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A Comparison of the EM and Newton-Raphson Algorithms

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Key words: maximum, likelihood, scoring, information matrix

Abstract

In a general setting, the EM and Newton-Raphson algorithms are compared as gradient methods. The superior convergence rates of Newton-Raphson in a neighborhood of the maximum likelihood estimator are explained as the failure of the EM to use the proper hessian. Intermediate results show that the EM algorithm provides information matrix estimators as easily as Newton-Raphson and that one can conveniently switch from one algorithm to the other. Louis' improvement of EM by Aitken acceleration is shown to be divergent in some cases.

JEL Classification: 211, 214

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{\mathbb{R}^3}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2.$ $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2}dx\leq\frac{1}{2}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2}dx$

 \mathcal{F}_{max} .

 $\label{eq:2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2$ $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{2\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

 $\mathcal{A}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac$ $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{2\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{\mathbb{R}^3}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2.$

 $\label{eq:3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_0^1\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2$ $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{2\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^{\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

A COMPARISON OF THE EM AND NEWTON-RAPHSON ALGORITHMS

1. Introduction

The EM algorithm is a method of computing the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) when the data generating process for the observed data y can be described as partial observation of the latent data y^{\dagger} . Dempster, Laird, and Rubin (1977) (hereafter, DLR) proposed the algorithm. It is widely used for its simplicity and convenience as a numerical optimization technique. The algorithm also suffers, however, from two general drawbacks: it converges relatively slowly in the neighborhood of the MLE and its computations do not offer estimates of the information as a by-product. We show that both of these drawbacks are easily overcome. The information matrix is as conveniently estimated with EM as Newton-Raphson (NR) or Scoring (S). In addition, one can conveniently switch from one algorithm to another to speed convergence in the neighborhood of the MLE.

$2.$ The EM Algorithm

If we denote the many-to-one mapping from y^2 to y as

$$
(1) \t y = \tau(y^*)
$$

and the latent likelihood function of an unknown parameter vector θ given the latent y^* as $f(\theta; y^*)$, then the observed likelihood function for θ given y must be specified as

(2)
$$
f(\theta; y) = \int_{\mathcal{A}(y)} f(\theta; y^*) dy^*
$$

where

(3)
$$
A(y) = \{y^* \mid y = r(y^*)\}.
$$

In the EM algorithm, one finds the expectation of the latent log likelihood function for θ given y^* , measuring with the distribution of y^* conditional on y , which is evaluated at an initial value for θ , θ ₀. Let Q denote this expected log likelihood function:

(4)
$$
Q(\theta, \theta_0; y) = E_{\theta_0} [log f(\theta; y^*) | y] = E_{\theta_0} [L(\theta; y^*) | y],
$$

where L denotes the log likelihood function. This is called the "E", or expectation, step. In the "M" (maximization) step, one computes an updated value for θ as the maximizing value of Q:

(5)
$$
\theta_{EM} = \underset{a}{argmax} Q(\theta, \theta_0; y) .
$$

The difference between Q and $log f(\theta; y)$, denoted H , is an expected log likelihood function, analogous to Q . It is the conditional expectation of the latent conditional log likelihood $L(\theta; y^*|y)$:

(6)
$$
H(\theta, \theta_0; y) = Q(\theta, \theta_0; y) - L(\theta; y)
$$

$$
= E_{\theta_0} \{ L[\theta; y^* | y] | y \}.
$$

The information inequality states that

(7)
$$
H(\theta, \theta, y) \leq H(\theta, \theta, y) \qquad \forall \theta.
$$

DLR use (7) to show that every value for θ that increases $Q(\theta, \theta_0; y)$ also increases the log likelihood $L(\theta; y)$. It follows that iterating (5) by replacing θ_0 with θ_{EM} and computing a new value for θ yields an algorithm with fixed points located at critical values of the log likelihood function $L(\theta; y)$. In particular,

$$
\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{argmax} \quad Q(\theta, \hat{\theta}; y) ,
$$

where θ is the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) for θ .

3. Preliminary Results

Let $f(\theta; y^*)$ be continuously differentiable. Differentiating (6) gives

(8)
$$
\frac{\partial L(\theta; y)}{\partial \theta} = L_1(\theta; y) = Q_1(\theta, \theta_0; y) - H_1(\theta, \theta_0; y) ,
$$

(9)
$$
\frac{\partial^2 L(\theta; y)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} = L_{11}(\theta; y) = Q_{11}(\theta, \theta_0; y) - H_{11}(\theta, \theta_0; y)
$$

where subscripts denote partial differentiation with respect to an argument. The inequality in (7) implies that

(10)
$$
H_1(\theta_0, \theta_0; y) = 0 \quad \forall \theta_0,
$$

so that (8) simplifies to

(11)
$$
L_1(\theta; y) = Q_1(\theta, \theta; y)
$$

Differentiating equation (11),

(12)
$$
L_{11}(\theta; y) = Q_{11}(\theta, \theta; y) + Q_{12}(\theta, \theta; y)
$$

which combines with (9) to give

(13)
$$
Q_{12}(\theta, \theta; y) = -H_{11}(\theta, \theta; y)
$$
.

 $Q_{1}(\theta, \theta; y)$ is, therefore, the score function of the observed log likelihood function. $Q_{12}(\theta, \theta; y)$ is the information of the latent conditional log likelihood function, and is therefore a symmetric, positive semi-definite matrix. In exponential models (discussed further below), $Q_{11}(\theta, \theta; y)$ is the negative information of the latent marginal log likelihood function; in general, the $E[Q_{11}(\theta, \theta; y)]$ is the negative information of the latent model. Thus, $E[Q_{12}(\theta, \theta; y)]$ is the loss in information caused by the partial observability of y^* as described by (1) .

4. Information Estimators

Ruud (1988) notes that equations (11) to (13) offer two convenient estimators for EM of the information. The first is a reformulation of Louis (1982). The so-called observed information, which is the negative hessian of the observed log likelihood, is given in (12). The score in (11) is implicit in the EM calculations at convergence and the matrix of second partial derivatives can be computed numerically or analytically using (12) .

When y consists of independently distributed elements ${y_{n}}_{n=1}^{N}$, the likelihood function factors into a product of marginal terms

(14)
$$
f(\theta; y) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} f(\theta; y_n)
$$

and one can use the outer product of the score

(15)
$$
\sum_{n=1}^{N} Q_{1}(\theta, \theta; y_{n}) Q_{1}(\theta, \theta; y_{n})'
$$

as an alternative to the observed information. While (15) and the observed information (12) require additions to the EM algorithm (at convergence), neither involves more difficulty than the corresponding terms in the NR or BHHH algorithms (see Berndt et al (1977)).

The information itself can be derived analytically from either of the preceding matrices by taking the expectation over y . This, of course, is the same method that traditional methods use. If the analytics are awkward, then Monte Carlo integration provides another simple means to exploit these formulae. We summarize in the first Proposition:

PROPOSITION 1: Let $\mathcal{F}(\theta) = E\left[\begin{array}{cc} L_1(\theta; y) & L_1(\theta; y)' \end{array}\right]$. Then -E[$Q_{11}(\theta, \theta; y) + Q_{12}(\theta, \theta; y)$] = $\mathcal{F}(\theta)$. If, in addition, y = $[y_n; n=1, \ldots, N]$ consists of independently distributed elements, then $\sum_{n=1}^N E\bigl[\begin{array}{cc} Q_1(\theta\,;y_n) & Q_1(\theta\,;y_n)^\prime\end{array}\bigr] = \mathcal{F}(\theta) \quad \text{also.}$

Occasionally, the EM algorithm is used without any direct reference to the function Q (see for example, Baker and Laird, 1988) but the iterations take an explicit form: $\theta^{(v)} = g(\theta^{(v-1)})$, $(v=1,2,3,...)$. In such cases, an estimator for the covariance matrix of $\hat{\theta} = g(\hat{\theta})$ can be found by the delta method, provided that an asymptotic approximation for the distribution of $\theta - g(\theta)$ is available. Because $\theta - g(\theta)$ is usually a simple expression, this approximation is often easy to find.

EM versus Newton-Raphson 5.

Equation (5) and differentiability allow us to write the EM updating algorithm in a form reminiscent of such quadratic procedures as Suppose Q_{11} and L_{12} are nonsingular. Then NR.

(16)
$$
\theta_{EM} = \theta_0 - Q_{11}^{-1} Q_1 + o(\|\theta_{EM} - \theta_0\|),
$$

where Q_{11} and Q_1 are evaluated at θ_0 . This can be compared with the simplest form of NR which computes

(17)
$$
\theta_{\text{NR}} = \theta_0 - [L_{11}(\theta_0; y)]^{-1} L_1(\theta_0; y)
$$

$$
= \theta_0 - (Q_{11} + Q_{12})^{-1} Q_1
$$

To a first order approximation, the difference between EM and NR is the matrix which scales the score vector Q_1 . EM fails to use the hessian EM versus NR

of the log likelihood function; it substitutes a matrix that differs from the hessian by a negative semi-definite matrix that measures the information loss due to partial observability. Intuition suggests that this explains the slow rates of convergence exhibited by EM. In certain cases, it does follow from (16) and (17) that there is a neighborhood of the MLE in which the EM algorithm improves the log likelihood function less than the NR algorithm. We use the following definition (Rothenberg, 1981):

DEFINITION: Let $M(\theta)$ be a matrix whose elements are continuous functions of θ everywhere in an open subset θ . The point $\theta \in \theta$ is said to be a regular point of the matrix if there exists an open neighborhood of θ in which $M(\theta)$ has constant rank.

PROPOSITION 2: If $\hat{\theta}$ is a regular point of $L_{11}(\theta; y)$ and $L_{11}(\hat{\theta}; y)$ is nonsingular then there is an open neighborhood of the MLE θ such that

 $L(\theta_0; y)$ < $L(\theta_{\text{em}}; y)$ < $L(\theta_{\text{em}}; y)$. (18)

A proof is given in the appendix. Although NR takes faster steps than EM toward the MLE in its neighborhood, experience shows that EM often increases the log likelihood function more than NR outside such small neighborhoods. As a result, EM is often superior to NR at the outset of iterative numerical optimization because each iteration takes less time and increases the log likelihood function more.

Page 7

6. Louis' Method for Speeding Convergence of EM

We can also make local comparisons with Louis' (1982) method of speeding up the convergence of EM with Aitken's acceleration (see also Laird, Lange, and Stram, 1987). In our notation, Louis' updating algorithm can be written

(19)
$$
\begin{aligned}\n\theta_{\text{L}} &= \theta_0 - Q_{11} \left[Q_{11} + Q_{12} \right]^{-1} (\theta_{\text{EM}} - \theta_0) \\
&= \theta_0 - (Q_{11} + Q_{11}^{-1} Q_{12} Q_{11})^{-1} Q_1 + o(\|\theta_{\text{EM}} - \theta_0\|)\n\end{aligned}
$$

which is quite similar to the NR step. Indeed, for the scalar case the two updates are approximately equal. In higher dimensions, it appears that a matrix is added to Q_{11} that is related to Q_{12} , but which may fail to be negative definite. As a result, Louis' method does not appear to possess the general up-hill property

$$
(20) \qquad L(\theta_0) \le L[\alpha \theta_1 + (1-\alpha)\theta_0]
$$

for sufficiently small $\alpha > 0$. In some applications, θ_{L} will occasionally decrease the likelihood and its convergence is not guaranteed. Although Laird et al. (1987) report some success for their applications of Louis' method, its failure to satisfy (20) raises doubts about its usefulness as a general method. Laird et al. (1987) wisely checked whether θ_{τ} increases the likelihood over θ_{τ} at each iteration, but this adds to the computational burden of this method relative to EM. This weakness of Louis' method may explain its poor performance in Lindstrom and Bates (1988).

7. EM versus Scoring

Within the exponential family of distributions for y^* , Ruud (1988) makes comparisons between the EM algorithm and the method of scoring that yield similar results. If the distribution of y^* has a probability density function of the form

(21)
$$
f(\theta; y^*) = b(y^*) \exp[\theta' t(y^*) - a(\theta)]
$$

then $Q_{11}(\theta, \theta; y) = -\partial^2 a(\theta)/\partial \theta \partial \theta'$ does not depend on y and, therefore, equals the negative of the information of the latent marginal log likelihood function. Taking the expectation over values of y , (10) becomes

where $\mathcal{F}(\theta)$ is the information for θ and $\mathcal{H}(\theta)$ is a symmetric, positive semi-definite matrix. Using the same argument that leads to (18) , we have

PROPOSITION 3: One iteration of the S algorithm is given by

$$
f_{\rm{max}}(x)=\frac{1}{2}x
$$

$$
\theta_{s} = \theta_{0} + \mathcal{F}^{1} Q_{1} + o(\|\theta_{s} - \theta_{0}\|)
$$

If the latent likelihood has the exponential form (21), θ is a regular point of L_{11} , and L_{11} is nonsingular, then there is an open neighborhood of θ such that

 $L(\theta_0; y)$ < $L(\theta_{\rm EM}; y)$ < $L(\theta_{\rm S}; y)$.

8. Concluding Remarks

We have demonstrated that the elements of the EM algorithm calculations can be exploited to compute the terms of the NR, BHHH, and Scoring algorithms. It is now apparent that these latter schemes can be used in combination with the EM algorithm with relative ease. Watson and Engle (1983) advocate using the EM algorithm in the early iterations of optimization to take advantage of its stability and relatively quick convergence to the neighborhood of the MLE, and then switching to NR or Scoring in the neighborhood of the maximum to exploit their quadratic convergence properties. Lindstrom and Bates (1988) and Ruud (1988) contain examples where this strategy appears to dominate all others. Given the widespread complaint about the slowness of the EM algorithm in some applications, and the efforts by Louis (1982) and others to speed up the algorithm, the advice of Watson and Engle may well become common practice using the connections drawn here.

Appendix: Proof of Proposition 2

If L_{11} is nonsingular then so is Q_{11} by (13) so that (16) and (17) are valid. Using the second order Taylor series expansion of $L(\theta; y)$,

$$
L(\theta_{NR}) - L(\theta_0) = -\frac{1}{2} Q'_1 (Q_{11} + Q_{12})^{-1} Q_1 + o(\|\theta_{NR} - \theta_0\|^2)
$$

and

$$
L(\theta_{\rm EM}) - L(\theta_0) = -\frac{1}{2} Q_1' Q_{11}^{-1} (Q_{11} - Q_{12}) Q_{11}^{-1} Q_1 + o(\|\theta_{\rm EM} - \theta_0\|^2)
$$

where all expressions in Q are evaluated at θ_{0} . Choose $\delta > 0$ so that $L_{11} = Q_{11} + Q_{12}$ is negative definite for all $\theta_{0} \in$ $\|\theta\| \|\theta - \hat{\theta}\| < \delta$). Expression (13) implies that within this ball

$$
Q_{12} - Q_{11} \quad \text{and} \quad Q_{11}^{-1} (Q_{11} - Q_{12}) Q_{11}^{-1} - (Q_{11} + Q_{12})^{-1}
$$

are positive definite matrices so that

$$
0 < L(\theta_{\rm EM}) - L(\theta_{0}) + o(\|\theta_{\rm EM} - \theta_{0}\|^2) < L(\theta_{\rm NR}) - L(\theta_{0}) + o(\|\theta_{\rm NR} - \theta_{0}\|^2)
$$

According to (16) and (17), $O(\|\theta_{\text{NR}} - \theta_{0}\|) = O(\|\theta_{\text{EM}} - \theta_{0}\|) =$ $O(\|\hat{\theta} - \theta_0\|)$. Therefore as θ_0 approaches $\hat{\theta}$,

$$
0 < \lim \frac{L(\theta_{\text{EM}}) - L(\theta_0)}{\|\hat{\theta} - \theta_0\|^2} < \lim \frac{L(\theta_{\text{NR}}) - L(\theta_0)}{\|\hat{\theta} - \theta_0\|^2}
$$

Therefore, there is an open neighborhood of the MLE $\hat{\theta}$ such that (18) is satisfied for all θ_0 in that neighborhood.

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