The Logic of Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Jan Rovny

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What is Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- MLE is a unified method of statistical estimation.
 - Through one logic it provides a framework for estimation and hypothesis testing.
- MLE is theoretically grounded in that it requires an explicit model of the data generation process.
 - We must explicitly assume the distribution which gave rise to our dependent variable.
- MLE is extremely versatile.
 - It allows estimation of simple linear models, as well as complex models which are non-linear in the parameters.
 - We can estimate models with binary, ordinal or nominal dependent variables, as well as many other classes of models, using MLE.
- MLE has desirable asymptotic properties.
- Consequently, many different classes of MLE models are widely used in social sciences.

- MLE statistical theory was developed by a British geneticist and statistician Robert A. Fisher between 1912 and 1922.
- Its application, however, had to wait until the 1980s and 1990s, for one simple reason: most ML estimates cannot be found analytically. They are too complicated to calculate.
 - MLE requires taking the first derivative of the log-likelihood function, which is easy in linear models, but becomes analytically intractable with complex functions.
 - Solutions have to be found through numerical optimization methods, which essentially require sufficient computing power.
- MLE thus become widely used only once our computers become powerful enough to solve the models.

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- MLE is rooted in probability theory, but in reverse.
- In probability theory:
 - We know the parameter value, and we try to predict particular data.
 - For example, we know that the probability of getting *heads* on a flip of a fair coin is π = 0.5. We can then ask ourselves how many *heads* we are **likely** to observe in 10 flips.
 - The answer is of course 5, but if you try it right now, you might get another number.
 - ► 5 *heads* in 10 flips of a fair coin is simply the **most likely** outcome.

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- **In statistical estimation**, we are in the reverse situation:
 - We know the data, but we do not know the parameter value (the estimate) that produced it
- The MLE question thus stands: given my data, what is the value of the parameter that most likely produced the data?
 - What value of π is most likely behind my observing 5 heads in 10 flips of a coin?
 - ► The answer is of course π = 0.5, but again, this is only the most likely value.
 - Given random error, it is possible to observe 5 *heads* in 10 flips even with an unfair coin where $\pi = 0.4, 0.6$, or even 0.3.

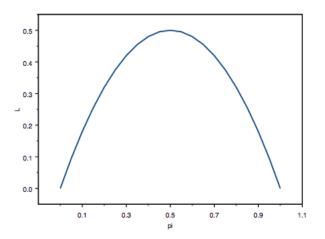
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- You can see from the previous example that different values of π could have produced our 5 heads in 10 flips.
- Only one value of π , however, is **most likely**.
- We can thus think of a function that would describe the probability (or likelihood) that different parameter values produced our data.
- This is the **likelihood function**.
- The value which maximizes the likelihood function is the Maximum Likelihood Estimator.

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The Likelihood Function

The likelihood function for π , given 5 *heads* in 10 flips of a coin:



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The Likelihood Function

More formally:

Let $f(y|\theta)$ be the Probability Density Function (PDF) consisting of a single parameter θ , and let D denote the observed data consisting of n independent observations.

$$Pr(D) = f(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n | \theta)$$
 (1)

$$= f(y_1|\theta)f(y_2|\theta)\dots f(y_n|\theta)$$
(2)

$$= \prod f(y_i|\theta) \tag{3}$$

$$= \mathcal{L}(\theta|D) \tag{4}$$

 (2) follows from the independence of observations. (The probability of two independent observations is the product of their individual probabilities).

The step from (3) to (4) is the 'reversal' from probability (where we explain outcomes with parameters) to likelihood (where we explain parameters with outcomes or data).

- Notice that the likelihood function is based on a Probability Density Function which gave rise to our data.
- Thus, whenever we do MLE, we must make a distributional assumption about our data.
 - Based on our knowledge and theoretical expectations, we as researchers – need to decided what distribution is behind our data (binomial, poisson, normal...).
 - Consequently, it is necessary to think through the theoretical background to a phenomenon, and the distributional implications that it has.
 - This makes MLE a more theoretically rich method than OLS or GLS, which are essentially "data fitting."
 - "All knowledge is a result of theory we buy information with assumptions" (Coombs 1976:5)

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Log-Likelihood

To make life easier for ourselves and our computers, we take the natural logarithm of our likelihood function before maximization.

$$ln\mathcal{L}(\theta|D) = ln[\prod f(y_i|\theta)]$$
(5)

$$= \sum_{i \in [n]} ln[f(y_i|\theta)]$$
(6)

$$= \ell(\theta|D) \tag{7}$$

- $\ell(\theta|D)$ is the **log-likelihood function** of θ , given our data.
- Notice that the product in (5) turned into summation in (6).
 Computers are better able to deal with summation than multiplication, hence the logarithmic transformation.
- Importantly, the maximum of the log-likelihood function is the same as the maximum of the likelihood function. We lose no information!

Estimating π

We see 5 heads in 10 flips of a coin. What value of π produced this result?

- First we need to consider the distribution which gave rise to this data!
- Since we are considering flips of a coin, the data is generated from the *Binomial Distribution*:

$$f(heads, flips|\pi) = \mathcal{L}(\pi|heads, flips) =$$

$$= \frac{\textit{flips!}}{\textit{heads!}(\textit{flips-heads})!} \pi^{\textit{heads}} (1-\pi)^{\textit{flips-heads}}$$

- ▶ We thus need to find the maximum of the log-likelihood function: $ln[(10!/5!5!)\pi^5(1-\pi)^5]$ with respect to π .
- If you do the calculus, you should conclude that the maximum occurs when $\pi=0.5$
- ► You have just derived your first ML estimator!

We have now obtained a point estimate for π , but what about our certainty about the accuracy of this estimate?

- Logically, the steeper the (log-) likelihood function, the easier it is to find its maximum.
- The easier it is to declare the maximum, the more certain we are about this maximum.
- Thus, the larger the *curvature* of the (log-) likelihood function, the greater is our certainty of the estimate.
- Formally, this means that the larger the second partial derivative with respect to a given parameter, the more certain we are about the estimate of this parameter.
- In practice we tend to used the inverse of the negative expected values of the second partial derivatives to determine the variance-covariance matrix, but that is really a technical matter... (see Long p.32)

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ML Estimation of Linear Regression

The model is: $y_i = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i$, where $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

- We thus need to estimate the βs in the vector β (which includes a constant), as well as σ².
- Given the assumptions about the error distribution, the PDF of the dependent variable is: $f(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \beta, \sigma^2) \sim N(\mathbf{x}_i \beta, \sigma^2)$

The **Normal PDF** is: $f(y_i|\mu, \sigma^2) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\right) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y_i - \mu)^2\right]$

The likelihood function is: $\mathcal{L} = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-.5n} exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i \beta)^2)$

The log-likelihood function is: $\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) = -.5nln(2\pi) - .5nln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta})^2$

[See example in R]

- MLE is a powerful, theoretically rooted method.
- It allows estimation of many different classes of models, and thus is much more versatile than OLS.
- ML estimation centers around the (log-)likelihood function. This function is the basis for both point estimates, as well as confidence intervals and hypothesis testing.
- MLE is thus a unified method of statistical estimation.

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