

# Thema

UMR 8184

Théorie Économique, Modélisation et Applications

THEMA Working Paper n°2015-04  
Université de Cergy-Pontoise, France

## **On the estimation of causality in a bivariate dynamic probit model on panel data with Stata software. A technical review**

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Mai 2015

# On the estimation of causality in a bivariate dynamic probit model on panel data with Stata software. A technical review

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May 27, 2015

**Keywords:** Causality; Bivariate Dynamic Probit; Gauss-Hermite Quadrature; Simulated Likelihood; Gradient; Hessian; Stata

**JEL Classification:** C5; C6

## Abstract

In order to assess causality between binary economic outcomes, we consider the estimation of a bivariate dynamic probit model on panel data that has the particularity to account the initial conditions of the dynamic process. Due to the untractable form of the likelihood function that is a two dimensions integral, we use an approximation method : the adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature method as proposed by Liu and Pierce (1994). For the accuracy of the method and to reduce computing time, we derive the gradient of the log-likelihood and the hessian of the integrand. The estimation method has been implemented using the d1 method of Stata software. We made an empirical validation of our estimation method by applying on simulated data set. We also analyze the impact of the number of quadrature points on the estimations and on the estimation process duration. We then conclude that when exceeding 16 quadrature points on our simulated data set, the relative differences in the estimated coefficients are around 0.01% but the computing time grows up exponentially.

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<sup>‡</sup>We greatly acknowledge the Centre Maurice Halbwachs (Réseau Quetelet) for access to the SIP 2007 data set (Santé et itinéraire professionnel - 2007. DARES producteur. Centre Maurice Halbwachs diffuseur).

# Introduction

Testing Granger causality has generated a large set of paper in the literature. The larger part of this literature concerns the case where we have continuous dependent variables. For binary outcomes, there is also a way to consider the causality problem. As described by Adams, McFadden and alii (2003) for a vector of dependant variables, the one order Granger causality can be analyse as a probability conditional independence given a set of exogenous variables and the first order lagged dependent variables. And for a binary outcome in the dependent vector, one can use a probit probability that implies the use of latent variable.

For panel data case, as the one way fix effects model estimated on a finite sample has necessarily inconsistent estimators (Heckman, 1981), the random effect model is used. Due to the fact that we aim to test for one order Granger causality, lagged dependent variables are included as explanatory variables. For the first wave of the panel, we do not have previous values for the dependent variables, and treating them casually or as exogenous leads to inconsistent estimators (Heckman 1981). So we specify an other equation for initial conditions as described by Alessie (2004). The equation is allowed to have different explanatory variables and different idiosyncratic error terms from the dynamic equation.

This specification leads to a likelihood function with an untractable form that is a two dimensions integral with a large set of parameters to be estimated. The estimation of this likelihood function requires the use of numerical approximation of integral function such as maximum simulated likelihood (see Gouriéroux and Monfort 1993 for more details) or Gauss-Hermite quadrature (for more details see Naylor and Smith 1982, Liu and Pierce 1994, Jackel 2005).

In this paper, we discuss on the problem of testing Granger causality with a bivariate dynamic probit model taking into account the initial condition. The organization of this paper is the following one. In section 1 we explain the causality test method for bivariate probit model in panel data. In section 2, we describe the estimation method available when the likelihood function has an untractable form (two dimensions integral in our case). Section 3 presents the calculation of the gradient with respect to the model parameters and the calculation of the hessian matrix with respect to the random effects vector. In section 4, we present a robustness analysis of our selected estimation method by doing some simulations<sup>1</sup>.

## 1 Testing causality with a bivariate dynamic probit model

This section aims to describe causality test method in the case of binary variables. We start by presenting the general approach in time series before introducing panel data case. We end this section by a discussion on the initial condition problem.

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<sup>1</sup>For each section, specifics notations are down at the beginning of the section. Otherwise, in general  $f(x)|_{x=a}$  denote the value of the function or the matrix  $f$  at the point  $a$ . When not specify,  $|a|$  denote the integer part of the scalar  $a$ .

## 1.1 Testing causality : general approach

Causality concept was introduced by Granger (1969) as a better predictability of a variable  $Y$  by the use of its lag values, the lag value of another variable  $Z$  and some controls  $X$ . In his paper, Granger (1969) distinguishes instantaneous causality that means  $Z_t$  is causing  $Y_t$  (if  $Z_t$  include in the model it improves the predictability of  $Y_t$  than if not) from lag causality that means lag values of  $Z$  improve the predictability of  $Y_t$ . In this section, we rule out the instantaneous causality and deal with lag causality of one period.

The one period Granger causality can be rephrase in terms of conditional independence. Without lost of generality, we present the univariate case for time series. Let's  $Y_t$  and  $Z_t$  denote some dependent variables and  $X_t$  denote a set of controls variables. One period Granger non-causality from  $Z$  to  $Y$  is the conditional independence of  $Y_t$  from  $Z_{t-1}$  conditionally to  $X_t$  and  $Y_{t-1}$ . More clearly, Granger non-causality from  $Z$  to  $Y$  is :

$$f(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, X_t, Z_{t-1}) = f(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, X_t) \quad (1)$$

Note that the same kind of relationship can be written for Granger non-causality from  $Y$  to  $Z$ . As  $Y_t$  and  $Z_t$  are binary outcome variables, we can use latent variables ( $Y^*$  and  $Z^*$  respectively) and make the assumption that  $Y$  and  $Z$  have positive outcomes (equals to 1) if their latent variable is positive. The latent variables are defined as follows :

For the left term of the equation 1 ( $f(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, X_t, Z_{t-1})$ ) :

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t^* &= X_t\beta_1 + \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} + \delta_{12}Z_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^1 \\ Z_t^* &= X_t\beta_2 + \delta_{21}Y_{t-1} + \delta_{22}Z_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^2 \end{aligned}$$

For the right term of the equation 1 ( $f(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, X_t)$ ) :

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t^* &= X_t\beta_1 + \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^1 \\ Z_t^* &= X_t\beta_2 + \delta_{21}Z_{t-1} + \epsilon_t^2 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_t^1 \\ \epsilon_t^2 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow N(0, \Sigma_\epsilon) \text{ with } \Sigma_\epsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho_\epsilon \\ \rho_\epsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

To fit the joint distribution of  $Y$  and  $Z$  conditionally to  $X$  (meaning that we estimate a bivariate model), we need to analyze four available situations that are  $(Y = Z = 1)$ ,  $(Y = Z = 0)$ ,  $(Y = 1; Z = 0)$  and  $(Y = 0; Z = 1)$ . For each of these situations, we have :

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(Y_t = 1, Z_t = 1|X_t\right) &= P\left(\epsilon_t^1 > -X_t\beta_1 - \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{12}Z_{t-1}, \epsilon_t^2 > -X_t\beta_2 - \delta_{21}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{22}Z_{t-1}\right) \\ P\left(Y_t = 0, Z_t = 0|X_t\right) &= P\left(\epsilon_t^1 < -X_t\beta_1 - \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{12}Z_{t-1}, \epsilon_t^2 < -X_t\beta_2 - \delta_{21}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{22}Z_{t-1}\right) \\ P\left(Y_t = 1, Z_t = 0|X_t\right) &= P\left(\epsilon_t^1 > -X_t\beta_1 - \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{12}Z_{t-1}, \epsilon_t^2 < -X_t\beta_2 - \delta_{21}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{22}Z_{t-1}\right) \\ P\left(Y_t = 0, Z_t = 1|X_t\right) &= P\left(\epsilon_t^1 < -X_t\beta_1 - \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{12}Z_{t-1}, \epsilon_t^2 > -X_t\beta_2 - \delta_{21}Y_{t-1} - \delta_{22}Z_{t-1}\right) \end{aligned}$$

As we can see, by supposing  $q_t^1 = 2Y_t - 1$  and  $q_t^2 = 2Z_t - 1$ , we can rewrite the probabilities above as :

$$P\left(Y_t, Z_t | X_t\right) = \Phi_2\left(q_t^1(X_t\beta_1 + \delta_{11}Y_{t-1} + \delta_{12}Z_{t-1}), q_t^2(X_t\beta_2 + \delta_{21}Y_{t-1} + \delta_{22}Z_{t-1}), q_t^1 q_t^2 \rho_\epsilon\right)$$

where  $\Phi_2()$  stands for the bivariate normal c.d.f.

Then testing Granger non-causality in this specification is testing  $\delta_{12} = 0$  for  $Z$  is not causing  $Y$  and testing  $\delta_{21} = 0$  for  $Y$  is not causing  $Z$ .

## 1.2 Testing causality : Panel data case

For panel data case, two major approaches can be used. The first one is to consider that causal effect is not the same for all individuals in the panel (Weinhold, 2000). This approach is useful when individuals are heterogeneous or when the causal effect is not homogenous. The specification for latent variables are :

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{it}^* &= X_t\beta_1 + \delta_{11,i}Y_{i,t-1} + \delta_{12,i}Z_{i,t-1} + \eta_i^1 + \zeta_{it}^1 \\ Z_{it}^* &= X_t\beta_2 + \delta_{21,i}Y_{i,t-1} + \delta_{22,i}Z_{i,t-1} + \eta_i^2 + \zeta_{it}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Where  $(\eta_i^1, \eta_i^2)'$  denote the individual random effects which are zero mean covariance matrix  $\Sigma_\eta$  and  $(\zeta_{it}^1, \zeta_{it}^2)'$  denote the idiosyncratic shocks which are zero mean and covariance matrix  $\Sigma_\zeta$  with

$$\Sigma_\eta = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_1\sigma_2\rho_\eta \\ \sigma_1\sigma_2\rho_\eta & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \Sigma_\zeta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho_\zeta \\ \rho_\zeta & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In this approach, testing Granger non-causality is equivalent to test  $\delta_{12,i} = 0, i = 1, \dots, N$  for  $Z$  is not causing  $Y$  and to test  $\delta_{21,i} = 0, i = 1, \dots, N$  for  $Y$  is not causing  $Z$ .

The second approach (that is on use in this paper) is to suppose the causal effects, if it exists, is the same for all individuals in the panel. With the same notation that the previous case, the latent variables are :

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{it}^* &= X_t\beta_1 + \delta_{11}Y_{i,t-1} + \delta_{12}Z_{i,t-1} + \eta_i^1 + \zeta_{it}^1 \\ Z_{it}^* &= X_t\beta_2 + \delta_{21}Y_{i,t-1} + \delta_{22}Z_{i,t-1} + \eta_i^2 + \zeta_{it}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Then testing Granger non-causality is equivalent to test  $\delta_{12} = 0$  for  $Z$  is not causing  $Y$  and to test  $\delta_{21} = 0$  for  $Y$  is not causing  $Z$ .

## 1.3 Dealing with initial conditions

For the first wave of the panel (initial condition), due to the fact that we do not have data for the previous state on  $Y$  and  $Z$  (no values for  $Y_{i,0}$  and  $Z_{i,0}$ ) we are not able to evaluate  $P(Y_{i1}, Z_{i1} | Y_{i,0}, Z_{i,0}, X_i)$ . By ignoring it in the individual overall likelihood, we ignore the data generation process for the first wave of the panel. This means that we suppose the data generating process of the first wave of the panel to be exogenous or to be in equilibrium. These

assumptions hold only if the individual random effects are degenerated. If not, the initial condition (the first wave of the panel) are explained by the individual random effects and ignoring it leads to inconsistent parameter estimates (Heckman, 1981).

The solution proposed by Heckman (1981) for the univariate case and generalized by Alessie (2004) is to estimate a static equation for the first wave of the panel (meaning that we do not introduce lagged dependent variables). In this static equation, the random effects are a linear combination of the random effects in the next wave of the panel and idiosyncratic error terms may have different structure from the idiosyncratic error terms in the dynamic equation. Formally, the latent variables for the first wave of the panel are defined as follows :

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{i,1}^* &= X_i^1 \gamma_1 + \lambda_{11} \eta_i^1 + \lambda_{12} \eta_i^2 + \epsilon_i^1 \\ Z_{i,1}^* &= X_i^2 \gamma_2 + \lambda_{21} \eta_i^1 + \lambda_{22} \eta_i^2 + \epsilon_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

Where  $(\epsilon_i^1, \epsilon_i^2)'$  denote the idiosyncratic shocks which are zero mean and covariance matrix  $\Sigma_\epsilon$  with  $\Sigma_\epsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho_\epsilon \\ \rho_\epsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

As  $\eta^1$  and  $\eta^2$  are individual random effects respectively on  $Y$  and  $Z$ ,  $\lambda_{12}$  and  $\lambda_{21}$  can be interpreted as the influence of the  $Y$  random individual effects (respectively  $Z$  random individual effects) on  $Z$  (respectively on  $Y$ ) at the first wave of the panel.

## 2 Estimation methods

Due to the fact that the likelihood function has an untractable form (an integral function), it is impossible to estimate this likelihood by usual methods. We then deal with numerical integration methods that are numerical approximation method for an integral. In this section we describe two major methods and argue for one of them to estimate our likelihood function.

### 2.1 Gauss-Hermite quadrature method

Gauss-Hermite quadrature is a numerical approximation method use to close the value of an integral function. The default approach is relative to an univariate integral of the form :

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \exp(-x^2) dx \tag{2}$$

With the Gaussian factor  $\exp(-x^2)$ . But without this factor, one can use the Gauss-Hermite quadrature by using a straightforward transformation that is to multiply and divide the integrand  $f(x)$  by a Gaussian factor  $\exp(-x^2)$ . Then the integral above can be approximated using :

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \exp(-x^2) dx = \sum_{q=1}^Q w_q * f(x_q) \tag{3}$$

Where  $x_q, q = 1, \dots, Q$  are nodes from the Hermite polynomial and  $w_q, q = 1, \dots, Q$  are corresponding weights.

This approximation supposes that the integrand can be well approximated by an  $2Q + 1$  order polynomial and that the integrand is sampled on a symmetric range centered in zero. So, for suitable results, these two assumptions may be taken into account.

For the first one, finding best number of quadrature point can be achieve numerically. For the accuracy of the approximation, it is required to choose the best number of quadrature points. To do this, one can start with a number  $\bar{q}$  of quadrature points and increase it and see if it significantly changes the result, and repeat this process until convergence in terms of overall likelihood value variation and estimated coefficients variation. But it is also important to take into account the fact that increasing number of quadrature point also increase computing time. An example of the impact of number of quadrature points on estimated results is given in section 5.

For the problem of suitable sampling range, the solution of using the adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature was proposed by Naylor and Smith (1982) and by Liu and Pierce (1994). In this approach, in fact of using  $exp(-x^2)$  as a gaussian factor to multiply and divide the integrand, they use a gaussian density  $\phi(\mu, \sigma)$  of mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . That means (see Naylor and Smith, 1982) :

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{f(x)\phi(x, \mu, \sigma)}{\phi(x, \mu, \sigma)} dx = \sum_{q=1}^Q w_q^* f(x_q^*) \quad (4)$$

Then the sampling range is transformed and the new nodes are  $x_q^* = \mu + \sqrt{2}\sigma x_q$  and weights are  $w_q^* = \sqrt{2}\sigma w_q exp(x_q^2)$ . For Naylor and Smith (1982), one can choose the normal density with posterior mean and variance equal respectively to  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . For the implementation, we can start with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$  and at each iteration of the likelihood maximization process, calculate the posterior weighted mean and variance of the quadrature points and use them to calculate the nodes and weights for the next iteration. For Liu and Pierce (1994), one can choose  $\mu$  to be the mode of the integrand and  $\sigma$  to be the square of the hessian of the log of integrand taken in the mode.

$$\sigma = \left( - \frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2} \log(f(x))|_{x=\hat{x}} \right)^{-1/2} \quad (5)$$

For the multivariate integral case, the same approach is used. Without lost of generality, we discuss the bivariate case that can be apply to others multivariate cases. The function to approximate is written as follows :

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y) dx dy \quad (6)$$

With the assumption of independence between  $x$  and  $y$  (that can be overcome by using a Cholesky decomposition  $x' = x$  and  $y' = \rho x' + y$ , see Naylor and Smith (1982) or Jackel (2005) for more

precision on these Cholesky transformation or other transformations that can lead to similar results) the integral above can be approximated by :

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{f(x, y)\phi(x, \mu, \sigma)\phi(y, \mu, \sigma)}{\phi(x, \mu, \sigma)\phi(y, \mu, \sigma)} dx dy = \sum_{q_1=1, q_2=1}^Q w_{q_1}^* w_{q_2}^* f(x_{q_1}^*, y_{q_1}^*) \quad (7)$$

And in this case, the nodes and weights are derived as follows :

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{q_1}^* \\ y_{q_1}^* \end{pmatrix} = \hat{x} + \sqrt{2} * \left( -\frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2} \log(f(x, y)) \Big|_{x, y=\hat{x}} \right)^{-1/2} * \begin{pmatrix} x_{q_1} \\ y_{q_1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (8)$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} w_{q_1}^* \\ w_{q_2}^* \end{pmatrix} = 2 * \left| -\frac{\delta^2}{\delta x^2} \log(f(x, y)) \Big|_{x, y=\hat{x}} \right|^{-1/2} * \begin{pmatrix} w_{q_1} \exp(x_{q_1}^2) \\ w_{q_2} \exp(x_{q_2}^2) \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

Where  $|A|$  denote the determinant of the matrix A.

Jackel (2005) also suggests that for the nodes with low weights (when contributions to the integral value are not significative) we can prune the range from those nodes in order to save calculation time. That means to set a scalar  $\tau = \frac{w_1 w_1^{(Q+1)/2}}{Q}$  and drop all nodes with weights lower than this scalar.

## 2.2 Maximum simulated likelihood method

Maximum Simulated Likelihood method was introduced by Gouriéroux and Monfort (1993) as a solution to maximization problems that have an integral as objective function. In this approach, the likelihood function is supposed to be defined as :

$$f(x, y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f^*(x, y, u_1, u_2) g(u_1, u_2) du_1 du_2 \quad (10)$$

where  $g(u_1, u_2)$  is a probability distribution function,  $f^*(x, y, u_1, u_2)$  is called simulator and denotes the function from which the mean value at some draws  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  gives an approximation of the overall likelihood. Without lost of generality, we only define the two dimensions case that can be generalized to fewer or larger dimensions integral. For this kind of likelihood function, Gouriéroux and Monfort (1993) proposed as simulator the function  $f^*(x, y, u_1, u_2)$  with  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  drawn from the same probability distribution function  $g$  (the probability distribution function of the individual random effects). Then the overall likelihood function can be approximated by :

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^D f^*(x, y, u_{1d}, u_{2d}) \quad (11)$$

Where  $D$  denotes the number of draws.



To implement this method, we start by simulating a bivariate normal draw  $N(0, I_2)$  and we give them the  $(u_1, u_2)$  covariance matrix structure. Then we calculate the value of the simulator at these transformed draws and we repeat  $D$  times. The overall likelihood is the mean of the simulator value at each transformed draw. At each iteration, once the random effects covariance matrix is calculated, we apply it to the simulated first normal draws to transform them in draws of the random effects and use them to calculate the likelihood. This process is repeated until convergence.

The simulated likelihood estimator is consistent and asymptotically equivalent to the likelihood estimator (Gouriéroux and Monfort, 1993) if the number of draws tend to infinity faster than  $\sqrt{N}$ .

### 2.3 GHQ or MSL : what method to choose ?

As described above, they are two major methods to estimate our likelihood function. To choose which method to implement, we deal with the accuracy and the computing time requirement. For our estimations, we choose the adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature proposed by Liu and Pierce (1994) for three main reasons.

- Our dataset is an unbalanced panel data with 10,311 individuals observed in mean over 26 years, that leads 272,465 observations. Due to the fact that the simulated likelihood method requires that the number of draw  $D$  be larger than the square of the number of observations, we do not use it to avoid waste of time in computing process.
- The Gauss-Hermite quadrature requires that we find the best number of quadrature  $Q$  that is the one for whom the integrand can be well approximated by an  $2Q + 1$  order polynomial. If  $Q$  is small, that reduces computing time. For our estimations, that are achieved in general for  $Q$  between 8 and 14. It means that at each iteration, for the likelihood value calculation, we do a weighted sum of between  $8^2 = 64$  and  $14^2 = 196$  terms.
- Using the Gauss-Hermite quadrature method reduces computing time but this computing time remains very long if the integrand is not sampled at the suitable range (meaning that the adaptative method has not been used). And in this case, the maximization process spends between two and three weeks before achieve convergence on an Intel Core i7 computer at 3.4 GHz with 8 GB of RAM memory. By applying the adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature, the computing time is significatively reduced and then, we spend between two and three days for achieving convergence on the same computer.

## 3 Chosen method requirements

In this section we describe some requirements of the selected method that is the adaptative Gauss-Hermite Quadrature. The first one is the fact that the adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature requires to derive the hessian of the log of the integrand (Liu and Pierce, 1994). The second

one is that we derive the gradient of the overall likelihood function in order to use Stata's d1 method (see Gould et alii, 2010) for more accuracy and more speed in the calculations.

### 3.1 Gradient vector calculation

The gradient of the overall log-likelihood function has been calculated to speed up the maximization process. This will allow us to use the Stata's d1 method that requires the implementation of the gradient vector in addition to the overall log-likelihood.

Using the Liu and Pierce adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature method, the overall likelihood function is given by (we use the same notation that those used in section 2) :

$$L_i = \sum_{k=1, j=1}^Q w_k^* w_j^* \Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \prod_{t=2}^{T_i} \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \phi(\eta_i, \Sigma_\eta) \Big|_{\eta_i^1 = x_k^*, \eta_i^2 = x_j^*} \quad (12)$$

To get the gradient vector, the log-likelihood above must be derive with respect to 13 parameters that are :  $\bar{\beta}_1 = (\beta_1, \delta_{11}, \delta_{12})'$  ,  $\bar{\beta}_2 = (\beta_2, \delta_{21}, \delta_{22})'$  ,  $\gamma_1$ ,  $\gamma_2$ ,  $\lambda_{11}$ ,  $\lambda_{12}$ ,  $\lambda_{21}$ ,  $\lambda_{22}$ ,  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$ ,  $\rho_\eta$ ,  $\rho_\zeta$ , and  $\rho_\epsilon$ . Let's  $l_{kj}$  denote :

$$l_{kj} = \Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \prod_{t=2}^{T_i} \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \phi(\eta_i, \Sigma_\eta) \Big|_{\eta_i^1 = x_k^*, \eta_i^2 = x_j^*}$$

Then the first order derivatives with respect to each  $\alpha$  of the 13 parameters is given by :

$$\frac{\partial \log(L_i)}{\partial \alpha} = \sum_{k=1, j=1}^Q \frac{\partial l_{kj} / \partial \alpha}{L_i}$$

With respect to  $\bar{\beta}_1$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \bar{\beta}_1} = l_{kj} \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \frac{q_{it}^1 \phi(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it} - q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta \bar{h}_{it}}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\zeta^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}$$

With respect to  $\bar{\beta}_2$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \bar{\beta}_2} = l_{kj} \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \frac{q_{it}^2 \phi(q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it} - q_{it}^1 \rho_\zeta \bar{w}_{it}}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\zeta^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}$$

With respect to  $\gamma_1$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \gamma_1} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^1 \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon h_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

With respect to  $\gamma_2$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \gamma_2} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^2 \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - q_{i0}^1 \rho_\epsilon w_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

With respect to  $\lambda_{11}$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \lambda_{11}} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^1 x_k^* \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon h_i^0}{\sqrt{1-\rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

With respect to  $\lambda_{12}$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \lambda_{12}} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^1 x_j^* \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon h_i^0}{\sqrt{1-\rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

With respect to  $\lambda_{21}$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \lambda_{21}} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^2 x_k^* \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - q_{i0}^1 \rho_\epsilon w_i^0}{\sqrt{1-\rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

With respect to  $\lambda_{22}$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \lambda_{22}} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^2 x_j^* \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - q_{i0}^1 \rho_\epsilon w_i^0}{\sqrt{1-\rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

With respect to  $\sigma_1$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \log(\sigma_1)} = l_{kj} * \left( -1 + \frac{(x_k^*/\sigma_1)^2 - \rho_\eta x_k^* x_j^*/(\sigma_1 \sigma_2)}{1 - \rho_\eta^2} \right)$$

With respect to  $\sigma_2$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \log(\sigma_2)} = l_{kj} * \left( -1 + \frac{(x_j^*/\sigma_2)^2 - \rho_\eta x_k^* x_j^*/(\sigma_1 \sigma_2)}{1 - \rho_\eta^2} \right)$$

With respect to  $\rho_\eta$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \log\left(\frac{1+\rho_\eta}{1-\rho_\eta}\right)^{1/2}} = l_{kj} * \left( \rho_\eta - \frac{\rho_\eta((x_k^*/\sigma_1)^2 + (x_j^*/\sigma_2)^2) - (1 + \rho_\eta^2)x_k^* x_j^*/(\sigma_1 \sigma_2)}{1 - \rho_\eta^2} \right)$$

With respect to  $\rho_\zeta$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \log\left(\frac{1+\rho_\zeta}{1-\rho_\zeta}\right)^{1/2}} = l_{kj} \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \frac{q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \phi(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}$$

With respect to  $\rho_\epsilon$  the first order derivative is :

$$\frac{\partial l_{kj}}{\partial \log\left(\frac{1+\rho_\epsilon}{1-\rho_\epsilon}\right)^{1/2}} = l_{kj} \frac{q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}$$

**Remarks :**

- For  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \rho_\eta, \rho_\zeta$ , and  $\rho_\epsilon$ , we used some transformations on parameters to insure that in the maximization process, all  $\sigma$  remain positive and all  $\rho$  between  $-1$  and  $1$  at all iteration. For  $\sigma$  we use exponential transformation then in the derivation, we derive with respect to  $\log(\sigma)$ . For  $\rho$  we use arctangency transformation (i.e.  $\frac{\exp(2\rho)-1}{\exp(2\rho)+1}$ ) then in the derivation, we derive with respect to  $\log\left(\frac{1+\rho}{1-\rho}\right)^{1/2}$ .
- To easily derive a bivariate normal probability with zero mean, variance one and correlation  $\rho$ , we can transform it into an integral that integrand is a product of an univariate normal density and an univariate normal probability as follows :

$$\Phi_2(x, y, \rho) = \int_{-\infty}^y \phi(v) \Phi\left(\frac{x - \rho v}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}\right) dv = \int_{-\infty}^x \phi(u) \Phi\left(\frac{y - \rho u}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}\right) du.$$

- Given the transformation above, the first order derivatives of  $\Phi_2(x, y, \rho)$  with respect to  $x$  and  $y$  are respectively given by :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \Phi_2(x, y, \rho)}{\partial x} &= \phi(x) \Phi\left(\frac{y - \rho x}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}\right) \\ \frac{\partial \Phi_2(x, y, \rho)}{\partial y} &= \phi(y) \Phi\left(\frac{x - \rho y}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

### 3.2 Hessian matrix calculation

For the requirement of the adaptative Gauss-Hermite quadrature method, we need to derive the Hessian matrix of the log of the integrand function with respect to the random effects vector. In this section,  $\phi(x)$  denotes the univariate normal density function,  $\phi(x, y, \rho)$  denote the bivariate normal density with correlation  $\rho$ ,  $\Phi_1(x)$  denote the univariate normal probability function, and  $\Phi_2(x, y, \rho)$  denote the bivariate normal probability function with correlation  $\rho$ .

The individual likelihood function is defined as follows :

$$L_i = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \prod_{t=2}^{T_i} \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \phi(\eta_i, \Sigma_\eta) d\eta_i^1 d\eta_i^2 \quad (13)$$

Where

$$\begin{aligned} q_{it}^1 &= 2y_{it}^1 - 1 \quad \forall i, t \\ q_{it}^2 &= 2y_{it}^2 - 1 \quad \forall i, t \\ h_i^0 &= Z_i^1 \gamma_1 + \lambda_{11} \eta_i^1 + \lambda_{12} \eta_i^2 \\ w_i^0 &= Z_i^2 \gamma_2 + \lambda_{21} \eta_i^1 + \lambda_{22} \eta_i^2 \\ \bar{h}_{it} &= X_{it}^1 \beta_1 + \delta_{11} h_{i,t-1} + \delta_{12} w_{i,t-1} + \eta_i^1 \\ \bar{w}_{it} &= X_{it}^2 \beta_2 + \delta_{21} h_{i,t-1} + \delta_{22} w_{i,t-1} + \eta_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

where the log of the integrand is

$\log(g(\eta_i^1, \eta_i^2)) = \log\left(\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \prod_{t=2}^{T_i} \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) g(\eta_i, \Sigma_\eta)\right)$ . We derive from this function the Hessian matrix by calculating  $-\frac{\delta^2}{\delta(\eta_i^1)^2} \log(g(\eta_i^1, \eta_i^2))$ ,  $-\frac{\delta^2}{\delta(\eta_i^2)^2} \log(g(\eta_i^1, \eta_i^2))$  and  $-\frac{\delta^2}{\delta\eta_i^1 \delta\eta_i^2} \log(g(\eta_i^1, \eta_i^2))$ .

The first order derivatives are given by :

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_i} \log(g) = -\frac{\Phi'_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} - \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \frac{\Phi'_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} + \frac{\eta_i^1 / \sigma_1^2 - \rho \eta_i^2 / (\sigma_1 \sigma_2)}{1 - \rho_\eta^2}$$

With respect to  $\eta_i^1$  we have :

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi'_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) &= q_{i0}^1 \lambda_{11} \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon h_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\ &\quad + q_{i0}^2 \lambda_{21} \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - q_{i0}^1 \rho_\epsilon w_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\ \Phi'_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) &= q_{it}^1 \phi(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it} - q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta \bar{h}_{it}}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\zeta^2}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

And with respect to  $\eta_i^2$  we have :

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) &= q_{i0}^1 \lambda_{12} \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon h_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\ &\quad + q_{i0}^2 \lambda_{22} \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - q_{i0}^1 \rho_\epsilon w_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\ \Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) &= \phi(q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it} - q_{it}^1 \rho_\zeta \bar{w}_{it}}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\zeta^2}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

The second order derivatives are given by :

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial(\eta_i^1)^2} \log(g) &= -\frac{\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} \\ &\quad + \frac{\Phi'^2_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} \\ &\quad - \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \left( \frac{\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{\Phi'^2_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2 (1 - \rho_\eta^2)} \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial(\eta_i^2)^2} \log(g) &= -\frac{\Phi''_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} \\
&\quad + \frac{\Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} \\
&\quad - \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \left( \frac{\Phi''_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{\Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2(1 - \rho_\eta^2)}
\end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\eta_i^1 \delta\eta_i^2} \log(g) &= -\frac{\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1 \eta_i^2}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \Phi_2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} \\
&\quad + \frac{\Phi'_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon)} \\
&\quad - \sum_{t=2}^{T_i} \left( \frac{\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1 \eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \Phi_2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \frac{\Phi'_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)}{\Phi_2^2(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)} \right) - \frac{\rho_\eta}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2 (1 - \rho_\eta^2)}
\end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

Where

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) &= -\bar{h}_{it} \Phi'_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) - \rho_\zeta \phi_{\eta_i^1}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \\
\Phi''_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) &= -\bar{w}_{it} \Phi'_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) - \rho_\zeta \phi_{\eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) \\
\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1 \eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta) &= q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta \phi_{\eta_i^1 \eta_i^2}(q_{it}^1 \bar{h}_{it}, q_{it}^2 \bar{w}_{it}, q_{it}^1 q_{it}^2 \rho_\zeta)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) &= (2\lambda_{11}\lambda_{21} - \rho_\epsilon(\lambda_{11}^2 + \lambda_{21}^2))\phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \\
&\quad - \lambda_{11}^2 h_i^0 \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - \rho_\epsilon q_{i0}^2 h_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\
&\quad - \lambda_{21}^2 w_i^0 \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - \rho_\epsilon q_{i0}^1 w_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi''_{2\eta_i^2}(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) &= (2\lambda_{12}\lambda_{22} - \rho_\epsilon(\lambda_{12}^2 + \lambda_{22}^2))\phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0, q_{i0}^2 w_i^0, q_{i0}^1 q_{i0}^2 \rho_\epsilon) \\
&\quad - \lambda_{12}^2 h_i^0 \phi(q_{i0}^1 h_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2 w_i^0 - \rho_\epsilon q_{i0}^2 h_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\
&\quad - \lambda_{22}^2 w_i^0 \phi(q_{i0}^2 w_i^0) \Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1 h_i^0 - \rho_\epsilon q_{i0}^1 w_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi''_{2\eta_i^1\eta_i^1}(q_{i0}^1h_i^0, q_{i0}^2w_i^0, q_{i0}^1q_{i0}^2\rho_\epsilon) &= q_{i0}^1q_{i0}^2(\lambda_{11}\lambda_{22} + \lambda_{12}\lambda_{21} - \rho_\epsilon(\lambda_{11}\lambda_{12} + \lambda_{21}\lambda_{22})) * \\
&\phi_2(q_{i0}^1h_i^0, q_{i0}^2w_i^0, q_{i0}^1q_{i0}^2\rho_\epsilon) - \lambda_{11}\lambda_{12}h_i^0\phi(q_{i0}^1h_i^0)\Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^2w_i^0 - \rho_\epsilon q_{i0}^2h_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right) \\
&- \lambda_{21}\lambda_{22}w_i^0\phi(q_{i0}^2w_i^0)\Phi_1\left(\frac{q_{i0}^1h_i^0 - \rho_\epsilon q_{i0}^1w_i^0}{\sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2}}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Then, the Hessian matrix is given by :

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\delta^2}{\delta(\eta_i^1)^2}\log(g) & -\frac{\delta^2}{\delta\eta_i^1\delta\eta_i^2}\log(g) \\ -\frac{\delta^2}{\delta\eta_i^1\delta\eta_i^2}\log(g) & -\frac{\delta^2}{\delta(\eta_i^2)^2}\log(g) \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)$$

As described in section 2.1, after having derived this Hessian matrix, we calculate its value at the mode of the integrand and use it to resample the integrand.

## 4 Robustness analysis based on simulations

This section aims to insure that the implemented method gives suitable results. We consider that the implemented method give us suitable results if for a given relationship between variables, by applying the estimation method on these variables we find approximatively the same coefficients. To reach this goal, we perform a robustness analysis on the estimation method. This robustness analysis is an empirical one based on simulations. We use two different approaches for that.

The first approach is to simulate bivariate binary variables by specifying a relationship between some explanatory variables (it means that we fix coefficients of explanatory variables) and estimate this relationship with the implemented method in order to compare the results with the relationship specified before. In the second approach, we introduce new variables (that were not used in the data generating process) when estimating the relationship with the implemented method and compare the new results with the first ones. The implemented method is robust when it is able to correctly estimate the relationship specified even if we introduce other variables and also to estimate non significant coefficients to those other variables. Finally, the method we make use of to check for the robustness is the same that in Miranda (2011).

As the estimation method implemented is a numerical approximation method, the results will depend on the selected number of quadrature points. We deal with the incidence of number of quadrature points on results in the last part of this section. For a better analysis of the results we also add the standard errors of each estimated coefficients.

### 4.1 Simulated relationship between real variables

In this section, we use variables from the French SIP (Santé et Itinéraire Professionnel) survey data set and we simulate error terms and a relationship between some selected variables. The subset of the database use for this section is an unbalanced panel of 1202 individuals with total

waves per individual between 5 and 10 waves.

We fix the error terms parameters as  $\sigma_1 = 2.1$ ,  $\sigma_2 = 3.1$ ,  $\rho_\eta = 0.7$ ,  $\rho_\zeta = 0.5$  and  $\rho_\epsilon = 0.4$ .

We simulate idiosyncratic errors vectors  $\zeta = (\zeta_1, \zeta_2)'$  and  $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)'$  as bivariate normal variables with zero mean, variance equal to 1 and covariances respectively equal to  $\rho_\zeta$  and  $\rho_\epsilon$ . We also simulate individual random effects as bivariate normal variables with zero mean, covariance equals to  $\rho_\eta$  and variance equals to  $\sigma_1^2$  for the first component of the random effects vector and equals to  $\sigma_2^2$  for the second component of the random effects vector. It has been done as follows :

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_1 &= rnormal() \\ \epsilon_2 &= rnormal() * \sqrt{1 - \rho_\epsilon^2} + \rho_\epsilon \epsilon_1 \\ \zeta_1 &= rnormal() \\ \zeta_2 &= rnormal() * \sqrt{1 - \rho_\zeta^2} + \rho_\zeta \zeta_1\end{aligned}$$

As individuals effects are time invariant, we simulate  $\eta$  as follows :

$$\begin{aligned}\eta_1 &= rnormal(0, \sigma_1) \text{ if } date = 1 \\ \eta_2 &= rnormal(0, \sigma_2) * \sqrt{1 - \rho_\eta^2} + \rho_\eta \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \eta_1 \text{ if } date = 1 \\ \eta_1 &= \eta_1[1] \text{ if } date \neq 1 \\ \eta_2 &= \eta_2[1] \text{ if } date \neq 1\end{aligned}$$

Where  $rnormal(\mu, \sigma)$  denote the random normal density with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  and  $rnormal()$  denote the random normal density with mean zero and standard deviation 1.

For the initial condition, the simulated relationship is :

$$\begin{aligned}y_1^* &= -0.2 + 0.3illness - 0.2unemployment + 0.4\eta_1 - 0.5\eta_2 + \epsilon_1 \\ y_2^* &= 2 - 0.2illness - 0.08age + 0.3\eta_1 + 0.5\eta_2 + \epsilon_2 \\ y_1 &= \mathbb{I}(y_1^* > 0) \\ y_2 &= \mathbb{I}(y_2^* > 0)\end{aligned}$$

For  $t > 1$ , we specify the following relationship :

$$\begin{aligned}y_{1t}^* &= 1.9 + 0.3y_{1,t-1} + 0.1y_{2,t-1} - 0.05Male_t - 0.2unemployment_t + \eta_1 + \zeta_{1t} \\ y_{2t}^* &= -0.4 - 0.1y_{1,t-1} + 0.4y_{2,t-1} + 0.05Male_t - 0.5density_t + \eta_2 + \zeta_{2t} \\ y_{1t} &= \mathbb{I}(y_{1t}^* > 0) \\ y_{2t} &= \mathbb{I}(y_{2t}^* > 0)\end{aligned}$$

Estimation results for 16 quadrature points are displayed in table 1. For all equations, we give the coefficients that are used in the DGP and those that are estimated by our program. As we can see, all the coefficients from the DGP are very close from the estimates ones.



Table 1: Simulated data set estimation's results

	<i>Equation 1</i>		<i>Equation 2</i>	
	<i>DGP</i>	<i>Estimated coef.</i>	<i>DGP</i>	<i>Estimated coef.</i>
	(1)	(2)	(1')	(2')
<i>Dynamic Equation</i>				
$y_{1-1}$	0.3	0.2195*** (0.05)	-0.1	-0.0051 (0.0567)
$y_{2-1}$	0.1	0.1267** (0.0513)	0.4	0.4926*** (0.061)
<i>Gender = Male</i>	-0.05	-0.0554 (0.0521)	0.05	0.073 (0.0594)
<i>Medical density</i>	—	—	0.5	0.5687 (1.1111)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	-0.2	-0.1682*** (0.0269)	—	—
<i>Intercept</i>	1.9	2.3113*** (0.2667)	-0.4	-0.4677 (2.122)
<i>Initial Conditions</i>				
<i>Illness before prof. life</i>	0.3	0.3032*** (0.0283)	-0.2	-0.1624*** (0.0221)
<i>Age</i>	—	—	-0.08	-0.093*** (0.0202)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	-0.2	-0.144** (0.057)	—	—
<i>Intercept</i>	-0.2	-0.7331 (0.6194)	2	2.6757*** (0.4591)
$\lambda_1$	0.4	0.2581*** (0.0651)	0.3	0.2660*** (0.0463)
$\lambda_2$	-0.5	-0.5168*** (0.0753)	0.5	0.7022*** (0.0598)
<i>Covariance matrix structure</i>				
	<i>DGP</i>		<i>Estimated coef.</i>	
	(4)		(5)	
$\sigma_1$	2.1		2.4399*** (0.1034)	
$\sigma_2$	3.1		2.7649*** (0.1365)	
$\rho_\eta$	0.7		0.7188*** (0.0212)	
$\rho_\zeta$	0.5		0.5290*** (0.0419)	
$\rho_\epsilon$	0.4		0.6972*** (0.1378)	

Estimated standard deviations for estimated coefficients are given within parenthesis.

\*\*\*: significant at the 1% level.

\*\* : significant at the 5% level.

## 4.2 Simulated relationship with additional variables

In this section, we keep the same DGP than in section 4.1 and we add other variables in the model that we estimate in order to evaluate the robustness of the estimation method by the fact that all estimated coefficients for variables in the DGP should remain the same and the added variables coefficients should not be significant. We introduce two variables *rural* and *nationality (not French)* in the dynamic equations of the regression.

Results are in table 2. Columns 1 and 2 in table 2 are the same than corresponding columns in table 1. We provide in table 2, column 3, the new results with the additional variables in order to compare with previous estimates<sup>2</sup>. As we can see in the table 2, the coefficients estimated (using again 16 quadrature points) for those variables are not significant and all initial coefficients in the model remain sensibly the same.

## 4.3 Impact of number of quadrature points on estimated results

As the accuracy of the method depends on the number of quadrature points used for the likelihood calculation, we can try to see how it affects the results when this number increases. For doing so, we fit the same model with different numbers of quadrature points and we calculate the relative difference in log-likelihood and in estimated parameters.

We fit some models by using the same simulated relationship between variables as in section 4.1.

The results are displayed in the table 3 for dynamic equations and in the table 4 for initial conditions equations and errors terms covariance matrix structure.

As we can see from tables 3 and 4, by increasing the number of quadrature points the changes in results decline and the relative differences are around 0.01% for significant coefficients and 0.1% or at most 1% for non significant coefficients. After 16 quadrature points, the relative differences in log-likelihood and in estimated coefficients become fewer as we increase the number of quadrature points. The estimations with 22 quadrature points are closer to those with 24 quadrature points than the others. So when we increase the number of quadrature points the changes in estimated coefficients are not significant but the computing time grows up exponentially. For these models, estimation time on an i5 core computer at 2.5 GHz with 6 GB of RAM memory for the different number of quadrature points are given in table 5.

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<sup>2</sup>We do the same with columns 1', 2' of tables 1 and 2 (new results are in column 3') and with columns 4 and 5 of both tables (new results in column 6).

Table 2: Simulated data set with added variables estimation's results

	<i>Equation 1</i>			<i>Equation 2</i>		
	<i>DGP</i>	<i>coef.</i>	<i>coef.</i>	<i>DGP</i>	<i>coef.</i>	<i>coef.</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1')	(2')	(3')
<i>Dynamic Equation</i>						
$y1_{-1}$	0.3	0.2195*** (0.05)	0.2184*** (0.05)	-0.1	-0.0051 (0.0567)	-0.0052 (0.0568)
$y2_{-1}$	0.1	0.1267** (0.0513)	0.1283** (0.0513)	0.4	0.4926*** (0.061)	0.4944*** (0.0612)
<i>Gender = Male</i>	-0.05	-0.0554 (0.0521)	-0.0571 (0.0521)	0.05	0.073 (0.0594)	0.0751 (0.0596)
<i>Medical density</i>	-	-	-	0.5	0.5687 (1.1111)	0.5567 (1.1112)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	-0.2	-0.1682*** (0.0269)	-0.1698*** (0.0269)	-	-	-
<i>Not French</i>	-	-	0.1246 (0.0956)	-	-	0.0015 (0.1076)
<i>rural</i>	-	-	0.0743 (0.0628)	-	-	0.0283 (0.0719)
<i>Intercept</i>	1.9	2.3113*** (0.2667)	2.2994*** (0.2667)	-0.4	-0.4677 (2.122)	-0.4527 (2.1215)
<i>Initial Conditions</i>						
<i>Illness before prof. life</i>	0.3	0.3032*** (0.0283)	0.3032*** (0.0283)	-0.2	-0.1624*** (0.0221)	-0.1627*** (0.0221)
<i>Age</i>	-	-	-	-0.08	-0.093*** (0.0202)	-0.0932*** (0.0202)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	-0.2	-0.144** (0.057)	-0.144** (0.057)	-	-	-
<i>Intercept</i>	-0.2	-0.7331 (0.6194)	-0.7335 (0.6195)	2	2.6757*** (0.4591)	2.6803*** (0.4595)
$\lambda_1$	0.4	0.2581*** (0.0651)	0.2582*** (0.0653)	0.3	0.266*** (0.0463)	0.267*** (0.0464)
$\lambda_2$	-0.5	-0.5168*** (0.0753)	-0.5171*** (0.0754)	0.5	0.7022*** (0.0598)	0.703*** (0.0599)
<i>Covariance matrix structure</i>						
	<i>DGP</i>	<i>Estimated coef.</i>	<i>Estimated coef.</i>			
	(4)	(5)	(6)			
$\sigma_1$	2.1	2.4399*** (0.1034)	2.4353*** (0.1032)			
$\sigma_2$	3.1	2.7649*** (0.1365)	2.763*** (0.1366)			
$\rho_\eta$	0.7	0.7188*** (0.0212)	0.7187*** (0.0212)			
$\rho_\zeta$	0.5	0.529*** (0.0419)	0.5301*** (0.0419)			
$\rho_\epsilon$	0.4	0.6972*** (0.1379)	0.697*** (0.1378)			

Estimated standard deviations for estimated coefficients are given within parenthesis.

\*\*\*: significant at the 1% level.

\*\* : significant at the 5% level.

Table 3: Impact of the number of quadrature points on estimation results. Part A

	<i>DGP</i>	$Q = 10$	$Q = 16$	$Q = 22$	$Q = 24$
<i>Log – likelihood</i>		–8212.05	–8211.26	–8301.71	–8301.24
<i>y1</i>	Dynamic equation				
$y1_{-1}$	0.3	0.2754*** (0.0489)	0.2195*** (0.05)	0.2206*** (0.052)	0.2131*** (0.0527)
$y2_{-1}$	0.1	0.1376*** (0.0483)	0.1267** (0.0513)	0.1196** (0.0554)	0.1010* (0.0568)
<i>Gender = Male</i>	–0.05	–0.0580 (0.0479)	–0.0554 (0.0521)	–0.0732 (0.058)	–0.0599 (0.0604)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	–0.2	–0.1509*** (0.0262)	–0.1682*** (0.0269)	–0.1792*** (0.0273)	–0.1810*** (0.0275)
<i>Intercept</i>	1.9	2.3270*** (0.2598)	2.3113*** (0.2667)	2.3089*** (0.2726)	2.30*** (0.2753)
<i>y2</i>	Dynamic equation				
$y1_{-1}$	–0.1	0.0224 (0.0541)	–0.0051 (0.0567)	–0.0136 (0.0594)	–0.0191 (0.0605)
$y2_{-1}$	0.4	0.5851*** (0.0596)	0.4926*** (0.0610)	0.4846*** (0.0642)	0.4752*** (0.0650)
<i>Gender = Male</i>	0.05	0.0570 (0.0542)	0.0730 (0.0594)	0.0817 (0.0650)	0.0725 (0.0673)
<i>Medical density</i>	0.5	1.3305 (1.0685)	0.5687 (1.1111)	0.4874 (1.1357)	0.3549 (1.1473)
<i>Intercept</i>	–0.4	–1.7595 (2.040)	–0.4677 (2.1220)	–0.4064 (2.1704)	–0.1492 (2.1936)

Estimated standard deviations for estimated coefficients are given within parenthesis.

\*\*\*: significant at the 1% level.

\*\*: significant at the 5% level.

Table 4: Impact of the number of quadrature points on estimation results. Part B

	<i>DGP</i>	$Q = 10$	$Q = 16$	$Q = 22$	$Q = 24$
$y_1$	Initial conditions				
<i>Illness before prof. life</i>	0.3	0.3005*** (0.0278)	0.3032*** (0.0283)	0.3022*** (0.0282)	0.3026*** (0.0284)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	-0.2	-0.1592*** (0.0573)	-0.1440** (0.0570)	-0.1437** (0.0571)	-0.1431** (0.0572)
<i>Intercept</i>	-0.2	-0.6120 (0.6197)	-0.7331 (0.6194)	-0.7065 (0.6187)	-0.7153 (0.6188)
$\lambda_{11}$	0.4	0.2608*** (0.0644)	0.2581*** (0.0651)	0.2584*** (0.0658)	0.2628*** (0.0664)
$\lambda_{12}$	-0.5	-0.5076*** (0.0723)	-0.5168*** (0.0753)	-0.5051*** (0.0744)	-0.5019*** (0.0741)
$y_2$	Initial conditions				
<i>Age</i>	-0.08	-0.0859*** (0.0196)	-0.0930*** (0.0202)	-0.0929*** (0.0205)	-0.0943*** (0.0207)
<i>Illness before prof. life</i>	-0.2	-0.1593*** (0.0221)	-0.1624*** (0.0221)	-0.1648*** (0.0225)	-0.1650*** (0.0226)
<i>Intercept</i>	2	2.7329*** (0.4483)	2.6757*** (0.4591)	2.5788*** (0.4644)	2.5904*** (0.4676)
$\lambda_{21}$	0.3	0.2689*** (0.0467)	0.2660*** (0.0463)	0.2691*** (0.0474)	0.2679*** (0.0475)
$\lambda_{22}$	0.5	0.7136*** (0.0607)	0.7022*** (0.0598)	0.7008*** (0.0625)	0.6932*** (0.0626)
	Covariance matrix structure				
$\sigma_1$	2.1	2.5202*** (0.1053)	2.4399*** (0.1034)	2.3920*** (0.1047)	2.3898*** (0.1051)
$\sigma_2$	3.1	2.7012*** (0.1307)	2.7649*** (0.1365)	2.7928*** (0.1444)	2.8281*** (0.1468)
$\rho_\eta$	0.7	0.7380*** (0.0206)	0.7188*** (0.0212)	0.7143*** (0.0219)	0.7162*** (0.0219)
$\rho_\zeta$	0.5	0.5451*** (0.0411)	0.5290*** (0.0419)	0.5225*** (0.0423)	0.5145*** (0.0424)
$\rho_\epsilon$	0.4	0.6550*** (0.1394)	0.6972*** (0.1378)	0.6996*** (0.1381)	0.6944*** (0.1371)

Estimated standard deviations for estimated coefficients are given within parenthesis.

\*\*\*: significant at the 1% level.

\*\* : significant at the 5% level.

\* : significant at the 10% level.

Table 5: Computing time for different number of quadrature points

<i>Quad. points</i>	10	16	22	24
<i>Comp. time (in min.)</i>	83	190	450	480

## Conclusion

This paper describes the bivariate dynamic probit model with endogenous initial condition starting by justifying the econometric specification of the model, giving the estimation method and its requirements and ending by presenting a robustness analysis. We calculate derivatives of the log-likelihood function with respect to the 13 parameters in the model. For the use of the adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature, we also calculate the hessian matrix with respect to individual random effects vector.

The implementation has been done using Stata software. We wrote 2 ado-files for this purpose. We use Stata's d1 method for the maximization process. For the use of this method, we implement the gradient vector for the 13 parameters and we also implement the hessian matrix with respect the random effects vector in order to use the adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature. We also wrote two others ado-files for the estimation of the bivariate probit for panel data and the bivariate dynamic probit without initial condition for panel data. These ado-files are written using the same method (Stata's d1 method) with the adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature.

Due to the fact that the integration is bi-dimensional, estimation time is very long and still increasing when the quadrature point or the number of observation or the number of variable increase. For an estimated model, one should insure that when increasing the number of quadrature point, the computed results don't change significantly before using them. It means that the relative difference in the results must be around 0.1% or fewer, and if so, we can conclude that the results remain stable when increasing the number of quadrature points. And it means that there is no need to increase the number of quadrature points that will increase computing time but will not improve significantly the results.

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