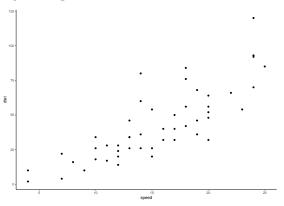
Probability, Likelihood, and Other Measures of Model Fit

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Example problem

Let's assume we have the cars data, which is depicted in the following scatterplot:



Example problem

► The first 10 observations of cars are:

```
head(cars, 10)
#>
    speed dist
       4 2
       4 10
    7 22
   8 16
    9 10
      10 18
      10 26
      10 34
#> 10
      11
          17
```

Probabilistic model

A potential model of the cars data is the following

$$\begin{split} &y_{i}\sim N(\mu_{i},\sigma^{2})\quad\text{for }i\in1...n\text{,}\\ &\mu_{i}=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1}x_{i}\text{,} \end{split}$$

where y_i and x_i are the dist and speed variables on observation i.

- In other words, we are modelling dist as normally distributed around a mean that is a linear function of speed, and with a fixed variance σ^2 .
- ▶ We do not know the values of the parameters β_0 , β_1 , and σ^2 .
- Note that this is a probabilistic model of the outcome variable only.

- ► Given our model specification, we can ask what is the probability of any given value of dist, assuming a given value of speed, for any given values of the parameters β_0 , β_1 , σ^2 .
- ► For example, we can ask, what is the probability that dist = 50 if speed = 15 if β_0 , β_1 , and σ have the values -20, 4, 15, respectively, i.e.

$$P(y = 50|x = 15, \beta_0 = -20, \beta_1 = 4, \sigma = 15),$$

► We can do this for *any* values of dist, speed, and $β_0$, $β_1$, and σ.

▶ If x = 15, and $\beta_0 = -20$, $\beta_1 = 4$, $\sigma = 15$, then the value of y has been assumed to be drawn from a normal distribution with mean

$$\mu = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x,$$

$$\mu = -20 + 4 \times 15,,$$

$$\mu = 40$$

and a standard deviation of $\sigma = 15$.

And so the probability that y = 50 when x = 15, and $\beta_0 = -20$, $\beta_1 = 4$, $\sigma = 15$, is the probability of a value of 50 in a normally distributed random variable whose mean is 40 and whose standard deviation is 15.

▶ The probability (density) that a normal random variable, with mean of 40 and standard deviation of 15, takes the value of 50 can be obtained from this probability density function for normal distributions:

$$P(y|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{|y-\mu|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

▶ Using R, this is

```
y <- 50; mu <- 40; sigma <- 15
1/sqrt(2*pi*sigma^2) * exp(-0.5 * (y-mu)^2/sigma^2)
#> [1] 0.02129653
```

or just

```
dnorm(y, mean = mu, sd = sigma)
#> [1] 0.02129653
```

► We can use the R function prob_obs_lm (from utils.R) for the probability of an observation in any (simple) linear regression:

Conditional probability of all observed data

- Assuming values for β_0 , β_1 , σ , what the probability of the observed values of the dist outcome variable, $y_1, y_2, y_3 \dots y_n$ given the observed values of the speed predictor, $x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots x_n$?
- ► This is

$$P(y_1 \dots y_n | x_1 \dots x_n, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma).$$

▶ In this model, all y's are conditionally independent of one another, given that values of $x_1, x_2, x_3 ... x_n$, so the the joint probability is as follows:

$$P(y_1 \dots y_n | x_1 \dots x_n, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i | x_i, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma).$$

Conditional log probability of all observed data

► The joint probability

$$P(y_1 \dots y_n | x_1 \dots x_n, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i | x_i, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma).$$

will be a very small number (a product of small numbers), so we usually calculate its logarithm:

$$\log \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y_i | x_i, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma) \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log P(y_i | x_i, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma)$$

Log conditional probability of all observed data

For example, the log probability of all the dist values given the speed values, and assuming certain values for β_0 , β_1 , σ can be calculated as follows:

```
y <- cars$dist; x <- cars$speed
beta_0 = -20; beta_1 = 4; sigma = 15
prob_obs_lm(y, x, beta_0, beta_1, sigma, log = TRUE) %>%
    sum()
#> [1] -206.805
```

Log conditional probability of all observed data

► The log conditional probability can

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i|x_i,\beta_0,\beta_1,\sigma) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{|y_i-\mu_i|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\right), \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \log (2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \log (\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i-\mu_i|^2, \end{split}$$

where $\mu_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$.

► This is calculated by log_prob_obs_lm (in utils.R):

The likelihood function

▶ The following is a function over the space of values of $y_1 ... y_n$:

$$P(y_1 \dots y_n | x_1 \dots x_n, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i | x_i, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma).$$

- ▶ In other words, $x_1 ... x_n$ and β_0 , β_1 , and σ are fixed (like the parameters of a function) and $y_1 ... y_n$ are free variables and so $P(y_1 ... y_n | x_1 ... x_n, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma)$ is a function over the $y_1 ... y_n$ space.
- If, however, we treat $y_1 ... y_n$ and $x_1 ... x_n$ as fixed, and treat $β_0$, $β_1$, and σ as free variables, then

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma | \vec{y}, \vec{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(y_i | x_i, \beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma)$$

defines a function over the three dimensional β_0 , β_1 , σ space.

▶ The function is known as the *likelihood function*.

The log likelihood function

- ► The log likelihood function is just the log of the likelihood function.
- ► In the present example, it is

$$\begin{split} &\log \mathcal{L}(\beta_0,\beta_1,\sigma|\vec{y},\vec{x}) = \\ &-\frac{n}{2}\log\left(2\pi\right) - \frac{n}{2}\log(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n|y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1x_i)|^2, \end{split}$$

where $y_1 ... y_n$ and $x_1 ... x_n$ are assumed to be fixed.

Maximum likelihood estimation

- The values of β_0 , β_1 , σ that maximize $\mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma | \vec{y}, \vec{x})$ are the maximum likelihood estimators of the (random variables) β_0 , β_1 , σ .
- ► The values of β_0 , β_1 , σ that maximize $\log \mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma | \vec{y}, \vec{x})$ are those that maximize $\mathcal{L}(\beta_0, \beta_1, \sigma | \vec{y}, \vec{x})$.
- ► We usually denote estimators by $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$, $\hat{\sigma}$.
- ▶ By definition, the maximum likelihood estimators $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$, $\hat{\sigma}$ are the values of β_0 , β_1 , σ that maximize the probability of the observed data.

Maximum likelihood estimation

► In a simple linear regression, the maximum likelihood estimators for the linear coefficients are those that minimize the following

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i)|^2,$$

- ► In general, for linear regression, the maximum likelihood estimators always minimize the sum of squared residuals.
- In R, for the cars data, the maximum likelihood estimators for $β_0$ and $β_1$ are obtained as follows:

Maximum likelihood estimation

► The maximum likelihood estimator for σ^2 is the following:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}|y_{i}-(\hat{\beta}_{0}+\hat{\beta}_{1}x_{i})|^{2},$$

▶ Using R, we can obtain this as follows:

```
mean(residuals(M1)^2)
#> [1] 227.0704
```

and so the maximum likelihood estimator for σ is

```
mean(residuals(M1)^2) %>% sqrt()
#> [1] 15.06886
```

The model's log likelihood

- ▶ When we speak of the log likelihood of a model, we mean the maximum value of the model's log likelihood function.
- ► In other words, it is the value of the log likelihood function at its maximum likelihood estimators' values.
- ► In yet other words, it is the (log) probability of the observed data given the maximum likelihood estimates of its parameters.

The model's log likelihood

```
beta 0 mle <- coef(M1)['(Intercept)']
beta_1_mle <- coef(M1)['speed']</pre>
sigma mle <- mean(residuals(M1)^2) %>% sqrt()
log prob obs lm(y, x,
                beta_0 = beta_0_mle,
                beta_1 = beta_1_mle,
                sigma = sigma mle) %>% sum()
#> [1] -206.5784
# same as ...
logLik(M1)
#> 'log Lik.' -206.5784 (df=3)
```

Residual sum of squares

▶ The sum of squared residuals in a simple linear model is

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i)|^2$$
.

► The RSS when using the maximum likelihood estimators is

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)|^2$$
,
= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|^2$

Residual sum of squares and log likelihood

► The residual sum of squares (RSS) when using the maximum likelihood estimators is

RSS =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - (\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_i)|^2$$
,
= $\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|^2$

- ▶ The RSS is a measure of the model's lack of fit.
- ► The model's log likelihood and its RSS are related as follows:

$$\log \mathcal{L} = -\frac{n}{2} \left(\log(2\pi) - \log(n) + \log(RSS) + 1 \right)$$

Residual sum of squares and log likelihood

```
rss <- sum(residuals(M1)^2)
n <- length(y)

-(n/2) * (log(2*pi) - log(n) + log(rss) + 1)
#> [1] -206.5784
logLik(M1)
#> 'log Lik.' -206.5784 (df=3)
```

Root mean square error

- ► The larger the sample size, the larger the RSS.
- ► An alternative to RSS as a measure of model fit is the square root of the mean of the squared residuals, known as the *root mean* square error (RMSE):

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{RSS}{n}},$$

► This is $\hat{\sigma}_{mle}$.

Mean absolute error

► Related to RMSE is the mean absolute error (MAE), which the mean of the absolute values of the residuals.

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - \hat{y}_i|}{n}$$

► In R

Deviance

- Deviance is used as a measure of model fit in generalized linear models.
- ightharpoonup Strictly speaking, the deviance of model M_0 is

$$2(\log \mathcal{L}_s - \log \mathcal{L}_0)$$
,

where $\log \mathcal{L}_0$ is the log likelihood (at its maximum) of model M_0 , and $\log \mathcal{L}_s$ is a *saturated* model, i.e. one with as many parameters as there are data points.

▶ When comparing two models, M_0 and M_1 , the saturated model is the same, and so the difference of the deviances of M_0 and M_1 is

$$(-2\log \mathcal{L}_0) - (-2\log \mathcal{L}_1),$$

$$\mathcal{D}_0 - \mathcal{D}_1,$$

and so the deviance of M₀ is usually defined simply as

$$-2\log \mathcal{L}_0$$
.

Differences of deviances

Differences of deviances are equivalent to log likelihood ratios:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{D}_0 - \mathcal{D}_1 &= -2\log\mathcal{L}_0 - -2\log\mathcal{L}_1, \\ &= -2\left(\log\mathcal{L}_0 - \log\mathcal{L}_1\right), \\ &= -2\log\left(\frac{\mathcal{L}_0}{\mathcal{L}_1}\right), \\ &= 2\log\left(\frac{\mathcal{L}_1}{\mathcal{L}_0}\right). \end{split}$$

- ▶ Clearly, $\frac{\mathcal{L}_1}{\mathcal{L}_0}$ the factor by which the likelihood of model M_1 is greater than that of model M_0 .
- ▶ Therefore, the difference of the deviance of models M_0 and M_1 ($D_0 D_1$), gives the (two times) the logarithm of the factor by the likelihood of model M_1 is greater than that of model M_0 .
- ▶ The larger $D_0 D_1$, the greater the likelihood of M_1 compared to M_0 .

Logistic regression example

```
cars_df <- mutate(cars, z = dist > median(dist))
M2 \leftarrow glm(z \sim speed,
          data = cars_df,
          family = binomial(link = 'logit')
logLik(M2)
#> 'log Lik.' -17.73468 (df=2)
deviance(M2)
#> [1] 35.46936
logLik(M2) * -2
#> 'log Lik.' 35.46936 (df=2)
```

Conditional probability in logistic regression

▶ The model in a logistic regression (with one predictor) is

$$\begin{aligned} y_i \sim Bernoulli(\theta_i), & \text{ for } i \in 1 \dots n \\ log\left(\frac{\theta_i}{1-\theta_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i \end{aligned}$$

▶ The conditional probability of $y_1, y_2 ... y_n$ given $x_1, x_2 ... x_n$ is

$$\prod_{i=1}^n \theta_i^{y_i} (1-\theta_i)^{1-y_i},$$

where each θ_i is

$$\log\left(\frac{\theta_{i}}{1-\theta_{i}}\right) = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}x_{i}$$

Conditional probability in logistic regression

▶ The logarithm of the conditional probability of $y_1, y_2 ... y_n$ is

$$\begin{split} &\log\left(\prod_{i=1}^n\theta_i^{y_i}(1-\theta_i)^{1-y_i}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n\log\left(\theta_i^{y_i}(1-\theta_i)^{1-y_i}\right),\\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n\left(y_i\log\theta_i + (1-y_i)\log(1-\theta_i)\right),\\ &= \sum_{i=1}^ny_i\log\theta_i + \sum_{i=1}^n(1-y_i)\log(1-\theta_i) \end{split}$$

Conditional probability in logistic regression

```
theta <- predict(M2, type = 'response')
sum(log(theta[cars_df$z])) + sum(log(1-theta[!cars_df$z]))
#> [1] -17.73468

z <- pull(cars_df, z)
sum(z * log(theta) + (1-z) * log(1 - theta))
#> [1] -17.73468
```

Deviance residuals

- ▶ Deviance residuals are values such that their sum of squares is equal to the model's deviance.
- We know that the sum, for $i \in 1...n$, of the following is the log likelihood:

$$y_i \log \theta_i + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \theta_i)$$
,

and so the sum of the following, for $i \in 1 ... n$, is the deviance:

$$-2\left(y_{i}\log\theta_{i}+(1-y_{i})\log(1-\theta_{i})\right).$$

So the sum of the *squares* of the following, for $i \in 1...n$, is the deviance:

$$\sqrt{-2\left(y_{i}\log\theta_{i}+(1-y_{i})\log(1-\theta_{i})\right)}.$$

- ► All of these values will necessarily be positive.
- It is conventional for deviance residuals to be negative when $y_i = 0$ and positive when $y_i = 1$.

Deviance residuals

```
d \leftarrow sqrt(-2 * (z * log(theta) + (1-z) * log(1 - theta)))
sum(d^2)
#> [1] 35.46936
d[c(1, 25, 35, 50)]
#> 1 25 35 50
#> 0.05724272 1.00995907 0.71599367 0.11291237
residuals (M2)[c(1, 25, 35, 50)]
#> 1 25
                      35
                                       50
#> -0.05724272 -1.00995907 0.71599367 0.11291237
z[c(1, 25, 35, 50)]
#> [1] FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE
(ifelse(z, 1, -1) * d)[c(1, 25, 35, 50)]
#> 1 25 35 50
#> -0.05724272 -1.00995907 0.71599367 0.11291237
```