# BMEG 802 – Advanced Biomedical Experimental Design and Analysis

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

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## Recap

#### ANCOVA

- covariates
- can use for any combination of between and within designs.

# **Today**

- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)
  - Probability Distribution Function
  - Likelihood function
  - 3 Ways to find the Maximum Likelihood Estimation
    - Analytical (Calculus)
    - Brute Force (Grid Search)
    - Optimization (Gradient Descent)

#### **Maximum Likelihood Estimation**

- Tool for parameter estimation
- good approach for cases when OLS (ordinary least squares) assumptions are violated
- e.g. for non-linear models with non-normal data
- in MLE, we estimate the parameters of a model that maximize the likelihood of your data

assume an observed data vector

$$y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$$

 Goal of MLE: identify the population (the model) that is most likely to have generated the data

- Here we assume population (model) is associated with a corresponding probability distribution
- Each probability distribution is characterized by a unique value of the model's parameter(s)
- As model parameters change, different probability distributions are generated
- Model = the family of probability distributions indexed by the model's parameter(s)

- f(y|w) is the probability density function (PDF) specifying the probability of observing data y, given model parameter(s) w
  - note: w may be a parameter vector,  $w = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)$ 
    - e.g. for a normal PDF:  $w = (\mu, \sigma)$

• If observations yi are i.i.d. (indepedent and identically distributed), then the PDF for the data as a whole,  $y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$  given the parameter vector  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)$ , can be expressed as the multiplication of PDFs for individual observations:

$$f(y_1, y_2, ..., y_n | \mathbf{w}) = f_1(y_1 | \mathbf{w}) f_2(y_2 | \mathbf{w}), ..., f_n(y_n | \mathbf{w})$$

Or, more concisely  $f(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_n(y_n|\mathbf{w})$ \$

# PDF Example with a Normal Distribution

• Let's say our data vector Y is made up of 3 observations:

$$y_1 = 80, y_2 = 110, y_3 = 130$$

• We want to compute the PDF for a Normal distribution:

$$f(y_i|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y_i-\mu)}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Let's assume  $\mu = 100, \sigma = 15$ 

$$f(80|\mu = 100, \sigma = 15) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(80-\mu)}{2\sigma^2}} = 0.010934$$

$$f(110|\mu = 100, \sigma = 15) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(110-\mu)}{2\sigma^2}} = 0.021297$$

$$f(130|\mu = 100, \sigma = 15) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(130-\mu)}{2\sigma^2}} = 0.003599$$

$$f(y_1, y_2, y_3 | \mu, \sigma) = f(y_1 | \mu, \sigma) f(y_2 | \mu, \sigma) f(y_3 | \mu, \sigma) = (0.010934)(0.021297)(0.003599) = .0000008389$$

## **Binomial Distribution Example**

- y is the number of successes in a sequence of 10 Bernoulli trials (e.g. tossing a coin 10 times)
- a Bernoulli trial is an experiment whose outcome is random and can be either of two possible outcomes: success or failure.
- Binomial Distribution PDF:

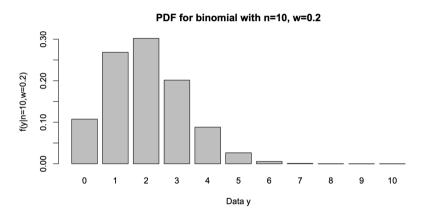
$$f(y|n,w) = \frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!} w^{y} (1-w)^{n-y}$$

- assume probability of a success on any one trial is 0.2 (a biased coin)
- parameter vector is n=10, w=0.2

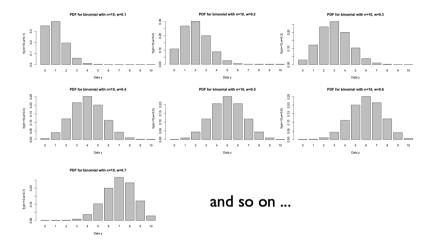
$$f(y|n = 10, w = 0.2) = \frac{10!}{y!(10-y)!}0.2^{y}(1-0.2)^{10-y}; (y = 0, 1, ..., 10)$$

# **Binomial Distribution Example**

#### **Binomial Distribution**

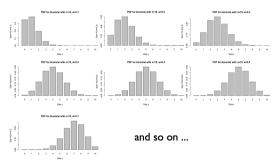


## **Binomial Distribution - Varying a Parameter**



#### **Binomial Distribution - A Model**

The collection of all such PDFs generated by varying the parameter across its range defines a **model** 



- Given a set of parameter values, the corresponding PDF will show that some data are more probable than other data
- In fact we have already observed the data

- We are faced with the inverse problem
  - Given the observed data, and a model of the process by which the data was generated
    - find the one PDF, among all the probability densities that the model prescribes, that is **most likely to have produced the data**

• we define the likelihood function by reversing the roles of the data vector y and the parameter vector w in f(y|w):

$$\mathcal{L}(w|y) = f(y|w)$$

 $\mathcal{L}(w|y)$  represents the likelihood of the parameter w given the observed data y

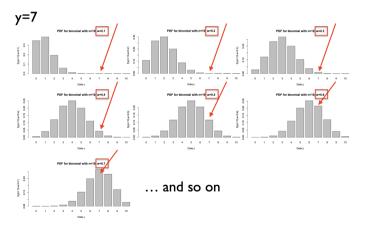
- note: a likelihood function does not need to sum to 1.0
- For our one-dimensional binomial example the likelihood function for y=7 and n=10 is

$$\mathcal{L}(w|n=10, y=7) = \frac{10!}{7!(10-7)!}w^7(1-w)^{10-7}; (0 \le w \le 1)$$

But, what is the value of w???

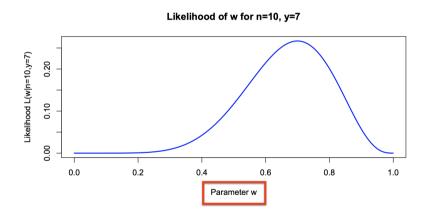
# **Likelihood Function - Iterate Through Variable**

Let's try all value of w between 0 and 1

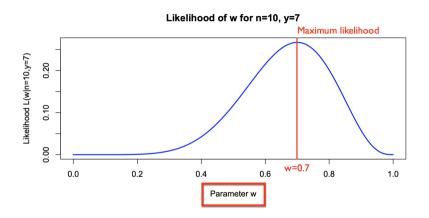


Notice  $\mathcal{L}(w|n=10,y=7)$  is highest when w=0.7

# **Graphing the Likelihood Function**



# **Graphing the Likelihood Function**



w = 0.7 is the Maximum Likelihood Estimate!!!

# Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

- find the probability distribution (the model) that makes the observed data most likely
- seek the value of the parameter vector w that maximizes the likelihood function

 $\mathcal{L}(w|y)$  - the resulting parameter vector w is known as the MLE estimate

# Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

#### Three ways of finding the MLE

- 1. Analytical: use calculus to solve for the parameter value(s) w that result in a peak
- 2. Brute Force: exhaustive search through parameter space in a grid
- 3. Optimization: use non-linear optimization (e.g. gradient descent) to iteratively find the peak

#### **Numerical Considerations**

• we saw before that the PDF for observed data,  $y = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$  given a parameter vector w, can be expressed as the **product (multiply) of PDFs for individual observations** 

$$\mathcal{L}(w|y_1, y_2, ..., y_n) = \mathcal{L}_1(w|y_1)\mathcal{L}_2(w|y_2)...\mathcal{L}_n(w|y_n)$$

- multiplying together a lot of values that lie between 0 and 1, (as many as there are data points) will result in a very small number
- in fact the more data, the smaller the resulting product will be
- computers are not good at representing very small numbers

#### **Numerical Considerations**

- solution: take the logarithm
- this reformulates the series of products, as a series of sums
- the more data, the higher the resulting sum

$$ln[\mathcal{L}_{1}(w|y_{1})\mathcal{L}_{2}(w|y_{2})...\mathcal{L}_{n}(w|y_{n})] = ln[\mathcal{L}_{1}(w|y_{1}) + \mathcal{L}_{2}(w|y_{2}) +, ..., \mathcal{L}_{n}(w|y_{n})]$$

#### **Numerical Considerations**

- another problem: most optimization algorithms are formulated in terms of minimizing an objective function, not maximizing
- solution: rather than maximizing the log-likelihood, we will minimize the negative log-likelihood
- find w that minimizes:

$$argmin_w igg[ -1.0 \Big( In igg[ \mathcal{L}_1(w|y_1) + \mathcal{L}_2(w|y_2) +, ..., \mathcal{L}_n(w|y_n) \Big] \Big) igg]$$

# **An Example**

- Let's say I claim I can correctly identify coffee quality between Little Goat and Starbucks coffee
- My lab designs an experiment to test me
- They give me 20 cups of coffee in random order and I have to say "Goat" or "Starbucks"
- Observed data: I get 16 correct, 4 incorrect
- what model explains the observed data?

# **An Example**

- This experiment can be modelled as 20 Bernoulli trials (outcome of each trial is random and can be either of two possible outcomes, "success" and "failure")
- we know PDF is binomial, which has 2 parameters: n (# trials) and w (prob of a success on a given trial)
- equivalent to asking, what is the value of the parameter w?
- high w (e.g. near 1.0) means I have a good ability to discriminate
- w near 0.5 means I am flipping a coin

Likelihood Function:

$$\mathcal{L}(w|n,y) = \frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!} w^{y} (1-w)^{n-y}$$

Log Likelihood Function:

$$ln[\mathcal{L}(w|n,y)] = ln\left(\frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!}\right) + y \cdot ln(w) + (n-y) \cdot ln(1-w)$$

Tips: 
$$ln(x \cdot y) = ln(x) + ln(y)$$
;  $ln(e) = 1$ ;  $\frac{d[ln(x)]}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$ 

### **MLE - ANALYTICAL**

#### **MLE - ANALYTICAL**

We want:

$$\frac{d}{dw}\Big(ln[\mathcal{L}(w|n,y)]\Big)=0$$

Log Likelihood Function:

$$ln[\mathcal{L}(w|n,y)] = ln\left(\frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!}\right) + y \cdot ln(w) + (n-y) \cdot ln(1-w)$$

Taking the partial derivative of the log likelihood function:

$$\frac{d}{dw}\Big(\ln[\mathcal{L}(w|n,y)]\Big) = \frac{d}{dw}\Big(\ln\left(\frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!}\right) + y \cdot \ln(w) + (n-y) \cdot \ln(1-w)\Big) = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dw}\Big(\ln[\mathcal{L}(w|n,y)]\Big) = 0 + \frac{y}{w} - \frac{n-y}{1-w} = 0$$

#### **MLE - ANALYTICAL**

$$\frac{y}{w} - \frac{n-y}{1-w} = 0$$

Finding the common denominator:

$$\frac{y(1-w)}{w(1-w)} - \frac{w(n-y)}{w(1-w)} = 0$$

$$\frac{y(1-w) - w(n-y)}{w(1-w)} = 0$$

$$\frac{y - y \cdot w - w \cdot n + y \cdot w}{w(1-w)} = 0$$

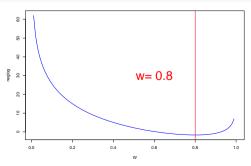
$$w = \frac{y}{n}$$

$$MLE = 0.8 = \frac{16}{20}$$

### **MLE - BRUTE FORCE**

#### **MLE - BRUTE FORCE**

```
neglog <- array(dim=c(100))
W <- array(dim=c(100))
for (i in 0:100){
    w = i * 0.01
    neglog[i] = -1.0 * (log(116280) + 16 * log(w) + 4 * log(1-w))
    W[i] = w
}
MLE <- which(neglog == min(neglog), arr.ind = TRUE)
    w_min = MLE[i] * 0.01
plot(W,neglog, type="1", col="blue", lwd=2)
abline(v=w_min, col="red", lwd=2)
text(.6, 30, paste("w=",w_min),col="red", cex = 3)</pre>
```



## **MLE - OPTIMIZER**

#### **MLE - OPTIMIZER**

## [1] 0.7999995

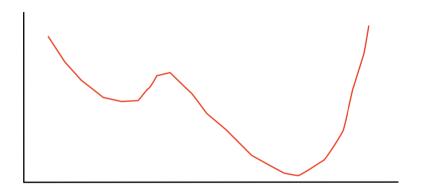
```
neglogl <- function(X) {</pre>
 w = X[1]
 loglik \leftarrow log(116280) + 16 * log(w) + 4 * log(1-w)
 return(-1 * loglik)
opt <- nlm(f=neglogl, c(0.5)) # 0.5 is the initial quess
## Warning in log(1 - w): NaNs produced
## Warning in nlm(f = neglogl, c(0.5)): NA/Inf replaced by maximum positive value
## Warning in log(1 - w): NaNs produced
## Warning in nlm(f = neglogl, c(0.5)): NA/Inf replaced by maximum positive value
opt$estimate
```

Finds the Maximum Likelihood Estimate: 0.8

### **MLE** in general

- MLE for many distributions are known (look it up)
- MLE for more complex models can sometimes be determined analytically
- Often however not possible/feasible
- Iterative optimization is a common method in these cases
  - local minima

# **Optimization and Local Minima**



### **General Procedure**

- If you can write an equation for the Likelihood function
- i.e. probability of obtaining your observed data, given a model with parameter(s) w
- then you can find the MLE for w
- i.e. you can find the model that is most likely to generate your data

### **Hypothesis Testing**

- We can use the Likelihood Ratio Test to compare two models
- Little Goat and Starbucks Example
- 16 correct out of 20 trials
- our MLE for p was 0.80
- let's test this against a null hypothesis that p=0.50

test statistic D is a ratio:

$$D = -2 \cdot ln \left( \frac{likelihood for null model}{(likelihood for alternative model)} \right)$$

$$D = -2 \cdot ln(likelihood for null model) + (likelihood for alternative model)$$

- the probability distribution of test statistic D is approximately a chi-squared distribution with  $df = df_2 df_1$
- $df_1$  and  $df_2$  are number of free parameters of models 1 (null) and 2 (alternative), respectively.
  - $df_1 = 0$  for the null model since assuming w is set to 0.5 (not a free parameter)
  - $df_2 = 1$  for the alternative model since assuming w is a free parameter

$$\mathcal{L}(w|n,y) = \frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!} w^{y} (1-w)^{n-y}$$

- our data: 16 correct and 4 incorrect

Null model = 
$$-2 \cdot ln[L(w = 0.5|y = 16, n = 20)] = 16.29966$$

- MLE of w is, w = 0.8.

Alternative model = 
$$-2 \cdot ln[L(w = 0.8|y = 16, n = 20)] = -4.82984$$
  

$$D = -2 \cdot [ln(likelihood for null model) + ln(likelihood for alternative model)]$$

$$D = 16.29966 - 4.82984 = 11.46982$$

$$D = 11.46982$$

- now compute a p-value using chi-square distribution with df = 1-0 = 1

```
pval <- pchisq(q=11.46982, df=1, lower.tail=FALSE)
pval</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.0007073553
```

We can reject the null with a Type 1 error rate of 0.00071. Thus, Josh can detect differences in Little Goat coffee compared to Starbucks coffee compared to chance.

## **Beyond the Binomial**

Any model (lots of examples online)

Normal Distribution:

$$p(x_i|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Linear Regression:

$$p(y_i|x_i,\beta_0,\beta_1,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_i))^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$p(x_i|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$p(x_i|\mu,\sigma^2) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu,\sigma^2|x_1,x_2,...,x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Likelihood function:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma^2 | x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{n}{2}} e^{-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Taking the log:

$$\ln[\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma^2 | x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)] = -\frac{n}{2} ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

Take the partial derivatives of the log likelihood function equal to 0.

$$\frac{\partial (\ln[\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma^{2}|x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{n})])}{\partial \mu} = \frac{\partial \left(-\frac{n}{2}\ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\ln(\sigma^{2}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)^{2}\right)}{\partial \mu} = 0$$

$$\frac{-2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu) \cdot (-1.0)}{2\sigma^{2}} = 0$$

$$+\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)}{\sigma^{2}} = 0$$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_{i} - n\mu}{\sigma^{2}} = 0$$

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_{i}}{n}$$

$$\frac{\partial (\ln[\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma^{2}|x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{n})])}{\partial \sigma^{2}} = \frac{\partial \left(-\frac{n}{2}\ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\ln(\sigma^{2}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)^{2}\right)}{\partial \sigma^{2}} = 0$$

$$-\frac{n}{2\sigma^{2}} + \frac{1}{2(\sigma^{2})^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)^{2} = 0$$

$$-\frac{n}{2\sigma^{2}} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)^{2}}{2(\sigma^{2})^{2}} = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} - n\right] = 0$$

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i} - \mu)^{2}}{n}$$

Summary:

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}$$

### **Next Week**

- Bayesian Statistics
  - Priors, Likelihoods, Posterior Distributions
  - Continually updating probabilities based on new information