lik= p_1p_0
- If y={1011001}, lik= $p_1p_0p_1p_1p_0p_0p_1 = p_1^{\ 4}\,p_0^3$
- Log-lik=log($p_1^4 p_0^3$) = $4*log(p_1)+3*log(p_0)$
- If there are 50 purchases among a sample of 300, loglik=50*log(50/300)+250*log(250/300)= -135.17
- Maximum value of log-lik = 0.

Interpretation of Results - Model Fit

Look at the -2 Log L statistic

- Null Model: Intercept only model (i.e. no X variables): 33.271
- · Intercept and Covariates: 17.864
- Difference: 15.407 with 1 DF (p=0.0001)
- Means that the size variable is explaining a lot
- McFadden's R-sq = diff. in (-2LogL)/Null model's (-2logL) = 15.4/33.27 =46%

Do the Variables Have a Significant Impact?

- Like testing whether the coefficients in the regression model are different from zero
- Look at the output from Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates
 - Loosely, the column Pr>Chi-Square gives you the probability of realizing the estimate in the Parameter estimate column if the estimate were truly zero if this value is < 0.05 the estimate is considered to be significant

Model fit

- · Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), Schwartz's Criterion (SC or BIC)
- like Adj-R² applies a penalty – there is a penalty for having additional covariates
- AIC = $[-2\log L + 2p]$
- SC (or BIC) = [-2logL + plog(n)]
- BIC penalizes more heavily
- · Model with lower AIC/BIC is better.

Predicted Probabilities and Observed Responses

- The response variable (success) classifies an observation into an event or a no-event
- A concordant pair is defined as that pair formed by an event with a PHAT higher than that of the *no-event*
- Higher the concordance %, the better the model
- Hit ratio = % events correctly classified

Classification

- For a set of new observations where you have information on size alone
- You can use the model to predict the probability that success = 1 i.e. the stock is
- If PHAT > 0.5 success = 1 else success=0

Logistic model

- Own price elasticity = (1-prob(j))*X_i*β
- Cross price elasticity = $(-prob(j))*X_i*\beta$

Model fit indicators

- AIC Akaike Information Criterion.
- AIC = -2 Log [+ 2([k-1] + s),
 where k is the number of levels of the dependent variable and s is the number of predictors in the model. The model with the smallest AIC is considered the best.
- SC Schwarz Criterion.
- SC = -2 Log L + ((k-1) + s)*log(Σf_i), where f_i 's are the frequency values of the ith observation, and k and s were defined previously. Smallest SC is most desirable.
- -2 Log L is used in hypothesis tests for nested models.

McFadden's R²

- M_{full} = Model with predictors
- M_{intercept} = Model without predictors

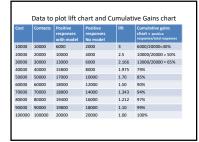
$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\ln \, \hat{L}(M_{\rm Fall})}{\ln \, \hat{L}(M_{\rm Intercept})}$$

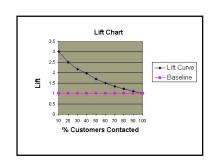
$${R_{\rm adj}}^2 = 1 - \frac{\ln \hat{L}(M_{\rm Pall}) - K}{\ln \hat{L}(M_{\rm Intercept})} \label{eq:radiative_pall}$$

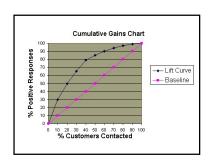
• https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/sas/output/proc-

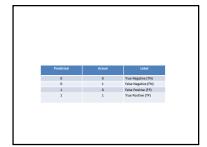
Direct Marketing

- A company wants to do a mail marketing campaign.
- costs = \$1 for each item mailed.
- They have information on 100,000 customers.
- Overall response rate = 20%
- If all 100,000 customers are contacted then we will get 20,000 responses.
- Develop a logit model to predict response.
- · Sort the customers based on probability of response and divide them into deciles.











- TN+FP=N (number of actual 0s)
- FP rate=FP/N = fall-out = % neg. mis-classified
 TP rate = TP/P = Recall or hit rate = % pos. correctly classified
- Precision = TP/(TP+FP)
- Accuracy = (TP+TN)/(P+N)

- Percent concordance
- Pick a random 1 and a random 0
- Is the model predicted Prob(1)> Prob(0)? = concordance
- Ot
- · Otherwise it is discordant.
- The AUC is the probability that the classifier will rank a random positive example higher than a randomly chosen negative example.
- (P(score(x+) > score(x-))

$AUC: \ \mathsf{Receiver} \ \mathsf{Operating} \ \mathsf{Characteristic} \ (\mathsf{ROC} \ \mathsf{curve})$ Plot TPR against FPR to get ROC curve Dotted line indicates ROC curve of a random predictor. ROC = 0.5 or ROC = 0.5 is good. ROC = 0.5 are the best. Use ROCR package in R

SAS code



Rare events

- In a binary variable (response/no-response, good/bad, default/no-default, purchase/no-purchase, etc.) one of the two events is rare. In a sample of 1000 applicants, only 20 are selected—low event rate of 2½.
 In a sample of 100,000 purchases from an online retailer, about 1800 are returned by the customer—low event rate of 1.8%. Some reallier complex in credit card transactions.
 Goods returned in online retailing.

- Why is this a problem for logistic regression?
 The usual maximum-likelihood estimation method is susceptible to 'small sample bias' and this bias strongly dependent on the count (as opposed to percentage) of the rarer of the events.

Exact logistic regression

- Solutions
- Exact logistic regression
- Computationally intensive.
- Good for small samples or unbalanced data with few covariates (<200)

Proc logistic data = a1 descending;
Freq cellcount; /* cellcount is the weight variable here */

Model y=x1 x2; Exact x1/estimate=both;

Alternative code:

Proc logistic data = a1 descending; Model y/cellcount =x1 x2; Exact x1/estimate=both;

Penalized likelihood (Firth's method)

• If you have a larger count of the rare events say 1000 in a sample of 100,000 you can use logistic regression using the penalized likelihood approach (Firth).

Proc logistic data = a1; Class catvar1 catvar2/param=ref; Model y = catvar1 catvar2 x1 x2/firth; run;

Oversampling

- · Create a sample with many examples of rare events (say 500). Match it with a sample of non-occurrence of the event cases in approximately 50-50% ratio or even 33-66% ratio.
- Then estimate the logit model.