### Likelihood basics

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#### Likelihood

- ► Assume we observe the outcome of many coin tosses. e.g HTTH...T
- A data model for each experiment is denoted as

$$X_i \sim Bern(\theta)$$

where  $\theta$  is

$$Pr(X_i = H) = \theta.$$

- ▶ Here  $X_i$  represents the outcome of the  $i^{th}$  experiment.
- ightharpoonup We assume that heta is constant for all experiments.

We now have the following joint probabilities for the following three cases:

$$Pr(X_1 = H) = \theta$$
 $Pr(X_1 = H, X_2 = T) = \theta(1 - \theta)$ 
 $Pr(X_1 = H, X_2 = T, X_3 = T) = \theta(1 - \theta)(1 - \theta)$ 

#### Likelihood

Assume we had observed n experiments. In this case the joint probability mass function is

$$p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = p(x_1) \times p(x_2) \times \ldots \times p(x_n).$$

The above mass function is in fact a function of  $\theta$  and is denoted as  $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \theta) = p(x_1 | \theta) \times p(x_2 | \theta) \times \dots \times p(x_n | \theta)$  (1)

$$= \prod p(x_i|\theta). \tag{2}$$

### Likelihood

- Above, we assumed that each experiment is independent!
- Equation 2 is termed the likelihood function!

In general,

$$p(x|\theta) = \theta^{x}(1-\theta)^{1-x}$$

where x = 0 or x = 1. The likelihood function thus simplifies to

$$p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n | \theta) = \prod_i \theta^{x_i} (1 - \theta)^{1 - x_i} = \theta^{\sum_i x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_i x_i}$$
 (3)

and is often denoted as  $L(x, \theta)$ .

Maximum likelihood estimation is the process of using data to estimate the value of  $\theta$  by maximising the likelihood function.

```
#d.a.t.a.
x \leftarrow c(0.1.1.1.1.1.1.0.0.1.1.1.0.1.1)
#likelihood function
likelihood <- function(theta, x){</pre>
  #returns the likelihood value
  #one could also work with the loglikelihood value
  sx \leftarrow sum(x)
  n \leftarrow length(x)
  (theta^sx)*((1-theta)^(n-sx))
}
```

## \$message ## NULL

```
#optim by default does minimisation.
#fnscale=-1 multiplies 'the'likelihood' by -1
optim(0.5, fn = likelihood, x=x,
      control=list(fnscale=-1),
      method= "Brent", lower=0, upper=1)
## $par
## [1] 0.7333333
##
## $value
## [1] 0.0001667979
##
## $counts
## function gradient
##
         NΑ
                  NΑ
##
## $convergence
## [1] O
##
```

Notice that the maximum likelihood estimate is

$$\hat{\theta} = 0.7333333 = \frac{11}{15}.$$

If we work with the logarithm of the likelihood function (loglikelihood function) we will get the same estimators!

```
#loglikelihood function
logl <- function(theta, x){
    sx <- sum(x)
    n <- length(x)

    sx*log(theta) + (n-sx)*log(1-theta)
}</pre>
```

Notice we obtain the same value!

```
optim(0.5, fn = logl, x=x,
      control=list(fnscale=-1),
      method= "Brent", lower=0, upper=1)
## $par
## [1] 0.7333333
##
## $value
## [1] -8.698728
##
## $counts
## function gradient
##
         NΑ
                  NA
##
## $convergence
## [1] 0
##
## $message
## NULL
```

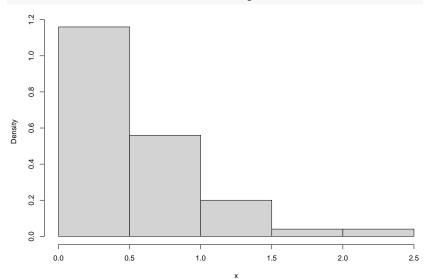
Assume that you observed n=100 observations from an exponential random variable with rate parameter  $\lambda$ . Assume that  $\lambda=2$ . Recall that  $f(x|\lambda)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$  for x>0.

- 1. Set the seed to be 1. Simulate a random data set to replicate the above scenario.
- 2. Plot the histogram of your data and superimpose the probability density function using the assumed value of  $\lambda$ .
- 3. Use pencil and paper to derive the likelihood function. Write down the log of the likelihood function.
- 4. Write a function named log1 that can be used to calculate the loglikelihood. Name the arguments to your function lambda and xData. Note lambda should be the first argument.
- 5. Use R to estimate the value of lambda that maximises the loglikelihood function. Read optim for help here!
- 6. Use your estimated value of  $\lambda$  and superimpose the estimated probability density function on your histogram.

```
#1.
set.seed(1)
n < -100
xData <- rexp(n, rate = 2)</pre>
cat("\n mean(X) = ", mean(xData))
##
## mean(X) = 0.5153382
cat("\n var(X) = ", var(xData))
##
## var(X) = 0.2192497
```

#2.

hist(xData, main="", xlab="x", prob=TRUE)



The loglikelihood function is

$$\log l = n \log(\lambda) - \lambda \sum_{i} x_{i}.$$

```
#5.
#First argument must be the parameter of your model.
logl <- function(lambda, xData){</pre>
  #return the negative of the loglilihood function
  \#lambda = the rate parameter
  \#xData = the data used
 n <- length(xData)
  loglp <- n * log(lambda) - lambda * sum(xData)</pre>
  return( -loglp )
```

# Exercise - using optim (there are many different routines that could be used!)

```
#set a starting value of 5
#this happens to find a solution!
#note we have not told R that the parameter has to be positive
optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData)
## Warning in optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData): one-dimensional optimization
## use "Brent" or optimize() directly
## $par
## [1] 1.94043
##
## $value
## [1] 33.70681
##
## $counts
## function gradient
##
         32
                  NA
##
## $convergence
## [1] 0
##
## $message
```

## NULL

### Exercise - using optim - default is "Nelder-Mead"

```
#set a starting value of 0.5
#this happens to find a solution!
#note we have not told R that the parameter has to be positive
optim(0.5, fn = log1, xData = xData)
```

```
## Warning in optim(0.5, fn = logl, xData = xData): one-dimensional optimizatio
## use "Brent" or optimize() directly
## $par
## [1] 1.940625
##
## $value
## [1] 33.70681
##
## $counts
## function gradient
##
         32
                  NA
##
## $convergence
## [1] O
##
## $message
## NULL.
```

# Exercise - using optim method = "Brent"

```
optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData, method = "Brent")
#you receive the following error
#Error in optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData, method = "Brent") :
#'lower' and 'upper' must be finite values
```

There are a number of optimisation methods that could be used. Brent is one such method that can be used to one-dimensional optimisation.

# Exercise - using optim (set limits when using Brent)

```
#for some reason logl(0) does not give an error!
#normally you have to be careful that your function
#evaluates to a finite value over the range of your
#function
optim(5, fn = log1, xData = xData, method = "Brent", lower=0, upper=10)
## $par
## [1] 1.940473
##
## $value
## [1] 33.70681
##
## $counts
## function gradient
         NΑ
                  NΑ
##
##
## $convergence
## [1] O
##
## $message
## NULL
```

```
#happens to give the same solution!
#a gradient based method
optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData, method = "Nelder-Mead")
## Warning in optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData, method = "Nelder-Mead"): one-d
## use "Brent" or optimize() directly
## $par
## [1] 1.94043
##
## $value
## [1] 33.70681
##
## $counts
## function gradient
##
         32
                  NA
##
## $convergence
## [1] 0
##
## $message
## NULL
```

Have a look at the bounds of your function. You are getting an error since logl(0) is infinite!

# Exercise - using optim (assigning bounds to the parameter)

```
#set a small lower limit to solve the error
optim(5, fn = log1, xData = xData, method = "L-BFGS-B",
      lower=0.001, upper=10)
## $par
## [1] 1.940473
##
## $value
## [1] 33.70681
##
## $counts
## function gradient
##
##
## $convergence
## [1] 0
##
## $message
```

## [1] "CONVERGENCE: REL REDUCTION OF F <= FACTR\*EPSMCH"

```
# optim(5, fn = logl, xData = xData, method = "L-BFGS-B",
# lower=0.001, upper=10)
# $par
# [1] 1.940473
# $value
# [1] 33.70681
# $counts
# function gradient
# 9 9
# $convergence
# [1] 0
# $message
# [1] "CONVERGENCE: REL_REDUCTION_OF_F <= FACTR*EPSMCH"</pre>
```

- par is the parameter value at which the loglikelihood function is maximised.
- convergence=0 indicates convergence of the algorithm

# Exercise - using optimise is another function that can be used for 1d optimisation

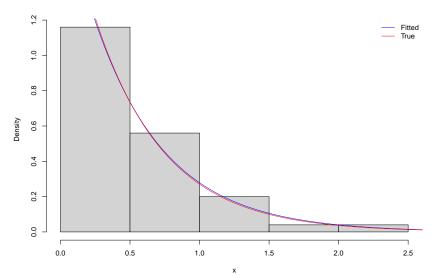
```
optimise(f = log1, xData = xData, lower=0.001, upper=10)
## $minimum
## [1] 1.940473
##
## $objective
## [1] 33.70681
```

Take note of what this function gives you! Different functions give you different outputs.

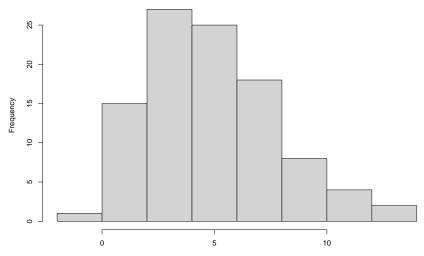
# Exercise - using optimise is another function that can be used for 1d optimisation

```
opt <- optimise(f = logl, xData = xData, lower=0.001, upper=10)
hist(xData, main="", xlab="x", prob=TRUE)
xr <- seq(from=0.01, to=3, length.out=500)</pre>
#take note how the estimated parameter is extracted from the list.
vr.est <- dexp(xr, rate = opt$minimum)</pre>
lines(xr, vr.est, col="blue")
yr.true <- dexp(xr, rate = 2)</pre>
lines(xr, yr.true, col="red")
legend("topright", legend = c("Fitted", "True"), col=c("blue", "red"),
       lty=c(1,1), bty="n")
```

# Exercise - using optimise is another function that can be used for 1d optimisation



Assume that we have n=100 observations from a Gaussian distribution with unknown mean  $(\mu)$  and variance  $(\sigma^2)$ . We can easily extend the previous optimisation task to a multi-parameter setting to estimate the unknown parameters.



The loglikelihood function is

$$I = -\frac{n}{2}\log(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i}(x_i - \mu)^2.$$

Note we can ignore terms independent of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ .

When coding up this loglikelihood function, we set the first argument of our function, logl, to represent a two-dimensional vector and include any additional variables required to undertake the optimisation.

```
logl <- function(par, xData){</pre>
  #return the loglikelihood function for Gaussian data
  \#par = c(mu, s)
  \#mu = mean(X), s = sd(X)
  #1st param of par argument = mean
  #2nd paramr of par argument = sd
  mu <- par[1]
  s <- par[2]
  #the variance of X
  s2 < - s^2
  logl \leftarrow -n*0.5 * log(s2) - 0.5*sum((xData-mu)^2)/s2
  return( logl[1] )
```

- ► Take note that a vector has to be supplied as the starting value for the algorithm. ie. c(5,5).
- Note how the lower and upper arguments are specified.
- lower are the lower bounds of the two parameters.
- upper are the upper bounds of the two parameters.
- ► list(fnscale = -1) implies that the loglikelihood is multiplied by -1.

```
opt
## $par
## [1] 4.926770 2.856681
##
## $value
## [1] -154.966
##
## $counts
## function gradient
         10
##
                   10
##
## $convergence
## [1] O
##
## $message
  [1] "CONVERGENCE: REL_REDUCTION_OF_F <= FACTR*EPSMCH"
```

```
#the mean and sd estimates
cat("\n Parameter estimate = ", opt$par)
##
## Parameter estimate = 4.92677 2.856681
#the value is 0 and thus the algorithm converged
cat("\n Convergence message = ", opt$convergence)
##
##
   Convergence message = 0
#check the solutions
cat("\n mean = ", mean(xData))
##
##
   mean = 4.92677
```

In the above example we constrained the optimisation by using the 'L-BFGS-B' method. For some optimiation problems it might be useful to not use a constrained optimisation routine to maximise the particular likelihood. In this case, it would be useful to transform the constrained parameters so that they are unconstrained. i.e.  $-\infty, \infty$ .

Specifically, we would transform from  $\sigma$  to  $\sigma^*$  where  $\sigma^* = \log(\sigma)$ .

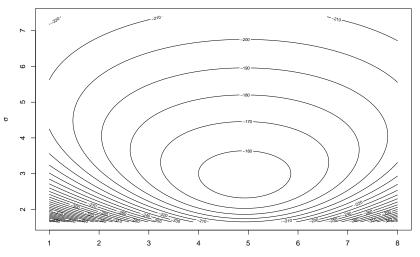
```
logl <- function(par, xData){</pre>
  #return the loglikelihood function for Gaussian data
  \#par = c(mu. s*)
  \#mu = mean(X), s = log(sd(X))
  #1st param of par argument = mean
  #2nd paramr of par argument = log(sd)
  mu <- par[1]
  #transform from sigma* to sigma
  s <- exp(par[2])
  #the variance of X
  s2 < - s^2
  n <- length(xData)</pre>
  logl \leftarrow -n*0.5*log(s2) - 0.5*sum((xData-mu)^2)/s2
  return( logl[1] )
```

Convergence message = 0

## ##

```
#the mean and sd estimates
#they are basically the same as before!!!!
#take note the sigma estimate!
cat("\n Parameter estimate = ", c(opt2$par[1],
                                  exp(opt2$par[2])) )
##
## Parameter estimate = 4.927027 2.856644
#the value is 0 and thus the algorithm converged
cat("\n Convergence message = ", opt2$convergence)
```

Sometimes it is useful to plot a two dimensional (contour) plot that displays the contours of the loglikelihood function to see what the surface looks like.



Above we see that maximum of the loglikelihood function occurs at a value of  $\mu$  somewhere between 4 and 5, and  $\sigma$  somewhere between 3 and 4.

```
#range of mu and s.star
xr.mu <- seq(from=1, to=8, length.out=100)
xr.s.star <- seq(from=0.5, to=2, length.out=100)
logl.c <- function(mu, s.star, xData){</pre>
  #return the loglikelihood function for Gaussian data
  \#par = c(mu, s*); mu = mean(X), s = log(sd(X))
  #transform from sigma* to sigma
  s <- exp(s.star)
  #the variance of X
  s2 <- s<sup>2</sup>
  n <- length(xData)</pre>
  temp <- 0
  for (i in 1:n){ temp <- temp + (xData[i]-mu)^2 }</pre>
  logl \leftarrow -n*0.5*log(s2) - 0.5*temp/s2
  return( logl[1] )
```

We *vectorize* **logl.c** so that we are able to evaluate **logl.c** using the **outer** function. The outer function evaluates a function at all pairs of *xr.mu* and *s.star* and produces a matrix of values.

# Outer function (example)

Lets quickly look at the *outer* function.

```
x1 < -1:3
x2 < -5:7
func1 <- function(x,y){</pre>
 x*y
outer(X=x1, Y=x2, FUN=func1)
       [,1] [,2] [,3]
##
## [1,] 5 6 7
```

```
## [1,] 5 6 7
## [2,] 10 12 14
## [3,] 15 18 21
```

# Outer function (example)

The *outer* function requires two inputs X and Y and applies these values to your function.

X and Y should be vectors such that all element pairs are evaluated by the *outer* function.

Previously we saw that the first row of the output is 5, 6 and 7.

This is because the first row of the output matrix is  $1 \times 5$ ,  $1 \times 6$  and  $1 \times 7$ . The third row similarly is  $3 \times 5$ ,  $3 \times 6$  and  $3 \times 7$ .

The *outer* function evaluates much faster than using a nested loop to produce the above output and is preferred.