

Likelihood

Statistical Inference

Brian Caffo, Roger Peng, Jeff Leek Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health

Likelihood

- · A common and fruitful approach to statistics is to assume that the data arises from a family of distributions indexed by a parameter that represents a useful summary of the distribution
- The likelihood of a collection of data is the joint density evaluated as a function of the parameters with the data fixed
- · Likelihood analysis of data uses the likelihood to perform inference regarding the unknown parameter

Likelihood

Given a statistical probability mass function or density, say $f(x,\theta)$, where θ is an unknown parameter, the likelihood is f viewed as a function of θ for a fixed, observed value of x.

Interpretations of likelihoods

The likelihood has the following properties:

- Ratios of likelihood values measure the relative evidence of one value of the unknown parameter to another.
- 2. Given a statistical model and observed data, all of the relevant information contained in the data regarding the unknown parameter is contained in the likelihood.
- 3. If $\{X_i\}$ are independent random variables, then their likelihoods multiply. That is, the likelihood of the parameters given all of the X_i is simply the product of the individual likelihoods.

Example

- · Suppose that we flip a coin with success probability θ
- Recall that the mass function for x

$$f(x, heta)= heta^x(1- heta)^{1-x} \quad ext{for} \quad heta\in[0,1].$$
 Why tf is it theta now when before it has always been p $??$

where x is either 0 (Tails) or 1 (Heads)

- Suppose that the result is a head <- with likelihoods, you have the data 'in hand', so we have the result now.
- · The likelihood is

$$\mathcal{L}(heta,1) = heta^1 (1- heta)^{1-1} = heta \; ext{ for } \; heta \in [0,1].$$

- Therefore, $\mathcal{L}(.5,1)/\mathcal{L}(.25,1)=2$,
- · There is twice as much evidence supporting the hypothesis that $\theta=.5$ to the hypothesis that $\theta=.25$

-> so you can compare any 2 hypotheses like that

Example continued

- Suppose now that we flip our coin from the previous example 4 times and get the sequence 1, 0, 1,
- · The likelihood is: of this, now given, sequence

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta,1,0,1,1) = \theta^1 (1-\theta)^{1-1} \theta^0 (1-\theta)^{1-0} \text{ first 2 results (1, 0)}$$

$$\times \theta^1 (1-\theta)^{1-1} \theta^1 (1-\theta)^{1-1} \text{ second 2 results (1, 1)}$$

$$= \theta^3 (1-\theta)^1 \text{ (multiplied because independet)}$$

- This likelihood only depends on the total number of heads and the total number of tails; we might write $\mathcal{L}(\theta, 1, 3)$ for shorthand
- Now consider $\mathcal{L}(.5,1,3)/\mathcal{L}(.25,1,3)=5.33$ = (0.5^3 * (1-0.5)) / (0.25^3 * (1-0.25))
- There is over five times as much evidence supporting the hypothesis that $\theta = .5$ over that $\theta = .25$

Knowledge of total num of heads (and sample size) is sufficient to estimate the likelihood (under the assumption that the Bernoulli model is correct and iid is given)!

Plotting likelihoods

- Generally, we want to consider all the values of θ between 0 and 1
- A likelihood plot displays θ by $\mathcal{L}(\theta, x)$
- Because the likelihood measures relative evidence, dividing the curve by its maximum value (or any other value for that matter) does not change its interpretation

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Usually we compare L(th1)/L(th2) (not just one L(th) alone. So if both are devided by some constant, that doesn't change the ratio. So the constant that is often used is L(th_max):

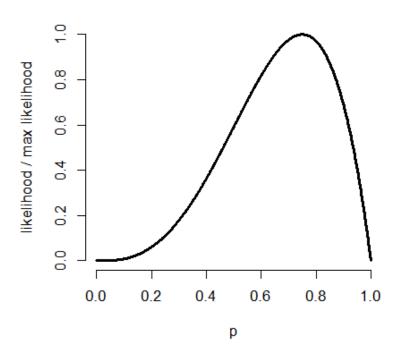
we plot L(th) against L(th_max), so it becomes 1 at the maximum likelihood!

See next page's plot:
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now he uses p again for theta...

```
pvals <- seq(0, 1, length = 1000) create sequence of 1000 numbers between 0 and 1
plot(pvals, dbinom(3, 4, pvals) / dbinom(3, 4, 3/4), type = "l", frame = FALSE, lwd = 3, xlab = "p", ylabel{eq:pvals}
```

th max will be at 3/43 successes out of 4 trials



Maximum likelihood

- The value of θ where the curve reaches its maximum has a special meaning
- It is the value of θ that is most well supported by the data
- This point is called the maximum likelihood estimate (or MLE) of θ

$$MLE = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta, x).$$

• Another interpretation of the MLE is that it is the value of θ that would make the data that we observed most probable

Some results

- $X_1,\ldots,X_n\stackrel{iid}{\sim}N(\mu,\sigma^2)$ the MLE of μ is \bar{X} and the ML of σ^2 is the biased sample variance estimate.
- If $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} Bernoulli(p)$ then the MLE of p is \bar{X} (the sample proportion of 1s).
- If $X_i \overset{iid}{\sim} Binomial(n_i,p)$ then the MLE of p is $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n n_i}$ (the sample proportion of 1s).
- If $X \stackrel{iid}{\sim} Poisson(\lambda t)$ then the MLE of λ is X/t.
- If $X_i \overset{iid}{\sim} Poisson(\lambda t_i)$ then the MLE of λ is $rac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n t_i}$

Example

- · You saw 5 failure events per 94 days of monitoring a nuclear pump.
- · Assuming Poisson, plot the likelihood

So we know the MLE is 5/95.

```
lambda <- seq(0, .2, length = 1000)
likelihood <- dpois(5, 94 * lambda) / dpois(5, 5)
plot(lambda, likelihood, frame = FALSE, lwd = 3, type = "l", xlab = expression(lambda))
lines(rep(5/94, 2), 0 : 1, col = "red", lwd = 3)
lines(range(lambda[likelihood > 1/16]), rep(1/16, 2), lwd = 2)
lines(range(lambda[likelihood > 1/8]), rep(1/8, 2), lwd = 2)
```

