Multivariate probit regression using simulated maximum likelihood

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Abstract. We discuss the application of the GHK simulation method for maximum likelihood estimation of the multivariate probit regression model and describe and illustrate a Stata program mvprobit for this purpose.

Keywords: st0045, maximum likelihood estimation, multivariate probit regression model, GHK, mvprobit, mvppred

1 Introduction

Evaluation of probit-model likelihood functions requires calculation of normal probability distribution functions. Algorithms exist that provide accurate calculations for univariate and bivariate normal pdfs, and these are used by functions incorporated in many software packages. (See, for example, norm and binorm in Stata 8.) Accurate functions for the evaluation of trivariate and higher-dimensional normal distributions do not exist in Stata, however. Moreover, in these multivariate normal cases, computations based on standard linear numerical approximations, such as those based on the Newton–Raphson method, are relatively inefficient and may provide poor approximations (Hajivassiliou and Ruud 1994). Researchers have turned instead to simulation-based methods that have much better properties. See Stern (1997) and Gourieroux and Monfont (1996) for extensive discussion of simulation estimation techniques and their applications in a number of contexts. Greene (2003, 931–933) provides a brief textbook exposition.

In this article, we discuss the application of a simulation method to maximum likelihood estimation of the multivariate probit regression model and describe a Stata program mvprobit for this purpose. In section 2, we describe the model and review the principles underlying estimation by simulated maximum likelihood using the so-called GHK simulator. Our mvprobit program is explained in section 3, and it is illustrated in section 4. Section 5 discusses issues such as the choice of number of replications. Antoine Terracol’s program triprobit, available from the SSC-IDEAS archive, fits trivariate probit regression models using simulated likelihood estimation. In mvprobit, written independently, a more general algorithm is used, the number of model equations is unlimited in principle, there are more options, and there is also a companion post-estimation prediction program (mvppred).

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2 The model and the method of simulated maximum likelihood

Consider the $M$-equation multivariate probit model:

$$y_{im}^* = \beta_m'X_{im} + \epsilon_{im}, \ m = 1, ..., M$$

$$y_{im} = 1 \text{ if } y_{im}^* > 0 \text{ and } 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

$\epsilon_{im}, m = 1, ..., M$ are error terms distributed as multivariate normal, each with a mean of zero, and variance–covariance matrix $V$, where $V$ has values of 1 on the leading diagonal and correlations $\rho_{jk} = \rho_{kj}$ as off-diagonal elements.

The model has a structure similar to that of a seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) model, except that the dependent variables are binary indicators. As for the SUR case (sureg), the equations need not include exactly the same set of explanatory variables. The familiar univariate and bivariate probit models correspond to the cases when $M = 1$ and 2 (estimable using probit and biprobit).

The $y_{im}$ might represent outcomes for $M$ different choices at the same point in time, for example, whether an individual owns each of $M$ different consumer durables. Alternatively, the $y_{im}$ might represent $M$ outcomes on the same choice at $M$ different points in time. That is, the multivariate probit model can be used to fit a univariate probit model for panel (cross-sectional time-series) data allowing for a free correlation structure over time.

To facilitate exposition of the method of estimation by simulated maximum likelihood, let us focus on the case in which $M = 3$. In the trivariate probit case, the log-likelihood function for a sample of $N$ independent observations is given by

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \log\Phi_3(\mu_i; \Omega)$$

where $w_i$ is an optional weight for observation $i = 1, \ldots, N$, and $\Phi_3(.)$ is the trivariate standard normal distribution with arguments $\mu_i$ and $\Omega$, where

$$\mu_i = (K_{i1}\beta_1'X_{i1}, K_{i2}\beta_2'X_{i2}, K_{i3}\beta_3'X_{i3})$$

with $K_{ik} = 2y_{ik} - 1$, for each $i, k = 1, \ldots, 3$. Matrix $\Omega$ has constituent elements $\Omega_{jk}$, where
\[ \Omega_{jj} = 1 \text{ for } j = 1, \ldots, 3 \]
\[ \Omega_{21} = \Omega_{12} = K_{11}K_{12}\rho_{21} \]
\[ \Omega_{31} = \Omega_{13} = K_{13}K_{11}\rho_{31} \]
\[ \Omega_{32} = \Omega_{23} = K_{13}K_{12}\rho_{32} \]

Clearly the log-likelihood function depends on the trivariate standard normal distribution function \( \Phi_3(.) \).

The most popular simulation method for evaluating multivariate normal distribution functions is the Geweke–Hajivassiliou–Keane (GHK) smooth recursive conditioning simulator. See Börsch-Supan et al. (1992), Börsch-Supan and Hajivassiliou (1993), Keane (1994), and Hajivassiliou and Ruud (1994). Greene’s textbook (2003, 931–933) provides a useful brief review. The GHK simulator exploits the fact that a multivariate normal distribution function can be expressed as the product of sequentially conditioned univariate normal distribution functions, which can be easily and accurately evaluated.

In the trivariate case, there are eight joint probabilities corresponding to the eight possible combinations of successes \( (y_{im} = 1) \) and failures \( (y_{im} = 0) \). Let us focus on the probability that every outcome is a success. This is given by

\[
\Pr(y_1 = 1, y_2 = 1, y_3 = 1) \\
= \Pr(\epsilon_1 \leq \beta_1'X_1, \epsilon_2 \leq \beta_2'X_2, \epsilon_3 \leq \beta_3'X_3) \\
= \Pr(\epsilon_3 \leq \beta_3'X_3 \mid \epsilon_2 < \beta_2'X_2, \epsilon_1 < \beta_1'X_1) \times \Pr(\epsilon_2 < \beta_2'X_2 \mid \epsilon_1 < \beta_1'X_1) \times \Pr(\epsilon_1 < \beta_1'X_1)
\]

where observation subscript \( i \) has been dropped for convenience. This expression involves conditioning upon unobservable variables (that are correlated with each other). The expressions for each of the joint probabilities of each of the seven other outcome combinations involve similar conditioning. However, if a good approximation for these conditional distributions can be found, then the likelihood function only requires evaluation of univariate integrals. How may the approximations be derived?

Consider the Cholesky decomposition of the covariance matrix for the errors

\[ E(\epsilon\epsilon') \equiv V = C\epsilon\epsilon'C \]

where \( C \) is the lower triangular Cholesky matrix corresponding to \( V \) and \( e = \Phi_3(0, I_3) \), where \( I_3 \) is the \( 3 \times 3 \) identity matrix (i.e., the \( e \) are three uncorrelated standard normal variates). It follows that
\[ \begin{align*}
\epsilon_1 &= C_{11} e_1 \\
\epsilon_2 &= C_{21} e_1 + C_{22} e_2 \\
\epsilon_3 &= C_{31} e_1 + C_{32} e_2 + C_{33} e_3
\end{align*} \]

and \( C_{jk} \) is the \( jk \)th element of matrix \( C \). We can, therefore, rewrite the decomposition of the trivariate normal probability of three successes as

\[
\Pr(\epsilon_1 \leq \beta_1' X_1, \epsilon_2 \leq \beta_2' X_2, \epsilon_3 \leq \beta_3' X_3) = \Pr[e_3 \leq (\beta_3' X_3 - C_{32} e_2 - C_{31} e_1)/C_{33} \mid e_2 \leq (\beta_2' X_2 - C_{21} e_1)/C_{22}, e_1 \leq \beta_1' X_1/C_{11}] \\
\times \Pr[e_2 \leq (\beta_2' X_2 - C_{21} e_1)/C_{22} \mid e_1 \leq \beta_1' X_1/C_{11}] \times \Pr[e_1 \leq \beta_1' X_1/C_{11}]
\]

The standard normal variates, \( e \), that now appear in the decomposition are uncorrelated with each other (by construction). The first two conditional probabilities can be further rewritten as unconditional probabilities defined in terms of truncated standard normal variates. That is,

\[
\Pr(\epsilon_1 \leq \beta_1' X_1, \epsilon_2 \leq \beta_2' X_2, \epsilon_3 \leq \beta_3' X_3) = \Pr[e_3 \leq (\beta_3' X_3 - C_{32} e_2^* - C_{31} e_1^*)/C_{33}] \\
\times \Pr[e_2 \leq (\beta_2' X_2 - C_{21} e_1^*)/C_{22}] \times \Pr[e_1 \leq \beta_1' X_1/C_{11}]
\]

where \( e_1^* \) and \( e_2^* \) are truncated univariate standard normal variates with upper truncation points at \( \beta_1' X_1/C_{11} \) and \( (\beta_2' X_2 - C_{21} e_1^*)/C_{22} \), respectively. Computation of \( Q_1 \) is straightforward, and if one had some specific values for \( e_1^* \) and \( e_2^* \), then one could also compute \( Q_2 \) and \( Q_3 \) and hence the overall multivariate probability.

The GHK simulator derives values for \( e_1^* \) and \( e_2^* \) by taking random draws from upper-truncated standard normal distributions with truncation points as given above and then recursively computes a multivariate probability value from the \( Q_s \). (The procedure generalizes straightforwardly to the case where \( M > 3 \); there are as many \( Q \) terms as there are equations.) The process is replicated \( R \) times, and the simulated probability—the value that is included in the log-likelihood function at each iteration—is the arithmetic mean of the values of the simulated probabilities from each replication.
The drawing of random variables from upper-truncated normal distributions is done using a random-number generator combined with the inversion formula given by, among others, Stern (1997). Recall that a univariate standard normal variate is generated by applying the inverse of the normal probability function to random numbers drawn from a uniform distribution over the unit interval ($\text{invnorm(uniform())}$). Draws from upper-truncated standard normal distributions can be obtained similarly. The truncated standard normal probability is given by $p \equiv \Pr(x| x < b) = \Phi(x)/\Phi(b)$, where $b$ is the upper truncation point. The desired random variate is calculated using the formula $\Phi^{-1}\{p\Phi(b)\}$.

The GHK simulator has a number of desirable properties in the context of multivariate normal limited dependent variable models (Börsch-Supan and Hajivassiliou 1993): the simulated probabilities are unbiased, they are bounded within the (0,1) interval, and the simulator is a continuous and differentiable function of the model’s parameters. The GHK simulator is also more efficient (in terms of the variance of the estimators of probabilities) than other simulators such as the acceptance–rejection or Stern simulators.

Under standard conditions, the simulated maximum likelihood (SML) estimator is consistent as the number of draws and the number of observations tend to infinity. Thus, the desirable properties of the SML estimator are asymptotic, as they are for all ML estimators. And, intuitively, the sample size required to reduce the finite sample bias to some acceptable level will increase with the number of equations.

Simulation bias is reduced to negligible levels when the number of draws is raised with the sample size. Ensuring that the ratio of the number of draws to the square root of sample size is sufficiently large ensures this (Hajivassiliou and Ruud 1994, 2416–2419). Thus, other things equal, the more draws there are, the more accurate the results. In practice, however, it has been observed that a relatively small number of draws may work well for ‘smooth’ likelihoods. We illustrate the impact of changing the number of draws in section 4.

By its very nature, estimation using SML is numerically intensive, and convergence may be very slow, particularly if the number of draws is large, or especially if the number of equations is large. By contrast, changing the number of explanatory variables does not affect convergence speed very much.

### 3 The mvprobit program

The `mvprobit` program fits multivariate probit models using the method of SML described in the previous section. The number of equations in the model is unlimited in principle, though subject to speed and capacity constraints discussed later. The program is written for Stata 7, using `ml model lf`. In the next subsections, we describe the syntax and options for `mvprobit` and for the companion program for post-estimation prediction, `mvppred`. 
3.1 Syntax for mvprobit

The syntax for mvprobit is very similar to that for the seemingly unrelated bivariate probit model syntax of biprobit:

\[
\text{mvprobit equation1 equation2 ... equationM [weight] [if exp] [in range]}
\]
\[
[ , \text{draws(#)} \text{ seed(#)} \text{ beta0 atrho0(matrix_name) robust}
\text{cluster(varname) constraints(numlist) level(#) maximize_options}]
\]

where each equation is specified as

\[
([eqname:] \text{ depvar [=] [varlist] [, noconstant]})
\]

by ...: may be used with mvprobit. pweights, fweights, and iweights are allowed. mvprobit shares the features of all estimation commands, including access to estimated results, and mvprobit typed without arguments redisplays the last estimates.

Predictions based on mvprobit estimates, including predicted joint and marginal probabilities, can be derived using mvppred, discussed below.

Restrictions on the structure of the correlation matrix may be imposed using the constraint option.

3.2 Options for mvprobit

draws(#) specifies the number of random variates drawn when calculating the simulated likelihood. The default is 5.

seed(#) specifies the initial value of the (pseudo) random-number seed used by the uniform() function in the simulation process. The value should be an integer (the default value is 123456789).

beta0 specifies that the estimates of the marginal probit regressions (used to provide starting values) are reported.

atrho0(matrix_name) allows users to specify starting values for the off-diagonal elements of the correlation matrix \( V \) that differ from the default starting values, which are all zero. More precisely, the matrix matrix_name contains values of the incidental parameter in each /atrhojk equation (see section 4); i.e., \( \text{atanh} \rho_{jk} = 0.5 \log((1 + \rho_{jk})/(1 - \rho_{jk})) \). Matrix matrix_name must have properly named column names. For example, if a starting value in /atrho21 is being set, one would first use the command matrix matrix_name = (value), followed by matrix colnames matrix_name = atrho21:_cons. Between 1 and \( M(M - 1)/2 \) /atrhojk starting values may be specified, where \( j = 2, \ldots, M \) and \( k < j \).

The remaining options are the same as the corresponding ones for biprobit.
3.3 Syntax for the prediction program mvppred

mvppred newvarname_prefix [if exp] [in range] [, statistic]

where statistic is one of

- **xb** the linear prediction for each equation; the default.
- **stpd** the standard error of the linear predictions for each equation.
- **pmarg** the marginal success probability for each equation.
- **pall** the joint probabilities: (i) \( Pr(y_{im} = 1, \text{for all } m = 1, \ldots, M) \), and
  (ii) \( Pr(y_{im} = 0, \text{for all } m = 1, \ldots, M) \).

Only one statistic may be chosen at a time. For statistics xb, stpd, and pmarg, results are stored in the variables newvarname_prefixi, for equations i = 1, ..., M. For the pall statistics, results are stored in the variables newvarname_prefix0s for predicted probability (i) and newvarname_prefix1s for predicted probability (ii). The options for predicting joint probabilities are restricted to the ‘all successes’ and ‘all failures’ cases because these were the only two cases that could be programmed without the number of equations being fixed. (The number of joint probabilities corresponding to the different combinations of successes and failures is \( 2^M \).)

4 Illustrations

We use two datasets to illustrate mvprobit. First, we take the school dataset from Pindyck and Rubinfeld (1998, 332), which is used to illustrate biprobit in the Stata 7 Reference Manual. This example has two purposes: it shows the command syntax, including options (such as for prediction), in action, and it helps demonstrate the accuracy of the simulated maximum estimator mvprobit relative to the maximum likelihood estimator. (Because the sample size, 95, is ‘small’, both the SML and ML estimators may be subject to finite sample bias.) Second, we fit a four-equation model using data generated from a model with prespecified parameters. (The sample size in this case, 5,000, is relatively large, and so finite sample bias is less of an issue.)

4.1 Illustration using the school data

The school dataset contains 95 observations on whether children attend a private school (private), the number of years that the family has been at the present residence (years), the logarithm of property tax (logptax), the logarithm of income (loginc), and whether the household head had voted for an increase in the property tax (vote). We model the bivariate outcomes of whether children attend private school and whether the household head voted for an increase in property tax as functions of log property tax, log income, and residential tenure. The biprobit estimates of this model are as follows:
Seemingly unrelated bivariate probit

Number of obs = 95
Wald chi2(6) = 9.59
Log likelihood = -89.254028  Prob > chi2 = 0.1431

| Coef. | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-------|-----------|------|------|---------------------|
| private |          |      |      |                     |
| years  | -.0118884 | .0256778 | -0.46 | 0.643 | -.0622159 .0384391 |
| logptax | -.1066962 | .6669782 | -0.16 | 0.873 | -1.413949 1.200557 |
| loginc  | .3762037  | .5306484 | 0.71  | 0.478 | -.663849 1.416255 |
| _cons  | -4.184694 | 4.837817 | -0.86 | 0.387 | -13.66664 5.297253 |
| vote   |          |      |      |                     |
| years  | -.0168561 | .0147834 | -1.14 | 0.254 | -.0458309 .0121188 |
| logptax | -1.288707 | .5752266 | -2.24 | 0.025 | -2.416131 -.1612839 |
| loginc  | .998286  | .4403655 | 2.27  | 0.023 | .1352031 1.861369 |
| _cons  | -5.360573 | 4.068509 | -1.30 | 0.195 | -8.310188 5.589097 |

Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0:  chi2(1) = 1.38444  Prob > chi2 = 0.2393

We also generate predictions of several joint and marginal probabilities and linear predictions and their standard errors, for comparisons with their SML counterparts below:

. predict p11, p11
. predict p00, p00
. predict xbb1, xb1
. predict xbb2, xb2
. predict stdp1, stdp1
. predict stdp2, stdp2
. predict pmarg1, pmarg1
. predict pmarg2, pmarg2

The mvprobit estimates of the same model, with the number of random draws set at the default 5, are given by

(Continued on next page)
Multivariate probit regression

```
. mvprobit (private = years logptax loginc) (vote = years logptax loginc), nolog
Multivariate probit (SML, # draws = 5)  Number of obs =  95
Wald chi2(6)  =  9.24
Log likelihood = -89.773212  Prob > chi2 = 0.1608

Coef.  Std. Err.   z    P>|z|      [95% Conf. Interval]
private
  years  -.0088706   .0239362  -0.37  0.711   -.0557847   .0380436
  logptax  -.1232144   .6665783  -0.18  0.853   -1.429684   1.183255
  loginc   .3991725   .5389061   0.74  0.459   -0.6570639   1.455409
     _cons  -4.321043   4.880546  -0.89  0.376  -13.88674    5.244652
vote
  years  -.0177467   .0148995  -1.19  0.234   -.0469492   .0114557
  logptax  -1.275053   .5703058  -2.24  0.025  -2.392832   -.1572747
  loginc   .9799365   .4399119   2.23  0.026    .117725   1.842148
     _cons  -0.438055   4.050873  -0.11  0.914    .837762    7.501515
\atrho21
  rho21  -.1151379   .1997462  -0.58  0.561   -.5076327   .2753582
Likelihood ratio test of rho21 = 0:
  chi2(1)  =  .346069  Prob > chi2  =  0.5563

/atrho21

The SML estimates of the coefficients and their statistical significance are very close to the ML estimates, even though the number of draws is relatively small. There is a sharp contrast in the estimates of the correlation between the equation error terms, however: −0.116 compared with −0.270. Raising the number of random draws used by the SML estimator brings the estimates much closer together, however. With \( R = 100 \), we have

(Continued on next page)
. `mvprobit` (private = years logptax loginc) (vote=years logptax loginc), nolog > draws(100)
Multivariate probit (SML, # draws = 100)  Number of obs = 95
Wald chi2(6) = 9.64
Log likelihood = -89.220805  Prob > chi2 = 0.1405

| Coef. | Std. Err. | z   | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-------|-----------|-----|-------|----------------------------|
| private|           |     |       |                            |
| years  | -0.0118233 | 0.0256205 | -0.46 | 0.644 | -0.0620386 | 0.0383921 |
| logptax| -1.033056  | 0.6672673 | -1.55 | 0.121 | -2.352229  | 0.286117 |
| loginc | 0.3695001  | 0.5303571 | 0.70  | 0.486 | -0.6699806 | 1.408981 |
| _cons  | -4.140149  | 4.837923  | -0.86 | 0.392 | -13.6223  | 5.342006 |

| vote    |           |     |       |                            |
| years   | -0.0172153 | 0.0148029 | -1.16 | 0.245 | -0.0462285 | 0.011798 |
| logptax | -1.280732  | 0.5725493 | -2.24 | 0.025 | -2.402908  | -0.1585563 |
| loginc  | 0.9956743  | 0.437904  | 2.27  | 0.023 | 1.3738297  | 1.613956 |
| _cons  | -5.627991  | 4.055369  | -1.40 | 0.160 | -8.511157  | 7.258059 |

Likelihood ratio test of rho21 = 0:
chi2(1) = 1.45088  Prob > chi2 = 0.2284

The SML estimate of $\rho_{21}$ is now $-0.274$ ($z = -1.24$) compared with the ML estimate of $-0.270$ ($z = -1.21$).

Predictions following `mvprobit` are obtained using the command `mvppred`. The predictions are based on the parameter estimates from the last `mvprobit` model fitted and use the same number of random draws (and seed) to generate the joint probabilities. For example,

. `mvppred` pall, pall
(Pr(all zeros), Pr(all ones) will be stored in variables pall0s, pall1s)
. `mvppred` xbm, xbm
(xb will be stored in variables xbm1, i = 1,...,#eqs)
. `mvppred` stdpm, stdp
(stdp will be stored in variables stdpm1, i = 1,...,#eqs)
. `mvppred` psr marginalized
(psrm will be stored in variables psrmi, i = 1,...,#eqs)

The SML predictions are very similar to their ML counterparts. For example, the mean `mvprobit` prediction of Pr(private = 1, vote = 1) is 0.0514, compared with the mean `biprobit` prediction of 0.0515:
Multivariate probit regression

. summarize pall1s p11 pall0s p00 xbm1 xbb1 xbm2 xbb2 /*
> */ stdpm1 stdpb1 stdpm2 stdpb2 pmargm1 pmargb1 pmargm2 pmargb2

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In sum, the results suggest that `mvprobit`'s SML estimates are similar to those of the corresponding ML estimator—conditional on the number of random draws used in the former being sufficiently large. We return to the issue of the choice of $R$ later.

4.2 Illustration using generated data

We now extend the illustrations of `mvprobit` to the four-equation case. To benchmark the results, we generate a dataset with 5,000 observations from a multivariate probit model with known parameters. The data were created using methods similar to those discussed in *Stata 7 Reference Manual* volume 2, page 36.

. set seed 12309
. set obs 5000
  obs was 0, now 5000
. matrix R=(1, .25, .5, .75 \ .25, 1, .75, .5 \ .5, .75, 1, .75 \ .75, .5, .75, 1)
. drawnorm u1 u2 u3 u4, corr(R)
. correlate u*
   (obs=5000)
     | u1     u2     u3     u4
  u1  | 1.0000
  u2  | 0.2587 1.0000
  u3  | 0.5077 0.7483 1.0000
  u4  | 0.7483 0.5077 0.7483 1.0000
. generate x1 = uniform()-0.5
. generate x2 = uniform() + 1/3
. generate x3 = 2*uniform() + 0.5
. generate x4 = 0.5*uniform() - 1/3
The equations for $y_{1s}$, $y_{2s}$, $y_{3s}$, and $y_{4s}$ correspond to the equations for $y_{im}^*$, $i = 1, \ldots, M$ given at the beginning of section 2, and those for $y_1$, $y_2$, $y_3$, and $y_4$ correspond to those for $y_{im}$. The correlations between the error terms (the elements of the matrix $V$) are shown in the output from the `correlate` command.

`mvprobit` estimates of this four-equation model are set out below for the case in which the number of random draws $R = 75$ (i.e., slightly larger than the square root of the sample size).
Clearly, \texttt{mvprobit} provides good estimates of the underlying model—not only of the regression coefficients, but also of the correlation matrix. The warning about Cholesky factorization that appears between the first and second iterations is not a matter of concern, as the model subsequently converged satisfactorily. The GHK simulator relies on a Cholesky factorization, and in order to do this, the estimate of the correlation matrix $V$ at each iteration has to be positive definite. Occasionally this is not so, in which case \texttt{mvprobit} traps the error and uses instead the most recent estimate of $V$ (which is guaranteed to be positive definite).

\section{Using \texttt{mvprobit}: further remarks}

The number of replications, $R$, used by the GHK simulator is a key choice for \texttt{mvprobit} users. Increasing $R$ increases accuracy but at the cost of lengthening run time. There is also a choice to be made about the seed—different seeds lead to different sets of random numbers being used to calculate the simulated probabilities and hence potentially different parameter estimates. In order to investigate these issues, we re-estimated the models discussed in section 4 for several alternative seed values (including the default as before), in each case varying the number of replications between 1 and 150.

Our first experiments were based on the generated dataset and the two-equation model for $y_1$s and $y_2$s. Our discussion focuses, for brevity’s sake, on the estimates of correlation $\rho_{21}$ only. Figure 1 shows the estimates generated using the default seed (left-hand graph) and a seed of 999 (right-hand graph). The horizontal line in each graph
is a benchmark estimate, 0.266729, derived from biprobit. Both graphs suggest that the SML estimate approaches the ML estimate relatively rapidly as the number of draws increases. Changing the seed can make some difference, however. For a seed of 999, a larger number of random draws was required before the SML estimate settled down ($R \approx 50$, rather than $R \approx 25$, for the default seed), and convergence, as $R$ increased, was to a value that was not as close to the ML estimate. We also repeated the exercise for a number of other seeds (31, 11111111, 33333333, 55555555, 77777777, 99999999). Taken together, the results suggest that the SML estimator provided a good estimate of $\rho_{21}$ (and its standard error), regardless of the choice of seed value, when the number of replications was at least as large as the square root of the sample size (71 in this case).

Figure 1: Variation in SML estimate of correlation $\rho_{21}$ with number of replications, for seed = 123456789 and seed = 999 (two-equation model, generated data)

Figure 2 shows that conclusions such as these need to be treated with some caution when the sample size is relatively small. The figure is based on the school dataset used in section 4 and shows the SML estimate of $\rho_{21}$ as $R$ was varied from 1 to 150, for each of two different seeds (the default and 999). Again the ML estimate was taken as the benchmark. In this case, convergence of the estimate was much slower, nonmonotonic, and did not occur until $R$ was at least as large as the sample size.

(Continued on next page)
We advise multivariate probit regression users to choose a relatively large number for $R$, though a small value of $R$ would suffice when checking program syntax statements. For sample sizes common in social surveys (of the order of several thousands), setting $R$ equal to an integer approximately equal to the square root of the sample size may suffice, and the estimates are likely to be insensitive to the choice of seed. Conversely, users should be warned that for small sample sizes, estimates may be sensitive to the choice of seed value unless $R$ is large. (There would remain the issue of finite sample bias, of course.)

For a given sample size and number of equations, run time increases roughly linearly in the number of replications (Hajivassiliou 1997). The four-equation model based on simulated data that was discussed in section 4 took about 2.25 hours to run when estimated using Stata/SE 7 for Windows running on a Pentium P4/1.4 Ghz PC. The same model estimated using networked Intercooled Stata 7 running on a Sun Solaris computer took about 5.25 hours.

Use of the `atrho0()` option may provide some scope for reduction in run time. It allows users to specify starting values for off-diagonal elements of the correlation matrix $V$ that differ from the default starting values (which are all zero). (Values are specified in the atanh metric as described in section 3.2.) A natural source of a nondefault starting value for element $jk$ is the `/athrho` parameter estimated from the `biprobit` model corresponding to equations $j$ and $k$ of a multi-equation `mvprobit` model. Our experiments with the option used in this way suggest that there are gains in speed, but they are not large. This is because, even with the default starting values, relatively good estimates of $V$ are derived within just one or two iterations. An alternative use of the option would be when run times were expected to be long (for example, because a large $R$ was required). One might run the model with a smaller $R$ initially and use the estimated `/athrho` parameters from this model as starting values for the main model.
Run time varies substantially with the number of equations in the model. For datasets with several thousand observations (and appropriate $R$), our experiments suggest that estimation may take days or even a few weeks when the number of equations is above six or seven. Thus, although the number of equations that mvprobit can handle is unlimited in principle, there are practical constraints that are likely to affect most users.

Other potential constraints concern the matsize and memory available. The simulation procedure creates $R \times M$ temporary variables. Users need to ensure that sufficient memory is available for these (set memory). For large models (many explanatory variables in each of many equations), users may also need to increase matsize (set matsize).

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7 References


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