

# Integrated Likelihood Inference in Poisson Distributions

Timothy Ruel

Department of Statistics and Data Science, Northwestern University

September 13, 2024

## Abstract

The text of your abstract. 200 or fewer words.

*Keywords:* Directly standardized rate, Integrated likelihood ratio statistic, Maximum integrated likelihood estimator, Profile likelihood, Weighted sum, Zero score expectation parameter

# 1 Introduction

Consider a vector  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$  in which each component represents the mean of a distinct Poisson process. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the task of conducting likelihood-based inference for a real-valued parameter of interest  $\psi = \tau(\theta)$ . In particular, we will examine the utility of the integrated likelihood function as a tool for obtaining interval and point estimates for  $\psi$ , using the performance of the more easily calculated profile likelihood as a benchmark.

We may obtain a sample of values from each Poisson process through repeated measurements of the number of events it generates over a fixed period of time. Suppose we have done so, and let  $X_{ij}$  represent the  $j$ th count from the  $i$ th sample, so that  $X_{ij} \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and  $j = 1, \dots, m_i$ . The probability mass function (pmf) for a single observation  $X_{ij} = x_{ij}$  is

$$p(x_{ij}; \theta_i) = \frac{e^{-\theta_i} \theta_i^{x_{ij}}}{x_{ij}!}, \quad x_{ij} = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \quad \theta_i > 0. \quad (1)$$

Denote the sample of counts from the  $i$ th process by the vector  $X_{i\bullet} = (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{im_i})$ , its associated mean by  $\bar{X}_{i\bullet} = \frac{1}{m_i} \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} X_{ij}$ , and assume that all of the counts both within and between samples are measured independently. The likelihood function for an individual component  $\theta_i$  based on the data  $X_{i\bullet} = x_{i\bullet}$  is then equal to the product of the individual

probabilities of the observed counts, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}
L(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) &= \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} p(x_{ij}; \theta_i) \\
&= \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} \frac{e^{-\theta_i} \theta_i^{x_{ij}}}{x_{ij}!} \\
&= \left( \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} e^{-\theta_i} \right) \left( \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} \theta_i^{x_{ij}} \right) \left( \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} x_{ij}! \right)^{-1} \\
&= \left( e^{-\sum_{j=1}^{m_i} \theta_i} \right) \left( \theta_i^{\sum_{j=1}^{m_i} x_{ij}} \right) \left( \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} x_{ij}! \right)^{-1} \\
&= e^{-m_i \theta_i} \theta_i^{m_i \bar{x}_{i\bullet}} \left( \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} x_{ij}! \right)^{-1}.
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Since  $L$  is only useful to the extent that it informs our understanding of the value of  $\theta_i$ , we are free to replace it with any other function differing from it by just a (nonzero) multiplicative term that is constant with respect to  $\theta_i$ , provided that the result still satisfies the necessary regularity conditions, as this will not change any conclusions regarding  $\theta_i$  that we draw from it. Hence, we may safely discard the term in parentheses on the final line of Equation 2 as it does not depend on  $\theta_i$  and instead simply write

$$L(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) = e^{-m_i \theta_i} \theta_i^{m_i \bar{x}_{i\bullet}}. \tag{3}$$

It will generally be more convenient to work with the log-likelihood function, which is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\ell(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) &= \log L(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) \\
&= \log \left( e^{-m_i \theta_i} \theta_i^{m_i \bar{x}_{i\bullet}} \right) \\
&= -m_i \theta_i + m_i \bar{x}_{i\bullet} \log \theta_i \\
&= m_i (\bar{x}_{i\bullet} \log \theta_i - \theta_i).
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

The sum of the log-likelihood functions for each component of  $\theta$  then forms the basis of

the log-likelihood function for  $\theta$  itself:

$$\begin{aligned}
\ell(\theta; x_{1\bullet}, \dots, x_{n\bullet}) &= \log L(\theta; x_{1\bullet}, \dots, x_{n\bullet}) \\
&= \log \left( \prod_{i=1}^n L(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) \right) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \log L(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(\theta_i; x_{i\bullet}) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(\bar{x}_{i\bullet} \log \theta_i - \theta_i).
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

We can derive the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) for  $\theta_i$  by differentiating Equation 4 with respect to  $\theta_i$ , setting the result equal to 0, and solving for  $\theta_i$ . This gives the nice result that the MLE is simply equal to the mean of the sample of data  $X_{i\bullet}$ . That is,

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \bar{X}_{i\bullet}. \tag{6}$$

Similarly, the MLE for the full parameter  $\theta$  is just the vector of MLEs for its individual components:

$$\hat{\theta} \equiv (\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_n) = (\bar{X}_{1\bullet}, \dots, \bar{X}_{n\bullet}). \tag{7}$$

## 2 Pseudolikelihoods

Let  $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}_+^n$  represent the space of possible values for  $\theta$  and suppose we have a real-valued *parameter of interest*  $\psi = \tau(\theta)$ , where  $\tau : \Theta \rightarrow \Psi$  is a known function with at least two continuous derivatives. Though it is not strictly necessary, in order to align with the tendency of researchers to focus on one-dimensional summaries of vector quantities we will assume for our purposes that  $\psi$  is a scalar, i.e.  $\Psi \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

This reduced dimension of  $\Psi$  relative to  $\Theta$  implies the existence of a *nuisance parameter*  $\lambda \in \Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ . As its name suggests,  $\lambda$  tends to obfuscate or outright preclude inference

regarding  $\psi$  and typically must be eliminated from the likelihood before proceeding. The product of this elimination is called a *pseudolikelihood function*. Any function of the data and  $\psi$  alone could theoretically be considered a pseudolikelihood, though course in practice some are more useful than others.

If we let  $\Theta_\psi = \{\theta \in \Theta : \tau(\theta) = \psi\}$ , then associated with each  $\psi \in \Psi$  is the set of likelihood values  $\mathcal{L}_\psi = \{L(\theta) : \theta \in \Theta_\psi\}$ . For a given value of  $\psi$ , there may exist multiple corresponding values of  $\lambda$ .

We can construct pseudolikelihoods for  $\psi$  through clever choices by which to summarize  $\mathcal{L}_\psi$  over all possible values of  $\lambda$ . Among the most popular methods of summary are profiling (i.e. maximization), conditioning, and integration, each with respect to the nuisance parameter. These summaries do come at a cost, however; eliminating a model's nuisance parameter from its likelihood almost always sacrifices some information about its parameter of interest as well. One measure of a good pseudolikelihood, therefore, is the balance it strikes between the amount of information it retains about  $\psi$  and the ease with which it can be computed.

## 2.1 The Profile Likelihood

The most straightforward method we can use to construct a pseudolikelihood (or equivalently, a pseudo-log-likelihood) function for  $\psi$  is usually to find the maximum of  $\ell(\theta)$  over all possible values of  $\theta$  for each value of  $\psi$ . This yields what is known as the *profile* log-likelihood function, formally defined as

$$\ell_p(\psi) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta : \tau(\theta) = \psi} \ell(\theta), \quad \psi \in \Psi. \quad (8)$$

In the case where an explicit nuisance parameter  $\lambda$  exists so that  $\theta$  may be written as  $\theta = (\psi, \lambda)$ , Equation 8 is equivalent to replacing  $\lambda$  with  $\hat{\lambda}_\psi$ , its conditional MLE given  $\psi$ :

$$\ell_p(\psi) = \ell(\psi, \hat{\lambda}_\psi). \quad (9)$$

Historically, the efficiency with which the profile is capable of producing accurate estimates of  $\psi$  relative to its ease of computation has made it the method of choice for statisticians when performing likelihood-based inference regarding a parameter of interest. Examples of profile-based statistics are the MLE for  $\psi$ , i.e.,

$$\hat{\psi} = \arg \sup_{\psi \in \Psi} \ell_p(\psi), \quad (10)$$

and the signed likelihood ratio statistic for  $\psi$ , given by

$$R_\psi = \text{sgn}(\hat{\psi} - \psi)(2(\ell_p(\hat{\psi}) - \ell_p(\psi)))^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (11)$$

## 2.2 The Integrated Likelihood

The *integrated likelihood* for  $\psi$  seeks to summarize  $\mathcal{L}_\psi$  by its average value with respect to some weight function  $\pi$  over the space  $\Theta_\psi$ . From a theoretical standpoint, this is preferable to the maximization procedure found in the profile likelihood as it naturally incorporates our uncertainty regarding the nuisance parameter's true value into the resulting pseudo-likelihood. The general form of an integrated likelihood function is given

$$\bar{L}(\psi) = \int_{\Theta_\psi} L(\theta) \pi(\theta; \psi) d\theta. \quad (12)$$

It is up to the researcher to choose the weight function  $\pi(\cdot; \psi)$ , which plays an important role in the properties of the resulting integrated likelihood. Severini (2007) developed a method for re-parameterizing  $\lambda$  that makes the integrated likelihood relatively insensitive to the exact weight function chosen. Using this new parameterization, we have great flexibility

in choosing our weight function; as long as it does not depend on the parameter of interest, the integrated likelihood that is produced will enjoy many desirable frequency properties.

### 3 Application to Poisson Models

We now turn our attention to the task of using the ZSE parameterization to construct an integrated likelihood that can be used to make inferences regarding a parameter of interest derived from the Poisson model described in the introduction. We will

## 4 Estimating the Weighted Sum of Poisson Means

Consider the weighted sum

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i X_i,$$

where each  $w_i$  is a known constant greater than zero. Suppose we take for our parameter of interest the expected value of this weighted sum, so that

$$\psi \equiv E(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \theta_i.$$

### 4.1 Examples

## 5 Zero-Inflated Poisson Regression

A sample of count data is called *zero-inflated* when it contains an excess amount of zero-valued observations. A common tactic to account for this excess is to model the data using a mixture of two distributions. The first is a simple Bernoulli process that generates zeros and the other is one that generates counts, some of which may also be zeros. When

this count-generating process is governed by a Poisson distribution, we call the resulting mixture a zero-inflated Poisson (ZIP) model.

Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$  and

## References