Chapter 2

Methods of Estimation

2.1 The plug-in principles

Framework: $\mathbf{X} \sim P \in \mathcal{P}$, usually $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbf{P}_{\theta} : \theta \in \Theta\}$ for parametric models. More specifically, if $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim i.i.d.P_{\theta}$, then $\mathbf{P}_{\theta} = P_{\theta} \times \dots \times P_{\theta}$. **Unknown parameters**: A certain aspects of population. $\nu(P)$ or $q(\theta) = \nu(P_{\theta})$. **Empirical Dist.**: $\widehat{P}[X \in A] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X_i \in A)$ or $\widehat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(X_i \leq x)$ **Substitution principle**: Estimate $\nu(P)$ by $\nu(\widehat{P})$.

<u>Note</u>: As to be seen later, most methods of estimation can be regarded as using



Figure 2.1: Empirical distribution of observed data

"substitution principle", since the functional form ν is not unique.

Example 1. Suppose that $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then

$$\mu = EX = \int x \, dF(x) = \mu(F)$$
 and $\sigma^2 = \int x^2 \, dF(x) - \mu^2$.

Hence,

$$\widehat{\mu} = \mu(\widehat{F}) = \int x \, d\widehat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$

and

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \int x^2 d\widehat{F}(x) - \widehat{\mu}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X})^2.$$

This is also a non-parametric estimator, as the normality assumption has not been explicitly used.

Example 2. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a random sample from the following box:



Figure 2.2: Illustration of multinomial distribution

Interested in parameters: p_1, \dots, p_k and $q(p_1, \dots, p_k)$.

e.g. dividing the job in the population by 5 categories, interested in p_5 and $(p_4 + p_5 - p_1 - p_2)$.

The empirical distribution:

$$p_j = P(X = j) = F(j) - F(j-) \equiv P_j(F)$$

ORF 524: Methods of Estimation – J.Fan

Hence,

$$\widehat{p}_j = P_j(\widehat{F}) = \widehat{F}(j) - \widehat{F}(j-) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i = j),$$

namely, the empirical frequency of getting j. Hence,

$$q(p_1,\cdots,p_k)=q(P_1(F),\cdots,P_k(F))$$

is estimated as

$$\widehat{q} = q(\widehat{p}_1, \cdots, \widehat{p}_k)$$
 — frequency substitution.

Example 3. In population genetics, sampling from a equilibrium population with respective to a gene with two alleles

$$\begin{cases} A & \text{with prob. } \theta \\ a & \text{with prob. } 1 - \theta \end{cases}$$

,

three genotypes can be observed with proportions (Hardy-Weinberg formula).

AAAaaa
$$p_1 = \theta^2$$
 $p_2 = 2\theta(1-\theta)$ $p_3 = (1-\theta)^2$



Figure 2.3: Illustration of Hardy-Weinberg formula.

One can estimate θ by $\sqrt{\widehat{p}_1}$ or $1 - \sqrt{\widehat{p}_3}$, etc.

Thus, the representation

$$q(\theta) = h(p_1(\theta), \cdots, p_k(\theta))$$

is not necessarily unique, resulting in many different procedures. <u>Method of Moments</u>: Let

 $m_j(\theta) = E_{\theta} X^j$ — theoretical moment

and

$$\widehat{m}_j = \int x^j \, d\widehat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^j \quad -\text{emprivate moment}$$

By the law of average, the empirical moments are close to theoretical ones. The method of moments is to solve the following estimating equations:

$$m_j(\theta) = \widehat{m}_j, \ j = 1, \cdots, r,$$

smallest r to make enough equations. Why smallest?

{ inaccurate estimate of high order moment inaccuracy of modeling of high order moment Consequently, the method of moment estimator for

$$q(\theta) = g(m_1(\theta), \cdots, m_r(\theta))$$

is $\widehat{q}(\mathbf{x}) = g(\widehat{m}_1, \cdots, \widehat{m}_r).$ **Example 4**. Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim i.i.d.N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then $EX = \mu$ and $EX^2 = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$.

ORF 524: Methods of Estimation – J.Fan

Thus,

$$\widehat{\mu} = \overline{X} = \widehat{m}_1$$

$$\widehat{\mu}^2 + \widehat{\sigma}^2 = \widehat{m}_2$$

$$\implies \widehat{\sigma}^2 = \widehat{m}_2 - \widehat{\mu}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X})^2.$$

Example 5. Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim i.i.d. Poisson(\lambda)$. Then,

$$EX = \lambda$$
 and $Var(X) = \lambda$.

So

$$\lambda = m_1 = m_2 - m_1^2.$$

Thus,

$$\widehat{\lambda}_1 = \overline{X}$$
 and $\widehat{\lambda}_2 = \widehat{m}_2 - \widehat{m}_1^2 =$ sample variance.

The method of moments is

{ not necessarily unique
 usually crude, serving a preluminary estimator

Generalized method of moment (GMM):

Let $g_1(X), \dots, g_r(X)$ be given functions. Write

$$\mu_j(\theta) = E_\theta \{ g_j(X) \},\$$

which are generalized moments. The GMM solves the equations

$$\widehat{\mu}_j = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n g_j(X_i) = \mu_j(\theta), \ j = 1, \cdots, r.$$

If r > the number of parameters, find θ to minimize

$$\sum_{j=1}^{r} (\widehat{\mu}_j - \mu_j(\theta))^2$$

(this has a scale problem) or more generally

$$(\widehat{\mu} - \mu(\theta))^T \Sigma^{-1} (\widehat{\mu} - \mu(\theta)).$$

 Σ can be found to optimize the performance of the estimator (EMM).

Example 6. For any random sample $\{(\mathbf{X}_i, Y_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$, define the coeffi-

cient of the best linear prediction under the loss function $d(\cdot)$ by

$$\beta(P) = \arg\min_{\beta} E_P d(|Y - \beta^T \mathbf{X}|).$$



Figure 2.4: Illustration of best linear and nonlinear fittings.

Thus, its substitution estimator is

$$\beta(\widehat{P}) = \arg\min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(|Y_i - \beta^T \mathbf{X}_i|).$$

Thus, $\beta(\hat{P})$ is always a consistent estimator of $\beta(P)$, whether the linear $Y = \beta^T \mathbf{X} + \varepsilon$ holds or not. In this view, the least-squares estimator is a substitution estimator.

2.2 Minimum Contrast Estimator and Estimating Equations

Let $\rho(X, \theta)$ be a contrast (discrepancy) function. Define

 $D(\theta_0, \theta) = E_{\theta_0} \rho(X, \theta)$, where θ_0 is the ture parameter.

Suppose that $D(\theta_0, \theta)$ has a unique minimum θ_0 . Then, the minimum contrast estimator for a random sample is defined as the minimizer of

$$\widehat{D}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho(X_i, \theta).$$

Under some regularity conditions, the estimator satisfies the estimating equations

$$\widehat{D}'(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho'(X_i, \theta) = 0.$$

Minimum contrast estimator. In general, the method applies to general situation:

$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta} \rho(\mathbf{X}, \theta).$$

as long as θ_0 minimizes

$$D(\theta, \theta_0) = E_{\theta_0} \rho(\mathbf{X}, \theta).$$

Usually, $\rho(\mathbf{X}, \theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \rho(X_i, \theta) \longrightarrow D(\theta, \theta_0) \ (\text{ as } n \longrightarrow \infty).$

Similarly, **estimating equation method** solves the equations

$$\psi_j(\mathbf{X}, \theta) = 0, \ j = 1, \cdots, r$$

as long as

٠

$$E_{\theta_0}\psi_j(X,\theta_0)=0, \ j=1,\cdots,r$$



Figure 2.5: Minimum contrast estimator

Apparently, these two approaches are closely related. **Example 7** (Least-squares). Let (\mathbf{X}_i, Y_i) be i.i.d. from

$$Y_i = g(\mathbf{X}_i, \beta) + \varepsilon_i$$

= $\mathbf{X}_i^T \beta + \varepsilon_i$, if linear model

ORF 524: Methods of Estimation – J.Fan

Then, by letting

$$\rho(\mathbf{X},\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\mathbf{X}_i,\beta)]^2$$

be a contract function, we have

$$D(\beta_0, \beta) = E_{\beta_0} \rho(\mathbf{X}, \beta)$$

= $n E_{\beta_0} [Y - g(\mathbf{X}, \beta)]^2$
= $n E \{g(\mathbf{X}, \beta_0) - g(\mathbf{X}, \beta)\}^2 + n\sigma^2$,

which is indeed minimized at $\beta = \beta_0$. Hence, the minimum contrast estimator is

$$\widehat{\beta} = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(\mathbf{X}_i, \beta)]^2$$
 — least-squares.

It satisfies the system of equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - g(\mathbf{X}_i, \widehat{\beta})) \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{X}_i, \beta)}{\partial \beta_j} = 0, \ j = 1, \cdots, d,$$

under some mild regularity conditions. One can easily check that $\psi_j(\beta) = (Y_i - \psi_j)$

$$g(\mathbf{X}_{i},\beta))\frac{\partial g(\mathbf{X}_{i},\beta)}{\partial\beta_{j}} \text{ satisfies}$$
$$E_{\beta_{0}}\psi_{j}(\beta)|_{\beta=\beta_{0}} = E\{g(\mathbf{X}_{i},\beta_{0}) - g(\mathbf{X}_{i},\beta_{0})\}\frac{\partial g(\mathbf{X}_{i},\beta_{0})}{\partial\beta_{j}} = 0.$$

Thus, it is also an estimator based on the estimating equations.

Weighted least-squares: Suppose that $var(\varepsilon_i) = \omega_i \sigma^2$. The OLS continues to apply. However, it is not efficient. Through the transform

$$\frac{Y_i}{\sqrt{\omega_i}} = \frac{g(X_i, \beta)}{\sqrt{\omega_i}} + \frac{\varepsilon_i}{\sqrt{\omega_i}}$$

or

$$\widetilde{Y}_i = \widetilde{g}(X_i, \beta) + \widetilde{\varepsilon}_i, \quad \widetilde{\varepsilon}_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2),$$

we apply the OLS

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\tilde{Y}_i - \tilde{g}(X_i, \beta))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - g(\mathbf{X}_i, \beta))^2 / \omega_i = \rho(\mathbf{X}, \beta).$$

Obviously,

$$E_{\beta_0}\rho(\mathbf{X},\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \sigma^2 / \omega_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i^{-1} E(g(\mathbf{X},\beta) - g(\mathbf{X},\beta_0))^2$$

is minimized at $\beta = \beta_0$. Thus, WLS is a minimum contrast estimator.

Example 8 (*L*₁-regression) Let $Y = \mathbf{X}^T \beta_0 + \varepsilon$, X and ε . Consider

$$\rho(\mathbf{X}, Y, \beta) = |Y - \mathbf{X}^T \beta|.$$

Then,

$$D(\beta_0, \beta) = E_{\beta_0} |Y - \mathbf{X}^T \beta| = E |\mathbf{X}^T (\beta - \beta_0) + \varepsilon|.$$

For any a, define

$$f(a) = E|\varepsilon + a|.$$

ORF 524: Methods of Estimation – J.Fan

Ĵ

Then,

$$F'(a) = E \operatorname{sgn}(\varepsilon + a)$$

= $P(\varepsilon + a > 0) - P(\varepsilon + a < 0)$
= $2P(\varepsilon + a > 0) - 1.$

If $med(\varepsilon) = 0$, then f'(0) = 0. In other words, f(a) is minimized at a = 0, or $D(\beta_0, \beta)$ is minimized at $\beta = \beta_0$! Thus, if $med(\varepsilon) = 0$, then

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}|Y_i-\mathbf{X}_i^T\beta|.$$

is a minimum contrast estimator.

2.3 The maximum likelihood estimator

Suppose that **X** has joint density $p(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$. This shows the "probability" of observing " $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$ " under the parameter θ . Given $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$, there are many $\theta's$ that can have

observed value $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$. We pick the one that is most probable to produce the observed \mathbf{x} :

$$\widehat{\theta} = \max_{\theta} L(\theta),$$

where $L(\theta) = p(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ = "likelihood of observing \mathbf{x} under θ ". This corresponds to the minimum contrast estimator with

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = -\log p(\mathbf{x}, \theta).$$

In particular, if $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim i.i.d. f(\cdot, \theta)$, then

$$\rho(\mathbf{X}, \theta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(X_i, \theta).$$

To justify this, observe that

$$D(\theta_0, \theta) = -E_{\theta_0} \log f(X, \theta)$$

= $D(\theta_0, \theta_0) - E_{\theta_0} \log \frac{f(X, \theta)}{f(X, \theta_0)}$
 $\geqslant D(\theta_0, \theta_0) - \log E_{\theta_0} \frac{f(X, \theta)}{f(X, \theta_0)}$
= $D(\theta_0, \theta_0).$

Thus, θ_0 minimizes $D(\theta_0, \theta)$ or equivalently

$$D(\theta_0, \theta) - D(\theta_0, \theta_0) = -E_{\theta_0} \log \frac{f(X, \theta)}{f(X, \theta_0)}$$

— Kullback-Leibler information divergence. Thus, the MLE is a minimum contrast estimator.

The MLE is usually found by solving the **likelihood equations**:

$$\frac{\partial \log L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_j} = 0, \ j = 1, \cdots, d,$$

or

$$\ell'(\theta) = 0, \qquad \ell(\theta) = \log L(\theta).$$

For a given θ_0 that is close to $\hat{\theta}$, then

$$0 = \ell'(\widehat{\theta}) \approx \ell'(\theta_0) + \ell''(\theta_0)(\widehat{\theta} - \theta_0)$$

or

$$\widehat{\theta} = \theta_0 - \ell''(\theta_0)^{-1} \ell'(\theta_0).$$

Newton-Raphson algorithm:

$$\widehat{\theta}_{new} = \widehat{\theta}_{old} - \ell''(\widehat{\theta}_{old})^{-1}\ell'(\widehat{\theta}_{old}).$$

One-step estimator: With a good initial estimator $\hat{\theta}_0$,

$$\widehat{\theta}_{os} = \widehat{\theta}_0 - \ell''(\widehat{\theta}_0)^{-1}\ell'(\widehat{\theta}_0).$$

Example 9. (Hardy-Weinberg formula)

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P_{\theta}\{X_i = x_i\} = [\theta^2]^{n_1} [2\theta(1-\theta)]^{n_2} [(1-\theta)^2]^{n_3}$$

Thus,

$$\ell(\theta) = (2n_1 + n_2) \log \theta + (n_2 + 2n_3) \log(1 - \theta) + n_2 \log 2$$

$$\ell'(\theta) = (2n_1 + n_2)/\theta - (n_2 + 2n_3)/(1 - \theta) = 0$$

$$\implies \widehat{\theta} = \frac{2n_1 + n_2}{2(n_1 + n_2 + n_3)} = \frac{2n_1 + n_2}{n} = 2\widehat{p}_1 + \widehat{p}_2.$$

Obviously, $\ell''(\theta) < 0$. Hence, $\hat{\theta}$ is the maxima.

Example 10. Estimating Population Size:



$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\theta} I\{X_i \leqslant \theta\} = \theta^{-n} I\{\theta \ge \max_i X_i\}$$



Figure 2.6: Likelihood function

Thus,
$$\widehat{\theta} = \max_i X_i = X_{(n)}$$
 is the MLE.

Example 11. Let $Y_i = g(X_i, \beta) + \varepsilon_i$, $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Then,

$$\ell(\sigma,\beta) = \log(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}})^n - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - g(X_i,\beta)]^2.$$

Thus, the MLE for β is equivalent to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(X_i, \beta)]^2 \quad -\text{least-squares.}$$

Let $\widehat{\beta}$ be the minimizer. Define

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - g(X_i, \widehat{\beta})]^2.$$

Then, after dropping a constant

$$\ell(\sigma, \widehat{\beta}) = -\frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \text{RSS}.$$

which is maximized at $\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\text{RSS}}{n}$. In particular, if $g(X_i, \beta) = \mu$, then $\widehat{\mu} = \overline{Y}$ and

RSS =
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2$$
. Hence, the MLE is
 $\hat{\mu} = \bar{Y}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$.

Remark:

MLE — use full likelihood function \implies more efficient, less robust.

MM — use the first few moments \implies less efficient, more robust.

2.4 The EM algorithm

(Reading assignment — read the whole section 2.4.) **Objective**: Used to deal with missing data. [Dempster,Laird and Rubin(1977) and Baum, Petrie, Soules, and Weiss(1970).] **Problem**: Suppose that we have a situation in which the full likelihood $\mathbf{X} \sim$

 $p(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ is easy to compute and to maximize. Unfortunately, we only observe the

partial information $S = S(\mathbf{X}) \sim q(s, \theta)$. $q(s, \theta)$ itself is hard to compute and to maximize. The algorithm is to maximize $q(s, \theta)$.

Example 12 (Lumped Hardy-Weinberg data)

The full information is X_1, \cdots, X_n with

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = n_1 \log \theta^2 + n_2 \log 2\theta (1 - \theta) + n_3 \log (1 - \theta)^2$$

Partial information:

complete cases
$$S_i = (X_{i1}, X_{i2}, X_{i3}), i = 1, \cdots, m$$

incomplete cases $S_i = (X_{i1} + X_{i2}, X_{i3}), i = m + 1, \cdots, n$

The likelihood of the available data is

$$\log q(s,\theta) = m_1 \log \theta^2 + m_2 \log 2\theta (1-\theta) + m_3 \log(1-\theta)^2 + n_{12}^* \log(1-(1-\theta)^2) + n_3^* \log(1-\theta)^2 n_{12}^* = \sum_{i=m+1}^n (X_{i1} + X_{i2}), \ n_3^* = \sum_{i=m}^n X_{i3}.$$

The maximum likelihood can be found by maximizing the above expression. For many other problems, this log-likelihood can be hard to compute.

Intuition for E-M algorithm: Guess the full likelihood using the available and maximum the conjectured likelihood.

E-M algorithm: Given an initial value θ_0 ,

E-step: Compute $\ell(\theta, \theta_0) = E_{\theta_0}(\ell(\mathbf{X}, \theta) | S(\mathbf{X}) = s),$

M-step:
$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg \max \ell(\theta, \theta_0),$$

and iterate.

Example 2.12. (continued) Full likelihood:

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = n_1 \log \theta^2 + n_2 \log 2\theta (1 - \theta) + n_3 \log (1 - \theta)^2$$

E-step:

$$\ell(\theta, \theta_0) = E_{\theta_0}(n_1|S) \log \theta^2 + E_{\theta_0}(n_2|S) \log 2\theta(1-\theta) + n_3 \log(1-\theta)^2.$$
$$E_{\theta_0}(n_1|S) = m_1 + n_{12}^* \frac{\theta_0^2}{\theta_0^2 + 2\theta_0(1-\theta_0)}$$

and

$$E_{\theta_0}(n_2|S) = m_2 + n_{12}^* \frac{2\theta_0(1-\theta_0)}{\theta_0^2 + 2\theta_0(1-\theta_0)}$$

M-step:

$$\widehat{\theta} = \frac{2E_{\theta_0}(n_1|S) + E_{\theta_0}(n_2|S)}{2(E_{\theta_0}(n_1|S) + E_{\theta_0}(n_2|S) + n_3)} = \frac{n_{12} + E_{\theta_0}(n_1|S)}{2n},$$

where n_{12} is the number of data points for genotypes 1 and 2. When the algorithm converges, it solves the following equation:

$$2n\theta = n_{12} + m_1 + n_{12}^*\theta / (2 - \theta).$$

This is indeed the maximum likelihood estimator based on the available (partial) data, which we now justify.

Rationale of the EM algorithm: $p(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = q(s, \theta)P_{\theta}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|S = s)I(S(\mathbf{X}) = s)$.

Let
$$r(x|s,\theta) = P_{\theta}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|S = s)I(S(\mathbf{x}) = s)$$
. Then,

$$\ell(\theta, \theta_0) = \log q(s, \theta) + E_{\theta_0} \{ \log r(\mathbf{X}|s, \theta) | S(\mathbf{X}) = s \}.$$

Hence,

$$0 = \ell(\widehat{\theta}, \theta_0)' = (\log q(s, \theta))'|_{\theta = \widehat{\theta}} + E_{\theta_0} \{ (\log r(\mathbf{X}|s, \theta))'|_{\theta = \widehat{\theta}} | S = s \}.$$

If the algorithm converges to θ_1 , then

$$(\log q(s,\theta_1))' + E_{\theta_1}\{(\log r(\mathbf{X}|s,\theta_1))'|S=s\} = 0.$$

The second term vanishes by noticing that for any regular function f,

$$E_{\theta}(\log f(\mathbf{X}, \theta))' = \int \frac{f'(\mathbf{x}, \theta)}{f(\mathbf{x}, \theta)} f(\mathbf{x}, \theta) d\mathbf{x} = 0.$$

Hence

$$\{\log q(s,\theta_1)\}' = 0,$$

which solves the likelihood equation based on the (partial) data. In other words, the EM algorithm converges to the true likelihood.

Theorem 1

$$\log q(s, \theta_{new}) \geqslant \log q(s, \theta_{old}),$$

namely, each iteration always increases the likelihood.

Proof. Note that

$$\ell(\theta_n, \theta_0) = \log q(s, \theta_n) + E_{\theta_0} \{\log r(X|s, \theta_n) | S(\mathbf{X}) = s\}$$

$$\geq \log q(s, \theta_0) + E_{\theta_0} \{\log r(X|s, \theta_0) | S(\mathbf{X}) = s\}$$

$$\log q(s, \theta_n) \geq \log q(s, \theta_0) + E_{\theta_0} \{ \log \frac{r(X|s, \theta_0)}{r(X|s, \theta_n)} | S(\mathbf{X}) = s \}$$

$$\geq \log q(s, \theta_0).$$

Example 2.13. Let X_1, \dots, X_{n+4} be i.i.d. $N(\mu, 1/2)$. Suppose that we observe

 $S_1 = X_1, \dots, S_n = X_n, S_{n+1} = X_{n+1} + 2X_{n+2}$, and $S_{n+2} = X_{n+3} + X_{n+4}$. Use the EM algorithm to find the maximum likelihood estimator based on the observed data.

Note that the full likelihood is

$$\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mu) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n+4} (X_i - \mu)^2$$
$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n+4} X_i^2 + 2\mu \sum_{i=1}^{n+4} X_i - (n+4)\mu^2.$$

At the E-step, we compute

$$E_{\mu_0}\{\log p(\mathbf{X},\mu)|\mathbf{S}\} = a(\mu_0) - 2\mu\{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i + E_{\mu_0}\{X_{n+1} + X_{n+2}|S_{n+1}\} + S_{n+2}\} - (n+4)\mu^2,$$

where $a(\mu_0) = (\mu_0^2 + 1/2)$. To compute $E_{\mu_0}\{X_{n+1}|S_{n+1}\}$, we note that $2X_{n+1} - X_{n+2}$

is uncorrelated with S_{n+1} . Hence, we have

$$E_{\mu_0}\{2X_{n+1} - X_{n+2}|S_{n+1}\} = \mu_0$$
$$E_{\mu_0}\{X_{n+1} + 2X_{n+2}|S_{n+1}\} = S_{n+1}.$$

Solving the above two equations gives

$$E_{\mu_0}(X_{n+1}|S_{n+1}) = (S_{n+1} + 2\mu_0)/5, \quad E_{\mu_0}(X_{n+2}|S_{n+1}) = (2S_{n+1} - \mu_0)/5$$

and that

$$E_{\mu_0}\{X_{n+1} + X_{n+2} | S_{n+1}\} = (3S_{n+1} + \mu_0)/5.$$

Hence, the conditional likelihood is given by

$$\ell(\mu, \mu_0) = a(\mu_0) - 2\mu \{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i + 0.6S_{n+1} + 0.2\mu_0 + S_{n+2}\} - (n+4)\mu^2.$$

At the M-step, we maximize $\ell(\mu, \mu_0)$ with respect to μ , resulting in

$$\widehat{\mu} = (n+4)^{-1} \{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i + 0.6S_{n+1} + 0.2\mu_0 + S_{n+2} \}.$$

The EM algorithm is to iterate the above step. When the algorithm converges, the estimate solves

$$\widehat{\mu} = (n+4)^{-1} \{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i + 0.6S_{n+1} + 0.2\widehat{\mu} + S_{n+2} \}.$$

or

$$\widehat{\mu} = (n+3.8)^{-1} \{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i + 0.6S_{n+1} + S_{n+2} \}.$$

This is the maximum likelihood estimator for the "missing" data. Example 2.14. Mixture normal distribution:

$$S_1, \cdots, S_n \sim_{i.i.d.} \lambda N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + (1 - \lambda) N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

<u>Challenge</u>: The likelihood of S_1, \dots, S_n is easy to write down, but hard to compute.

EM Algorithm: Thinking of the full information as $X_i = (\Delta_i, S_i)$, in which Δ_i tells the population under which it is drawn from, but missing.

$$P(\Delta_i = 1) = \lambda.$$



Figure 2.7: Mixture of two normal distributions

$$P(S_i|\Delta_i) \sim \begin{cases} N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2), & \text{if } \Delta_i = 1\\ N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2), & \text{if } \Delta_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then, the full likelihood is

$$p(\mathbf{x},\theta) = \lambda^{\sum \Delta_i} (1-\lambda)^{n-\sum \Delta_i} \prod_{\Delta_i=1} (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1}}) \exp(-\frac{(S_i-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}) \times \prod_{\Delta_i=0} (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_2}}) \exp(-\frac{(S_i-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}).$$

It follows that

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \sum \Delta_i \log \lambda + \sum (1 - \Delta_i) \log(1 - \lambda) + \sum_{\Delta_i=1} \{-\log \sigma_1 - \frac{(S_i - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}\} + \sum_{\Delta_i=0} \{-\log \sigma_2 - \frac{(S_i - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}\}$$

To find the E-step, we need to find the conditional distribution of $\Delta_i | \mathbf{S}$.

Note that

$$P_{\theta_0}\{\Delta_i = 1 | \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{s}\} = P\{\Delta_i = 1 | S_i \in s_i \pm \varepsilon\}$$
$$= \frac{P\{\Delta_i = 1, S_i \in s_i \pm \varepsilon\}}{P(S_i \in s_i \pm \varepsilon)}$$
$$= \frac{\lambda_0 \sigma_{10}^{-1} \phi\left(\frac{s_i - \mu_{10}}{\sigma_{10}}\right)}{\lambda_0 \sigma_{10}^{-1} \phi\left(\frac{s_i - \mu_{10}}{\sigma_{10}}\right) + (1 - \lambda_0) \sigma_{20}^{-1} \phi\left(\frac{s_i - \mu_{20}}{\sigma_{20}}\right)}$$
$$\equiv p_i$$

Then,

$$\ell(\theta, \theta_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log \lambda + \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - p_i) \log(1 - \lambda) + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \{-\log \sigma_1 - \frac{(s_i - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}\} + \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - p_i) \{-\log \sigma_2 - \frac{(s_i - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}\}.$$

The M-step is to maximize the above quantity with respective to $\lambda, \sigma_1, \mu_1, \sigma_2, \mu_2$,

which can be explicitly found. e.g.

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i}{\lambda} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (1-p_i)}{1-\lambda} = 0 \implies \lambda = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i}{n}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i (s_i - \mu_1) = 0 \implies \widehat{\mu}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i s_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i},$$

The EM algorithm is to iterate these two steps.