

Regression with a Binary Dependent Variable (SW Ch. 9)

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EC 471
Spring 2004

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

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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

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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 $\beta_1 = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X}$?

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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

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

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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**:
 - $E(Y|X=x) = \Pr(Y=1|X=x)$ = prob. that $Y = 1$ given x
 - \hat{Y} = the **predicted probability** that $Y_i = 1$, given X
- β_1 = change in probability that $Y = 1$ for a given Δx :

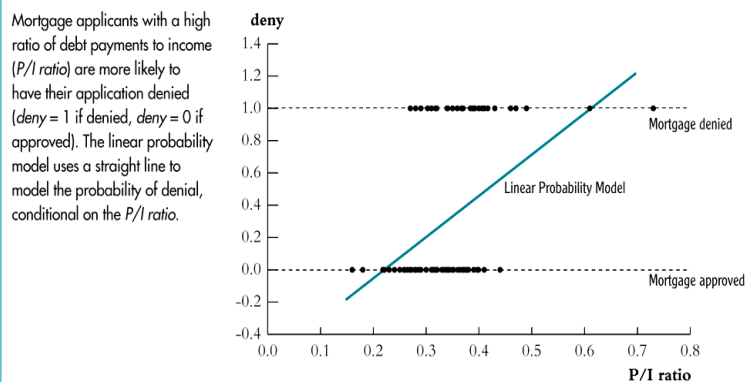
$$\beta_1 = \frac{\Pr(Y = 1 | X = x + \Delta x) - \Pr(Y = 1 | X = x)}{\Delta x}$$

Example: linear probability model, HMDA data

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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



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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 ratio = .3?

$$\Pr(deny = 1 | P/I \text{ ratio} = .3) = -.080 + .604 \times .3 = .151$$
- Calculating “effects:” increase P/I ratio from .3 to .4:

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

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

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Next include *black* as a regressor:

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

(.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...*

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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

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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:

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

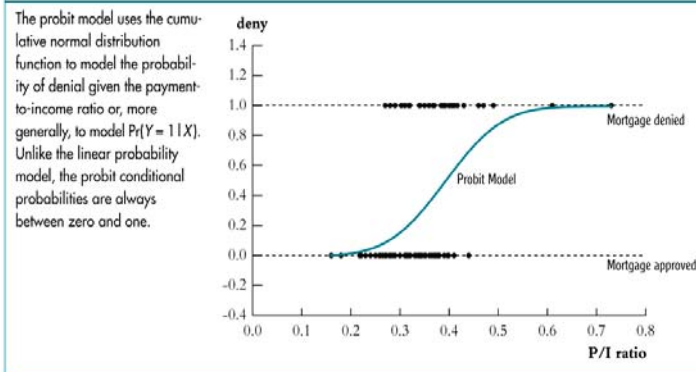
Instead, we want:

- $0 \leq \Pr(Y = 1|X) \leq 1$ 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”...

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



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 $\beta_1 > 0$)

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

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

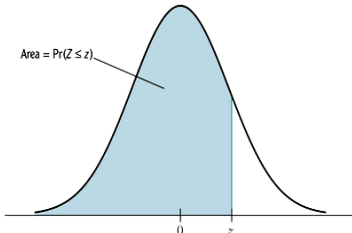
- Φ is the **cumulative normal distribution function**.
- $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$ is the “z-value” or “z-index” of the probit model.

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-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
Iteration 1:  log likelihood = -835.6633
Iteration 2:  log likelihood = -831.80534
Iteration 3:  log likelihood = -831.79234

Probit estimates
Log likelihood = -831.79234

Number of obs   = 2380
Wald chi2(1)    = 40.68
Prob > chi2     = 0.0000
Pseudo R2      = 0.0462

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

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

(.16) (.47)

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

(1.6) (.47)

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

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

$$= \Phi(-1.30) = .097$$

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

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

Predicted probability of denial rises from .097 to .159

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

- 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
Log likelihood = -797.13604

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

	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
deny						
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
Log likelihood = -797.13604

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

	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
deny						
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
```

$$\Pr(\widehat{deny} = 1 | P/I, black)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

Logit regression 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.

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

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

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

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
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
Log likelihood = -795.69521

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

-----+-----
            |               Robust
            |               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)));

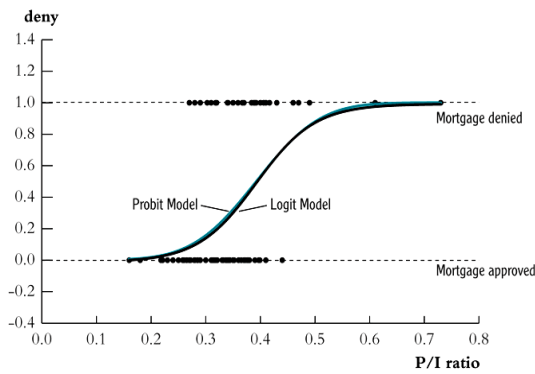
Pred prob, p_irat=.3, white: .07485143
NOTE: the probit predicted probability is .07546603
```

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

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

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.



9-25

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)

9-26

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.

9-27

Nonlinear least squares, etc.

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

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...

9-28

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)

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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

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

9-30

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) :

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

9-31

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

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

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

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

9-32

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 :

$$f(\beta_0, \beta_1; Y_1, \dots, Y_n | X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

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

$$\dots \times \{\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)^{y_n} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)]^{1-y_n}\}$$

9-33

The probit likelihood function:

$$f(\beta_0, \beta_1; Y_1, \dots, Y_n | X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

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

$$\dots \times \{\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)^{y_n} [1 - \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_n)]^{1-y_n}\}$$

- 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

9-34

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.

9-35

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..

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

$\log L_u$ = Unrestricted log-lik

$\log L_R$ = Restricted log-lik

9-36

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
                               Pseudo R2           =       0.0962

Log likelihood = -305.19796
```

	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

9.37

```
LR chi2(6) = 59.20
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Pseudo R2 = 0.0877

Log likelihood = -308.08906
```

	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

LR = 2(logL_U - logL_R) = 2 * (-305.19796 - (-308.08906)) = 5.65

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.

9.39

```
      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.

H₀: β₁ = β₂ = 0 H_a: H₀ 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
```

9.38

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
```

9.40

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