

# ML estimation - Introduction & estimation uncertainty

FPA2020 Lecture 4 and 5

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## 1 Brief introduction of optimization

Just in case, we shall begin with an introduction of optimization method. Here, we will use “optim” function in R.

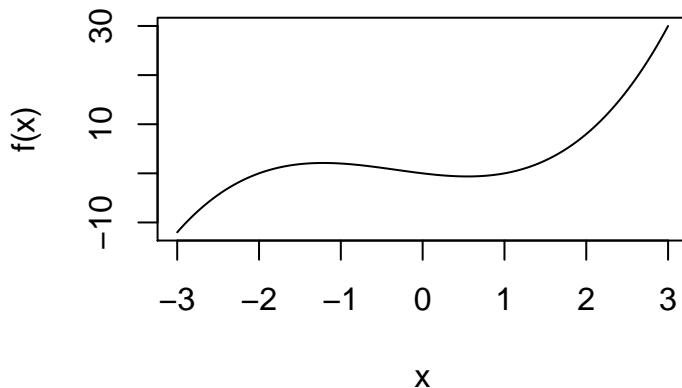
### 1.1 Definition of convenient functions in advance

```
logit <- function(p) log(p/(1-p))
logitinv <- function(x) 1/(1+exp(-x))
```

## 1.2 Optimization of a simple function

- Procedure:
- First you need to define a function for which you want to optimize (minimize)
  - If you can draw a rough shape, that would be great - Use “optim” with an initial value or vector (method=“BFGS” is for the quasi-Newton method)

```
f <- function(x){x^3 + x^2 - 2*x }
x <- seq(-3,3,0.01)
plot(x, f(x), type="l")
```



```
#Minimization
#Syntax: optim(Initial value, function name, optimization method)
optim(-2, f, method="BFGS")
```

```
$par
[1] -2.612088e+21
```

```
$value
[1] -1.782228e+64
```

```
$counts
function gradient
      6           6
```

```
$convergence
[1] 0
```

```
$message
NULL
optim(10, f, method="BFGS")
```

```
$par
[1] -1.775499e+23
```

```
$value
[1] -5.597078e+69
```

```
$counts
function gradient
 5      5

$convergence
[1] 0

$message
NULL
#optim(1, f, method="BFGS")
```

The function is to find a local minima, so the answer that you will get depends on the initial value.

### 1.3 Optimization of a simple function in a limited domain

If you want to give a constraint for the range of optimization, you can use an option of ‘method=“L-BFGS-B”’ with upper and lower bounds.

```
#Optimization in a domain (0,1)
optim(-2, f, method="L-BFGS-B", lower=0, upper=1)
```

```
$par
[1] 0.5485836

$value
[1] -0.6311303

$counts
function gradient
 7      7

$convergence
[1] 0

$message
[1] "CONVERGENCE: REL_REDUCTION_OF_F <= FACTR*EPSMCH"
```

Alternatively, you can transform your original parameter to that takes any real number as follows:

```
#Optimization in a domain (0,1)
f <- function(logitx){
  x <- 1/(1+exp(-logitx))
  x^3 + x^2 - 2*x
}
res <- optim(-5, f, method="BFGS")
res$par

[1] 0.1949502

exp(res$par) /(1+exp(res$par))

[1] 0.5485838
```

## 2 ML estimation for simple binomial case

### 2.1 Just in case.... definition of binomial distribution

#### 2.1.1 Definition

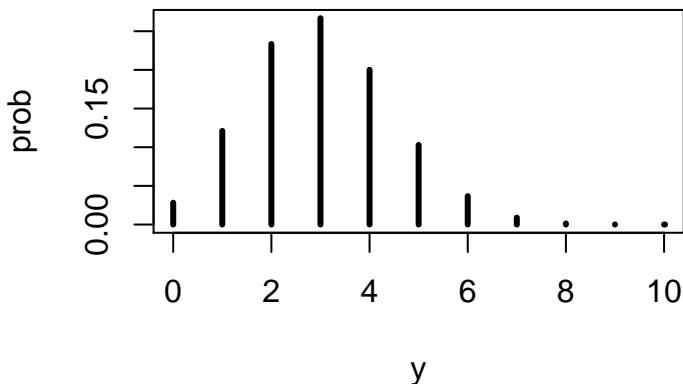
$$P(Y = y) = \binom{N}{y} p^y (1-p)^{N-y}, \quad y = 0, 1, \dots, N \quad (0 \leq p \leq 1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= Np \\ V[Y] &= Np(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

```
N <- 10
p <- 0.3
y <- seq(0, N, 1)
prob <- dbinom(y, N, p); prob

[1] 0.0282475249 0.1210608210 0.2334744405 0.2668279320 0.2001209490
[6] 0.1029193452 0.0367569090 0.0090016920 0.0014467005 0.0001377810
[11] 0.0000059049

plot(y, prob, type="h", lwd=3)
```



#### 2.1.2 Generation of simulation data

We suppose we will obtain 20 samples as

$$Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n \sim (iid) Bin(N, p).$$

```
set.seed(2020)
ns <- 20
yobs <- rbinom(ns, N, p); yobs

[1] 3 3 3 3 1 1 1 3 0 3 4 4 4 3 3 3 6 4 3 2
```

```
mean(yobs)
```

```
[1] 2.85
```

```
var(yobs)
```

```
[1] 1.818421
```

```
sd(yobs)
```

```
[1] 1.348488
```

```
median(yobs)
```

```
[1] 3
```

## 2.2 Definition of the likelihood function and an analytical solution

The likelihood function in this case is defined as

$$L(p) = P(Y_1 = y_1, \dots, Y_n = y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \binom{N}{y_i} p^{y_i} (1-p)^{N-y_i},$$

and therefore the log-likelihood can be expressed as follows:

$$l(p) = \log L(p) = \log \prod_{i=1}^n \binom{N}{y_i} + \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right) \log p + \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (N - y_i) \right) \log(1-p).$$

In this simple example, we can easily obtain an analytical solution.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} l(p) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right) \frac{1}{p} - \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (N - y_i) \right) \frac{1}{1-p} = 0$$

$$\hat{p}(Y) = \frac{1}{Nn} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

## 2.3 Quick overview of properties of ML estimator $\hat{p}(Y)$

You can see that the estimator  $\hat{p}(Y)$  is unbiased. Also, the variance is disproportional to the sample size  $N$  and  $n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{p}(Y)] &= E\left[\frac{1}{Nn} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right] = \frac{1}{Nn} E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right] = \frac{n}{Nn} E[Y_1] = \frac{1}{N} Np = p, \\ V[\hat{p}(Y)] &= V\left[\frac{1}{Nn} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right] = \left(\frac{1}{Nn}\right)^2 V\left[\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right] \\ &= \frac{n}{N^2 n^2} nV[Y_1] = \frac{1}{nN^2} Np(1-p) = \frac{1}{Nn} p(1-p). \end{aligned}$$

```
Nit <- 10^4
Nvec <- c(10, 100, 1000)
pvec <- c(0.1, 0.3, 0.5)
pest <- array(NA, c(Nit, 9))
col.list <- c("blue", "orange", "green")
```

```

par(mfrow=c(3,3), mar=c(3,3,4,2))
for(i in 1:3){
for(j in 1:3){
  tmp <- rbinom(Nit,Nvec[i],pvec[j])/Nvec[i]
  hist(tmp, xlab="Estimate", xlim=c(0,1), col=col.list[j],
        main=paste("N=",Nvec[i], " p=",pvec[j]))
}}

```

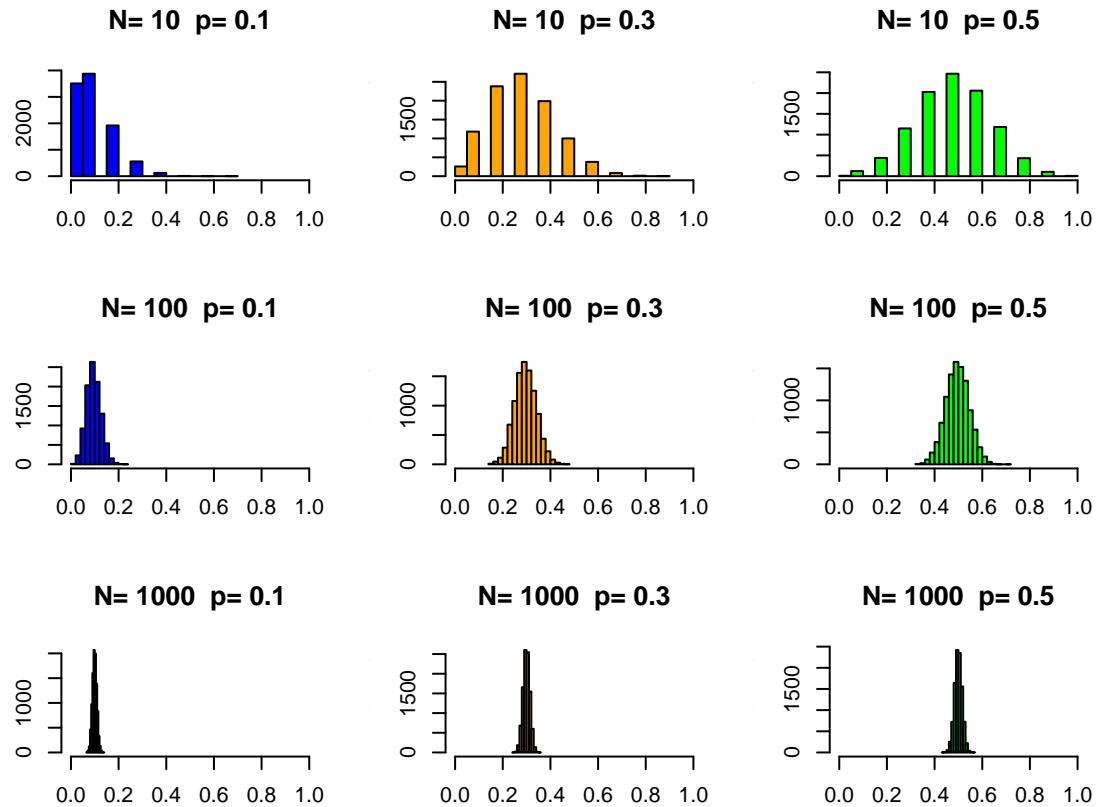


Figure 1: Simulated probability distributions for combinations of  $N$  and  $p$  for  $n = 1$ .

## 2.4 Numerical optimization in R

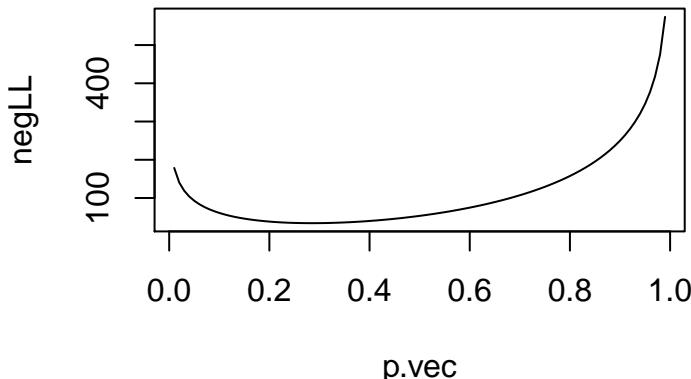
### 2.4.1 Definition of the negative log-likelihood function

```

negloglike.bin <- function(p){
  prob <- dbinom(yobs, N, p, log=T)
  loglike <- sum(prob)
  negloglike <- -loglike
  negloglike
}

p.vec <- seq(0.01, 0.99, 0.01)
negLL <- sapply(p.vec, negloglike.bin)
plot(p.vec, negLL, type="l")

```



#### 2.4.2 Optimization (1) with bounds

```

res.bin <- optim(0.5, negloglike.bin, method="L-BFGS-B", lower=0.001, upper=0.999)
res.bin

$par
[1] 0.2850007

$value
[1] 34.1979

$counts
function gradient
    7      7

$convergence
[1] 0

$message
[1] "CONVERGENCE: REL_REDUCTION_OF_F <= FACTR*EPSMCH"

p.est <- res.bin$par
p.est

[1] 0.2850007

mean(yobs)/N

[1] 0.285

```

#### 2.4.3 Optimization (2) with a parameter transformation

```

negloglike.bin <- function(par){
  p <- 1/(1+exp(-par))
  prob <- dbinom(yobs, N, p, log=T)
  loglike <- sum(prob)
}

```

```

negloglike <- -loglike
negloglike
}

res.bin <- optim(0, negloglike.bin, method="BFGS")
p.est <- 1/(1+exp(-res.bin$par))
p.est

[1] 0.2850001

```

---

### 3 ML estimation for occupancy model (1) -simple poisson model-

#### 3.1 Description

- Case 1: Suppose that you are studying occupation of a species in a study area. At first, let us assume a quite ideal situation that you can observe counts of animals without missing.
- Notation:  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k \sim (iid)Pois(\lambda)$
- Task: to estimate  $\lambda$ 
  - simulation data

```

Ns <- 20
lambda <- 3
yy <- rpois(Ns, lambda)
yy

[1] 1 1 4 2 3 1 3 1 9 1 1 0 2 2 4 2 2 3 3 2

```

#### 3.2 Definition of likelihood function and implementation of optimization-1

```

#Def of negative loglikelihood
NLL.pois <- function(lambda){
  logPF <- dpois(yy, lambda, log=T)
  NLL <- (-1.0)*sum(logPF)
  return(NLL)
}

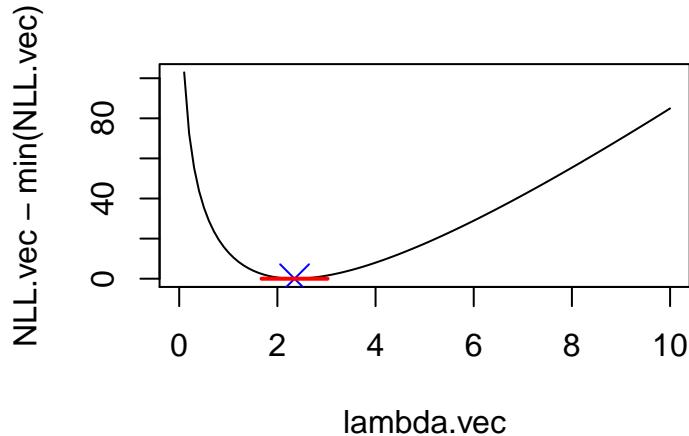
lambda.vec <- seq(0, 10, length.out=100)
NLL.vec <- sapply(lambda.vec, NLL.pois)
plot(lambda.vec, NLL.vec-min(NLL.vec), type="l")

Res.pois <- optim(5, NLL.pois, method="BFGS", hessian=T)
lambda.est <- Res.pois$par
lambda.se <- sqrt(1/Res.pois$hessian)
data.frame(lambda.est,lambda.se)

lambda.est lambda.se
1 2.350024 0.3427861

```

```
points(Res.pois$par, 0, pch=4, col="blue", cex=2)
lines(lambda.est+c(-1.96,1.96)*lambda.se, c(0,0), col="red", lwd=2)
```



### 3.3 Definition of likelihood function and implementation of optimization-2

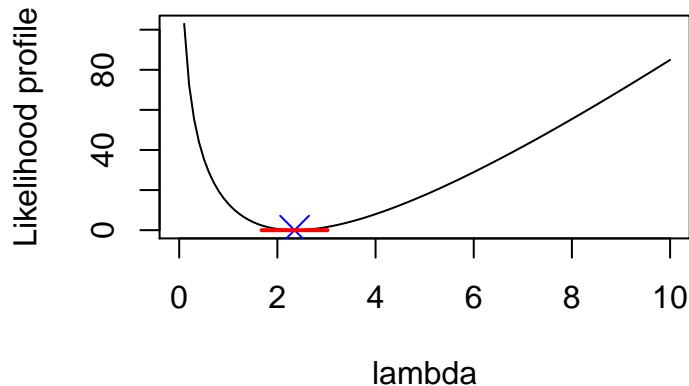
```
#Def of negative loglikelihood-2
NLL.pois <- function(loglambda){
  lambda <- exp(loglambda)
  logPF <- dpois(yy, lambda, log=T)
  NLL <- (-1.0)*sum(logPF)
  return(NLL)
}

lambda.vec <- seq(0, 10, length.out=100)
NLL.vec <- sapply(log(lambda.vec), NLL.pois)
plot(lambda.vec, NLL.vec-min(NLL.vec), type="l", xlab="lambda", ylab="Likelihood profile")

Res.pois <- optim(0, NLL.pois, method="BFGS", hessian=T)
lambda.est <- exp(Res.pois$par)
lambda.se <- lambda.est*sqrt(1/Res.pois$hessian)
data.frame(lambda.est,lambda.se)

lambda.est lambda.se
1 2.350001 0.3427827

points(lambda.est, 0, pch=4, col="blue", cex=2)
lines(lambda.est+c(-1.96,1.96)*lambda.se, c(0,0), col="red", lwd=2)
```



#### 4 ML estimation for occupancy model (2) -PA model-

## 4.1 Description

- Case 2: Like in Case 1, suppose that you are studying occupation of a species in a study area. Here, let us assume that you can observe only “presence/absence” without missing (0 means absence). (In this case, you can increase the number of sample locations ( $k$ ))
  - Notation:  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_k \sim (iid)Bin(1, p(\lambda))$ , where  $p(\lambda) = what?$ .
  - Task: to estimate  $\lambda$
  - simulation data

#### 4.2 Definition of likelihood function and implementation of optimization

```

#Def of negative loglikelihood-2
NLL.PA <- function(loglambda){
  lambda <- exp(loglambda)
  pp <- 1-exp(-lambda)
  logPF <- dbinom(sum(zz), Ns, pp, log=T)
  NLL <- (-1.0)*sum(logPF)
  return(NLL)
}

lambda.vec <- seq(0, 10, length.out=100)

```

```

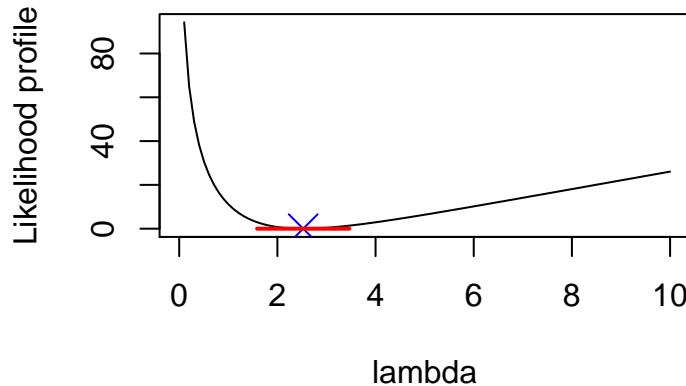
NLL.vec <- sapply(log(lambda.vec), NLL.PA)
plot(lambda.vec, NLL.vec-min(NLL.vec), type="l", xlab="lambda", ylab="Likelihood profile")

Res.PA <- optim(0, NLL.PA, method="BFGS", hessian=T)
lambda.est <- exp(Res.PA$par)
lambda.se <- lambda.est*sqrt(1/Res.PA$hessian)
data.frame(lambda.est,lambda.se)

lambda.est lambda.se
1 2.525729 0.4795832

points(lambda.est, 0, pch=4, col="blue", cex=2)
lines(lambda.est+c(-1.96,1.96)*lambda.se, c(0,0), col="red", lwd=2)

```



## 5 ML estimation for occupancy model (3) -realistic case-

### 5.1 Description

- Case 3: Like in the previous cases, suppose that you are studying occupation of a species in a study area. Again, suppose that you visit each sampling location several day and observe if at least one individual exist of not (“presence/absence) every visit”, but your detection process is subject to missing. The probability of detecting presence depends on the number of individuals in a sampling unit and detection probability per individual. Note that the number of individuals in each location does not change during the study period.

- Notation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 N_1, N_2, \dots, N_k &\sim (iid) Pois(\lambda) \\
 Z_{it} | N_i &\sim (iid) Bin(1, p(N_i)), \text{ where } p(N_i) = 1 - (1-p)^{N_i} \quad (t = 1, 2, \dots, T_i; i = 1, 2, \dots, k) \\
 Y_i | N_i &\sim Bin(T_i, p(N_i)) \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, k)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Task: to estimate  $\lambda$  and  $p$  ( $\lambda$  is of your interest)
- simulation data

```

lambda <- 3
pp <- 0.2
Ns <- 50

```

```

Tmax <- 10
Tvec <- sample(1:Tmax, Ns, replace=T)
zz <- array(NA, c(Ns, Tmax))
yy <- numeric(Ns)

for(i in 1:Ns){
  NN <- rpois(Ns, lambda)
  zz[i,1:Tvec[i]] <- rbinom(Tvec[i], 1, 1-(1-pp)^NN[i])
  yy[i] <- sum(zz[i,], na.rm=T)
}

head(zz, 10)

[,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5] [,6] [,7] [,8] [,9] [,10]
[1,] 1 1 1 1 1 NA NA NA NA NA
[2,] 1 NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA
[3,] 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 NA NA
[4,] 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 NA NA
[5,] 1 1 0 1 1 0 NA NA NA NA
[6,] 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 NA NA NA
[7,] 1 1 1 0 0 0 NA NA NA NA
[8,] 0 0 NA NA NA NA NA NA NA
[9,] 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0
[ reached getOption("max.print") -- omitted 1 row ]

yy

[1] 5 1 4 5 4 4 3 0 2 3 3 1 0 1 1 1 7 0 2 2 2 5 2 5 1 0 3 5 3 4 5 0 4 2 1 3 1 2
[39] 1 7 3 2 3 6 4 1 4 3 5 0

```

## 5.2 Defining likelihood with respect to $\log \lambda$ and $\text{logit} p$

```

NLL <- function(par, Kmax=20){
  lambda <- exp(par[1])
  pp <- 1/(1+exp(-par[2]))
  Detectvec <- 1-(1-pp)^(0:Kmax)

  Tmp1 <- dpois(0:Kmax, lambda)
  Likevec <- numeric(Ns)

  for(i in 1:Ns){
    Tmp2 <- Detectvec^yy[i] * (1-Detectvec)^(Tvec[i]-yy[i])
    Likevec[i] <- sum(Tmp1*Tmp2)
  }
  obj <- (-1.0)*sum(log(Likevec))
}

```

## 5.3 Contour of likelihood with respect to $\lambda$ and $p$

```

Len <- 100
LL <- array(0, c(Len, Len))

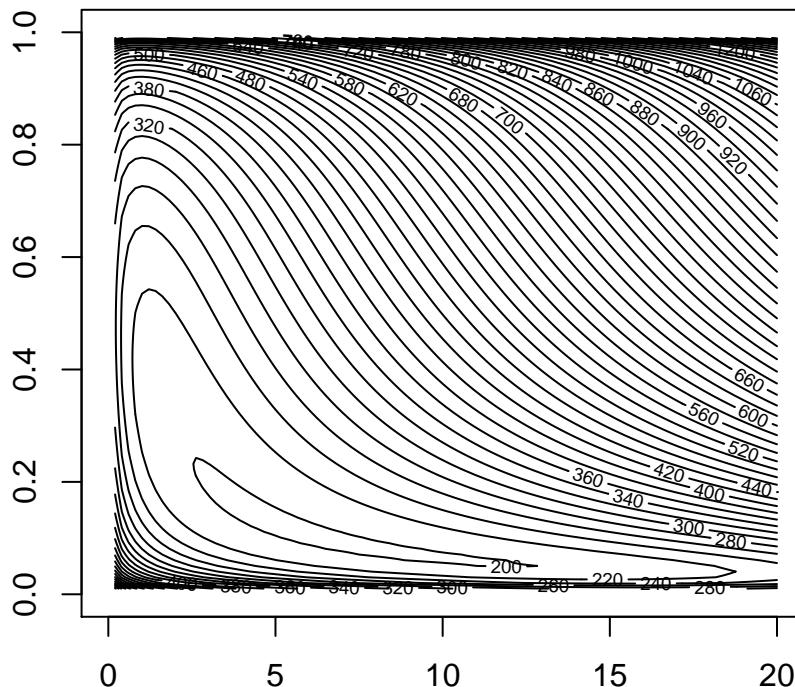
```

```

lvec <- seq(0,20,length.out=Len)
pvec <- seq(0,1,length.out=Len)

for(i in 1:Len){
  for(j in 1:Len){
    LL[i,j] <- NLL(c(log(lvec[i]), logit(pvec[j])), Kmax=20)
  }
}
contour(lvec,pvec,LL,nlevels=50)

```

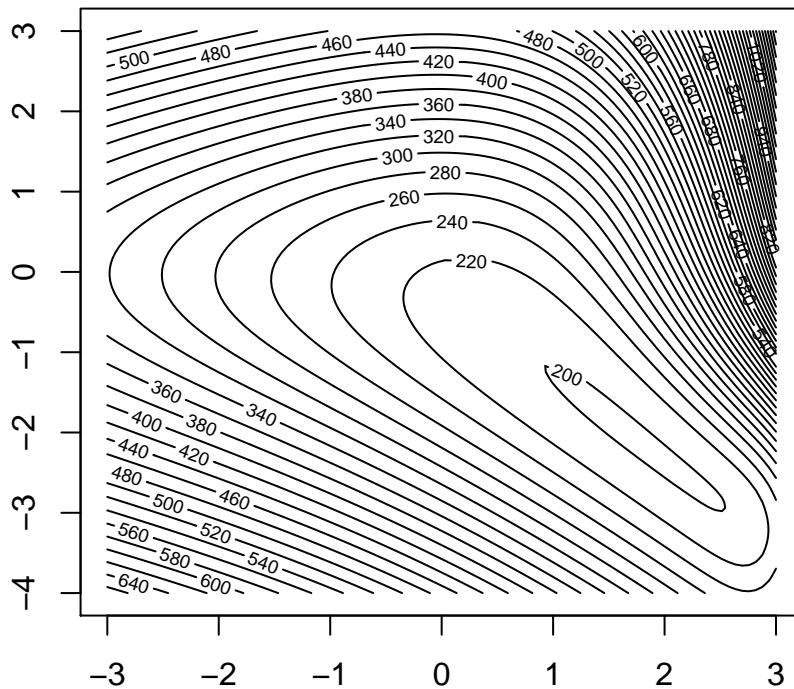


#### 5.4 Contour of likelihood with respect to $\log\lambda$ and $\text{logit}p$

```

Len <- 100
LL <- array(0, c(Len,Len))
loglvec <- seq(-3,3,length.out=Len)
logitpvec <- seq(-4,3,length.out=Len)
for(i in 1:Len){
  for(j in 1:Len){
    LL[i,j] <- NLL(c(loglvec[i], logitpvec[j]), Kmax=20)
  }
}
contour(loglvec,logitpvec,LL,nlevels=50)

```



## 5.5 Optimization with respect to $\log \lambda$ and $\text{logit} p$

```

init <- c(0,0)
Res <- optim(init, NLL, method="BFGS", hessian=T, Kmax=20)
Res

$par
[1] 1.742692 -2.074976

$value
[1] 198.2165

$counts
function gradient
      22          11

$convergence
[1] 0

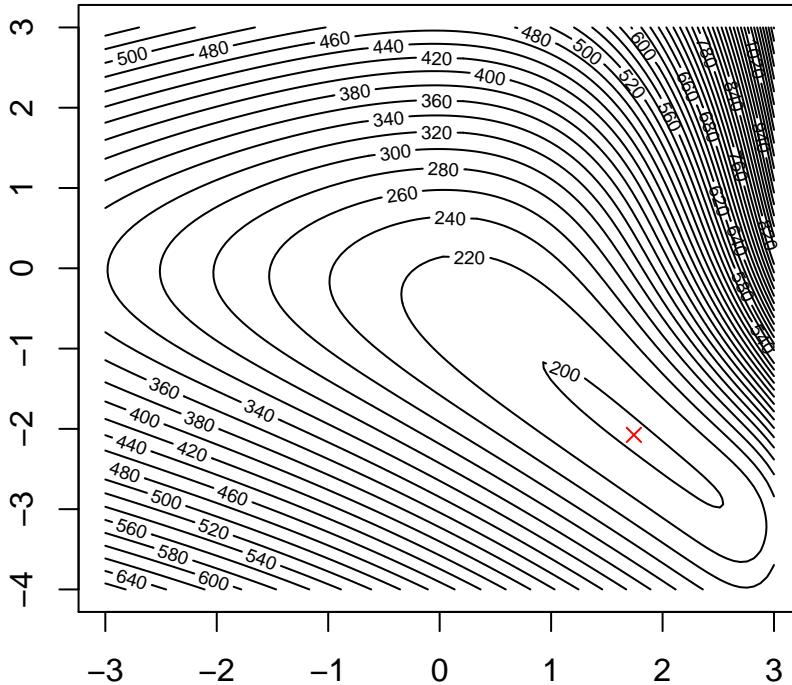
$message
NULL

$hessian

```

```
[,1]      [,2]
[1,] 89.41554 78.85059
[2,] 78.85059 72.00360

contour(loglvec,logitpvec,LL,nlevels=50)
points(Res$par[1],Res$par[2], col="red", pch=4)
```



## 5.6 Estimates and their standard errors

```
lambda.est <- exp(Res$par[1])
p.est <- 1/(1+exp(-Res$par[2]))
Avar <- solve(Res$hessian)
lambda.se <- lambda.est*sqrt(Avar[1,1])
p.se <- p.est*(1-p.est)*sqrt(Avar[2,2])
data.frame(lambda.est, lambda.se, p.est, p.se)
```

```
lambda.est lambda.se    p.est      p.se
1   5.712699  3.262073 0.111553 0.06306588
```

More accurate CIs can be given by profile likelihood methods, bootstrapping and Bayesian methods.