# Econometrics II TA Session \#04 * 

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## 1 Preliminary

Today, we review the truncated regression model (Tobit model), the count data model and examples of the estimation.

### 2.1 Tobit Model

### 3.1 Count Data Model

### 3.2 Zero Inflated Poisson Count Data Model

4.1 Empirical Example-Logit/Probit Model
4.2 Empirical Example-Zero Inflated Poisson Count Data Model

A Poisson Distribution
B Non-linear Optimization Procedure

## 2 Tobit Model

The following discussion is explained in Hayashi (2000). Suppose that $y_{i}$ and $X_{i}$ satisfy following linear regression model such that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i}^{*}=X_{i}^{\prime} \beta+u_{i}, \quad u_{i} \sim N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right), i=1,2, \cdots, n \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $y_{i}$ is i.i.d. dependent variable and $X_{i}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times k}$ is explanatory variable. Consider the following censoring:

$$
y_{i}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
y_{i}^{*} & \text { if } & y_{i}^{*}>c  \tag{2}\\
c & \text { if } & y_{i}^{*} \leq c
\end{array}\right.
$$

That is, an equivalent way to write the model is

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i}=\max \left\{X_{i}^{\prime} \beta+u_{i}, c\right\} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This model is called the Tobit model to pay respect to Tobin (1958). Unlike in truncated model, there is no truncation here. The feature that distinguishes the cenored regression model from usual regression model is that the dependent variable is censored. For the observations that satisfy $y_{i}^{*}>c$, its density is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{-1} \phi\left(\frac{y_{i}-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because there is no truncation, this density differs from the density for the truncated model in this case. For the observations which satisfy $y_{i}^{*} \leq c$, the probability is given by

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Prob}\left(y_{i}^{*} \leq c \mid X_{i}\right) & =\operatorname{Prob}\left(\left.\frac{y_{i}^{*}-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma} \leq \frac{c-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma} \right\rvert\, X_{i}\right)  \tag{5}\\
& =\Phi\left(\frac{c-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right) \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

since we have $\left(y_{i}^{*}-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta\right) / \sigma \mid X_{i} \sim N(0,1)$ ．Therefore，the density of $y_{i}$ ，defined over the interval $[c,+\infty)$ ，is Eq．（4）for the case $y_{i}>c$ and a probability mass of size $\Phi\left(\frac{c-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right)$ at $y_{i}=c$ ．This density can be rewritten as

$$
\left[\sigma^{-1} \phi\left(\frac{y_{i}-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right)\right]^{I_{i}} \times\left[\Phi\left(\frac{c-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right)\right]^{1-I_{i}}
$$

Recall that $I_{i}$ is an indicator function such that：

$$
I_{i}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1 & \text { if } \quad y_{i}^{*}>c \\
0 & \text { if } & y_{i}^{*} \leq c
\end{array}\right.
$$

Taking the logarithms，we obtain the log－conditional likelihood for the observation $i=1,2, \cdots, n$ as follows：

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log L\left(\beta, \sigma^{2}\right)=I_{i} \log \left[\sigma^{-1} \phi\left(\frac{y_{i}-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right)\right]+\left(1-I_{i}\right) \log \left[\Phi\left(\frac{c-X_{i}^{\prime} \beta}{\sigma}\right)\right] . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 3 Count Data Model

Like in the case of traffic accidents，we sometimes need to know how many times the events occur．In this section，we assume that the observed events are counted as $y_{i}=0,1,2, \ldots$ ．

## 3．1 Poisson Count Data Model

Consider the following Poisson distribution：

$$
\mathbb{P}(X=x)=f(x):=\frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x}}{x!} \quad \text { for } \quad x=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

The Poisson distribution is obtained as a limit of a binomial distribution（二項分布）by $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $p \rightarrow 0$ with $n p=\lambda\left(\in \mathbb{R}_{++}\right)$fixed，where $p$ stands for the success probability of a trial．The expectation of this distribution is

$$
\mathbb{E}[X]=\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x}}{x!}=\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x}}{x!}=\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \lambda \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!}=\lambda \underbrace{\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!}}_{1}=\lambda
$$

Recall that $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x} / x!=1$ since this represents the total sum of probability．More－ over，the variance is

$$
\mathbb{V}[X]=\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right]-\mathbb{E}[X]^{2}=\lambda(\lambda+1)-\lambda^{2}=\lambda .
$$

Note that the second moment of $X$ is calculated as follows：

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] & =\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^{2} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x}}{x!}=\lambda \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!}=\lambda\left(\sum_{x^{*}=0}^{\infty}\left(x^{*}+1\right) \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x^{*}}}{x^{*}!}\right) \\
& =\lambda \mathbb{E}\left[x^{*}+1\right]=\lambda(\lambda+1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.1.1 Model

Let $y_{i} \in\{0,1,2, \cdots\}$ (discrete numbers) and $y_{i} \sim \operatorname{Poi}(\lambda)$. Poisson count data model is represented as

$$
E\left[y_{i}\right]=\lambda_{i}=\exp \left(X_{i} \beta\right)
$$

where $\lambda_{i}>0 .\left(X_{i} \beta\right.$ can be negative. So you should avoid the specification $\lambda_{i}=X_{i} \beta$.) To estimate $\beta$, we use the MLE method. The $\log$-likelihood function is defined as

$$
L(\beta)=f\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots, y_{n}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} f\left(y_{i}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{e^{-\lambda_{i}} \lambda_{i}^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!}
$$

where $\lambda_{i}=\exp \left(X_{i} \beta\right)$. By taking natural logarithm, we obtain the following equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\log L(\beta) & =-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} \log \lambda_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(y_{i}!\right) \\
& =-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp \left(X_{i} \beta\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} X_{i} \beta-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(y_{i}!\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, by differentiating with $\beta$, we obtain the F.O.C. as follows:

$$
\frac{\partial \log L(\beta)}{\partial \beta}=-\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} \exp \left(X_{i} \beta\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} y_{i}=0
$$

Here we use the Newton Raphson method or the Method of Scoring to obtain $\beta$. We can apply the procedure as follows:

$$
\beta^{(j+1)}=\beta^{(j)}-\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} X_{i} \exp \left(X_{i} \beta^{(j)}\right)\right)^{-1}\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} \exp \left(X_{i} \beta^{(j)}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} y_{i}\right)
$$

in the case of the Newton Raphson method, and

$$
\beta^{(j+1)}=\beta^{(j)}-\mathbb{E}\left[\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} X_{i} \exp \left(X_{i} \beta^{(j)}\right)\right)^{-1}\right]\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} \exp \left(X_{i} \beta^{(j)}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{\prime} y_{i}\right) .
$$

in the case of the method of Scoring.

### 3.2 Zero Inflated Poisson Count Data Model

In the case of too many zeros, we should modify the Poisson count data model since the estimation does not become appropriate so often in such cases. So we assume that the probability of $y_{i}=j$ is decomposed of two regimes as follows:

- Regime 1: $y_{i}=0$ w.p. 1

Regime 1 is chosen with probability " $F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right)$ ".

- Regime 2: $y_{i} \sim \operatorname{Poi}\left(\lambda_{i}\right)$

Regime 2 is chosen with probability " $1-F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right)$ ".
Therefore, the probability of observing $y_{i}=j$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=0\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=0 \mid R_{1}\right) \mathbb{P}\left(R_{1}\right)+\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=0 \mid R_{2}\right) \mathbb{P}\left(R_{2}\right),  \tag{8}\\
& \mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j \mid R_{1}\right) \mathbb{P}\left(R_{1}\right)+\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j \mid R_{2}\right) \mathbb{P}\left(R_{2}\right) . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

In the above relationships, we assume

- $\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=0 \mid R_{1}\right)=1$ and $\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j \mid R_{1}\right)=0$ for $j=1,2, \ldots$;
- $\lambda_{i}=\exp \left(X_{i} \beta\right)$;
- $\mathbb{P}\left(R_{1}\right)=F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right)$;
- $\mathbb{P}\left(R_{2}\right)=1-F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right)$;
- $\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j \mid R_{2}\right)=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{-\lambda_{i}} \lambda_{i}^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!}$.

Eq. (8) and Eq. (9) can be rewritten as

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(R_{1}\right) I_{i}+\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j \mid R_{2}\right) \mathbb{P}\left(R_{2}\right), \quad \text { for } j=1,2, \ldots,
$$

where $I_{i}$ is an indicator variable which is equal to $I_{i}=1$ in the case of $y_{i}=0$ and $I_{i}=0$ in other cases. So probability function can be rewritten as

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j\right)=F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right) I_{i}+\frac{\mathrm{e}^{-\lambda_{i}} \lambda_{i}^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!}\left(1-F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right)\right), \quad j=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

where the $\log$-likelihood function is given by

$$
\log L(\alpha, \beta)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \mathbb{P}\left(y_{i}=j\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right) I_{i}+\frac{\mathrm{e}^{-\lambda_{i}} \lambda_{i}^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!}\left(1-F\left(Z_{i} \alpha\right)\right)\right) .
$$

Then we obtained the estimator of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ by maximizing the log-likelihood function with respect to $\alpha$ and $\beta$ by means of the Newton-Raphson Method or the Method of Scoring.

## 4 Empirical Examples

### 4.1 Empirical Example-Logit/Probit Model

At first, we estimate the Logit model and the Probit model. The R code and data set are provided in the UCLA Institute for Digital Research and Education. ${ }^{* 1}$ A researcher is interested in variables which indicates achievement degree, such as GRE (Graduate Record Exam scores), GPA (grade point average) and prestige of the undergraduate institution, effect admission into graduate school. The response variable, admit/do not admit is a binary variable. The model is represented as

$$
\operatorname{admit}_{i}=\operatorname{GRE}_{i} \beta_{1}+\operatorname{GPA}_{i} \beta_{2}+\operatorname{rank}_{i} \beta_{3}+u_{i}
$$

[^1]where a variable＂rank＂represents the prestige of the university and takes on the values 1 through 4．The R code is given as follows．

```
#This example is provided in the UCLA Institute for Digital Research and
    Education
#https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/r/dae/logit-regression/
library(aod)
library(ggplot2)
mydata <- read.csv("https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/stat/data/binary.csv")
## view the first few rows of the data
head(mydata)
mydata$rank <- factor(mydata$rank)
#logit################
mylogit <- glm(admit ~ gre + gpa + rank, data = mydata, family = "binomial
    ")
summary(mylogit)
#probit###############
myprobit <- glm(admit ~ gre + gpa + rank, family = binomial(link = "probit
    "),data = mydata)
summary(myprobit)
```

The result is explained as follows．

```
> library(aod)
Warning message:パッケージ '
    aodはバージョン 3.4.4 の R の下で造られました
    library(ggplot2)
    mydata <- read.csv("https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/stat/data/binary.csv")
    ## view the first few rows of the data
    head (mydata)
    admit gre gpa rank
1 0
        1 660 3.67 3
        1 800 4.00 1
```



```
        0}5520\quad2.93 4 
        1760 3.00 2
    mydata$rank <- factor(mydata$rank)
    mylogit <- glm(admit ~ gre + gpa + rank, data = mydata, family = "
        binomial")
>
summary(mylogit)
Call:
glm(formula = admit ~ gre + gpa + rank, family = "binomial",
    data = mydata)
Deviance Residuals:
\begin{tabular}{rrrrr} 
Min & \(1 Q\) & Median & \(3 Q\) & Max \\
-1.6268 & -0.8662 & -0.6388 & 1.1490 & 2.0790
\end{tabular}
```

```
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
\begin{tabular}{lrrrrl} 
(Intercept) & -3.989979 & 1.139951 & -3.500 & 0.000465 & \(* * *\) \\
gre & 0.002264 & 0.001094 & 2.070 & 0.038465 & \(*\) \\
gpa & 0.804038 & 0.331819 & 2.423 & 0.015388 & \(*\) \\
rank2 & -0.675443 & 0.316490 & -2.134 & 0.032829 & \(*\) \\
rank3 & -1.340204 & 0.345306 & -3.881 & 0.000104 & \(* * *\) \\
rank4 & -1.551464 & 0.417832 & -3.713 & 0.000205 & \(* * *\)
\end{tabular}
---
Signif. codes: 0 `"*** 0.001 `"** 0.01 '"* 0.05 `. 0.1 '` 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 499.98 on 399 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 458.52 on 394 degrees of freedom
AIC: 470.52
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
###################################################################
Call:
glm(formula = admit ~ gre + gpa + rank, family = binomial(link = "probit")
    ,
    data = mydata)
Deviance Residuals:
\begin{tabular}{rrrrr} 
Min & \(1 Q\) & Median & \(3 Q\) & Max \\
-1.6163 & -0.8710 & -0.6389 & 1.1560 & 2.1035
\end{tabular}
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -2.386836 0.673946 -3.542 0.000398 ***
gre 0.001376 0.000650 2.116 0.034329 *
gpa 0.477730 0.197197 2.423 0.015410 *
rank2 -0.415399 0.194977 -2.131 0.033130 *
rank3 -0.812138 0.208358 -3.898 9.71e-05 ***
rank4 -0.935899 0.245272 -3.816 0.000136 ***
---
Signif. codes: 0 `"*** 0.001 '`** 0.01 ``* 0.05 `. . 0.1 ` 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
    Null deviance: 499.98 on 399 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 458.41 on 394 degrees of freedom
AIC: 470.41
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```


### 4.2 Empirical Example-Zero Inflated Poisson Count Data Model

Next, we estimate the zero-inflated Poisson count data model provided in the IDRE UCLA website.*2 This website explains a number of the examples introduced in the Econometrics II classes.

- We have data on 250 groups that went to a (state) park.
- Each group was questioned about how many fish they caught (count), how many children in the group (child), how many people were in the group (persons), and whether or not they brought a camper to the park (camper).
- Some visitors do not fish (Regime 1), but there is no data on whether a person fished or not.
- Some visitors who did fish (Regime 2) did not catch any fish so there are excess zeros in the data.

The R code is given as follows.

```
library(ggplot)
library(pscl)
library(stargazer)
zinb <- read.csv("https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/stat/data/fish.csv")
zinb <- within(zinb, {
    nofish <- factor(nofish)
    livebait <- factor(livebait)
    camper <- factor(camper)
})
summary(zinb)
summary(m1 <- zeroinfl(count ~ child + camper | persons, data = zinb))
stargazer(m1)
```

The result is explained as follows.

```
Call:
## zeroinfl(formula = count ~ child + camper | persons, data = zinb)
##
## Pearson residuals:
## Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
## -1.2369 -0.7540 -0.6080 -0.1921 24.0847
##
## Count model coefficients (poisson with log link):
## Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) 1.59789 0.08554 18.680 <2e-16 ***
## child -1.04284 0.09999 -10.430 <2e-16 ***
## camper1 0.83402 0.09363 8.908 <2e-16
##
```

[^2]```
## Zero-inflation model coefficients (binomial with logit link):
## Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
## (Intercept) 1.2974 0.3739 3.470 0.000520 ***
## persons -0.5643 0.1630 -3.463 0.000534 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '., 0.1 ' , 1
##
## Number of iterations in BFGS optimization: 12
## Log-likelihood: -1032 on 5 Df
```


## Appendix

## AppendixA Poisson Distribution

Consider that an event occurs with probability $p=\lambda / n$, and we consider the probability that the event happens $x$ times over $n$ trials as follows:

$$
P(X=x)=\frac{n!}{(n-x)!x!} p^{x}(1-p)^{n-x}=\frac{n!}{(n-x)!x!}\left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{x}\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}
$$

where the distribution which $X$ follows becomes a binomial distribution. Then, we can transform the above equation as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
P(X=x) & =\frac{\overbrace{n \times(n-1) \times \cdots \times(n-x+1)}^{x \text { times multiplied }} \frac{\lambda^{x}}{n^{x}}\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n}\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x}}{x!}  \tag{10}\\
& =\frac{n(n-1)}{n} \frac{(n-2)}{n} \cdots \frac{(n-x+1)}{n} \frac{\lambda^{x}}{x!}\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n}\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x} . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

By taking the limit of Eq. (11) with respect to $n$, with $n p=\lambda$ fixed (so that $p \rightarrow 0$ accordingly), we obtain

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X=x)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\frac{n}{n}}_{1} \underbrace{\frac{(n-1)}{n}}_{1} \cdots \underbrace{\frac{(n-x+1)}{n}}_{1} \frac{\lambda^{x}}{x!} \underbrace{\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n}}_{e^{-\lambda}} \underbrace{\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x}}_{1}
$$

From the above equation, we have

$$
P(X=x)=\frac{\lambda^{x} e^{-\lambda}}{x!}
$$

## AppendixB Non-linear Optimization Procedure

Note that the Newton-Raphson method (one of the non-linear optimization procedure) is described as follows:

$$
\beta^{(j+1)}=\beta^{(j)}-\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \log L\left(\beta^{(j)}\right)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial \log L\left(\beta^{(j)}\right)}{\partial \beta}
$$

This equation comes from the first-order Taylor series expansion around $\beta=\beta^{*}$ :

$$
0=\frac{\partial \log L(\beta)}{\partial \beta} \approx \frac{\partial \log L\left(\beta^{*}\right)}{\partial \beta}+\frac{\partial^{2} \log L\left(\beta^{*}\right)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}\left(\beta-\beta^{*}\right)
$$

Then we obtain

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\frac{\partial^{2} \log L\left(\beta^{*}\right)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}\left(\beta-\beta^{*}\right)=-\frac{\partial \log L\left(\beta^{*}\right)}{\partial \beta} \\
\beta-\beta^{*}=-\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \log L\left(\beta^{*}\right)}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^{\prime}}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial \log L\left(\beta^{*}\right)}{\partial \beta}
\end{array}
$$

This yields the above equation．If we take the expectation on the second derivative of the likelihood function，the method is known as the method of Scoring（スコア法）．

## References

[1] William, H., Greene (2012) "Econometric analysis Seventh Edition", Pearson.
[2] Fumio, Hayashi (2000) "ECONOMETRICS", Princeton University Press.


[^0]:    * All comments welcome!
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[^1]:    *1 https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/

[^2]:    *2 Institute for the Digital Research \& Education "ZERO-INFLATED POISSON REGRESSION — R DATA ANALYSIS EXAMPLES" (https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/r/dae/zip/)

