

Regression with a Binary Dependent Variable

(SW Ch. 9)

EC 471
Spring 2004

Regression with a Binary Dependent Variable

(SW Ch. 9)

So far the dependent variable (Y) has been continuous:

- district-wide average test score
- traffic fatality rate

But we might want to understand the effect of X on a binary variable:

- $Y =$ get into college, or not
- $Y =$ person smokes, or not
- $Y =$ mortgage application is accepted, or not

Example: Mortgage denial and race

The Boston Fed HMDA data set

- Individual applications for single-family mortgages made in 1990 in the greater Boston area
- 2380 observations, collected under Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA)

Variables

- Dependent variable:
 - Is the mortgage denied or accepted?
- Independent variables:
 - income, wealth, employment status
 - other loan, property characteristics
 - race of applicant

The Linear Probability Model

(SW Section 9.1)

A natural starting point is the linear regression model with a single regressor:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

But:

- What does the predicted value \hat{Y} mean when Y is binary? For example, what does $\hat{Y} = 0.26$ mean?
- What does β_1 mean when Y is binary? Is $\beta_1 = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X}$?

The linear probability model, ctd.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

Recall assumption #1: $E(u_i|X_i) = 0$, so

$$E(Y_i|X_i) = E(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i|X_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i$$

When Y is binary,

$$E(Y) = 1 \times \Pr(Y=1) + 0 \times \Pr(Y=0) = \Pr(Y=1)$$

so

$$E(Y|X) = \Pr(Y=1|X)$$

The linear probability model, ctd.

When Y is binary, the linear regression model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + u_i$$

is called the *linear probability model*.

- The predicted value is a *probability*:
 - $E(Y|X=x) = \Pr(Y=1|X=x) = \text{prob. that } Y = 1 \text{ given } x$
 - $\hat{Y} = \text{the } \textit{predicted probability} \text{ that } Y_i = 1, \text{ given } X$
- $\beta_1 = \text{change in probability that } Y = 1 \text{ for a given } \Delta x$:

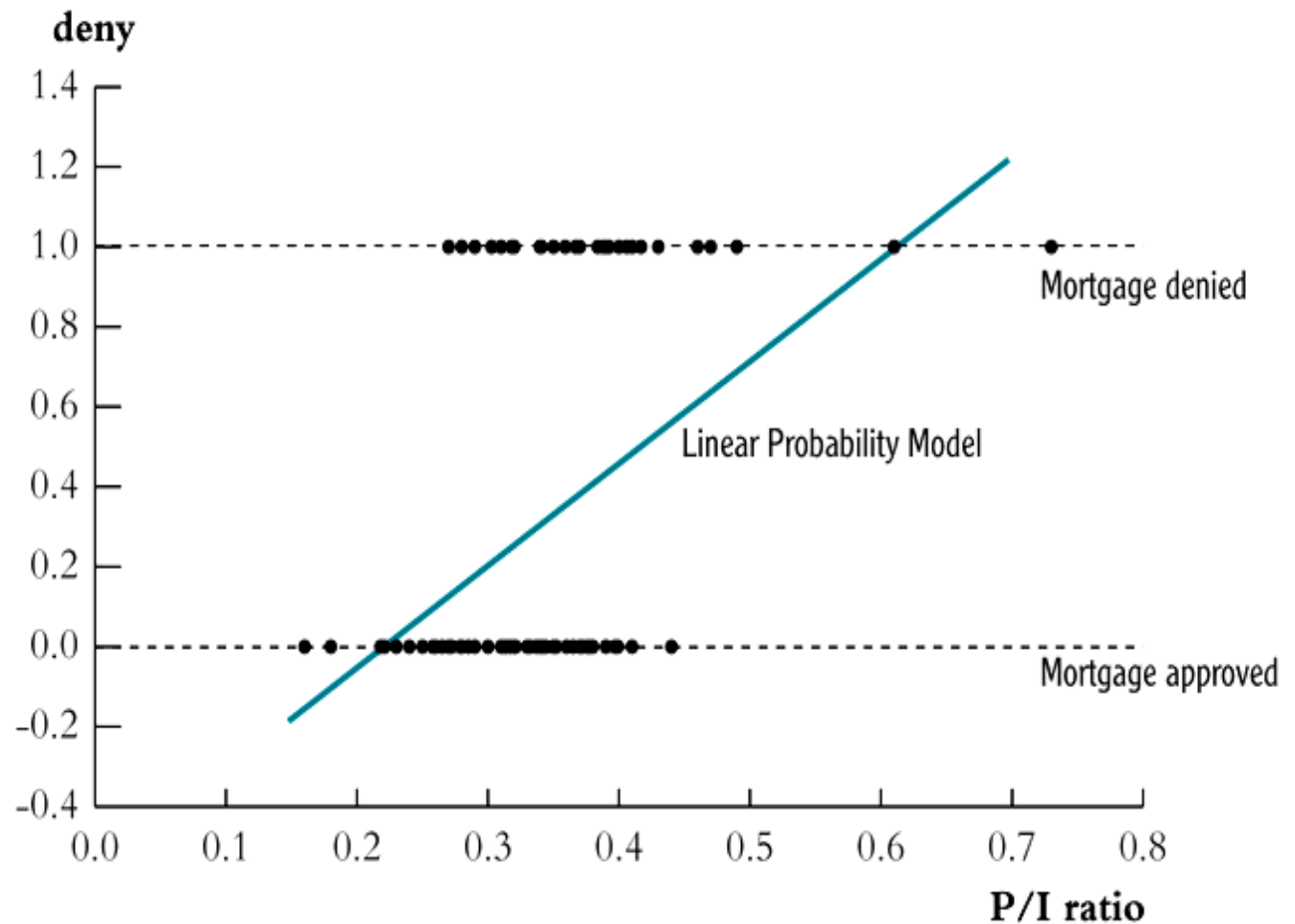
$$\beta_1 = \frac{\Pr(Y = 1 | X = x + \Delta x) - \Pr(Y = 1 | X = x)}{\Delta x}$$

Example: linear probability model, HMDA data

Mortgage denial v. ratio of debt payments to income (P/I ratio) in the HMDA data set (subset)

FIGURE 9.1 Scatterplot of Mortgage Application Denial and the Payment-to-Income Ratio

Mortgage applicants with a high ratio of debt payments to income (*P/I ratio*) are more likely to have their application denied (*deny* = 1 if denied, *deny* = 0 if approved). The linear probability model uses a straight line to model the probability of denial, conditional on the *P/I ratio*.



Linear probability model: HMDA data

$$\widehat{deny} = -.080 + .604 P/I \text{ ratio} \quad (n = 2380)$$

(.032) (.098)

- What is the predicted value for $P/I \text{ ratio} = .3$?

$$\overbrace{\Pr(deny = 1 | P / I \text{ ratio} = .3)} = -.080 + .604 \times .3 = .151$$

- Calculating “effects:” increase $P/I \text{ ratio}$ from .3 to .4:

$$\overbrace{\Pr(deny = 1 | P / I \text{ ratio} = .4)} = -.080 + .604 \times .4 = .212$$

The effect on the probability of denial of an increase in $P/I \text{ ratio}$ from .3 to .4 is to increase the probability by .061, that is, by 6.1 *percentage points* (*what?*).

Next include *black* as a regressor:

$$\widehat{deny} = -.091 + .559P/I\ ratio + .177black$$

(.032) (.098) (.025)

Predicted probability of denial:

- for black applicant with *P/I ratio* = .3:

$$\widehat{\Pr(deny = 1)} = -.091 + .559 \times .3 + .177 \times 1 = .254$$

- for white applicant, *P/I ratio* = .3:

$$\widehat{\Pr(deny = 1)} = -.091 + .559 \times .3 + .177 \times 0 = .077$$

- **difference** = .177 = 17.7 percentage points
- Coefficient on *black* is significant at the 5% level
- *Still plenty of room for omitted variable bias...*

The linear probability model: Summary

- Models probability as a linear function of X
- Advantages:
 - simple to estimate and to interpret
 - inference is the same as for multiple regression
(*need heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors*)
- Disadvantages:
 - Does it make sense that the probability should be linear in X ?
 - Predicted probabilities can be <0 or >1 !
- These disadvantages can be solved by using a nonlinear probability model: probit and logit regression

Probit and Logit Regression

(SW Section 9.2)

The problem with the linear probability model is that it models the probability of $Y=1$ as being linear:

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

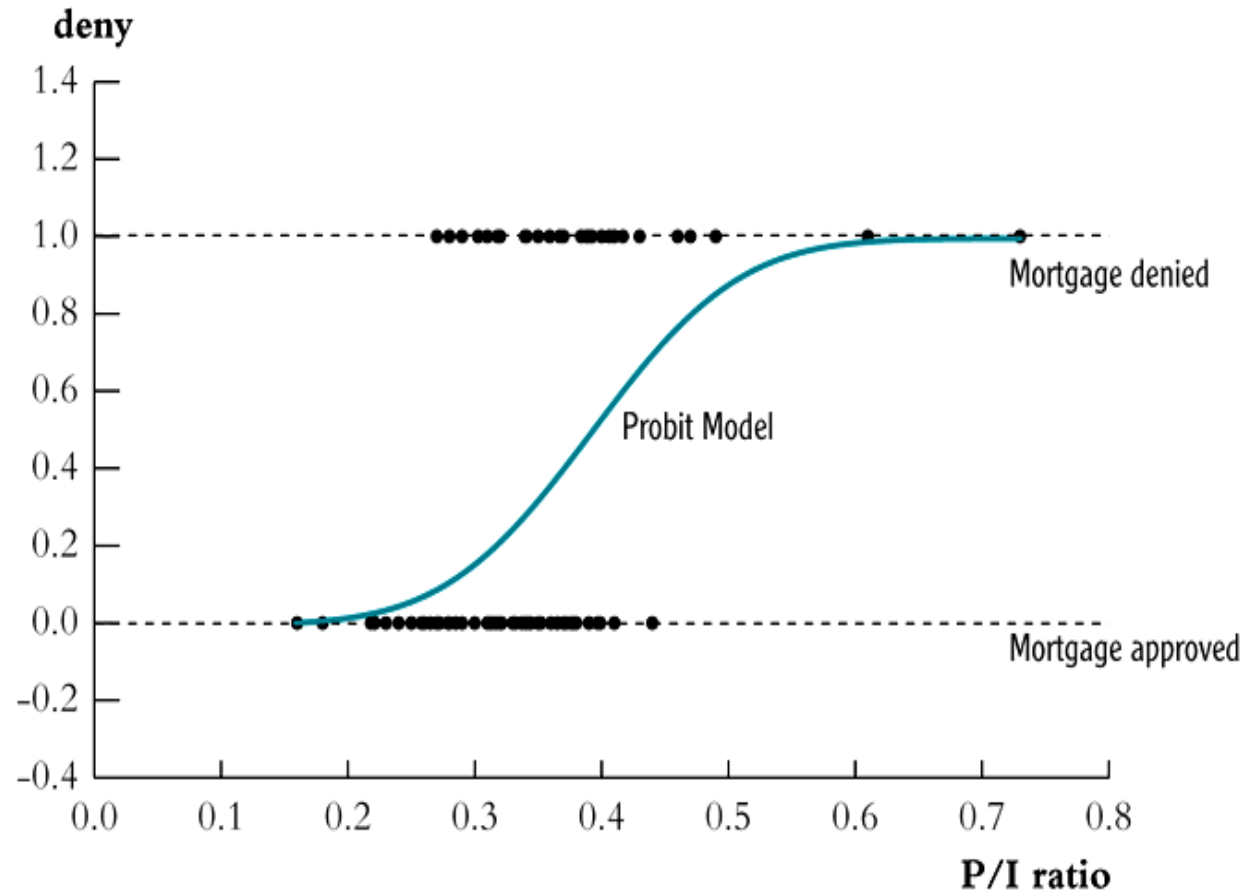
Instead, we want:

- $0 \leq \Pr(Y = 1|X) \leq 1$ for all X
- $\Pr(Y = 1|X)$ to be increasing in X (for $\beta_1 > 0$)

This requires a *nonlinear* functional form for the probability. How about an “S-curve”...

FIGURE 9.2 Probit Model of the Probability of Denial, Given the P/I Ratio

The probit model uses the cumulative normal distribution function to model the probability of denial given the payment-to-income ratio or, more generally, to model $\Pr(Y = 1 | X)$. Unlike the linear probability model, the probit conditional probabilities are always between zero and one.



The probit model satisfies these conditions:

- $0 \leq \Pr(Y = 1 | X) \leq 1$ for all X
- $\Pr(Y = 1 | X)$ to be increasing in X (for $\beta_1 > 0$)

Probit regression models the probability that $Y=1$ using the cumulative standard normal distribution function, evaluated at $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$:

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)$$

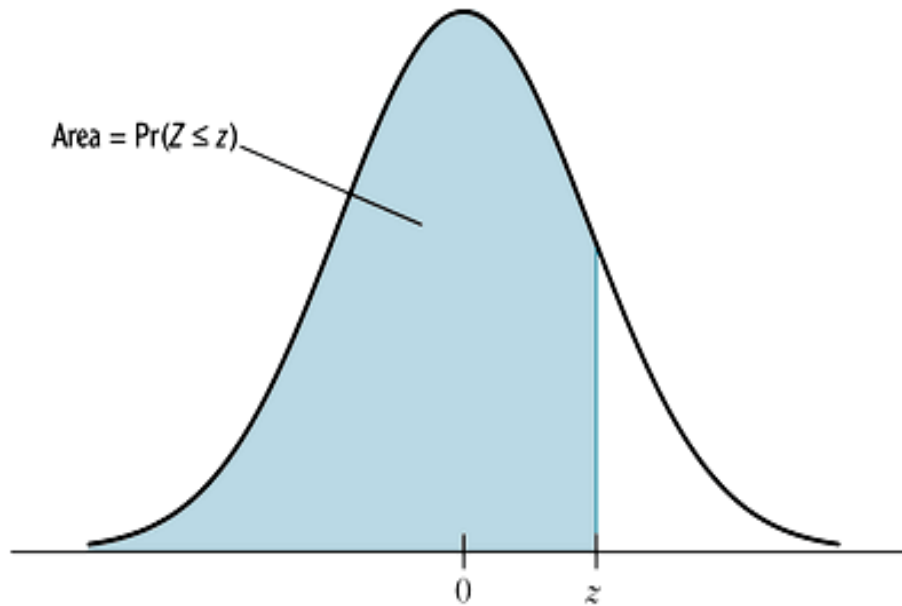
- Φ is the **cumulative normal distribution function**.
- $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ is the “z-value” or “z-index” of the probit model.

Example: Suppose $\beta_0 = -2$, $\beta_1 = 3$, $X = .4$, so

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X=.4) = \Phi(-2 + 3 \times .4) = \Phi(-0.8)$$

$\Pr(Y = 1|X=.4)$ = area under the standard normal density to left of $z = -.8$, which is...

TABLE 1 The Cumulative Standard Normal Distribution Function, $\Phi(z) = \Pr(Z \leq z)$



z	Second Decimal Value of z									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
-2.9	0.0019	0.0018	0.0018	0.0017	0.0016	0.0016	0.0015	0.0015	0.0014	0.0014
-2.8	0.0026	0.0025	0.0024	0.0023	0.0023	0.0022	0.0021	0.0021	0.0020	0.0019
-0.8	0.2119	0.2090	0.2061	0.2033	0.2005	0.1977	0.1949	0.1922	0.1894	0.1867
-0.7	0.2420	0.2389	0.2358	0.2327	0.2296	0.2266	0.2236	0.2206	0.2177	0.2148
-0.6	0.2743	0.2709	0.2676	0.2643	0.2611	0.2578	0.2546	0.2514	0.2483	0.2451
-0.5	0.3085	0.3050	0.3015	0.2981	0.2946	0.2912	0.2877	0.2843	0.2810	0.2776
-0.4	0.3446	0.3409	0.3372	0.3336	0.3300	0.3264	0.3228	0.3192	0.3156	0.3121

$$\Pr(Z \leq -0.8) = .2119$$

Probit regression, ctd.

Why use the cumulative normal probability distribution?

- The “S-shape” gives us what we want:
 - $0 \leq \Pr(Y = 1|X) \leq 1$ for all X
 - $\Pr(Y = 1|X)$ to be increasing in X (for $\beta_1 > 0$)
- Easy to use – the probabilities are tabulated in the cumulative normal tables
- Relatively straightforward interpretation:
 - $z\text{-value} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$
 - $\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X$ is the predicted z -value, given X
 - β_1 is the change in the z -value for a unit change in X

STATA Example: HMDA data

```
. probit deny p_irat, r;
```

```
Iteration 0:   log likelihood =  -872.0853           We'll discuss this later
Iteration 1:   log likelihood =  -835.6633
Iteration 2:   log likelihood =  -831.80534
Iteration 3:   log likelihood =  -831.79234
```

```
Probit estimates                               Number of obs   =           2380
                                                Wald chi2(1)    =           40.68
                                                Prob > chi2     =           0.0000
Log likelihood = -831.79234                    Pseudo R2      =           0.0462
```

		Robust				
deny	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
p_irat	2.967908	.4653114	6.38	0.000	2.055914	3.879901
_cons	-2.194159	.1649721	-13.30	0.000	-2.517499	-1.87082

$$\Pr(\text{deny} = 1 \mid P/I \text{ ratio}) = \Phi(-2.19 + 2.97 \times P/I \text{ ratio})$$

(.16) (.47)

STATA Example: HMDA data, ctd.

$$\overbrace{\Pr(\text{deny} = 1 \mid P/I \text{ ratio})} = \Phi(-2.19 + 2.97 \times P/I \text{ ratio})$$

(.16) (.47)

- Positive coefficient: *does this make sense?*
- Standard errors have usual interpretation
- Predicted probabilities:

$$\overbrace{\Pr(\text{deny} = 1 \mid P/I \text{ ratio} = .3)} = \Phi(-2.19 + 2.97 \times .3)$$
$$= \Phi(-1.30) = .097$$

- Effect of change in *P/I ratio* from .3 to .4:

$$\overbrace{\Pr(\text{deny} = 1 \mid P/I \text{ ratio} = .4)} = \Phi(-2.19 + 2.97 \times .4) = .159$$

Predicted probability of denial rises from .097 to .159

Probit regression with multiple regressors

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X_1, X_2) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2)$$

- Φ is the cumulative normal distribution function.
- $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$ is the “z-value” or “z-index” of the probit model.
- β_1 is the effect on the z-score of a unit change in X_1 , holding constant X_2

STATA Example: HMDA data

```
. probit deny p_irat black, r;
```

```
Iteration 0:   log likelihood =  -872.0853
Iteration 1:   log likelihood = -800.88504
Iteration 2:   log likelihood =  -797.1478
Iteration 3:   log likelihood = -797.13604
```

Probit estimates

```
Number of obs   =      2380
Wald chi2(2)    =      118.18
Prob > chi2     =      0.0000
Pseudo R2      =      0.0859
```

Log likelihood = -797.13604

		Robust					
deny	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]		
p_irat	2.741637	.4441633	6.17	0.000	1.871092	3.612181	
black	.7081579	.0831877	8.51	0.000	.545113	.8712028	
_cons	-2.258738	.1588168	-14.22	0.000	-2.570013	-1.947463	

We'll go through the estimation details later...

STATA Example: predicted probit probabilities

```
. probit deny p_irat black, r;
```

Probit estimates

```
Number of obs   =      2380  
Wald chi2(2)    =      118.18  
Prob > chi2     =      0.0000  
Pseudo R2      =      0.0859
```

Log likelihood = -797.13604

		Robust					
deny	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]		
p_irat	2.741637	.4441633	6.17	0.000	1.871092	3.612181	
black	.7081579	.0831877	8.51	0.000	.545113	.8712028	
_cons	-2.258738	.1588168	-14.22	0.000	-2.570013	-1.947463	

```
. sca z1 = _b[_cons]+_b[p_irat]*.3+_b[black]*0;
```

```
. display "Pred prob, p_irat=.3, white: " normprob(z1);
```

Pred prob, p_irat=.3, white: .07546603

NOTE

_b[_cons] is the estimated intercept (-2.258738)

_b[p_irat] is the coefficient on p_irat (2.741637)

sca creates a new scalar which is the result of a calculation

display prints the indicated information to the screen

STATA Example: HMDA data, ctd.

$$\overbrace{\Pr(\textit{deny} = 1 \mid P/I, \textit{black})}$$

$$= \Phi(-2.26 + 2.74 \times P/I \textit{ ratio} + .71 \times \textit{black})$$

$$(.16) \quad (.44) \quad (.08)$$

- Is the coefficient on *black* statistically significant?
- Estimated effect of race for *P/I ratio* = .3:

$$\overbrace{\Pr(\textit{deny} = 1 \mid .3, 1)} = \Phi(-2.26 + 2.74 \times .3 + .71 \times 1) = .233$$

$$\overbrace{\Pr(\textit{deny} = 1 \mid .3, 0)} = \Phi(-2.26 + 2.74 \times .3 + .71 \times 0) = .075$$

- Difference in rejection probabilities = .158 (15.8 percentage points)
- *Still plenty of room still for omitted variable bias...*

Logit regression

Logit regression models the probability of $Y=1$ as the cumulative standard *logistic* distribution function, evaluated at $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$:

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)$$

F is the **cumulative logistic distribution function**:

$$F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}}$$

Logistic regression, ctd.

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)$$

$$\text{where } F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}}.$$

Example: $\beta_0 = -3, \beta_1 = 2, X = .4,$

$$\text{so } \beta_0 + \beta_1 X = -3 + 2 \times .4 = -2.2$$

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X=.4) = 1/(1+e^{-(-2.2)}) = .0998$$

Why bother with logit if we have probit?

- Historically, numerically convenient
- In practice, very similar to probit

STATA Example: HMDA data

```
. logit deny p_irat black, r;
```

```
Iteration 0:   log likelihood =  -872.0853       Later...
Iteration 1:   log likelihood =  -806.3571
Iteration 2:   log likelihood =  -795.74477
Iteration 3:   log likelihood =  -795.69521
Iteration 4:   log likelihood =  -795.69521
```

Logit estimates

```
Number of obs   =      2380
Wald chi2(2)    =      117.75
Prob > chi2     =      0.0000
Pseudo R2      =      0.0876
```

Log likelihood = -795.69521

		Robust					
deny	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]		
p_irat	5.370362	.9633435	5.57	0.000	3.482244	7.258481	
black	1.272782	.1460986	8.71	0.000	.9864339	1.55913	
_cons	-4.125558	.345825	-11.93	0.000	-4.803362	-3.447753	

```
. dis "Pred prob, p_irat=.3, white: "  
> 1/(1+exp(-(_b[_cons]+_b[p_irat]*.3+_b[black]*0)));
```

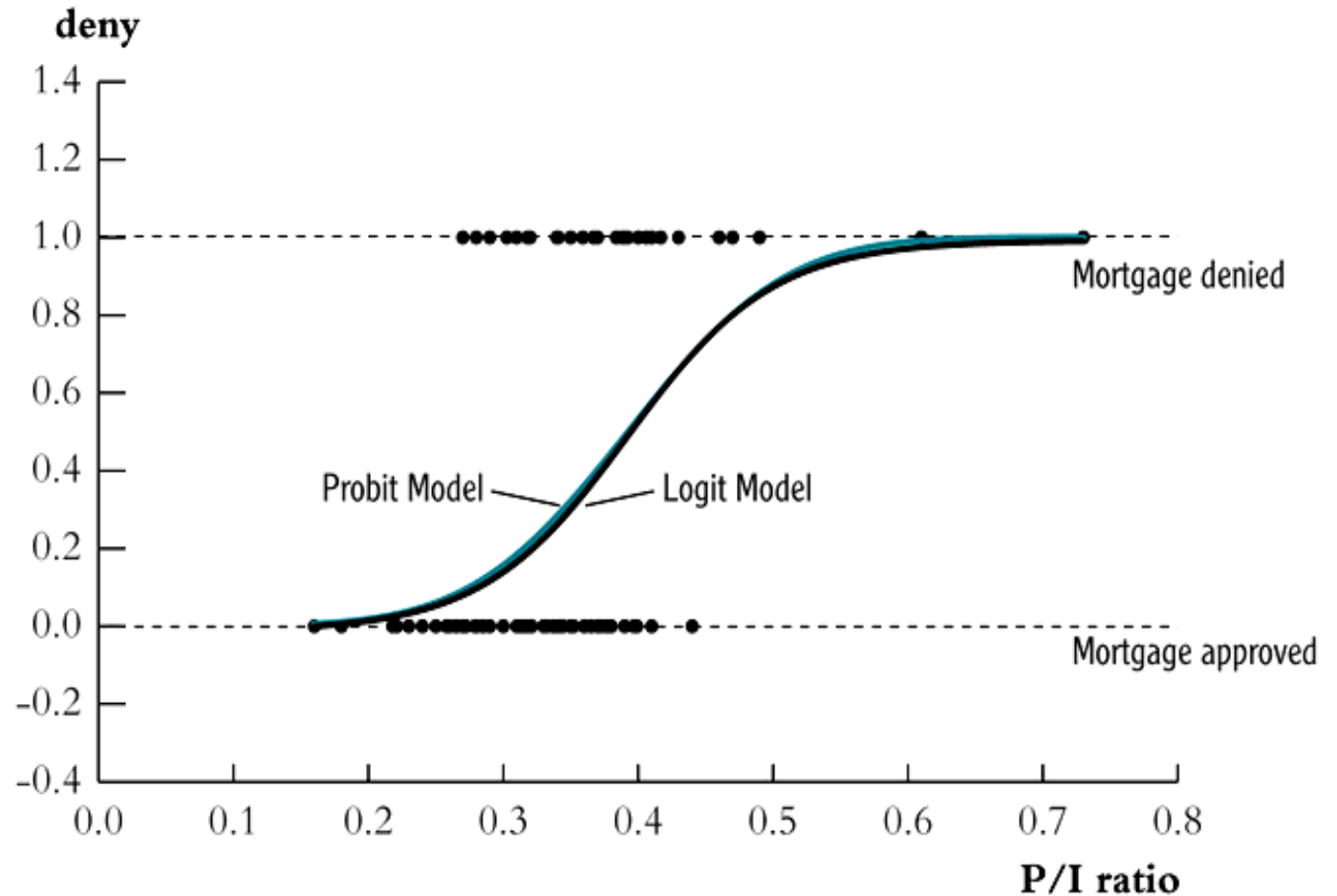
Pred prob, p_irat=.3, white: .07485143

NOTE: the probit predicted probability is .07546603

Predicted probabilities from estimated probit and logit models usually are very close.

FIGURE 9.3 Probit and Logit Models of the Probability of Denial, Given the P/I Ratio

These logit and probit models produce nearly identical estimates of the probability that a mortgage application will be denied, given the payment-to-income ratio.



Estimation and Inference in Probit (and Logit) Models (SW Section 9.3)

Probit model:

$$\Pr(Y = 1|X) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)$$

- Estimation and inference
 - How to estimate β_0 and β_1 ?
 - What is the sampling distribution of the estimators?
 - Why can we use the usual methods of inference?
- First discuss *nonlinear least squares* (easier to explain)
- Then discuss *maximum likelihood* estimation (what is actually done in practice)

Probit estimation by nonlinear least squares

Recall OLS:

$$\min_{b_0, b_1} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - (b_0 + b_1 X_i)]^2$$

- The result is the OLS estimators $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$

In probit, we have a different regression function – the nonlinear probit model. So, we could estimate β_0 and β_1 by *nonlinear least squares*:

$$\min_{b_0, b_1} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \Phi(b_0 + b_1 X_i)]^2$$

Solving this yields the *nonlinear least squares* estimator of the probit coefficients.

Nonlinear least squares, ctd.

$$\min_{b_0, b_1} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \Phi(b_0 + b_1 X_i)]^2$$

How to solve this minimization problem?

- Calculus doesn't give an explicit solution.
- Must be solved *numerically* using the computer, e.g. by “trial and error” method of trying one set of values for (b_0, b_1) , then trying another, and another,...
- Better idea: use specialized minimization algorithms

In practice, nonlinear least squares isn't used because it isn't efficient – an estimator with a smaller variance is...

Probit estimation by maximum likelihood

The *likelihood function* is the conditional density of Y_1, \dots, Y_n given X_1, \dots, X_n , treated as a function of the unknown parameters β_0 and β_1 .

- The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) is the value of (β_0, β_1) that maximize the likelihood function.
- The MLE is the value of (β_0, β_1) that best describe the full distribution of the data.
- In large samples, the MLE is:
 - consistent
 - normally distributed
 - efficient (has the smallest variance of all estimators)

Special case: the probit MLE with no X

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } p \\ 0 & \text{with probability } 1 - p \end{cases} \quad (\text{Bernoulli distribution})$$

Data: Y_1, \dots, Y_n , i.i.d.

Derivation of the likelihood starts with the density of Y_1 :

$$\Pr(Y_1 = 1) = p \text{ and } \Pr(Y_1 = 0) = 1 - p$$

so

$$\Pr(Y_1 = y_1) = p^{y_1} (1 - p)^{1 - y_1} \quad (\text{verify this for } y_1 = 0, 1!)$$

Joint density of (Y_1, Y_2) :

Because Y_1 and Y_2 are independent,

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2) &= \Pr(Y_1 = y_1) \times \Pr(Y_2 = y_2) \\ &= [p^{y_1} (1-p)^{1-y_1}] \times [p^{y_2} (1-p)^{1-y_2}]\end{aligned}$$

Joint density of (Y_1, \dots, Y_n) :

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_n = y_n) \\ &= [p^{y_1} (1-p)^{1-y_1}] \times [p^{y_2} (1-p)^{1-y_2}] \times \dots \times [p^{y_n} (1-p)^{1-y_n}] \\ &= p^{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i} (1-p)^{\left(n - \sum_{i=1}^n y_i\right)}\end{aligned}$$

The likelihood is the joint density, treated as a function of the unknown parameters, which here is p :

$$f(p; Y_1, \dots, Y_n) = p^{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i} (1-p)^{\left(n - \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right)}$$

The MLE maximizes the likelihood. Its standard to work with **the log likelihood**, $\ln[f(p; Y_1, \dots, Y_n)]$:

$$\ln[f(p; Y_1, \dots, Y_n)] = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) \ln(p) + \left(n - \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right) \ln(1-p)$$

The probit likelihood with one X

The derivation starts with the density of Y_1 , given X_1 :

$$\Pr(Y_1 = 1|X_1) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)$$

$$\Pr(Y_1 = 0|X_1) = 1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)$$

so

$$\Pr(Y_1 = y_1|X_1) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)^{y_1} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)]^{1-y_1}$$

The probit likelihood function is the joint density of Y_1, \dots, Y_n given X_1, \dots, X_n , treated as a function of β_0, β_1 :

$$\begin{aligned} f(\beta_0, \beta_1; Y_1, \dots, Y_n | X_1, \dots, X_n) \\ = \{ \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)^{Y_1} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)]^{1-Y_1} \} \times \\ \dots \times \{ \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)^{Y_n} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)]^{1-Y_n} \} \end{aligned}$$

The probit likelihood function:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\beta_0, \beta_1; Y_1, \dots, Y_n | X_1, \dots, X_n) \\ = \{ \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)^{Y_1} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1)]^{1-Y_1} \} \times \\ \dots \times \{ \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)^{Y_n} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)]^{1-Y_n} \} \end{aligned}$$

- Can't solve for the maximum explicitly
- Must maximize using numerical methods
- As in the case of no X , in large samples:
 - $\hat{\beta}_0^{MLE}$, $\hat{\beta}_1^{MLE}$ are consistent
 - $\hat{\beta}_0^{MLE}$, $\hat{\beta}_1^{MLE}$ are normally distributed (more later...)
 - Their standard errors can be computed
 - Testing, confidence intervals proceeds as usual
- For multiple X 's, see SW App. 9.2

Measures of fit

The R^2 and \bar{R}^2 don't make sense here (*why?*). So, two other specialized measures are used:

1. The *fraction correctly predicted* = fraction of Y 's for which predicted probability is $>50\%$ (if $Y_i=1$) or is $<50\%$ (if $Y_i=0$).
2. The *pseudo- R^2* measure the fit using the likelihood function: measures the improvement in the value of the log likelihood, relative to having no X 's (see SW App. 9.2). This simplifies to the R^2 in the linear model with normally distributed errors.

Note (Lee): eople report these values, but practically, they carry no important meaning, I presume.

Testing Hypothesis

(a) One restriction on each coefficient

Use usual t-stat.

(b) More than one restriction

Use Likelihood Ratio (LR) Test

.. Chi-square (χ) test..

$$\mathbf{LR} = 2 (\log L_u - \log L_R) \sim \chi \text{ with } df = g$$

$\log L_u$ = Unrestricted log-lik

$\log L_R$ = Restricted log-lik

Example: Extra-marital affairs

$Y = 1$ (affairs), or 0 (no)

```
. log using "C:\EC471\fair.log"  
  
. insheet using "C:\EC471\fair.txt"  
(13 vars, 601 obs)  
  
. probit y age edu kids occupation rating_m religion sex yrs_marr
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -337.68849  
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -305.53338  
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -305.19816  
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -305.19796
```

```
Probit estimates  
  
Number of obs = 601  
LR chi2(8) = 64.98  
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000  
Log likelihood = -305.19796  
Pseudo R2 = 0.0962
```

```
-----  
          y |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]  
-----+-----  
    age |   -.0245844   .0104178    -2.36   0.018   -.0450028   -.0041659  
    edu |    .0112622   .0295165     0.38   0.703   -.0465891    .0691135
```

kids		.2166441	.1651681	1.31	0.190	-.1070795	.5403677
occupation		.0136686	.0414037	0.33	0.741	-.0674813	.0948184
rating_m		-.2717912	.0534747	-5.08	0.000	-.3765998	-.1669826
religion		-.1854684	.0516258	-3.59	0.000	-.2866532	-.0842837
sex		.1734569	.1379911	1.26	0.209	-.0970007	.4439144
yrs_marr		.0543435	.0188087	2.89	0.004	.0174792	.0912078
_cons		.7794021	.5125492	1.52	0.128	-.2251759	1.78398

Now, we wish to test if the coefficients of AGE and EDU are jointly insignificant.

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0 \quad H_a: H_0 \text{ is not true}$$

Unrestricted Log likelihood = -305.19796

We run a restricted probit model (without age and edu).

```
. probit y kids occupation rating_m religion sex yrs_marr
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -337.68849
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -308.34709
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -308.08918
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -308.08906
```

```
Probit estimates                               Number of obs   =           601
```

LR chi2(6) = 59.20
 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log likelihood = -308.08906
 Pseudo R2 = 0.0877

y	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
kids	.2367733	.1639708	1.44	0.149	-.0846035	.5581501
occupation	.0134218	.0369199	0.36	0.716	-.0589399	.0857835
rating_m	-.2642769	.0522959	-5.05	0.000	-.366775	-.1617789
religion	-.188488	.0514507	-3.66	0.000	-.2893295	-.0876464
sex	.1174134	.1325305	0.89	0.376	-.1423415	.3771684
yrs_marr	.0223682	.0130136	1.72	0.086	-.003138	.0478744
_cons	.4233281	.3149532	1.34	0.179	-.1939689	1.040625

Restricted Log likelihood = -308.08906

$$\begin{aligned}
 LR &= 2(\log L_U - \log L_R) = 2 * (-305.19796 - (-308.08906)) \\
 &= 5.65
 \end{aligned}$$

5% Critical value of the chi-square test with df 2 = 5.99

Thus, we do not reject the null. The two coefficients are jointly insignificant.

Simply, in STATA

```
. test age edu
```

```
( 1) age = 0
```

```
( 2) edu = 0
```

```
      chi2( 2) =      5.65  
Prob > chi2 =      0.0594
```

Note: overall insignificance (all slope coefficients = 0)

```
LR chi2(8)      =      64.98   Prob > chi2      =      0.0000
```

Summary

(SW Section 9.5)

- If Y_i is binary, then $E(Y|X) = \Pr(Y=1|X)$
- Three models:
 - linear probability model (linear multiple regression)
 - probit (cumulative standard normal distribution)
 - logit (cumulative standard logistic distribution)
- LPM, probit, logit all produce predicted probabilities
- Effect of ΔX is change in conditional probability that $Y=1$. For logit and probit, this depends on the initial X
- Probit and logit are estimated via maximum likelihood
 - Coefficients are normally distributed for large n
 - Large- n hypothesis testing, conf. intervals is as usual