

# Likelihood Function (or simply Likelihood)

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- [wikipedia](#)

In statistics, the likelihood function (often simply called the likelihood) measures the goodness of fit of a statistical model to a sample of data for given values of the unknown parameters.

It is formed from the joint probability distribution of the sample, but viewed and used as a function of the parameters only, thus treating the random variables as fixed at the observed values.

## Likelihood for discrete case:

If  $X$  is discrete random variable with pmf  $p$  depending on parameter  $\theta$ , then,

$$L(\theta | x) = p_{\theta}(x) = P_{\theta}(X=x).$$

The likelihood is considered as a function of  $\theta$  given the output  $x$ .

## Continuous case is

Let  $X$  be a random variable with pdf  $f$  depending on parameter  $\theta$ , then,

$$L(\theta | x) = f_{\theta}(x)$$

For example, for Bernoulli distribution, the joint prob function is:

$$P(X=x|p) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{(1-x_i)}$$

If we characterized the likelihood as function of  $p$ , then,

$$L(p|x) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{(1-x_i)} \text{ (this is same as above)}$$

We also note that, total sum of prob = 1 but may not be for likelihood.

$$\int_{p=0}^1 L(p|x) dp \neq 1$$

# Example of Likelihood function (coin flip)

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- [wikipedia](#)

Let's say we have outcome of coin flip as HH. Then, if we assume parameter of fairness  $p_H = 0.5$ , then,

likelihood function is,

$$L(p_H=0.5 | HH) = 0.25$$

This means, given our outcome of HH, the likelihood that parameter  $p_H$  equals 0.5 is 0.25.

## Discrete probability distribution [\[ edit \]](#)

Let  $X$  be a discrete [random variable](#) with [probability mass function](#)  $p$  depending on a parameter  $\theta$ . Then the function

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta | x) = p_{\theta}(x) = P_{\theta}(X = x),$$

considered as a function of  $\theta$ , is the *likelihood function*, given the [outcome](#)  $x$  of the random variable  $X$ . Sometimes the probability of "the value  $x$  of  $X$  for the parameter value  $\theta$ " is written as  $P(X = x | \theta)$  or  $P(X = x; \theta)$ .  $\mathcal{L}(\theta | x)$  should not be confused with  $p(\theta | x)$ ; the likelihood is equal to the probability that a particular outcome  $x$  is observed when the true value of the parameter is  $\theta$ , and hence it is equal to a probability density over the outcome  $x$ , not over the parameter  $\theta$ .

### Example [\[ edit \]](#)

Consider a simple statistical model of a coin flip: a single parameter  $p_H$  that expresses the "fairness" of the coin. The parameter is the probability that a coin lands heads up ("H") when tossed.  $p_H$  can take on any value within the range 0.0 to 1.0. For a perfectly [fair coin](#),  $p_H = 0.5$ .

Imagine flipping a fair coin twice, and observing the following data: two heads in two tosses ("HH"). Assuming that each successive coin flip is [i.i.d.](#), then the probability of observing HH is

$$P(\text{HH} | p_H = 0.5) = 0.5^2 = 0.25.$$

Hence, given the observed data HH, the *likelihood* that the model parameter  $p_H$  equals 0.5 is 0.25. Mathematically, this is written as

$$\mathcal{L}(p_H = 0.5 | \text{HH}) = 0.25.$$

This is not the same as saying that the probability that  $p_H = 0.5$ , given the observation HH, is 0.25. (For that, we could apply [Bayes' theorem](#), which implies that the posterior probability is proportional to the likelihood times the prior probability.)

Suppose that the coin is not a fair coin, but instead it has  $p_H = 0.3$ . Then the probability of getting two heads is

$$P(\text{HH} | p_H = 0.3) = 0.3^2 = 0.09.$$

Hence

$$\mathcal{L}(p_H = 0.3 | \text{HH}) = 0.09.$$

More generally, for each value of  $p_H$ , we can calculate the corresponding likelihood. The result of such calculations is displayed in Figure 1.

In Figure 2, the integral of the likelihood over the interval  $[0, 1]$  is  $1/3$ . That illustrates an important aspect of likelihoods: likelihoods do not have to integrate (or sum) to 1, unlike probabilities.

## Continuous probability distribution [\[ edit \]](#)

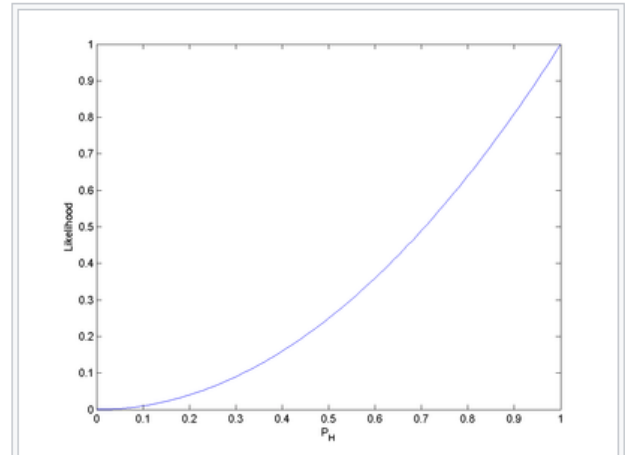
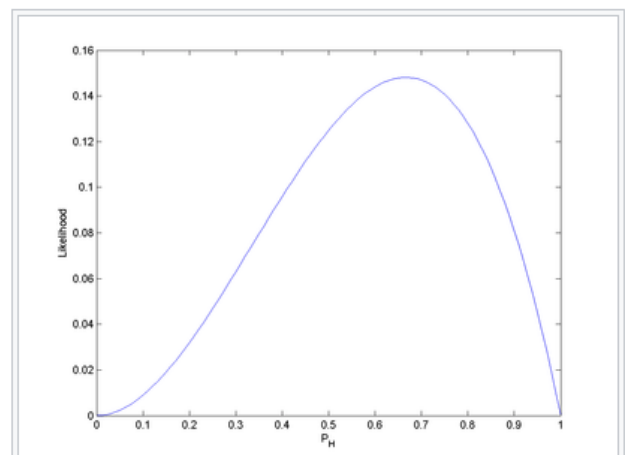


Figure 1. The likelihood function ( $p_H^2$ ) for the probability of a coin landing heads-up (without prior knowledge of the coin's fairness), given that we have observed HH.



# Probability vs Likelihood



## Example of Likelihood!

Likelihood calculation involves calculating the best distribution or best characteristics of data given a particular feature value or situation.

Consider the exactly same dataset example as provided above for probability, if their likelihood of height  $> 170$  cm has to be calculated then it will be done using the information shown below:

$$Likelihood(\mu = 170, \sigma = 3.5 | height > 170cm)$$

Likelihood calculation [Image by Author!]

In the calculation of the Likelihood, the equation of the conditional probability flips as compared to the equation in the probability calculation.

Here, the dataset features will be varied, i.e. Mean & Standard Deviation of the dataset will be varied in order to get the maximum likelihood for height  $> 170$  cm.

The likelihood in very simple terms means to increase the chances of a particular situation to happen/occur by varying the characteristics of the dataset distribution.

## Example of Probability!

Consider a dataset containing the heights of the people of a particular country. Let's say the mean of the data is 170 & the standard deviation is 3.5.

When Probability has to be calculated of any situation using this dataset, then the dataset features will be constant i.e. mean & standard deviation of the dataset will be constant, they will not be altered. Let's say the probability of height  $> 170$  cm has to be calculated for a random record in the dataset, then that will be calculated using the information shown

below:

$$P(\text{height} > 170\text{cm} | \mu = 170, \sigma = 3.5)$$

Calculating Probability [Image by Author!]

In the above image, “mu” represents mean & “sigma” represents Standard Deviation.

While calculating probability, feature value can be varied, but the characteristics(mean & Standard Deviation) of the data distribution cannot be altered.

If in the same dataset, the probability of height > 190 cm has to be calculated, then in the above equation, only the height part would have changed.



I think maybe the best way to explain the notion of likelihood is to consider a concrete example. Suppose I have a sample of IID observations drawn from a Bernoulli distribution with unknown probability of success  $p$ :  $X_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , so the joint probability mass function of the sample is

$$\Pr[\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \mid p] = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}.$$

This expression also characterizes the likelihood of  $p$ , given an observed sample  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ :

$$L(p \mid \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}.$$

But if we think of  $p$  as a random variable, this likelihood is not a density:

$$\int_{p=0}^1 L(p \mid \mathbf{x}) dp \neq 1.$$

It is, however, *proportional* to a probability density, which is why we say it is a likelihood of  $p$  being a particular value given the sample—it represents, in some sense, the relative plausibility of  $p$  being some value for the observations we made.

For instance, suppose  $n = 5$  and the sample was  $\mathbf{x} = (1, 1, 0, 1, 1)$ . Intuitively we would conclude that  $p$  is more likely to be closer to 1 than to 0, because we observed more ones. Indeed, we have

$$L(p \mid \mathbf{x}) = p^4(1-p).$$

If we plot this function on  $p \in [0, 1]$ , we can see how the likelihood confirms our intuition. Of course, we do not know the true value of  $p$ —it could have been  $p = 0.25$  rather than  $p = 0.8$ , but the likelihood function tells us that the former is much less likely than the latter. But if we want to determine a *probability* that  $p$  lies in a certain interval, we have to normalize the likelihood: since  $\int_{p=0}^1 p^4(1-p) dp = \frac{1}{30}$ , it follows that in order to get a *posterior density* for  $p$ , we must multiply by 30:

$$f_p(p \mid \mathbf{x}) = 30p^4(1-p).$$

In fact, this posterior is a beta distribution with parameters  $a = 5, b = 2$ . Now the areas under the density correspond to probabilities.