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# Testing Restrictions and Comparing Models<sup>\*</sup>

## 1. The Problem

We consider here the problem of comparing two parametric models for the data X, defined by pdf's  $p(X | \theta)$  and  $q(X | \phi)$ , with  $\theta$  ranging over a parameter space  $\Theta$  and  $\phi$  ranging over  $\Phi$ , with the two parameter spaces being of possibly different dimension. A special case that we will discuss further is that in which the second "q" model is defined by restricting  $\theta$  to a a submanifold of  $\Theta$  defined by the vector of restrictions  $R(\theta) = 0$ . We aim at forming posterior probabilities of the two models, or in the case of the model defined by restrictions, for the truth of the restriction  $R(\theta) = 0$ , conditional on the data.

It is easy to prescribe how to handle this problem in general terms. The full parameter space is really  $\Theta \cup \Phi$ . We will have some prior over it, which we can think of as built from conditional pdf's over  $\Theta$  and  $\Phi$  and prior probabilities on the two parameter spaces. The posterior probability can then be calculated by the usual formulas. However, in contrast to the usual situation where the prior is continuous (i.e. has a pdf), the effects of the prior do not disappear in large samples in this situation. It is therefore useful to examine whether there remains anything useful to say about large-sample approximations for this problem.

## 2. Gaussian Approximation

In large samples, under rather general regularity conditions, the likelihood comes to dominate the prior if the parameter space is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  with non-empty interior and the true value of the parameter is in the interior. In this case the use of a "flat prior" gives accurate conclusions. Furthermore, the likelihood takes on an approximately Gaussian shape in large samples, in the sense that a second-order Taylor expansion of the log likelihood in the neighborhood of its maximum gives accurate results if used to approximate the posterior pdf.<sup>1</sup> Even if the true model is not any of the pdf's  $p(X | \theta)$  for  $\theta \in \Theta$ , under reasonable regularity conditions likelihood concentrates in the neighborhood of a "pseudo-true value" in  $\Theta$  and the quadratic approximation to the log likelihood's shape becomes accurate in large samples.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>An informal sketch of a proof is in Gelman, Carlin, Stern, and Rubin (1995, Appendix B). A careful proof is in Schervish (1995, Chapter 7.4). Both of these references include further references to the literature.

For functions whose logs are quadratic (and which therefore are scaled versions of Gaussian pdf's) we can characterize their integrals as functions of their maxima and their second derivative matrices.<sup>2</sup> This leads to some easily computed approximations to posterior probabilities, based on the height of the likelihood function at its maxima in the two spaces and on the second derivative matrices of the log likelihood at these maxima — which are minus the usual classical asymptotic approximations to the covariance matrices of the MLE estimates.

If the log likelihood is exactly quadratic when restricted to  $\Theta$ , then the likelihood itself has the form within  $\Theta$ 

$$\log(p(X \mid \theta)) = K - \frac{1}{2}(\theta - \hat{\theta})'\Omega^{-1}(\theta - \hat{\theta}), \qquad (1)$$

where  $K = \log(p(X | \hat{\theta}))$  is the value of log-likelihood at its peak and  $\hat{\theta}$  is the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes  $p(X | \theta)$ . We can then rewrite it as a constant plus the log of a Gaussian pdf,

$$\log(p(X \mid \theta)) = K + \frac{m}{2} \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log|\Omega| + \left[ -\left(\frac{m}{2} \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log|\Omega|\right) + \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \hat{\theta})' \Omega^{-1} (\theta - \hat{\theta}) \right], \quad (2)$$

where m is the dimension of the space  $\Theta$ . Obviously, then,

$$\int_{\Theta} p(X \mid \theta) \, d\theta = e^{K} (2\pi)^{\frac{m}{2}} \left| \Omega \right|^{\frac{1}{2}} \,. \tag{3}$$

If the likelihood is concentrated on small enough subsets of  $\Phi$  and  $\Theta$  that the prior pdf on each space is approximately constant where likelihood is non-trivially large, then we can apply (3) to approximate the integrals of the joint pdf of data and parameters over  $\Theta$  and  $\Phi$ , respectively, with the data X held fixed at the observed value, as

$$g(\hat{\theta})p(X \mid \hat{\theta})(2\pi)^{\frac{m}{2}} \mid \Sigma_{\theta} \mid^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(4)

$$h(\hat{\theta})q(X \,|\, \hat{\phi})(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} \,|\Sigma_{\phi}|^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{5}$$

where *n* is the dimension of  $\Phi$ ,  $\Sigma_{\theta}$  and  $\Sigma_{\phi}$  are the usual asymptotically justified estimates of the covariance matrix of the MLE (minus the inverse of the second derivative of the log likelihood) within each model's parameter space, and *g* and *h* are the conditional prior pdf's on  $\Theta$  and  $\Phi$ , respectively. Posterior odds on the two models  $\Theta$  and  $\Phi$ are then approximated as the ratio of prior probabilities of the two models multiplied by the ratio of the expressions (4) and (5).

It is clear, then, that use of the asymptotic normal approximation will not make the choice of prior asymptotically irrelevant in computing posterior probabilities. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This type of approximation is known as the *method of Laplace* and is discussed in more general form in Schervish (1995, section 7.4.3)

odds ratio between the two models will contain the ratio of prior probabilities times the ratio of conditional prior densities at the maximum  $g(X | \hat{\Theta})/h(X | \hat{\phi})$  no matter how large the sample or how good the Gaussian approximation.

However, if we do not aim at getting an asymptotically accurate odds ratio, but instead only to get an asymptotically accurate decision — that is, to determine accurately which model the odds ratio favors — then we can avoid dependence on the prior under some additional regularity conditions.

In models of i.i.d. data, or of stationary time series data, it is usually true that

$$T\Sigma_{\theta} \xrightarrow{P}_{T \to \infty} \Omega_{\theta} ,$$
 (6)

where  $\Omega_{\theta}$  is a fixed matrix, with a similar result for  $\Sigma_{\phi}$ . Letting  $\mu(\Theta)$  be the prior probability of  $\Theta$ , we can then write the approximation to the log of the posterior odds in favor of  $\Theta$  as

$$\log\left(\frac{p(X\mid\hat{\theta})\mu(\Theta)g(\hat{\theta})}{q(X\mid\hat{\phi})(1-\mu(\Theta))h(\hat{\phi})}\right) + \frac{m-n}{2}\log(2\pi) - \log\left(T^{\frac{m}{2}}\mid\Omega_{\theta}\mid^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) + \log\left(T^{\frac{n}{2}}\mid\Omega_{\phi}\mid^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) .$$
(7)

Also, for i.i.d. or time series models,  $\log p(X | \theta)$  is a sum of similarly distributed random variables, so that under reasonable regularity conditions

$$\frac{1}{T}p(X \mid \hat{\theta}) \xrightarrow{P} \bar{p}, \qquad (8)$$

again with a similar result holding for q. Every term in (7) is constant, as T increases, except for  $\log(p/q)$  and the two terms on the end involving  $\Omega$ 's. The odds ratio will, under usual regularity conditions, converge to infinity or zero as  $T \to \infty$ , so that eventually the terms that depend on T dominate its behavior. Thus we can form an approximate "odds ratio" considering only the terms that vary with T, i.e.

$$\log(p(X \mid \hat{\theta})) - \log(q(X \mid \hat{\phi})) - \frac{m-n}{2} \log T.$$
(9)

This criterion will converge in probability to  $+\infty$  if only  $\Theta$  contains the true model and  $-\infty$  if only  $\Phi$  does. It is often called the Schwarz criterion, as Schwarz (1978) introduced it.<sup>3</sup>

The Schwarz criterion is fairly widely applied. Its popularity stems from the fact that it can be computed without any consideration of what a reasonable prior might be. But it is apparent from (7) that unless the Schwarz criterion is extremely large or small, it is likely to differ substantially from the odds ratio, even when the sample

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>However, it was implicit in earlier work on Laplace approximations, and Schwarz considered only its application to cases where  $\Phi$  is a lower-dimensional subset of  $\Theta$ .

size is large enough to make the Gaussian approximation to log likelihood work well. Serious applied work ought to include in the reporting of results a consideration of what might be a reasonable specification of the prior, as well as a consideration of whether the normal approximation to the likelihood is accurate in the sample at hand.

Note that we could avoid having to think about the prior without dropping so many terms from (7). Dropping only those terms that depend on the prior, instead of all those terms that fail to grow with T, leads to

$$\log\left(\frac{p(X\mid\hat{\theta})}{q(X\mid\hat{\phi})}\right) + \frac{m-n}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{|\Sigma_{\theta}|}{|\Sigma_{\phi}|}\right) . \tag{10}$$

This expression makes it clear that it is the precision of the estimates that produces the dependence on T in the Schwarz Criterion. The expression is more robust — it converges to the same limit as the Schwarz Criterion when the Schwarz criterion is justified, but produces asymptotically correct decisions in certain situations where the Schwarz criterion does not. For example, in unit root time series models the asymptotic Gaussian approximation to the shape of the likelihood is accurate<sup>4</sup>, but  $T\Sigma_{\theta}$  fails to be bounded in probability. In this situation the Schwarz criterion does not lead to asymptotically correct decisions, whereas direct use of (10) does.

#### 3. Comparison to Classical Methods

Classical asymptotic methods produce results only for the case where  $\Phi$  is defined as  $\{\theta \in \Theta \mid R(\theta) = 0\}$  for a function R that takes values in  $\mathbb{R}^{m-n}$ . It is then conventional procedure to use the fact that, on the null hypothesis that  $R(\theta) = 0$ , the likelihood ratio (LR) statistic  $2(\log(p(X \mid \hat{\theta})/q(X \mid \hat{\theta})$  is in large samples distributed approximately as  $\chi^2(m-n)$ . Usually some standard significance level, say  $\alpha = .01$  or  $\alpha = .05$ , is chosen, and the null hypothesis is rejected if the LR exceeds  $\chi^2_{\alpha}(m-n)$ . Because both the Schwarz criterion and the standard likelihood ratio test compare the LR to a critical value, the Schwarz criterion is always equivalent, in any given sample, to a classical likelihood ratio test for some  $\alpha$ . However the value to which the Schwarz criterion compares the LR is increasing in T, while the classical test, if  $\alpha$  is kept at a constant level, compares the LR to a fixed value.

In fact it is obvious by construction that the choice of  $\Theta$  vs.  $\Phi$  does not converge in probability to the truth as  $T \to \infty$  if the choice is made with a conventional LR test with fixed  $\alpha$ . By definition, such a test in large samples has probability  $\alpha$  of rejecting a true null hypothesis — i.e. of giving the wrong decision — even for very large samples. The Schwarz criterion (and some other variants on it that have been proposed) instead gives a probability of wrong decision that goes to zero as  $T \to \infty$ .

 $<sup>^{4}</sup>$ This was shown by Kim (1994)

The Bayesian approach then suggests that significance levels for tests should generally be set more stringently (lower  $\alpha$ 's) in large samples. Though there is no classical statistical argument for doing so, applied workers do tend in fact to use lower  $\alpha$ 's in very large samples, or indeed, as (10) would suggest, in any context where estimated standard errors are very small.

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