

Getting Started in Logit and Ordered Logit Regression

(ver. 3.1 *beta*)

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Logit model

- Use logit models whenever your dependent variable is binary (also called dummy) which takes values 0 or 1.
- Logit regression is a nonlinear regression model that forces the output (predicted values) to be either 0 or 1.
- Logit models estimate the probability of your dependent variable to be 1 ($Y=1$). This is the probability that some event happens.

From Stock & Watson, key concept 9.3. The logit model is:

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_K X_K)$$

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_K X_K)}}$$

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_K X_K)}} \right)}$$

Logit and probit models are basically the same, the difference is in the distribution:

- Logit – Cumulative standard logistic distribution (F)
- Probit – Cumulative standard normal distribution (Φ)

Both models provide similar results.

Logit model

In Stata you run the model as follows:

Dependent variable: `y_bin`
 Independent variable(s): `x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7`

```
. logit y_bin x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -251.9712
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -192.3814
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -165.56847
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -160.76756
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -160.44413
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -160.442
```

Logistic regression

| | | | |
|------------------|----------|-----------------|--------|
| Log likelihood = | -160.442 | Number of obs = | 490 |
| | | LR chi2(7) = | 183.06 |
| | | Prob > chi2 = | 0.0000 |
| | | Pseudo R2 = | 0.3633 |

If this number is < 0.05 then your model is ok. This is a test to see whether all the coefficients in the model are different than zero.

| y_bin | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|
| x1 | .2697623 | .1759677 | 1.53 | 0.125 | -.0751281 .6146527 |
| x2 | -.2500592 | .1459846 | -1.71 | 0.087 | -.5361837 .0360653 |
| x3 | .1150445 | .1486181 | 0.77 | 0.439 | -.1762417 .4063306 |
| x4 | .3649722 | .153434 | 2.38 | 0.017 | .0642472 .6656973 |
| x5 | -.3131214 | .1467796 | -2.13 | 0.033 | -.6008042 -.0254386 |
| x6 | -.1361499 | .1566993 | -0.87 | 0.385 | -.4432749 .1709752 |
| x7 | 3.206987 | .3631481 | 8.83 | 0.000 | 2.495229 3.918744 |
| _cons | 1.58614 | .39927 | 3.97 | 0.000 | .803585 2.368695 |

Note: 1 failure and 1 success completely determined.

Logit coefficients are in log-odds units and cannot be read as regular OLS coefficients. To interpret you need to estimate the predicted probabilities of Y=1 (see next page)

Test the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 1. To reject this, the t-value has to be higher than 1.96 (for a 95% confidence). If this is the case then you can say that the variable has a significant influence on your dependent variable (y). The higher the z the higher the relevance of the variable.

Two-tail p-values test the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 0. To reject this, the p-value has to be lower than 0.05 (95%, you could choose also an alpha of 0.10), if this is the case then you can say that the variable has a significant influence on your dependent variable (y)

Logit: predicted probabilities

After running the model:

```
logit y_bin x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7
```

Type

```
predict y_bin_hat /*These are the predicted probabilities of Y=1 */
```

Here are the estimations for the first five cases, type:

```
browse y_bin x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7 y_bin_hat
```

| y_bin | x1 | x2 | x3 | x4 | x5 | x6 | x7 | y_bin_hat |
|-------|----|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | 3 | .2779036 | -1.107956 | .2825536 | -2.971267 | .554832 | -.5820704 | .7841014 |
| 0 | 3 | .3206847 | -.94872 | .4925385 | -1.371243 | -.0959275 | -.6641465 | .6678266 |
| 0 | 3 | .3634657 | -.789484 | .7025234 | .2287798 | -.7466869 | -.7462227 | .5267279 |
| 1 | 3 | .246144 | -.885533 | -.0943909 | -.3198499 | -.3573879 | .0628607 | .9274359 |
| 1 | 3 | .424623 | -.7297683 | .9461306 | .1230506 | -.0358964 | .095743 | .9439594 |
| 1 | 3 | .4772141 | -.723246 | 1.02968 | .1175985 | -.0022627 | .0965806 | .9448991 |

Predicted probabilities

To estimate the probability of $Y=1$ for the first row, replace the values of X into the logit regression equation. For the first case, given the values of X there is 79% probability that $Y=1$:

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | X_1, X_2, \dots, X_7) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{e^{(1.58 + 0.26X_1 - 0.25X_2 + 0.11X_3 + 0.36X_4 - 0.31X_5 - 0.13X_6 + 3.20X_7)}} \right)} = 0.7841014$$

Logit: Odds ratio

You can request odds ratio rather than logit coefficients by adding the option `or` (after comma)

```

Dependent variable: y_bin
Independent variable(s): x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7
Getting odds ratios: or

. logit y_bin x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7, or

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -251.9712
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -192.3814
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -165.56847
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -160.76756
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -160.44413
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -160.442

Logistic regression                               Number of obs =                490
LR chi2(7) =                                     183.06
Prob > chi2 =                                    0.0000
Pseudo R2 =                                      0.3633

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| y_bin | Odds Ratio | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| x1    | 1.309653   | .2304567  | 1.53 | 0.125 | .9276246 1.849014 |
| x2    | .7787547   | .1136862  | -1.71| 0.087 | .5849765 1.036724 |
| x3    | 1.121923   | .1667381  | 0.77 | 0.439 | .8384153 1.501299 |
| x4    | 1.440474   | .2210176  | 2.38 | 0.017 | 1.066356 1.945847 |
| x5    | .7311612   | .1073196  | -2.13| 0.033 | .5483705 .9748823 |
| x6    | .8727118   | .1367534  | -0.87| 0.385 | .6419307 1.186461 |
| x7    | 24.70453   | 8.971405  | 8.83 | 0.000 | 12.12451 50.33718 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+

```

If this number is < 0.05 then your model is ok. This is a test to see whether all the coefficients in the model are different than zero.

Note: 1 failure and 1 success completely determined.

They represent the *odds of Y=1 when X increases by 1 unit*. These are the $\exp(\text{logit coeff})$.
 If the OR > 1 then the odds of Y=1 increases
 If the OR < 1 then the odds of Y=1 decreases
 Look at the sign of the logit coefficients

Test the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 0. To reject this, the t-value has to be higher than 1.96 (for a 95% confidence). If this is the case then you can say that the variable has a significant influence on your dependent variable (y). The higher the z the higher the relevance of the variable.

Two-tail p-values test the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 0. To reject this, the p-value has to be lower than 0.05 (95%, you could choose also an alpha of 0.10), if this is the case then you can say that the variable has a significant influence on your dependent variable (y)

After running the logit model you can estimate predicted probabilities or odds ratios by different levels of a variable (in particular for categorical or nominal variables). You can also use the command `prvalue` explaining at the end of the document.

Using the command `adjust`.

Odds ratio per different levels of variable `x1`. For example, when `x1 = 1` the odds of `Y=1` increase by a factor of 7.8 (controlling by the other `X`'s)



```
. adjust, by(x1) exp
```

Dependent variable: `y_bin` Command: `logit`
 Variables left as is: `x2, x3, x4, x5, x6, x7`

| x1 | exp(xb) |
|----|---------|
| 1 | 7.82314 |
| 2 | 10.3279 |
| 3 | 7.29768 |

Key: `exp(xb)` = `exp(xb)`

Predicted probabilities per different levels of variable `x1`. For example, when `x1 = 1` the probability of `Y=1` is 88% (controlling by the other `X`'s)



```
. adjust, by(x1) pr
```

Dependent variable: `y_bin` Command: `logit`
 Variables left as is: `x2, x3, x4, x5, x6, x7`

| x1 | pr |
|----|---------|
| 1 | .886662 |
| 2 | .911723 |
| 3 | .879484 |

Key: `pr` = Probability

Ordinal logit

When a dependent variable has more than two categories and the values of each category have a meaningful sequential order where a value is indeed 'higher' than the previous one, then you can use ordinal logit.

Here is an example of the type of variable:

```
. tab y_ordinal
```

| Agreement Level | Freq. | Percent | Cum. |
|--------------------|-------|---------|--------|
| Disagree | 190 | 38.78 | 38.78 |
| Neutral | 104 | 21.22 | 60.00 |
| Agree | 196 | 40.00 | 100.00 |
| Total | 490 | 100.00 | |

Ordinal logit: the setup

Dependent variable
Independent variable(s)

```

. ologit y_ordinal x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7

Iteration 0: log likelihood = -520.79694
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -475.83683
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -458.82354
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -458.38223
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -458.38145
    
```

Ordered logistic regression
 Log likelihood = **-458.38145**

Number of obs = **490**
 LR chi2(7) = **124.83**
 Prob > chi2 = **0.0000**
 Pseudo R2 = **0.1198**

If this number is < 0.05 then your model is ok. This is a test to see whether all the coefficients in the model are different than zero.

| | y_ordinal | Coef. | Std. Err. | z | P> z | [95% Conf. Interval] | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------------|-----------|
| | x1 | .220828 | .0958182 | 2.30 | 0.021 | .0330279 | .4086282 |
| | x2 | -.0543527 | .0899153 | -0.60 | 0.546 | -.2305834 | .1218779 |
| | x3 | .1066394 | .0925103 | 1.15 | 0.249 | -.0746775 | .2879563 |
| | x4 | .2247291 | .0913585 | 2.46 | 0.014 | .0456697 | .4037885 |
| | x5 | -.2920978 | .0910174 | -3.21 | 0.001 | -.4704886 | -.113707 |
| | x6 | .0034756 | .0860736 | 0.04 | 0.968 | -.1652255 | .1721767 |
| | x7 | 1.566211 | .1782532 | 8.79 | 0.000 | 1.216841 | 1.915581 |
| | /cut1 | -.5528058 | .103594 | | | -.7558463 | -.3497654 |
| | /cut2 | .5389237 | .1027893 | | | .3374604 | .740387 |

Note: 1 observation completely determined. Standard errors questionable.

Logit coefficients are in log-odds units and cannot be read as regular OLS coefficients. To interpret you need to estimate the predicted probabilities of Y=1 (see next page)

Ancillary parameters to define the changes among categories (see next page)

Test the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 1. To reject this, the t-value has to be higher than 1.96 (for a 95% confidence). If this is the case then you can say that the variable has a significant influence on your dependent variable (y). The higher the z the higher the relevance of the variable.

Two-tail p-values test the hypothesis that each coefficient is different from 0. To reject this, the p-value has to be lower than 0.05 (95%, you could choose also an alpha of 0.10), if this is the case then you can say that the variable has a significant influence on your dependent variable (y)

Ordinal logit: predicted probabilities

Following Hamilton, 2006, p.279, `ologit` estimates a score, S , as a linear function of the X 's:

$$S = 0.22X_1 - 0.05X_2 + 0.11X_3 + 0.22X_4 - 0.29X_5 + 0.003X_6 + 1.57X_7$$

Predicted probabilities are estimated as:

$$\begin{aligned} P(y_{\text{ordinal}}=\text{"disagree"}) &= P(S + u \leq _cut1) &&= P(S + u \leq -0.5528058) \\ P(y_{\text{ordinal}}=\text{"neutral"}) &= P(_cut1 < S + u \leq _cut2) &&= P(-0.5528058 < S + u \leq 0.5389237) \\ P(y_{\text{ordinal}}=\text{"agree"}) &= P(_cut2 < S + u) &&= P(0.5389237 < S + u) \end{aligned}$$

To estimate predicted probabilities type `predict` right after `ologit` model. Unlike `logit`, this time you need to specify the predictions for all categories in the ordinal variable (`y_ordinal`), type:

```
predict disagree neutral agree
```

Ordinal logit: predicted probabilities

To read these probabilities, as an example, type

```
browse country disagree neutral agree if year==1999
```

In 1999 there is a 62% probability of 'agreement' in Australia compared to 58% probability in 'disagreement' in Brazil while Denmark seems to be quite undecided.

| country | disagree | neutral | agree |
|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Australia | .1700809 | .2090298 | .6208892 |
| Austria | .17576 | .2127421 | .6114978 |
| Belgium | .3058564 | .2617683 | .4323753 |
| Botswana | .1215602 | .1703741 | .7080657 |
| Brazil | .5808533 | .2241725 | .1949743 |
| Bulgaria | .3134856 | .2628762 | .4236383 |
| Burundi | .5940011 | .2193996 | .1865993 |
| Canada | .1627286 | .2039865 | .6332849 |
| Chile | .1998139 | .2267881 | .5733979 |
| Denmark | .3604209 | .2663039 | .3732751 |

Predicted probabilities: using `prvalue`

After running `ologit` (or `logit`) you can use the command `prvalue` to estimate the probabilities for each event.

`Prvalue` is a user-written command, if you do not have it type `findit spost`, select `spost9_ado` from <http://www.indiana.edu/~jslsoc/stata> and click on "(click here to install)"

If you type `prvalue` without any option you will get the probabilities for each category when all independent values are set to their mean values.

```
. prvalue

ologit: Predictions for y_ordinal

Confidence intervals by delta method

          95% Conf. Interval
Pr(y=Disagree|x):  0.3627 [ 0.3159,  0.4094]
Pr(y=Neutral|x):   0.2643 [ 0.2197,  0.3090]
Pr(y=Agree|x):     0.3730 [ 0.3262,  0.4198]

          x1          x2          x3          x4          x5          x6          x7
x=  2.0020408 -8.914e-10 -1.620e-10 -1.212e-10  2.539e-09 -9.744e-10 -6.040e-10
```

You can also estimate probabilities for a particular profile (type `help prvalue` for more details).

```
. prvalue , x(x1=1 x2=3 x3=0 x4=-1 x5=2 x6=2 x6=9 x7=4)

ologit: Predictions for y_ordinal

Confidence intervals by delta method

          95% Conf. Interval
Pr(y=Disagree|x):  0.0029 [-0.0033,  0.0090]
Pr(y=Neutral|x):   0.0055 [-0.0061,  0.0172]
Pr(y=Agree|x):     0.9916 [ 0.9738,  1.0094]

          x1  x2  x3  x4  x5  x6  x7
x=         1   3   0  -1   2   9   4
```

Predicted probabilities: using `prvalue`

If you want to estimate the impact on the probability by changing values you can use the options `save` and `dif` (type `help prvalue` for more details)

```
. prvalue , x(x1=1) save
```

output: Predictions for `y_ordinal`

Confidence intervals by delta method

```

          95% Conf. Interval
Pr(y=Disagree|x):  0.3837 [ 0.3098,  0.4576]
Pr(y=Neutral |x):  0.2641 [ 0.2195,  0.3087]
Pr(y=Agree|x):    0.3522 [ 0.2806,  0.4238]
    
```

```

x=
      x1      x2      x3      x4      x5      x6      x7
      1 -8.914e-10 -1.620e-10 -1.212e-10  2.539e-09 -9.744e-10 -6.040e-10
    
```

Probabilities when `x1=1` and all other independent variables are held at their mean values. Notice the `save` option.

```
. prvalue , x(x1=2) dif
```

output: Change in Predictions for `y_ordinal`

Confidence intervals by delta method

```

          Current      Saved      Change      95% CI for Change
Pr(y=Disagree|x):  0.3627  0.3837 -0.0210 [-0.0737,  0.0317]
Pr(y=Neutral |x):  0.2643  0.2641  0.0003 [-0.0026,  0.0031]
Pr(y=Agree|x):    0.3730  0.3522  0.0208 [-0.0299,  0.0714]
    
```

```

Current=
Saved=
Dif f=
      x1      x2      x3      x4      x5      x6      x7
      2 -8.914e-10 -1.620e-10 -1.212e-10  2.539e-09 -9.744e-10 -6.040e-10
      1 -8.914e-10 -1.620e-10 -1.212e-10  2.539e-09 -9.744e-10 -6.040e-10
      1 0 0 0 0 0 0
    
```

Probabilities when `x1=2` and all other independent variables are held at their mean values. Notice the `dif` option.

Here you can see the impact of `x1` when it changes from 1 to 2.
 For example, the probability of `y=Agree` goes from 35% to 37% when `x1` changes from 1 to 2 (and all other independent variables are held at their constant mean values).

NOTE: You can do the same with logit or probit models

Useful links / Recommended books

- DSS Online Training Section <http://dss.princeton.edu/training/>
- UCLA Resources to learn and use STATA <http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/stata/>
- DSS help-sheets for STATA http://dss/online_help/stats_packages/stata/stata.htm
- *Introduction to Stata* (PDF), Christopher F. Baum, Boston College, USA. “A 67-page description of Stata, its key features and benefits, and other useful information.”
<http://fmwww.bc.edu/GStat/docs/StataIntro.pdf>
- STATA FAQ website <http://stata.com/support/faqs/>
- Princeton DSS Libguides <http://libguides.princeton.edu/dss>

Books

- *Introduction to econometrics* / James H. Stock, Mark W. Watson. 2nd ed., Boston: Pearson Addison Wesley, 2007.
- *Data analysis using regression and multilevel/hierarchical models* / Andrew Gelman, Jennifer Hill. Cambridge ; New York : Cambridge University Press, 2007.
- *Econometric analysis* / William H. Greene. 6th ed., Upper Saddle River, N.J. : Prentice Hall, 2008.
- *Designing Social Inquiry: Scientific Inference in Qualitative Research* / Gary King, Robert O. Keohane, Sidney Verba, Princeton University Press, 1994.
- *Unifying Political Methodology: The Likelihood Theory of Statistical Inference* / Gary King, Cambridge University Press, 1989
- *Statistical Analysis: an interdisciplinary introduction to univariate & multivariate methods* / Sam Kachigan, New York : Radius Press, c1986
- *Statistics with Stata (updated for version 9)* / Lawrence Hamilton, Thomson Books/Cole, 2006