### TA Session for Econometrics II 2025

2: Maximum likelihood Estimation

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## Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- A method to estimate parameters by choosing the distribution that makes the observed data most "likely".
- Treats the likelihood of the data as a function of the parameters and finds the values that maximise it.
- One of the most widely used estimation techniques in statistics and econometrics.

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### Definition of the MLE

### Definition

The maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  is

$$\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} L(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

- Choose the parameter value that maximises the likelihood.
- In practice, solve

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\ell(\theta) = 0$$

to obtain the estimator.

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### Intuition of MI F

- Normally: parameters are fixed, data are random variables.
- In Maximum Likelihood Estimation:
  - The observed data are treated as fixed.
  - The parameter(s) are regarded as variables.
- The likelihood measures how plausible the data are under different parameter values.
- The MLE is the parameter value that maximises this likelihood.

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### The Likelihood Function

 The probability (density or mass) function considered as a function of the parameter:

$$L(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i \mid \theta)$$

- Data  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  are fixed; the parameter  $\theta$  varies.
- For convenience, we often use the log-likelihood:

$$\ell(\theta) = \log L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(x_i \mid \theta)$$

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## Example: Bernoulli Distribution

- Independent trials with success probability p.
- Likelihood function:

$$L(p) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}$$

• Log-likelihood:

$$\ell(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( x_i \log p + (1 - x_i) \log(1 - p) \right)$$

Maximisation yields

$$\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

(the sample mean).

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## Normal Distribution Example

- Suppose  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
- The likelihood is

$$L(\mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

• Here the  $x_i$  are fixed observed values; we vary  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  to see where L is largest.

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MLE

### Result of the Maximisation

Solving the maximisation problem gives

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i, \qquad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2.$$

- Interpretation:
  - The MLE chooses the parameters that make the observed data most plausible.
  - For the Normal distribution, these turn out to be the sample mean and the (biased) sample variance.

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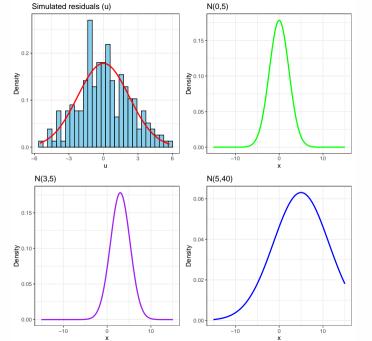
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Maximum Likelihood Estimation

### Likelihood Function

Assume random variables,  $X_1, \ldots, X_N$ , are mutually independent and identically distributed (i.e. Gaussian distribution).

We denote the probability density function of  $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^N$  as  $f(x;\theta)$ , where  $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_N)$  and  $\theta$  is a parameter vector.

The likelihood function is defined as:

$$L(\theta; x) := f(x; \theta),$$

where

$$f(x;\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i;\theta)$$

when the random variables are i.i.d.

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The likelihood function is a joint distribution function. Therefore, it is generally non-linear.

To simplify the calculation, we take its logarithm.

Let  $\ell(\theta;x) := \log(L(\theta;x))$ . Then we have the following equivalence:

$$\max_{\theta} L(\theta;x) \iff \max_{\theta} \ell(\theta;x).$$

ML estimator must satisfy the following two conditions:

- 2 The Hessian,  $\partial_{\theta\theta^{\top}}^2 \ell(\hat{\theta}; X)$ , is a negative definite matrix.

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### Fisher Information Matrix

For a parameter vector  $\theta$ , the **Fisher information matrix** is defined as:

$$I(\theta) := \mathbb{E} \big[ - \, \partial^2_{\theta \theta^\top} \ell(\theta; X) \big] \,,$$

where  $\ell(\theta; X)$  is the log-likelihood function.

Intuitively,  $I(\theta)$  measures the amount of information that the observed data X contain about the parameter  $\theta$ .

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Fisher Information Matrix

## Derivation (1)

### **Derivation:**

Assume the domain of x does not depend on  $\theta$  and that the first derivative of the likelihood function exists.

Since the likelihood is a probability distribution in x for fixed  $\theta$ , we have:

$$\int L(\theta; x) \, dx = 1.$$

Differentiating with respect to  $\theta$ , we obtain:

$$\int \partial_{\theta} L(\theta; x) \, dx = 0.$$

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## Derivation (2)

Using

$$\frac{\partial \log X}{\partial X} = \frac{1}{X},$$

we obtain:

$$\int (\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x)) L(\theta; x) dx = 0.$$

This is equivalent to:

$$\mathbb{E}[\partial_{\theta}\ell(\theta;x)] = 0.$$

This follows from the fact that the likelihood function is a probability distribution in x and from the definition of expectation.

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Differentiating the above equation with respect to  $\theta$  again, we obtain:

$$0 = \partial_{\theta^{\top}} \int (\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x)) L(\theta; x) dx$$

$$= \int (\partial_{\theta\theta^{\top}}^{2} \ell(\theta; x)) L(\theta; x) dx + \int (\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x)) (\partial_{\theta^{\top}} L(\theta; x)) dx$$

$$= \int (\partial_{\theta\theta^{\top}}^{2} \ell(\theta; x)) L(\theta; x) dx + \int (\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x)) (\partial_{\theta^{\top}} \ell(\theta; x)) L(\theta; x) dx$$

$$= \mathbb{E} \left[ \partial_{\theta\theta^{\top}}^{2} \ell(\theta; x) \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[ \partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x) \partial_{\theta^{\top}} \ell(\theta; x) \right].$$

Recalling the definition of the variance,  $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]$ , we obtain:

$$-\mathbb{E}\left[\partial_{\theta\theta^{\top}}^{2}\ell(\theta;x)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\partial_{\theta}\ell(\theta;x)\,\partial_{\theta^{\top}}\ell(\theta;x)\right] = \operatorname{Var}(\partial_{\theta}\ell(\theta;x)).$$

### Remark on the Parameter $\theta$

- The parameter  $\theta$  is **not** a random variable. It represents a fixed but unknown constant (the true value of the parameter).
- The randomness lies in the data X, which are treated as random variables.
- Consequently, the expectation in the Fisher information matrix

$$I(\theta) = \mathbb{E} \big[ -\partial_{\theta\theta}^2 \ell(\theta; X) \big]$$

is taken with respect to the distribution of X, **not** over  $\theta$ .

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## Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality (Scalar Case)

For any two random variables X and Y, the **Cauchy–Schwarz inequality** states that:

$$|Cov(X,Y)|^2 \le Var(X) Var(Y).$$

Equivalently, using expectations:

$$|\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])]|^2 \le \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \,\mathbb{E}[(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])^2].$$

**Interpretation:** The absolute value of the covariance between two random variables cannot exceed the product of their standard deviations.

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## Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality (Vector Case)

For two vectors  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the inequality states:

$$|a^{\top}b|^2 \le (a^{\top}a)(b^{\top}b).$$

**Interpretation:** The absolute value of the inner product of two vectors is bounded by the product of their lengths (Euclidean norms).

In terms of random vectors  $X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^p$ :

$$\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)\operatorname{Var}(Y)^{-1}\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)^{\top} \preceq \operatorname{Var}(X).$$

This is a matrix generalisation used in multivariate Cramér–Rao inequalities.

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Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

## Geometric Interpretation

- Consider vectors a and b in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Let  $\theta$  be the angle between a and b.
- Then  $a^{\top}b = ||a|| \, ||b|| \cos \theta$ .
- Hence,  $|a^{T}b| \leq ||a|| \, ||b||$ , which is exactly the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality.

**Remark:** Equality holds if and only if a and b are linearly dependent.

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## Cramér–Rao Lower Bound (Scalar Case)

Let  $\hat{\theta}$  be an unbiased estimator of the (unknown but fixed) parameter  $\theta$ .

Then its variance satisfies:

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}) \geq \frac{1}{I(\theta)}.$$

**Interpretation:** The bound is evaluated at the true value of  $\theta$  and shows that no unbiased estimator can achieve a variance smaller than the reciprocal of the Fisher information.

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### Derivation (Scalar Case)

Suppose an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  is given by  $s(X) = \hat{\theta}$ .

By definition of unbiasedness:

$$\mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \theta.$$

Writing the expectation as an integral over the likelihood:

$$\mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \int s(x) L(\theta; x) dx.$$

Differentiating with respect to  $\theta$ :

$$\partial_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \int s(x) \, \partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x) \, L(\theta; x) \, dx.$$

Since  $\mathbb{E}[\partial_{\theta}\ell(\theta;X)]=0$ , this can be written as

$$\partial_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \text{Cov}(s(X), \, \partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; X)).$$

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## Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

Assume s(X) is scalar. Using the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality:

$$(\partial_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[s(X)])^{2} = (\operatorname{Cov}(s(X), \partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; X)))^{2}$$

$$\leq \operatorname{Var}(s(X)) \operatorname{Var}(\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; X)).$$

Rearranging:

$$\operatorname{Var}(s(X)) \ge \frac{(\partial_{\theta} \mathbb{E}[s(X)])^2}{\operatorname{Var}(\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; X))} = \frac{1}{\operatorname{Var}(\partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; X))}.$$

Finally, using  $\operatorname{Var}(\partial_{\theta}\ell(\theta;X))=I(\theta)$ , we recover:

$$\operatorname{Var}(s(X)) \ge \frac{1}{I(\theta)}.$$

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### Vector Case

Suppose  $s(X) = \hat{\theta}$  is an unbiased estimator of the p-dimensional parameter vector  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .

By definition of unbiasedness:

$$\mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \theta.$$

Differentiating with respect to  $\theta$ :

$$\partial_{\theta^{\top}} \mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \partial_{\theta^{\top}} \theta = I_p,$$

where  $I_p$  is the  $p \times p$  identity matrix.

Using the score function  $U(\theta) = \partial_{\theta} \ell(\theta; X)$ :

$$\partial_{\theta^{\top}} \mathbb{E}[s(X)] = \operatorname{Cov}(s(X), U(\theta)) \operatorname{Var}(U(\theta))^{-1} \operatorname{Var}(U(\theta)).$$

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## Fisher Information Inequality (Vector Case)

By the matrix version of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$\operatorname{Var}(s(X)) \succeq \operatorname{Cov}(s(X), U(\theta)) \operatorname{Var}(U(\theta))^{-1} \operatorname{Cov}(s(X), U(\theta))^{\top}.$$

Substituting  $Cov(s(X),U(\theta))=I_p$  and  $Var(U(\theta))=I(\theta)$ , we obtain:

$$\operatorname{Var}(s(X)) \succeq I(\theta)^{-1}$$
.

Interpretation: No unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  can have a covariance matrix smaller (in the positive semidefinite sense) than the inverse of the Fisher information matrix.

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## Asymptotic Normality of MLE

Let  $\hat{\theta}_{\mathrm{MLE}}$  be the maximum likelihood estimator of a parameter vector  $\theta$ .

Under regularity conditions, as the sample size  $N \to \infty$ :

$$\sqrt{N} (\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, I(\theta)^{-1}),$$

where  $I(\theta)$  is the Fisher information matrix.

**Interpretation:** The MLE is asymptotically unbiased and its distribution approaches a multivariate normal distribution centred at the true parameter, with covariance given by the inverse Fisher information.

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- The proof relies on Taylor expansion of the score function and the Law of Large Numbers / Central Limit Theorem.
- Practically, it justifies the use of normal-based confidence intervals and Wald tests for large samples:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\operatorname{diag}(I(\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}})^{-1})}.$$

 Detailed derivations are omitted, as they follow directly from standard M-estimator theory. TA Session for Econometrics II 2025

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## Linear Regression with Gaussian Errors

### Consider the linear regression model:

$$y = X\beta + u,$$

### where

- $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the vector of observations,
- $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  is the design matrix,
- $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is the vector of parameters,
- $u \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$  is the error term.

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# Likelihood via Change of Variable

Suppose  $u \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$ . Its density is

$$f_u(u) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}u^{\top}u\right].$$

Consider the linear transformation

$$y = X\beta + u \iff u = y - X\beta.$$

By the change of variable formula:

$$f_y(y) = f_u(u) \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \right|$$

where the Jacobian is  $|\det(I_n)| = 1$ .

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## Resulting Likelihood Function

Substituting  $u = y - X\beta$  gives the likelihood function:

$$L(\beta, \sigma^2; y) = f_y(y) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - X\beta)^{\top}(y - X\beta)\right].$$

This matches the likelihood derived previously, confirming that

$$\ell(\beta, \sigma^2; y) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y - X\beta)^\top (y - X\beta).$$

**Interpretation:** The change of variable formula justifies the likelihood for the observed data y from the distribution of the errors u.

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### Likelihood Function

Under the Gaussian assumption, the likelihood function is:

$$L(\beta, \sigma^2; y) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - X\beta)^{\top}(y - X\beta)\right].$$

The log-likelihood function is

$$\ell(\beta, \sigma^2; y) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y - X\beta)^\top (y - X\beta).$$

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## MLE of $\beta$

Differentiate the log-likelihood with respect to  $\beta$  and set to zero:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} X^{\top} (y - X\beta) = 0.$$

Solving for  $\beta$ , we obtain the MLE:

$$\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{MLE}} = (X^{\top} X)^{-1} X^{\top} y.$$

This is exactly the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimator.

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### MLE of $\sigma^2$

Differentiate the log-likelihood with respect to  $\sigma^2$  and set to zero:

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2(\sigma^2)^2} (y - X\beta)^\top (y - X\beta) = 0.$$

Solve for  $\sigma^2$ :

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{MLE}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} (y - X \hat{\beta}_{\text{MLE}})^{\top} (y - X \hat{\beta}_{\text{MLE}}).$$

Note: This differs from the unbiased OLS estimator by a factor of n/(n-p).

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## Summary

• Under Gaussian errors, MLE of  $\beta$  coincides with OLS:

$$\hat{\beta}_{\mathrm{MLE}} = (X^{\top} X)^{-1} X^{\top} y$$

- MLE of  $\sigma^2$  is  $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{MLE}}^2 = \frac{1}{\pi} (y X \hat{\beta})^{\top} (y X \hat{\beta})$
- Log-likelihood can be used to construct confidence intervals and likelihood-ratio tests
- Provides a concrete example of MLE in a simple linear model

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