

LECTURE 3 NOTES

1. The likelihood function.

DEFINITION 1.1 (likelihood function). *The likelihood function $l : \Theta \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ of a sample $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is given by*

$$l_x(\theta) = f_\theta(x).$$

As we shall see, the likelihood function plays a crucial role in statistical inference. One possible explanation for its imperativeness is its connection to the minimal sufficient partition.

THEOREM 1.2. *A partition $\{\mathcal{A}_t\}_{t \in \mathcal{T}}$ is the minimal sufficient partition of \mathcal{X} if the ratio $\frac{l_{x_1}(\theta)}{l_{x_2}(\theta)}$ is constant in θ if and only if $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{A}_t$.*

PROOF. The theorem is a restatement of Lecture 2, Theorem 2.2. \square

Thus knowledge of any sufficient statistic determines the likelihood function up to a constant. We remark that

1. the likelihood is a *random* function. It depends on the (random) observations.
2. the likelihood is not a density. It is a function of θ , not of x .

Often, we work with the *log-likelihood function* $\ell_x : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ given by

$$\ell_x(\theta) = \log l_x(\theta).$$

If the observations $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_i)_{i \in [n]}$ consists of *i.i.d.* random variables \mathbf{x}_i , the (joint) likelihood is a product of likelihoods:

$$l_x(\theta) = \prod_{i \in [n]} f_\theta^1(x_i),$$

where $f_\theta^1(x)$ is the density of \mathbf{x}_1 , and the log-likelihood is a sum of log likelihoods:

$$\ell_x(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log l_x(\theta).$$

EXAMPLE 1.3. *Let $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Ber}(p)$. The log-likelihood function is*

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_{\mathbf{x}}(p) &= \sum_{i \in [n]} \ell_{\mathbf{x}_i}(p) \\ &= \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i \log(p) + (1 - \mathbf{x}_i) \log(1 - p) \\ &= \mathbf{t} \log(p) + (n - \mathbf{t}) \log(1 - p). \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{t} = \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i$.

EXAMPLE 1.4. Let $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, where σ^2 is known. The log likelihood function is

$$\ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\mu) = \sum_{i \in [n]} -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{x}_i - \mu)^2 - \log \sigma - \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi).$$

Dropping the terms that do not depend on μ ,

$$\propto -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2}(\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mu)^2.$$

EXAMPLE 1.5. Let $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$. The log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\mu, \Sigma) &= \sum_{i \in [n]} -\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mu\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 - \frac{1}{2} \log \det(\Sigma) - \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) \\ &\propto -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \in [n]} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mu\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 - \frac{n}{2} \log \det(\Sigma). \end{aligned}$$

It is possible to show that

$$\sum_{i \in [n]} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mu\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 = \sum_{i \in [n]} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 + n \|\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mu\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2.$$

By the properties of the tr ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i \in [n]} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 &= \sum_{i \in [n]} \text{tr}((\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})) \\ &= \sum_{i \in [n]} \text{tr}((\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T \Sigma^{-1}) \\ &= n \text{tr}(\mathbf{S} \Sigma^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{S} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T$ is the sample covariance matrix. Thus the log-likelihood is

$$\ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\mu, \Sigma) \propto -\frac{n}{2} \text{tr}(\mathbf{S} \Sigma^{-1}) - n \|\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mu\|_{\Sigma^{-1}}^2 - \frac{n}{2} \log \det(\Sigma).$$

2. The maximum likelihood estimator.

DEFINITION 2.1. A maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) of $\theta^* \in \Theta$ on a sample $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is given by $\arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta)$.

In the rest of the notes, we assume the MLE is unique; i.e. the $\arg \max$ in Definition 2.1 is attained at a unique $\hat{\theta}$. When the MLE is not unique, it suggests either the model is unidentifiable (e.g. a non-minimal exponential family) or the data is insufficient.

Intuitively, the MLE a parameter point at which the observed sample is most likely. As we shall see, the MLE is generally a good point estimator, possessing some of the optimality properties that we shall discuss later. The main drawback to the MLE is the hardness of finding the *global* maximizer of the likelihood function, especially when the likelihood is non-concave.

EXAMPLE 2.2 (Example 1.3 continued). *Recall the log-likelihood function is*

$$\begin{aligned}\ell_{\mathbf{x}}(p) &= \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i \log p + (1 - \mathbf{x}_i) \log(1 - p) \\ &= \mathbf{t} \log p + (n - \mathbf{t}) \log(1 - p),\end{aligned}$$

where $t = \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i$. By the optimality of the MLE \hat{p}_{ML} ,

$$0 = \nabla \ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\hat{p}_{\text{ML}}) = \frac{\mathbf{t}}{\hat{p}_{\text{ML}}} - \frac{n - \mathbf{t}}{1 - \hat{p}_{\text{ML}}}.$$

We solve for \hat{p}_{ML} to obtain $\hat{p}_{\text{ML}} = \frac{\mathbf{t}}{n}$.

We observe that \mathbf{t} is a sufficient statistic for the *i.i.d.* Bernoulli model, and \hat{p} depends only on \mathbf{x} through \mathbf{t} . This is not a coincidence: the MLE generally depends only on the data through a sufficient statistic. Indeed, by the factorization theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta) &= \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \log f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \log g_{\theta}(\phi(\mathbf{x})) + \log h(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \log g_{\theta}(\phi(\mathbf{x})).\end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 2.3. Let $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. The log-likelihood function is

$$\begin{aligned}\ell_{\mathbf{x}}(\mu, \sigma^2) &= \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i \in [n]} [-(\mathbf{x}_i - \mu)^2 - \log \sigma - \log \sqrt{2\pi}] \\ &\propto -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i \in [n]} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mu)^2 - n \log \sigma.\end{aligned}$$

By the optimality of $\hat{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -\frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2} \sum_{i \in [n]} [\hat{\mu}_{\text{ML}} - \mathbf{x}_i] \\ &= -\frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2} \left(n\hat{\mu}_{\text{ML}} - \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i \right). \end{aligned}$$

We solve for $\hat{\mu}$ to obtain $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i$. By a similar argument, it is possible to show $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu})^2$. Indeed, by the optimality of $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}$,

$$0 = \frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^3} \sum_{i \in [n]} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu})^2 - \frac{n}{\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}}.$$

We solve for $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2$ to obtain $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu})^2$.

EXAMPLE 2.4. Let $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{unif}(0, \theta)$. The likelihood function is

$$l(\theta) = \theta^{-n} \prod_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{1}_{[0, \theta]}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \theta^{-n} \prod_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{1}_{[0, \theta]}(\mathbf{x}_i).$$

If θ is smaller than any observation, the likelihood vanishes. Thus $\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}$ is at least $\max_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i$. But θ^{-n} is larger at smaller values of θ . Thus

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} := \max_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i.$$

Before moving on to other approaches to point estimation, we mention that the MLE is *equivariant*: if $\hat{\theta}$ is the MLE of a parameter θ^* , then $\tau(\hat{\theta})$ is the MLE of $\tau(\theta^*)$. It is a consequence of the equivariance of optimization to re-parametrization.

LEMMA 2.5. If $\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}$ is the MLE of θ , $g(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})$ is the MLE of $\eta = g(\theta)$.

PROOF. Let $g^{-1}(\eta) := \{\theta \in \Theta : g(\theta) = \eta\}$. We remark that g^{-1} is not a function; it is a set-valued mapping. The reparametrized likelihood is

$$l'_{\mathbf{x}}(\eta) = \sup_{\theta \in g^{-1}(\eta)} l_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta),$$

where $l_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta)$ is the (original) likelihood. By the optimality of $\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}$,

$$\begin{aligned} l'_{\mathbf{x}}(g(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})) &= \sup_{\theta \in g^{-1}(g(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}))} l_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta) \\ &= l_{\mathbf{x}}(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}) \\ &\geq l_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

for any $\theta \in \Theta$, where the second equality is by

1. $\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} \in g^{-1}(g(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})) \subset \Theta$ by the definition of g^{-1} ,
2. $l_{\mathbf{x}}(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}) \geq l_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta)$ for any $\theta \in g^{-1}(g(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}))$.

Thus

$$l'_{\mathbf{x}}(g(\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})) \geq \sup_{\theta \in g^{-1}(\eta)} l_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta) = l'_{\mathbf{x}}(\eta)$$

for any $\eta = g(\theta)$ for some $\theta \in \Theta$. \square

EXAMPLE 2.6 (Example 1.3 continued). *Going back to Example 1.3, if the parameter of interest is the odds ratio $\frac{p}{1-p}$, by the equivariance of the MLE, the MLE of the odds ratio is $\frac{\hat{p}_{\text{ML}}}{1-\hat{p}_{\text{ML}}}$.*

3. The method of moments. An older approach to point estimation is the method of moments (MoM). Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ consist of *i.i.d.* random variables $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbf{R}$, $i \in [n]$. In its most simple form, the MoM

1. expresses the first m moments of \mathbf{x}_1 in terms of θ :

$$\mu_k(\theta) = \mathbf{E}_{\theta}[\mathbf{x}_1^k], \quad k \in [m];$$

2. plugs in the first m sample moments and solve for $\hat{\theta}$:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i^k - \mu_k(\hat{\theta}_{\text{MoM}}) = 0, \quad k \in [m].$$

EXAMPLE 3.1 (Example 1.3 continued). *The first moment of \mathbf{x}_1 is p . We plug in the first sample moment $\hat{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i$ to obtain*

$$\hat{p}_{\text{MoM}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} \mathbf{x}_i$$

Thus, in the coin tossing example, the MLE and the MoM are the same! As we shall see, this is no mere coincidence: the two approaches are generally equivalent when the model is an exponential family.

EXAMPLE 3.2. *Let $\mathbf{x}_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Bin}(n, p)$, where both n and p are unknown. By the properties of the binomial distribution,*

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1(n, p) &= np, \\ \mu_2(n, p) &= np(1-p) + (np)^2. \end{aligned}$$

We plug in the first two sample moments and solve for n and p to obtain

$$\hat{n} = \frac{\hat{\mu}_2^2}{\hat{\mu}_1 - \hat{\mu}_2 + \hat{\mu}_1^2}, \quad \hat{p} = \frac{\hat{\mu}_1}{\hat{n}}.$$