INVERTING RANDOM FUNCTIONS III: DISCRETE MLE REVISITED

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ABSTRACT. This paper continues our earlier investigations into the inversion of random functions in a general (abstract) setting. In Section 2 we investigate a concept of invertibility and the invertibility of the composition of random functions. In Section 3 we resolve some questions concerning the number of samples required to ensure the accuracy of parametric maximum likelihood estimation (MLE). A direct application to phylogeny reconstruction is given.

1. Review of random functions

This paper is a sequel of our earlier papers [11, 12]. We assume that the reader is familiar with those papers; however, we repeat the most important definitions.

For two finite sets, A and U, let us be given a U-valued random variable ξ_a for every $a \in A$. We call the vector of random variables ($\xi_a : a \in A$) a random function $\Xi : A \to U$. Ordinary functions are specific instances of random functions.

Given another random function, Γ , from U to V, we can speak about the composition of Γ and Ξ , $\Gamma \circ \Xi : A \to V$, which is the vector variable $(\gamma_{\xi_a} : a \in A)$. In this paper we are concerned with inverting random functions. In other words, we look for random functions $\Gamma : U \to A$ in order to obtain the best approximations of the identity function $\iota : A \to A$ by $\Gamma \circ \Xi$. We always assume that Ξ and Γ are independent. This assumption holds for free if either Ξ or Γ is a deterministic function.

Consider the probability of returning a from a by the composition of two random functions, that is, $r_a = \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = a]$. The assumption on the independence of Ξ and Γ immediately implies

(1)
$$r_a = \sum_{u \in U} \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] \cdot \mathbb{P}[\gamma_u = a].$$

A natural criterion is to find Γ for a given Ξ in order to maximize $\sum_a r_a$. More generally, we may have a weight function $w : A \to \mathbb{R}^+$ and we may wish to maximize

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 $\sum_{a} r_a w(a)$. This can happen if we give preference to returning certain *a*'s, or, if we have a prior probability distribution on *A* and we want to maximize the expected return probability for a random element of *A* selected according to the prior distribution. The following random function $\Gamma^* : U \to A$, defined below, will do this job: for any fixed $u \in U$,

(2)
$$\gamma_u^* = a^*$$
 for sure, if for all $a \in A$, $\mathbb{P}[\xi_{a^*} = u]w(a^*) \ge \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u]w(a)$.

(In case there is more than one element a^* that satisfies (2), we may select uniformly at random from the set of such elements.) This function Γ^* is called the *maximum a posteriori estimator* (MAP) in the literature [3]. The special case when the weight function w is constant, is known as the *maximum likelihood estimation* (MLE) [1, 3].

For $a, b \in A, \Xi : A \to U$, let

(3)
$$d(a,b) := d(\xi_a,\xi_b) = \sum_{u \in U} \left| \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u] \right|,$$

which is called the *variational distance* of the random variables ξ_a and ξ_b .

A given $\Xi : A \to U$ will have an $|A| \times |U|$ associated matrix X, such that $x_{au} = \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u]$. Given a $\Gamma : U \to V$ with associated matrix G, the composition of Γ and Ξ , $\Gamma \circ \Xi : A \to V$, will have the associated matrix XG^T .

Our motivation for the study of random functions came from phylogeny reconstruction [5, 9]. Stochastic models define how biomolecular sequences are generated at the leaves of a binary tree. If all possible binary trees on n leaves come equipped with a model for generating biomolecular sequences of length k, then we have a random function from the set of binary trees with n leaves to the ordered n-tuples of biomolecular sequences of length k. Phylogeny reconstruction can be viewed as a random function from the set of ordered *n*-tuples of biomolecular sequences of length k to the set of binary trees with n leaves. It is a natural assumption that random mutations in the past are independent from any random choices in the phylogeny reconstruction algorithm. Criteria for phylogeny reconstruction may differ according to what one wishes to optimize. However, in the practice of phylogeny reconstruction there are no fixed, preconceived models on the possible trees; instead, we also try to find out the model parameters. Our paper [11] introduced a new abstract model for phylogeny reconstruction: inverting parametric random functions. Most of the work done on the mathematics of phylogeny reconstruction can be discussed in this context. This model is more structured than random functions, and hence is better suited to describe details of models of phylogeny and the evolution of biomolecular sequences.

Assume that for a finite set A, for every $a \in A$, an (arbitrary, finite or infinite) set $\Theta(a) \neq \emptyset$ is assigned, and moreover, $\Theta(a) \cap \Theta(b) = \emptyset$ for $a \neq b$. Set $B = \{(a, \theta) : a \in A, \theta \in \Theta(a)\}$ and let π_1 denote the natural projection from B to A. A parametric random function is the collection Ξ of random variables such that

for $a \in A$ and $\theta \in \Theta(a)$, there is a (unique) U-valued random variable $\xi_{(a,\theta)}$ in Ξ .

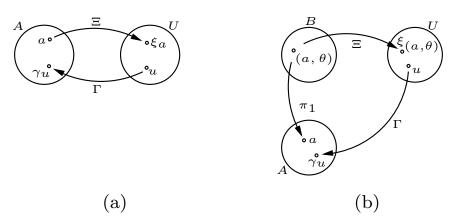


FIGURE 1. Inversion of non-parametric (a), and parametric (b) random functions

We are interested in random functions $\Gamma : U \to A$ independent from Ξ so that $\gamma_{\xi_{(a,\theta)}}$ best approximates π_1 under certain criteria. Call $R_{(a,\theta)}$ the probability $\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_{(a,\theta)}} = a]$. Maximum Likelihood Estimation, as it is used in situations where there is a discrete parameter of interest to estimate, in the presence of other parameters (such as phylogeny reconstruction), would take the Γ' , for which for every fixed $u, \gamma'_u = a'$ for sure, if

(4)
$$\forall (a,\theta) \in B \; \exists \theta' \in \Theta(a') \; \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a',\theta')} = u] \ge \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,\theta)} = u].$$

In case there is more than one element a' that satisfies (4), we may select uniformly at random from the set of such elements. (We avoided using the more natural looking quantification $\exists \theta' \in \Theta(a') \ \forall (a, \theta) \in B$, since $\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a', \theta')} = u]$ may not take a maximum value!) We denote by $R'_{(a,\theta)}$ the probability that from the pair (a, θ) the Maximum Likelihood Estimation Γ' returns a, i.e.

(5)
$$R'_{(a,\theta)} = \mathbb{P}[\gamma'_{\xi_{(a,\theta)}} = a].$$

If a random function $\Xi : A \to U \ (\Xi : B \to U)$ is to have k independent evaluation, we denote the resulting random function by $\Xi^{(k)} : A \to U^k \ (\Xi^{(k)} : B \to U^k)$, and the random variable associated with a will be $\xi_a^{(k)}$. We will study the invertibility of $\Xi^{(k)}$ both in the non-parametric and the parametric setting. For a $\Gamma : U^k \to A$ random function, we use the notation $r_a^{(k)} = \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a^{(k)}} = a]$ in the non-parametric case, $R_{(a,\theta)}^{(k)} = \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_{(a,\theta)}^{(k)}} = a]$ in the parametric case, and $[R^{(k)}]'_{(a,\theta)}$, if Γ' is the Maximum Likelihood Estimation.

In Section 2 we will show that in the non-parametric setting several natural definitions of invertibility of a random function are, in fact, equivalent. Furthermore, we determine when composition of invertible random functions is invertible. The main result of this Section is an explicit bound on how invertibility "improves" as the variational distances between elements of A have increasing separation from zero. In Section 3 we revisit our study of the worst-case behavior of MLE in [12]. (This is a very natural question in situations where a prior distribution is not given on A, or the inverting of the random function is to be carried out only once. Such a situation arises in phylogeny reconstruction, where, arguably, we do not have a prior distribution on alternative evolutionary scenarios, and the reconstruction is not

going to be repeated—there is only one 'Tree of Life' that we want to know.) A certain amount of controversy and debate has surrounded the statistical consistency of MLE in phylogeny, as described in [5], pp. 270–272. Felsenstein's claim (from the early 1970s) of the consistency of MLE in phylogeny for simple ('identifyable') models is correct, but it was only formally established in 1996 by [2]. This result, like Wald's earlier result [14], relies on a compactness argument, continuity, and limit theory, that does not give an explicit bound on k. Other proofs in the biological literature have generally been less rigorous and led to criticism and debate (see eg. [4, 6, 7, 10, 15, 16]). One oversight has been to treat the MLE-estimated continuous parameters (branch lengths) of alternative trees as fix ed rather than as random variables dependent on the data; such arguments are satisfying for practical purposes but call for more rigor. The significance of Theorem 5.1 [12] is that it gives the first explicit bounds for MLE, both in the phylogenetic setting and beyond. However, this result depended on an unnatural parameter, namely the smallest positive probability that an image of the object to be reconstructed can have. Here in Theorem 3.3 we get rid of this dependence, and provide a simple and immediate application of this new result to phylogeny reconstruction.

We study two examples that show how subtle is MLE for inverting parametric random functions. The first example shows that Theorem 3.3 is "near optimal" in one of its parameters. The second example shows that in contrast to the nonparametric setting, the vanishing of variational distance does not by itself preclude MLE (or other) estimation for certain random functions.

Our approach is information-theoretic, we focus on the possibility or impossibility of inverting random functions, and not on the computational complexity issues. Our results can also be re-stated in the language of decision theory, by talking about 'loss functions' and 'risk function' associated to the decision rule.

2. INVERTIBILITY IN THE NON-PARAMETRIC SETTING

Let us say that a random function $\Xi : A \to U$ is *invertible* if there exists a random function $\Gamma : U \to A$ such that for all $a \in A$, $\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = x]$ takes strict maximum when x = a, or equivalently,

(6)
$$\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = a] - \max_{x \neq a} \{\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = x]\} > 0 \text{ for all } a \in A.$$

Informally, Ξ is invertible, if there is some reconstruction method that is always more likely to pick the generating object in A than any other element of A.

A sufficient condition for Ξ to be invertible is that there exists a Γ so that for all $a \in A$, the following two conditions apply:

$$\begin{aligned} (I_1) & \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = a] > \frac{1}{|A|}, \\ (I_2) & \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = b] < \frac{1}{|A|}, \text{ for all } b \neq a. \end{aligned}$$

Note that invertibility implies (I_1) , and is equivalent to it when |A| = 2, but not equivalent for $|A| \ge 3$.

We say Ξ separates A, if, for each distinct pair $a, b \in A$, the variational distance d(a, b) of the probability distributions of ξ_a and ξ_b is strictly positive.

Proposition 2.1. The following properties are equivalent for an Ξ : $A \rightarrow U$ random function:

- (i) Ξ separates A
- (ii) For all $\epsilon > 0$ there is a value of k_{ϵ} so that for all $k \ge k_{\epsilon}$ there is a random function $\Gamma^{\S}: U^k \to A$ for which $\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a}^{\S(k)} = a] > 1 \epsilon$.
- (iii) Ξ is invertible
- (iv) For some $k \ge 1$, $\Xi^{(k)}$ is invertible.

Proof. The equivalence between (i) and (ii) follows easily from results in our earlier papers [11] and [12] and standard arguments. We will show that (iv) \Rightarrow (ii) and that (i) \Rightarrow (iii). Since (iii) \Rightarrow (iv) is trivial this will establish the claimed four-way equivalence.

Proof of $(iv) \Rightarrow (ii)$ Suppose that $\Xi^{(k)}$ is invertible. Select Γ to satisfy (6) for $\Xi^{(k)}$. For positive integer m, generate km independent samples in U according to Ξ . Define $\Gamma^{\S} : U^k \to A$ as follows: select the elements of A that are reconstructed most often according to Γ and choose one of them uniformly at random. By standard probability arguments, the probability that the correct element a will be selected by this process converges to 1 as m tends to infinity.

Proof of $(i) \Rightarrow (iii)$ Suppose that $\Xi : A \to U$ separates A. Let X denote the associated matrix of Ξ , and let $\mathbf{a}_i, i \in A$ denote the rows of X. Recall that \mathbf{a}_i gives the distribution of ξ_i . We will describe the inverse random function $\Gamma : U \to A$ with its associated matrix, i.e. in the form of a $|U| \times |A|$ matrix G, whose rows represent the distribution of the element of U corresponding to the row.

We write $G = V + \frac{1}{|A|}J$ and will give V explicitly. (If we were to take V = 0, then (6) yields uniformly = 0 instead of the desired > 0). We denote the columns of V by \mathbf{v}_i , $i \in A$. We define each vector \mathbf{v}_i as follows:

$$\mathbf{v}_i = \frac{\mathbf{a}_i}{|\mathbf{a}_i|} - \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{j=1}^{|A|} \frac{\mathbf{a}_j}{|\mathbf{a}_j|},$$

where |.| is the usual euclidean vector norm. Then it can be checked that this choice of V provides a solution to the following system:

$$\forall i \forall j \neq i \quad \mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_i - \mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j - \epsilon_{ij} = 0;$$

$$\sum_{l \in A} \mathbf{v}_l = 0;$$

$$\forall i \forall j \neq i \quad \epsilon_{ij} > 0.$$

and these are precisely the conditions (6) requires for invertibility.

2.1. Composition of invertible functions. A natural question is whether the composition of invertible functions is also invertible. The next result shows that in general the answer is 'no', though we can provide a precise characterization based on the rank of an associated matrix.

Theorem 2.2. Let $\Upsilon : U \to Z$ be a random function matrix Y, and let Y^+ denote the extension of Y by an all-1 row. If $rank(Y^+) = |U|$, then for all $\Xi : A \to U$ invertible random functions, the composition $\Upsilon \circ \Xi : A \to Z$ is invertible, and if rank is less than |U|, then there exist invertible random functions $\Xi : A \to U$ such that $\Upsilon \circ \Xi : A \to Z$ is not invertible.

Proof. Assume first that $\Upsilon \circ \Xi$ is not invertible, i.e. there exist $a \neq b \in A$, such that the distributions v_{ξ_a} and v_{ξ_b} are identical. Then we have the following homogeneous system of linear equations, where the coefficients are the numbers $\mathbb{P}[v_u = z]$ and 1's, and the variables are the x_u 's:

(7)
$$\sum_{u \in U} \mathbb{P}[v_u = z] x_u = 0 \text{ for all } z \in Z.$$

(8)
$$\sum_{u \in U} x_u = 0$$

The matrix Y^+ is the matrix of the system of homogeneous linear equations (7)-(8). Observe that $x_u = \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u]$ solves the system (7)-(8). If the rank of Y^+ is |U|, then it has only trivial solution, i.e. for all $u \in U$ $x_u = 0$. This amounts to ξ_a and ξ_b having the same distribution, contrary to the assumption of Ξ being invertible.

Assume now that Y^+ has rank less than |U|. Then the system (7)-(8) has a non-trivial solution x_u . Set $P = \sum_{u: x_u > 0} x_u$ and $N = \sum_{u: x_u < 0} x_u$. Clearly P = -N > 0. Take $A = \{a, b\}$, $\mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] = \frac{x_u}{P}$ if $x_u \ge 0$, and 0 otherwise; and $\mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u] = \frac{x_u}{N}$ if $x_u \le 0$, and 0 otherwise. It is clear that this Ξ is invertible, as it separates a and b. However, according to the argument above (7), the distributions v_{ξ_a} and v_{ξ_b} are identical.

2.2. Explicit bounds. From Proposition 2.1, if Ξ separates A then there is a random function $\Gamma: U \to A$ for which

$$\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = a] - \frac{1}{|A|} > 0.$$

We now consider putting an explicit lower bound on the right hand side of this inequality. That is, we show that for a specific continuous positive function h:

 $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ (dependent only on |A|) the following holds: Suppose that $d(a,b) > \delta$ for all $a, b \in A, a \neq b$. Then there is a random function $\Gamma : U \to A$ for which

$$\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_a} = a] - \frac{1}{|A|} > h(\delta)$$

for all $a \in A$. Note that we cannot insist the Γ be MLE (maximum likelihood estimation), even when |A| = 2. To see this, let $A = \{1, 2\}, U = \{u_1, u_2\}$ and let ξ_1 take the value u_1 with probability 1, and let ξ_2 take the values u_1, u_2 with probabilities $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$, respectively; then if $\Gamma = \Gamma^*$ is MLE, we have $\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_2} = 2] = \frac{1}{3}$.

Theorem 2.3. For every random function $\Xi : A \to U$, with |A| > 1, there exists a $\Gamma : U \to A$, such that

(9)
$$\min_{a \in A} r_a \ge \frac{1}{|A|} + \frac{1}{2|A|(|A|-1)} \min_{a \in A} \sum_{b \in A} d(a,b).$$

In particular, if for all $a \neq b \in A$, $d(a,b) \ge \delta$, then $\min_{a \in A} r_a \ge \frac{1}{|A|} + \frac{\delta}{2|A|}$.

Proof. Recall the characterization of the random inverse function maximizing $\min_{a \in A} r_a$ from Theorem 5 [11]: $\min_{a \in A} r_a = \min_{\mu} \sum_{u \in U} \max_{a \in A} \mu(a) \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u]$, where μ is a probability distribution on A. In the rest of the proof μ refers to this minimizing distribution. (Note that Theorem 5 in [11] contains an annoying typo, it shows maximization for μ instead of minimization). We are going to use the following Lemma.

Lemma 2.4. Let us be given real numbers $b_1, b_2, ..., b_n$. Assume that

$$\sum_{\leq i < j \leq n} |b_i - b_j| \ge (n-1)\epsilon.$$

Then $\max_j [b_j - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n b_i] \ge \frac{\epsilon}{n}.$

Proof. Without loss of generality we may assume $b_1 \ge b_2 \ge ... \ge b_n$. The conditions of the Lemma can be rewritten as the conditions of the following primal linear program:

$$b_2 - b_1 \leq 0$$

$$b_3 - b_2 \leq 0$$

$$\dots$$

$$b_n - b_{n-1} \leq 0$$

$$\sum_{i < j} b_i - b_j \leq -(n-1)\epsilon$$

$$\max(\frac{1}{n}\sum_i b_i) - b_1$$

Recall the Duality Theorem of linear programming [8]: $\max\{c^T x : Mx \leq b\} = \min\{y^T b : y \geq 0, y^t M = c\}$, if both optimization problems have feasible solutions.

The dual linear program is as follows:

$$(n-1)x_n - x_1 = -\frac{n-1}{n}$$

$$x_i - x_{i+1} + (n-2i-1)x_n = \frac{1}{n} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., n-2;$$

$$x_{n-1} + (1-n)x_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \ge 0$$

$$\min - (n-1)\epsilon x_n.$$

It is easy to see that the for the dual problem a feasible solution is the following setting: $x_i = 1 - \frac{i(i-1)}{n(n-1)}$ for i = 1, 2, ..., n-1, and $x_n = \frac{1}{n(n-1)}$; with value $-\frac{\epsilon}{n}$. This implies that $\frac{\epsilon}{n} \leq \max_j b_j - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n b_i$ for any feasible solution of the primal problem.

We are going to apply Lemma 2.4 in the following setting. Fix an arbitrary $u \in U$, and for $i \in A$, let $b_i = \mu(i)\mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u]$. The lemma yields

(10)
$$\max_{a \in A} \left(\mu(a) \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] - \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{i \in A} \mu(i) \mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] \right)$$

(11)
$$\geq \frac{1}{|A|(|A|-1)} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq |A|} |\mu(i)\mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] - \mu(j)\mathbb{P}[\xi_j = u]|.$$

Observe the identity

(12)
$$\sum_{u \in U} \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{i \in A} \mu(i) \mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] = \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{i \in A} \mu(i) \sum_{u \in U} \mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] = \frac{1}{|A|}.$$

Now identity (12) implies (13) and inequalities (10-11) imply inequality (14):

$$(13)\min_{a \in A} r_a = \frac{1}{|A|} + \sum_{u \in U} \max_{a \in A} \left\{ \mu(a) \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] - \frac{1}{|A|} \sum_{i \in A} \mu(i) \mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] \right\}$$

$$(14) \geq \frac{1}{|A|} + \frac{1}{|A|(|A|-1)} \sum_{u \in U} \sum_{1 \le i < j \le |A|} |\mu(i) \mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] - \mu(j) \mathbb{P}[\xi_j = u]|.$$

Fix an arbitrary $a, b \in A$, and set $Q = \sum_{u \in U} |\mu(a)\mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] - \mu(b)\mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u]|$. Define

$$U^{+} = \left\{ u \in U : \mathbb{P}[\xi_{a} = u] > \mathbb{P}[\xi_{b} = u] \right\},$$
$$U^{=} = \left\{ u \in U : \mathbb{P}[\xi_{a} = u] = \mathbb{P}[\xi_{b} = u] \right\},$$
$$U^{-} = \left\{ u \in U : \mathbb{P}[\xi_{a} = u] < \mathbb{P}[\xi_{b} = u] \right\}.$$

Define further $A^+ = \sum_{u \in U^+} \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u], A^- = \sum_{u \in U^-} \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u],$

$$B^{+} = \sum_{u \in U^{+}} \mathbb{P}[\xi_{b} = u], B^{-} = \sum_{u \in U^{-}} \mathbb{P}[\xi_{b} = u]. \text{ Observe that}$$
$$d(a, b) = \sum_{u \in U} \left| \mathbb{P}[\xi_{a} = u] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_{b} = u] \right| = A^{+} - B^{+} + B^{-} - A^{-}$$

On the other hand,

$$A^+ + A^- = 1 - \sum_{u \in U^=} \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] = 1 - \sum_{u \in U^=} \mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u] = B^+ + B^-.$$

From the last two equations we conclude that $d(a, b) = 2(A^+ - B^+) = 2(B^- - A^-)$. We finish the proof by setting a lower bound on Q with a case analysis.

• If $\mu(b) = \mu(a), Q = \mu(a)d(a, b).$

• If
$$\mu(b) > \mu(a)$$
,

$$Q \ge \mu(a) \sum_{u \in U^-} \mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] = \frac{1}{2}\mu(a)d(a,b).$$

• If $\mu(b) < \mu(a)$,

$$Q \ge \mu(a) \sum_{u \in U^+} \mathbb{P}[\xi_a = u] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_b = u] = \frac{1}{2}\mu(a)d(a,b)$$

In all cases, we have $Q \ge \frac{1}{2}\mu(a)d(a,b)$. Returning to (14), we find

(15)
$$\sum_{1 \le i < j \le |A|} \sum_{u \in U} |\mu(i)\mathbb{P}[\xi_i = u] - \mu(j)\mathbb{P}[\xi_j = u]| \ge \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a \in A} \mu(a) \sum_{b \in A} d(a, b),$$

and through (13), (14) and (15), we have

$$\min_{a \in A} r_a \geq \frac{1}{|A|} + \frac{1}{2|A|(|A|-1)} \sum_{a \in A} \mu(a) \sum_{b \in A} d(a,b)$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{|A|} + \frac{1}{2|A|(|A|-1)} \min_{a \in A} \sum_{b \in A} d(a,b).$$

3. The parametric setting: Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

In this section we reconsider the question of how many i.i.d. samples are required in order for parametric maximum likelihood to accurately recover elements of a finite set.

Assume $B = \{(a, \theta) : a \in A, \theta \in \Theta(a)\}$, and $\Xi : B \to U$ is a parametric random function, where A and U are finite sets. Define

(16)
$$U^+ := \{ u : \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,\theta)} = u] > 0 \},\$$

(17)
$$\alpha := \alpha_{(a,\theta)} = \min_{u \in U^+} \{ \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,\theta)} = u] \},$$

and assume

(18)
$$d := d_{(a,\theta)} = \inf_{b \neq a, \theta' \in \Theta(b)} \sum_{u \in U} |\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,\theta)} = u] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(b,\theta')} = u]| > 0.$$

In our earlier work, Theorem 5 in [12], we showed that for

(19)
$$k \ge f(\alpha, d) \log(\frac{2|U^+|}{\epsilon}),$$

k samples suffice to reconstruct $a \in A$, from (a, θ) with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$ using MLE, more formally, for $\Xi^{(k)} : B \to U^k$, $[R^{(k)}]'_{(a,\theta)} \ge 1 - \epsilon$. Our function f in (19) tends to infinity when either (or both) $\alpha \to 0$ or $d \to 0$. This dependence on d is reasonable (though not always necessary, see Section 3.2), however the dependence on α is not clear, and raises two questions.

- Q1 Is there an bound on k (like (19)) but which depends only on $|U^+|$, ϵ and d and not on α ?
- Q2 Moreover, can the function f in (19) be replaced by a function of just d and ϵ (and not α and U^+) so that the resulting function is still a valid bound for k?

In this section we show that the answer to the first question is 'yes' (Theorem 3.3) while the answer to the second is 'no' (Example 3.1).

We begin by introducing some further notation. For any two probability distributions p, p' on a set U let $d_{KL}(p, p') = \sum_{u \in U: p_u > 0} p_u \log(\frac{p_u}{p'_u}) \in [0, \infty) \cup \{\infty\}$ denote the Kullback-Leibler distance of p and p', and recall the standard inequality:

(20)
$$d_{KL}(p,p') \ge \frac{1}{2}d(p,p')^2,$$

where d(p, p') denotes as usual the variational distance, $\sum_{u \in U} |p_u - p'_u|$. We will also use $d_2(p, p') = \left(\sum_{u \in U} |p_u - p'_u|^2\right)^{1/2}$.

Lemma 3.1. Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k be a sequence of *i.i.d.* random variables taking values in a finite set U. Assume further that if X_i takes a value with probability zero, then it never takes this value. For each $u \in U$, let $\hat{p}_u := \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{I}(X_i = u)$ (the normalized multinomial counts) and let $p_u = \mathbb{P}[X_1 = u]$. Let $U^+ := \{u : p_u > 0\}$. Then,

(i)
$$\mathbb{P}[d_{KL}(\hat{p}, p) \ge \delta] \le \frac{|U^+|}{k\delta}$$
,
(ii) $\mathbb{P}[d(\hat{p}, p) \ge \delta] \le \frac{|U^+|}{k\delta^2}$.

Proof. Part (i) Let $\hat{\Delta}_u = \hat{p}_u - p_u$. For $u \in U^+$, set $\hat{Q}_u = 0$ if $\hat{p}_u = 0$, while if $\hat{p}_u > 0$ set

(21)

$$\hat{Q}_u := \hat{p}_u \log(\frac{\hat{p}_u}{p_u}) = (p_u + \hat{\Delta}_u) \log(1 + \frac{\hat{\Delta}_u}{p_u})$$

$$\leq (p_u + \hat{\Delta}_u) \cdot \frac{\hat{\Delta}_u}{p_u} = \hat{\Delta}_u + \frac{\hat{\Delta}_u^2}{p_u}.$$

Recall Markov's inequality, which states that if X is non-negative random variable, and a > 0, then

(22)
$$\mathbb{P}[X \ge a] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}.$$

Note that $\mathbb{E}[(\hat{p}_u - p_u)^2] = Var[\hat{p}_u] = \frac{p_u(1-p_u)}{k}$, and applying (22) to

$$X = \sum_{u \in U^+} \frac{\hat{\Delta}_u^2}{p_u} \ge 0$$

and noting that $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{|U^+|-1}{k}$ gives $\mathbb{P}[X \ge \delta] \le \frac{|U^+|}{k\delta}$. By definition, $d_{KL}(\hat{p}, p) = \sum_{u:\hat{p}_u \ne 0} \hat{Q}_u = \sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{Q}_u$ and this is less or equal to X (by (21), and the identity $\sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{\Delta}_u = 0$), which leads to the required inequality.

Part (ii) By the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, $d^2(\hat{p}, p) \leq d_2^2(\hat{p}, p) \cdot |U^+|$ and so,

$$\mathbb{P}\big[d(\hat{p},p) \ge \delta\big] \le \mathbb{P}\big[d_2^2(\hat{p},p) \ge \delta^2/|U^+|\big] \le \frac{|U^+|}{\delta^2} \mathbb{E}\big[d_2^2(\hat{p},p)\big],$$

by Markov's inequality (22). Now,

$$\mathbb{E}[d_2^2(\hat{p}, p)] = \mathbb{E}[\sum_{u \in U} (\hat{p}_u - p_u)^2] = \sum_{u \in U} Var[\hat{p}_u] = \sum_{u \in U} \frac{1}{k} p_u (1 - p_u) \le \frac{1}{k}.$$

Corollary 3.2. Under the assumptions of Lemma 3.1, if $\delta < 1$, $\epsilon > 0$ and $k \geq \frac{2|U^+|}{\epsilon\delta^2}$, then with probability at least $1-\epsilon$, the inequalities $d_{KL}(\hat{p},p) < \delta$ and $d(\hat{p},p) < \delta$ simultaneously hold.

Theorem 3.3. Assume $B = \{(a, \theta) : a \in A, \theta \in \Theta(a)\}$, and $\Xi : B \to U$ is a parametric random function, where A and U are finite sets. Recall definition (16) and condition (18). Provided $k \geq \frac{c_1|U^+|}{\epsilon d_{(a,\theta)}^4}$ with $c_1 = \frac{2}{(2-\sqrt{3})^2}$, the probability that MLE correctly returns a from $\Xi^{(k)}$ is at least $1 - \epsilon$, i.e. $[R^{(k)}]'_{(a,\theta)} \geq 1 - \epsilon$.

Proof. Let p be the probability distribution on U induced by $\xi_{(a,\theta)}$, $c = 2 - \sqrt{3}$, E be the event that $d(\hat{p}, p) \leq c \cdot d_{(a,\theta)}$. For the probability distribution q induced by $\xi_{(b,\theta')}$ where $b \neq a$, by the triangle inequality we have

$$d(\hat{p},q) \ge |d(p,q) - d(\hat{p},p)|.$$

Now, by assumption $d(p,q) \ge d_{(a,\theta)}$, and so, conditional on E, $d(\hat{p},q) \ge (1-c)d_{(a,\theta)}$. Invoking the inequality (20) gives

$$d_{KL}(\hat{p},q) \ge \frac{1}{2} d(\hat{p},q)^2 \ge \frac{1}{2} (1-c)^2 d_{(a,\theta)}^2.$$

Thus, conditional on E we have:

(23)
$$\sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{p}_u \log q_u \le \sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{p}_u \log \hat{p}_u - \frac{1}{2} (1-c)^2 d^2_{(a,\theta)}$$

For $x \in A, \omega \in \Theta(x)$, consider

(24)
$$L(x,\omega) = \sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{p}(u) \log \mathbb{P}[\xi_{x,\omega} = u].$$

 $L(x,\omega)$ is $\frac{1}{k}$ times the natural logarithm of the probability that the observed sequence of U-elements came from (x,ω) . Therefore $L(x,\omega) \leq 0$ is proportional to

the log-likelihood of (x, ω) . Now consider the log likelihood ratio

$$\Delta L := L(a,\theta) - L(b,\theta') = \sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{p}_u \log(p_u/q_u).$$

Conditional on E we have, by (23),

(25)
$$\Delta L \ge -\sum_{u \in U^+} \hat{p}_u \log(\frac{\hat{p}_u}{p_u}) + \frac{1}{2}(1-c)^2 d^2_{(a,\theta)} = \frac{1}{2}(1-c)^2 d^2_{(a,\theta)} - d_{KL}(\hat{p},p).$$

So if we select $\delta = c \cdot d_{(a,\theta)}^2$ in Corollary 3.2 we can ensure that with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$ that event E occurs and also (since $\frac{1}{2}(1-c)^2 = c$) that $d_{KL}(\hat{p},p) < \delta = c \cdot d_{(a,\theta)}^2 = \frac{1}{2}(1-c)^2 d_{(a,\theta)}^2$, and so, by (25) we have $\Delta L > 0$. The value of k that Corollary 3.2 requires is precisely that given in the statement of this theorem. This completes the proof.

Remarks

- Theorem 3.3 also implies that for MLE in the *non*-parametric setting, the number k of i.i.d. samples required to reconstruct an element $a \in A$ correctly with probability at least 1ϵ is bounded above by a function that depends just on $|U^+|, \epsilon$ and $d_a := \min_{b \neq a} d(a, b)$. In [11] an upper bound on k was also derived, however it depended just on $|A|, \epsilon$ and d_a . Comparing these results suggests an interesting question: Is there an upper bound for k (in the non-parametric setting) which depends just on d_a and ϵ ?
- We show below that the linear dependence of k on $|U^+|$ in Theorem 3.3 is best possible in the sense that no sublinear dependence is possible. It is possible however that the exponent of 4 for d in Theorem 3.3 might be reduced.

3.1. Construction to show that k must grow linearly with $|U^+|$. We now show that Theorem 3.3 cannot be improved by replacing the dependence of k on $|U^+|$ with a sublinear function (like the logarithmic dependence on $|U|^+$ in Theorem 5.1 [12]), even when $d_{(a,\theta)}$ and ϵ are held constant.

Let $A = \{a, b\}$, with $\Theta(a) = \{*\}$, and

$$\Theta(b) = \{ \theta = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) : \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 1, \forall i \ \lambda_i \ge 0 \}.$$

Let $U = \{0, 1, ..., n\}$. Fix $\delta > 0$ and consider the random function Ξ defined as follows.

$$\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,*)} = u] = \begin{cases} \delta, & \text{if } u = 0; \\ \frac{1-\delta}{n}, & \text{if } u \in \{1, \dots, n\}; \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(b,(\lambda_1,\dots,\lambda_n))} = u] = \begin{cases} 2\delta, & \text{if } u = 0;\\ \lambda_u(1-2\delta), & \text{if } u \in \{1,\dots,n\}. \end{cases}$$

We assume that $k \leq n$, otherwise we have nothing to prove. For $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \ldots, u_k) \in U^k$, let $x(\mathbf{u}) = |\{i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} : u_i = 0\}|$. We have:

$$L_1 := \sup_{\theta \in \Theta(a)} \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,\theta)}^{(k)} = \mathbf{u}] = \delta^{x(\mathbf{u})} \left(\frac{1-\delta}{n}\right)^{k-x(\mathbf{u})}$$

and

(26)
$$L_2 := \sup_{\theta' \in \Theta(b)} \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(b,\theta')}^{(k)} = \mathbf{u}] \ge (2\delta)^{x(\mathbf{u})} \left(\frac{1-2\delta}{k-x(\mathbf{u})}\right)^{k-x(\mathbf{u})},$$

since we are free to select $\theta \in \Theta(b)$ to be the uniform distribution on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ for those *i* for which $u_i \neq 0$. We will select δ sufficient small that

(27)
$$2(1-2\delta)^{\delta/2} > 1$$

Now, suppose we generate u randomly from (a, *). Note that the value of $d_{(a,*)}$ is at least δ , since

$$d((a,*),(b,\theta')) \ge |\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a,*)} = 0] - \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(b,\theta')} = 0]| = \delta.$$

Then MLE will (incorrectly) reconstruct b whenever $R := L_2/L_1 > 1$. We will show that this occurs with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$, if k is less than $\frac{1}{2}|U^+|$, for any δ satisfying (27) and any sufficiently large $|U^+|$.

Note that by replacing L_2 by its lower bound (26), we can write $R \ge Y^k$ where

$$Y = 2^{\rho} \left[\frac{n}{k} \cdot \frac{(1-2\delta)}{(1-\delta)(1-\rho)} \right]^{1-\rho},$$

where $\rho := x(\mathbf{u})/k$. Now, if $k \le \frac{1}{2}n$, then since $((1 - \delta)(1 - \rho))^{-(1-\rho)} \ge 1$,

$$Y \ge 2(1-2\delta)^{1-\rho}$$

Now, for δ, ϵ fixed, there exists a value of k, for which, with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$, we have $\rho > \frac{1}{2}\delta$. Thus for this value of k, and any n > 2k inequality (27) gives

$$Y \ge 2(1-2\delta)^{\delta/2} > 1,$$

and so R > 1; that is MLE will make an incorrect decision. Thus, we must have $k \ge \frac{1}{2}n = \frac{1}{2}(|U^+| - 1)$ in order to avoid this.

3.2. Example to show that parametric MLE can still succeed when variational distance vanishes on each element of A. In the *non*-parametric setting, given a random function $\Xi : A \to U$, suppose that d(a, b) = 0 for two elements $a, b \in A$. Then for any random function $\Gamma : U \to A$ it is easily shown (eg. by Theorem 3.1 of [12]) that

(28)
$$\min\{\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_{a_1}} = a_1], \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_{a_2}} = a_2]\} \le \frac{1}{2}.$$

That is, if the probability distribution induced by a_1 and a_2 is the same, no method can recover both a_1 and a_2 more accurately than by a toss of a fair coin. We can ask if a similar result holds for *parametric* MLE. That is, suppose that $A = \{a_1, a_2\}$ and for a value $\theta_1 \in \Theta(a_1)$, and $\theta_2 \in \Theta(a_2)$ we have

(29)
$$d_{(a_1,\theta_1)} = d_{(a_2,\theta_2)} = 0,$$

where $d_{(a,\theta)}$ is defined as in (18). Note that Theorem 3.3 does not give a finite bound on k for MLE to accurately reconstruct a_1 or a_2 . However it turns out that for certain random functions satisfying (29), if parametric MLE is used to estimate a_1 and a_2 from k independent trials, then for any parameter (a_i, θ_i) chosen, and for even k, the probability that the selection is correct is always strictly greater than $\frac{1}{2}$, moreover in all but one choice of the parameter settings (for a_1) the probability the selection is correct tends to 1 as $k \to \infty$ (in the other setting it tends to $\frac{1}{2}$ from above). For this example th ere is a more pedestrian approach for estimating a_1 or a_2 from the k independent trials, for which the probability of making the correct reconstruction tends to 1 as k tends to infinity, for all parameter settings (in contrast to MLE which has problems at one particular parameter settings – this illustrates again the care required in consistency arguments for MLE). Note also

that in this example, with any parameters $\theta_1, \theta_2, d\left((a_1, \theta_1), (a_2, \theta_2)\right) > 0$ holds.

Let $A = \{a_1, a_2\}, U = \{(1, 0), (1, 1), (2, 0), (2, 1)\}, \Theta(a_1) = [\pi/4, 3\pi/4), \text{ and} \Theta(a_2) = (\pi/4, 3\pi/4].$ For $t \in \Theta(a_1)$, let $\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a_1,t)} = (1, \lfloor 2t/\pi \rfloor)] = \sin^2 t, \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a_1,t)} = (2, \lfloor 2t/\pi \rfloor)] = \cos^2 t;$ and for $t \in \Theta(a_2)$, let $\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a_2,t)} = (1, \lfloor 2t/\pi \rfloor)] = \cos^2 t, \mathbb{P}[\xi_{(a_2,t)} = (2, \lfloor 2t/\pi \rfloor)] = \sin^2 t.$

The key observation for the argument that follows is that $\sin^2 t > \cos^2 t$ in $(\pi/4, 3\pi/4)$, while in the endpoints $\sin^2 t = 1/2 = \cos^2 t$. It is easy to see that $\lim_{t \to \frac{\pi}{4}^+} d\Big((a_1, \pi/4), (a_2, t)\Big) = 0$, and hence $d_{(a_1, \pi/4)} = 0$. A similar argument shows that $d_{(a_2,3\pi/4)} = 0$. It is also easy to see that the distributions of all $\xi_{(a_i,t)}$ random variables are different. The only possible problem would be the distributions of $\xi_{(a_1,\pi/4)}$ and $\xi_{(a_2,3\pi/4)}$ however in this case we have the second coordinates in the elements of U to separate these distributions. There is a pedestrian way to guess where an element of U came from. Count the ones and twos in the first coordinates after k independent trials. If there are more ones, then select a_1 , if there are more 2's then select a_2 , while in the case of a tie, if $\lfloor 2t/\pi \rfloor = 0$, then select a_1 , otherwise select a_2 . (note that $\lfloor 2t/\pi \rfloor = 0$ is constant over the trials). MLE pretty much does the same, the only thing that requires more careful analysis is whether MLE correctly returns $(a_1, \pi/4)$ and $(a_2, 3\pi/4)$. Focus on $(a_1, \pi/4)$, as the other problem is analogous. Let # 1 and # 2 denote the number of ones and twos in the first coordinates in $\xi_{(a_1,\pi/4)}^{(k)}$. Let p be the probability of the event $X_1 = \# 1 > \# 2^n$; by symmetry it is also the probability of the event $X_2 = \#$ 1 < # 2", and let q be the probability of the event $X_3 = \# 1 = \# 2$ ". Note that MLE correctly returns a_1 for events X_1 and X_3 (but not for X_2), and hence $[R^{(k)}]'_{(a_1,\pi/4)} \ge p + q = \frac{1+q}{2} > \frac{1}{2}$. The claim holds for X_3 for the following reason. The probability that $\xi_{(a_1,\pi/4)}^{(k)}$ yields the particular observed k-sequence conditional on X_3 is 2^{-k} , while the probability that (a_2, θ_2) generated the particular observed k-sequence conditional on event X_3 is $p^{k/2}(1-p)^{k/2}$ for some $p \neq 1/2$, and this second probability is strictly smaller than 2^{-k} .

Informally, the reason for this phenomena is that the parameter space associated to a_i is tuned for 'fitting' data that is produced by the pair (a_i, θ_i) .

Despite this somewhat surprising result, one can easily derive a parametric analogue of (28) for any random function $\Xi : B \to U$ (where $B = \{(a, \theta) : \theta \in \Theta(a)\}$ as usual) under the stronger condition that $d((a_1, \theta_1), (a_2, \theta_2)) = 0$ where $d((a_1, \theta_1), (a_2, \theta_2))$ is the variational distance between the distributions of the U-valued random variables $\xi_{(a_1,\theta_1)}$ and $\xi_{(a_2,\theta_2)}$. In this case, for any random function (not just parametric MLE) $\Gamma \to U$ that is independent of Ξ it is easily shown that

$$\min\{\mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_{(a_1,\theta_1)}} = a_1], \mathbb{P}[\gamma_{\xi_{(a_2,\theta_2)}} = a_2]\} \le \frac{1}{2}.$$

Of course this bound applies also for k i.i.d. trial experiments.

3.3. Application of Theorem 3.3. As a simple illustration of the use of Theorem 3.3, we describe an application to the reconstruction of phylogenetic trees from binary sequences according to a simple Markov process(the CFN model). Such processes are central to much of molecular biology (see eg. [5]). Let A denote the three binary phylogenetic trees that have leaf set $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. For a tree $T = (V_T, E_T) \in A, \Theta(a)$ is the set of functions $p : E_T \to [0, 0.5]$ which assign to each edge e of T an associated substitution probability. Under the CFN model a state is assigned uniformly at random to a leaf (eg. leaf 1) and states are assigned recursively to the remaining vertices of the tree by (independently) changing the state (0 to 1 or 1 to 0) across each edge e of T with probability p(e). This gives a (marginal) probability distribution on each of the 16 site patterns $c : X \to \{0, 1\}$ (further details concerning this model can be found in [12] or [9]). Thus if we generate k site patterns i.i.d. from the pair (T, p) we can ask how large k must be in order for MLE to accurately reconstruct T. To ensure that $d_{(T,p)} > 0$ one must impose the following condition on p.

(P) For each of the four edges e of T incident with a leaf we have $p(e) \le g < \frac{1}{2}$; and for the central edge e of T, $p(e) \ge f > 0$.

From [13] (Lemma 6.3) we have $d_{(T,p)} \ge H(f,g) > 0$ for a continuous function H. Note that condition (P) can allow arbitrarily small values for $\alpha_{(T,p)}$: (= $\min_{u \in U^+} \{\mathbb{P}[\xi_{(T,p)} = u]\}$ even when f and g take fixed values (since condition (P) allows two adjacent edges incident with leaves of T to both have arbitrarily small p(e) values, and the probability of any site pattern that assigns these two leaves different states can therefore be made as close to zero as we wish). Consequently, the main result from [12] does not provide any (finite) estimate for the site patterns required for MLE to correctly reconstruct a tree. However we may applying Theorem 3.3 in this setting, and since $|U^+| \leq 16$, we obtain an explicit upper bound on the number of site patterns required to reconstruct each phylogenetic tree on four leaves correctly with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$.

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