

Martin Luther University of Halle-Wittenberg  
Department of Economics  
Chair of Econometrics

## Econometrics II

### 1. Maximum likelihood estimation

Christoph Wunder

# Goals

- Introduce method of maximum likelihood (ML)
- ML algorithms
- Describe likelihood-based tests
- Model fit and model comparison
- Apply methods in R

# Outline

- ① Maximum likelihood
  - 1.1 Intuition
  - 1.2 Concepts and properties of ML estimation
  - 1.3 ML estimation for linear regression
  - 1.4 Algorithms
  - 1.5 Likelihood-based tests
    - 1.5.1 Likelihood ratio test
    - 1.5.2 Wald test
    - 1.5.3 Lagrange multiplier (LM) test (score test)
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- Assume distribution of the data. (Note that the maximum likelihood method requires an assumption about the (conditional) distribution of the outcome variable.)
- Parameters of the distribution are unknown.
- Determine the likelihood of observing the data.
- Choose those values for the unknown parameters that give the observed data the highest likelihood (maximum likelihood estimates, MLE).

## Example: tosses of a globe

McElreath (2016), Ch. 2.2

- How much of the surface of planet earth is covered in water?
- Strategy: toss a globe. After catching, record whether or not the surface under right index finger is water or land. Repeat.
- We define:

$$y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the } i\text{th toss produces "water";} \\ 0, & \text{if the } i\text{th toss produces "land".} \end{cases} \quad (1.1)$$

- Suppose the sample contains  $w = \sum_i y_i$  tosses with “water” and  $n - w$  tosses with “land”.

### Intuition

- Likelihood function: for one particular sample (in a given order), the probability of  $w$  water observations in  $n$  tosses, with probability  $\pi$  on each toss and  $n$  tosses total, is:

$$L(\pi) = \pi^w(1 - \pi)^{n-w}. \quad (1.2)$$

- ML method: we choose the value of  $\pi$  such that the likelihood is maximal.
- Often more convenient to maximize the log-likelihood function:

$$\ln L(\pi) = w \ln \pi + (n - w) \ln(1 - \pi). \quad (1.3)$$

- Maximizing the log-likelihood function gives the first order condition:

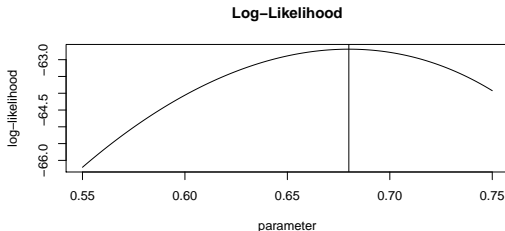
$$\frac{d \ln L(\pi)}{d\pi} = \frac{w}{\pi} - \frac{n-w}{1-\pi} = 0. \quad (1.4)$$

- Solving for  $\pi$  gives the ML estimator

$$\hat{\pi} = w/n. \quad (1.5)$$

[illegible]

Numerical example:  $n = 100$ ,  $w = 68$ .





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## 1.2 Concepts and properties of ML estimation

- Assuming i.i.d. observations, the joint probability density function of the random sample  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  is the product of individual densities:

$$f(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i; \theta). \quad (1.6)$$

- The likelihood function,  $L(\theta; \mathbf{y})$ , is the probability density function of the observed data, viewed as a function of the unknown parameters

$$L(\theta; \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^n L_i(\theta; y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i; \theta), \quad (1.7)$$

where  $L_i(\theta; y_i)$  denotes the individual likelihood contributions.

- Note that the joint density in 1.6 is a function of the data conditioned on the parameters while the likelihood function in 1.7 is a function of parameters conditioned on the data. The likelihood function is often denoted simply  $L(\theta)$ .

- It is numerically convenient to work with the log-likelihood function:

$$\ln L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln L_i(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln f(y_i; \theta), \quad (1.8)$$

- The ML estimator,  $\hat{\theta}$ , is the solution to

$$\max_{\theta} \ln L(\theta). \quad (1.9)$$

Since the logarithm is a monotonic transformation, any values  $\hat{\theta}$  that maximize  $\ln L(\theta)$  also maximize  $L(\theta)$ .

- The score vector is the vector of first derivatives of the log-likelihood function:

$$\mathbf{s}(\theta) \equiv \frac{\partial \ln L(\theta)}{\partial \theta}. \quad (1.10)$$

- The FOCs imply  $\mathbf{s}(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbf{0}$ .

- The second derivative of the log-likelihood function is referred to as the (symmetric) Hessian matrix:

$$\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta} \partial \boldsymbol{\theta}'} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{(\partial \theta_1)^2} & \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_K} \\ \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_2 \partial \theta_1} & \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{(\partial \theta_2)^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_2 \partial \theta_K} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_K \partial \theta_1} & \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \theta_K \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{(\partial \theta_K)^2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.11)$$

- The score,  $\mathbf{s}(\theta)$ , and the Hessian,  $\mathbf{H}(\theta)$ , are random variables because they depend on the sample. They usually differ in repeated samples.
- The information matrix (Fisher information) is defined as the negative expectation of the Hessian matrix:

$$\mathbf{I}(\theta) = -E[\mathbf{H}(\theta)]. \quad (1.12)$$

- The inverse information matrix is the variance of the ML estimator:

$$Var(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbf{I}(\theta)^{-1}. \quad (1.13)$$

- Since  $\mathbf{I}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1}$  depends on the unknown true parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ , we use a consistent estimator of the variance matrix. Three possibilities:

- ① Using the expected Hessian:

$$\widehat{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})_1 = \{-E[\mathbf{H}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})]\}^{-1} \quad (1.14)$$

- ② Using the observed Hessian (when the expected Hessian cannot be obtained, standard procedure in software):

$$\widehat{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})_2 = [-\mathbf{H}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})]^{-1} \quad (1.15)$$

- ③ Using the variance of the score (outer product of the gradient, Berndt-Hall-Hall-Hausman (BHHH) estimator, easiest to compute):

$$\widehat{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})_3 = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{s}_i(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \mathbf{s}_i(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})' \right]^{-1}, \quad (1.16)$$

where  $\mathbf{s}_i = \frac{\partial \ln L_i(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}$  are the individual score contributions.

The ML estimator is

- ① consistent,
- ② asymptotically efficient (reaches the Cramér Rao lower bound),
- ③ asymptotically normally distributed:

$$\hat{\theta} \stackrel{a}{\sim} N(\theta, -E[\mathbf{H}(\theta)]^{-1}) \quad (1.17)$$

- ④ invariant to one-to-one transformations of  $\theta$ .
  - If  $\hat{\theta}$  is the ML estimator of  $\theta$ , then  $h(\hat{\theta})$  is the ML estimator of  $h(\theta)$ .
  - Example: consider the linear model  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \epsilon$ . The ML estimator of the ratio  $\beta_0/\beta_1$  is equal to the ratio of the ML estimators  $\hat{\beta}_0/\hat{\beta}_1$ .

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## 1.3 ML estimation for linear regression

- Assumptions:

- 1 Data  $(y_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$  on  $i = 1, \dots, n$  individuals.
- 2 Model:  $y_i = \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i$
- 3 Shape of the distribution:  $y_i \sim N(\mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$
- 4 Observations are independently distributed.

- Likelihood function:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \quad (1.18)$$

$$= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{n}{2}} \prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{(y_i - \mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta})^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \quad (1.19)$$



- Log-likelihood function:

$$\ln L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) + \sum_{i=1}^n \left( -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{(y_i - \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta})^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \quad (1.20)$$

- Likelihood equations (score vector):

$$\frac{\partial \ln L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (-2\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} + 2(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathbf{0} \quad (1.21)$$

$$\frac{\partial \ln L}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0 \quad (1.22)$$

$$(1.23)$$

- The ML estimators for the linear model are

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ML} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{y} \quad (1.24)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2 = n^{-1} \mathbf{e}'\mathbf{e}, \quad (1.25)$$

where  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_{ML}$ .

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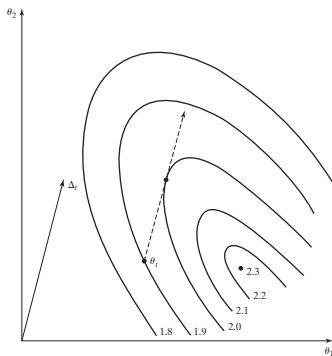
## 1.4 Algorithms

- Techniques:
  - Grid search
  - Analytical optimization (requires closed-form solution for FOC)
  - Numerical optimization
- General idea of an iterative algorithm:
  - 1 Begin with initial values for  $\theta$ .
  - 2 Compute likelihood.
  - 3 Update values for  $\theta$ .
  - 4 Compute likelihood: stop if optimum, go to step 3 if not.
- Convergence criterion: when are values optimal?
  - minimal change in log-likelihood
  - minimal change in  $\hat{\theta}$
  - minimal change in  $s(\hat{\theta})$

Update values: if the value in iteration step  $t$ ,  $\theta_t$ , is not the optimal value for  $\theta$ , then compute

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \lambda_t \Delta_t, \quad (1.26)$$

where  $\lambda_t$  is the step size and  $\Delta_t$  is the direction vector.



Source: Greene (2011), Figure E.2

# Newton-Raphson algorithm

- Linear Taylor series approximation of the FOCs:

$$\frac{\partial \ln L(\theta_t)}{\partial \theta_t} \approx \mathbf{s}(\theta_{t-1}) + \mathbf{H}(\theta_{t-1})(\theta_t - \theta_{t-1}) \stackrel{!}{=} \mathbf{0}. \quad (1.27)$$

- Solving FOCs for  $\theta_t$ ,

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \underbrace{[\mathbf{H}(\theta_{t-1})]^{-1} \mathbf{s}(\theta_{t-1})}_{\Delta_{t-1}}, \quad (1.28)$$

and step size  $\lambda_{t-1} = 1$ .

- Statistical software packages offer alternative algorithms.
- Some algorithms may perform better than others for a given problem.
- Examples (see Gould et al. 2003, Ch. 1.3):
  - BHHH (“B-H-cubed”) algorithm: Hessian is replaced by the outer product of the score
  - Davidon-Fletcher-Powell (DFP) algorithm
  - Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) algorithm
  - Steepest ascent method
  - Quadratic hill-climbing method

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## 1.5.1 Likelihood ratio test

- ML estimation of the unrestricted model gives  $\ln L_U$ , ML estimation of the restricted model gives  $\ln L_R$ .
- Idea: if the restriction is valid, then the difference in log-likelihood functions,  $\ln L_U - \ln L_R$ , should be small.
- The likelihood ratio test statistic has, under  $H_0$ , a limiting  $\chi^2$  distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of restrictions.

$$LR = -2 \ln \left( \frac{L_R}{L_U} \right) = -2 (\ln L_R - \ln L_U) \quad (1.29)$$



## 1.5.2 Wald test

- Estimate unrestricted model using ML gives  $\hat{\theta}$ .
- We test the null hypothesis

$$\mathbf{c}(\theta) = \mathbf{q}. \quad (1.30)$$

- Idea: If the restriction is valid, then  $\mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta}) - \mathbf{q}$  should be close to zero. Reject the hypothesis if this value is significantly different from zero.
- The Wald test statistic has, under  $H_0$ , a limiting  $\chi^2$  distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of restrictions.

$$W = \left[ \mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta}) - \mathbf{q} \right]' \left( \text{Asy.Var} \left[ \mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta}) - \mathbf{q} \right] \right)^{-1} \left[ \mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta}) - \mathbf{q} \right] \quad (1.31)$$

- The variance of the restriction,  $\text{Asy.Var} \left[ \mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta}) - \mathbf{q} \right]$ , is estimated as

$$\left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta})}{\partial \theta} \right)' \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}) \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{c}(\hat{\theta})}{\partial \theta} \right). \quad (1.32)$$

- Advantage: only estimation of the unrestricted model is required.
- Disadvantage: the Wald statistic is not invariant to the formulation of the restrictions.
- Example:
  - Model:  $E[y|\mathbf{x}] = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4$
  - Hypothesis:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 \cdot \beta_3 \quad (1.33)$$

can be tested as

$$H_0 : \beta_1 - \beta_2 \cdot \beta_3 = 0 \quad (1.34)$$

or

$$H_0 : \frac{\beta_1}{\beta_3} - \beta_2 = 0 \quad (1.35)$$

## 1.5.3 Lagrange multiplier (LM) test (score test)

- LM test is based on the restricted model.
- Idea: if the restriction is valid, then the slope of the log-likelihood of the unrestricted model should be near zero at the restricted estimator (i.e. the derivatives of the unrestricted log-likelihood evaluated at the restricted parameter vector will be approximately zero).
- The LM statistic has, under  $H_0$ , a limiting  $\chi^2$  distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of restrictions.

$$LM = \left( \frac{\partial \ln L(\hat{\theta}_R)}{\partial \hat{\theta}_R} \right)' \left[ \mathbf{I}(\hat{\theta}_R) \right]^{-1} \left( \frac{\partial \ln L(\hat{\theta}_R)}{\partial \hat{\theta}_R} \right) \quad (1.36)$$

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## 1.6 Model fit

- There is no obvious measure of explained variation (such as  $R^2$  for the linear model).
- Pseudo  $R^2$  (likelihood ratio index, McFadden  $R^2$ ):

$$\text{Pseudo } R^2 = 1 - \frac{\ln L}{\ln L_0}, \quad (1.37)$$

where  $\ln L$  is the log-likelihood for the full model,  $\ln L_0$  is the log-likelihood for the model with only a constant term.

- If  $\ln L \gg \ln L_0$ , then Pseudo  $R^2$  approaches 1.
- If  $\ln L = \ln L_0$ , then Pseudo  $R^2 = 0$ .

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## 1.7 Comparing models

- When the models are nested, likelihood-based tests can be used.
- When the models are nonnested, information criteria are used.
- Akaike information criterion (AIC):

$$AIC = -2 \ln L + 2K \quad (1.38)$$

- Bayes information criterion (BIC):

$$BIC = -2 \ln L + K \ln n, \quad (1.39)$$

where  $K$  is the number of parameters in the model.

- The model with the lowest AIC or BIC is usually preferred.

Example: tosses of a globe

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Example: tosses of a globe

## 1.8 Example: tosses of a globe

Example in R

- Simulate some fake data:

```
set.seed(647382)
y <- rbinom( n = 100, size = 1, prob = 0.7)
head(y, 20)
## [1] 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1
```

- Define log-likelihood function

```
log.likelihood <- function(pi, y) {
  sum ( y*log(pi) + (1-y)*log(1-pi) )
}
```

or

```
log.likelihood <- function(pi, y) {
  sum ( dbinom( x = y, size = 1, prob = pi, log = TRUE ) )
}
```

Example: tosses of a globe

- Maximize log-likelihood

```
result <- optim(  
  par = 0.5,           # initial value  
  fn = log.likelihood, # function to be maximized  
  y = y,               # supply data  
  method = "L-BFGS-B", lower = 1e-10, upper = (1 - 1e-10),  
  control = list(fnscale = -1), # maximization problem  
  hessian = TRUE)
```

Example: tosses of a globe

- ML estimate

```
round( result$par, 4 )
## [1] 0.68
```

- Compute variance and s.e. using the inverse of the negative actual Hessian:

```
round( c( (-result$hessian)^(-1),
          sqrt( (-result$hessian)^(-1) ) ), 4 )
## [1] 0.0022 0.0466
```

- Value of log-likelihood function

```
result$value
## [1] -62.68695
```

Example: tosses of a globe

- The Newton-Raphson algorithm is available in the R package `maxLik`:

```
library(maxLik)
mle.nr <- maxLik( logLik = log.likelihood, start = c(pi=0.5), y=y )
summary(mle.nr)

## -----
## Maximum Likelihood estimation
## Newton-Raphson maximisation, 2 iterations
## Return code 1: gradient close to zero (gradtol)
## Log-Likelihood: -62.68695
## 1 free parameters
## Estimates:
##      Estimate Std. error t value Pr(> t)
## pi  0.68000    0.04665   14.58  <2e-16 ***
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## -----
```

## References

Reading list: Verbeek (2012), Chapter 6, Winkelmann and Boes (2006), Chapter 3, Greene (2011), Chapter 14.

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