

## Lecture 7 – Model-fitting - Maximum Likelihood and AIC

**Announcements:** Today: lecture & paper discussion

Next time: Bring laptops! (Playing with chaos)

**Concepts:** Maximum likelihood & AIC

Recall that least squares estimates of parameters are “most likely” values given the data:

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta|Y) \quad \text{sometimes} \quad \mathcal{L}(\vec{\beta}|\vec{Y})$$

$\beta$  = (vector of) parameters

$y$  = (vector of) data

Likelihood of a particular parameter value,  $\beta$ , given a data point  $y_i$  is proportional to the probability of observing  $y_i$  given that  $\beta$  is true.

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta|y_i) \propto P(y_i|\beta)$$

Thus, if the data  $Y$  are described by a particular distribution (e.g., Binomial, Poisson, Normal), we can quantify the likelihood using the probability of that distribution (or probability density function).

Example: Poisson whales

Poisson describes freq. of rare events with a single parameter,  $\lambda$ .

(e.g., encountering a whale on an ocean transect)

$$P(x|\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad \text{Probability distribution}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda|x) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i|\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda^{x_i} e^{-\lambda}}{x_i!} \quad \text{Likelihood function}$$

Say we see 4 whales in one transect... What is the likelihood of a given value of  $\lambda$ ?

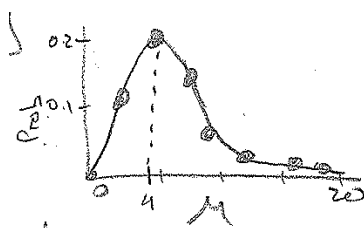
$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda|4) = P(4|\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^4}{4!}$$

$\lambda$  = “encounter rate”

Evaluate over all possible values of  $\lambda$ .

The value that *maximizes*  $P(4|\lambda)$  is the MLE of  $\lambda \Rightarrow \text{MLE of } \lambda = \max \mathcal{L}(\lambda|y_i)$

Show R plot



...shows that MLE of encounter rate = 4 per transect

(not surprising given 4 whales encountered in 1 transect)

Perform 2nd transect, observe 6 whales. But  $P(y_i = 6|\lambda = 4) = 0.1$  only (low probability).

Therefore: *Joint probability!*

Joint probability of two independent events is the product of their probabilities.

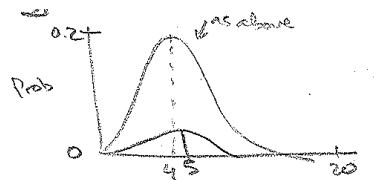
$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

Therefore:

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda|[4, 6]) = \mathcal{L}(\lambda|4) \cdot \mathcal{L}(\lambda|6)$$

Again, evaluate over all possible  $\lambda$  values...

Show R plot



...shows that MLE of encounter rate = 5 per transect

But notice that joint probability declines with each additional observation!

$$\mathcal{L}(\lambda|y_i) \propto \prod P(y_i|\lambda)$$

Therefore take log...

Log(small number) = negative normal-sized number

Therefore take negative log... That's why we use *Negative Log Likelihood* (NLL)

$$-\ln \mathcal{L}(\lambda|y_i) \propto \sum_i^n -\ln(P(y_i|\lambda))$$

Because we've taken the negative  $\Rightarrow$  Value that *minimizes* NLL is the MLE.

How to find MLE of parameter analytically?

**Class Q:** How does one find the min or max of a function?

**A:** Take derivative with respect to focal parameter, set to zero, solve!

## Back to Popn Growth data

Assume process-error only.

Process model:

$$N_{t+1} = F(N_t)$$

Assume  $\log \mathcal{N}$  residual error distribution, thus...

$$\ln \left( \frac{N_{t+1}}{N_t} \right) = \ln \left( \frac{F(N_t)}{N_t} \right) + \epsilon_t$$

$$\epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

For Normal distribution:

$$f(y | \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \frac{-(y - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \quad \text{Probability density function}$$

$$-\ln \mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma | Y) = \frac{n}{2} \ln (2\pi\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2$$

In our context of model-fitting

$$-\ln \mathcal{L}(\beta | Y) = \frac{n}{2} \ln (2\pi\sigma_y^2) + \frac{1}{2\sigma_y^2} \sum_{t=1}^n (\text{obs.growth}_t - \text{pred.growth}_t)^2$$

where

$$y_t = \ln \left( \frac{N_{t+1}}{N_t} \right)$$

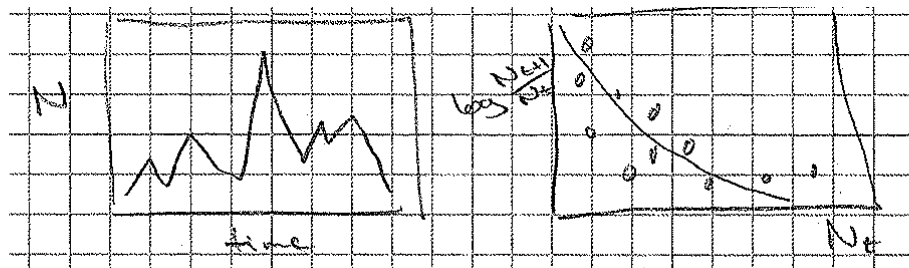
$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_t^n (y_t - \bar{y})^2 \quad = \text{Variance of observed growth rates}$$

Remember: The MLE of  $\epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  = least squares estimate.

Thus in R we can thus use *lm* (linear least squares) or *nls* nonlinear least squares.

## Model comparison

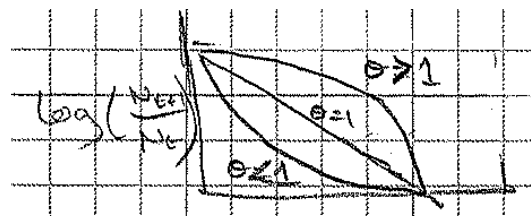
R-exercise Great tit dataset (setup for models used in PS3)



Three hypothesized models:

	$N_{t+1}$	$\ln\left(\frac{N_{t+1}}{N_t}\right)$
Density-independent	$N_t e^r$	$r$
Ricker (linear DD)	$N_t e^{r(1-N/K)}$	$r\left(1 - \frac{N}{K}\right)$
Theta-logistic (nonlinear DD)	$N_t e^{r(1-N/K)^\theta}$	$r\left(1 - \frac{N}{K}\right)^\theta$

Note: Implicitly using  $e^{r \cdot 1}$  since  $\Delta t = 1$



Aside: Advise against using Theta-logistic. Has conceptual problems. Use in PS3 for illustrative purposes.

For each model, plug in predicted values for each time step into NLL eqn.

	NLL
Density-independent	22.526
Ricker (linear DD)	14.299
Theta-logistic (nonlinear DD)	14.058

$\Rightarrow$  Theta-logistic fits best!

So is Theta-logistic the best model?

“Best fit”, but “best-performing”??? Remember polynomial from first class!

$\Rightarrow$  Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

Penalize models for number of parameters ( $p$ ) [Note: don't forget  $\sigma$  for normal!]

$$AIC = 2p - 2 \cdot \ln(\mathcal{L}_{MLE}) = 2 \cdot NLL_{MLE} + 2p$$

Small sample size correction:

$$AIC_c = 2 \cdot NLL_{MLE} + 2p \left( \frac{n}{n - p - 1} \right)$$

where  $n$  is number of data points.

Model with lowest AIC is the “best-performing” model.

Typically given using  $\Delta AIC$  of  $i$ th model:

$$\Delta AIC_i = AIC_i - \min(AIC)$$

Relative likelihood of models - Akaike weights:

“Probability of model given the data”

$$w_i = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Delta AIC_i}}{\sum_k e^{-\frac{1}{2}\Delta AIC_k}}$$

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## Paper discussion

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### Extra: Continuous probability functions vs. discrete probability distributions

Q: Why do I sometimes write

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta | Y) \propto P(Y | \beta),$$

and other times

$$\mathcal{L}(\beta | Y) = P(Y | \beta)$$

It turns out that both are in some ways correct! There are two relevant distinctions:

Distinction 1:  $\mathcal{L}(\beta | Y) \propto P(Y | \beta)$  is correct for *continuous* distributions while  $\mathcal{L}(\beta | Y) = P(Y | \beta)$  is correct for *discrete* distributions. The reason is that, unlike for a discrete distribution, the probability of any specific value on a continuous distribution is zero! It's only over some interval of values that we can speak of a continuous distribution having some probability.

Distinction 2: However, the equality is still correct when the right hand side is not a *probability distribution*,  $P(Y | \beta)$ , but rather a *probability density function*,  $f(Y | \beta)$ . These differ even though  $\int f(Y | \beta) d\beta = \sum P(Y | \beta) = 1$  (i.e the total area under both equals 1). Most people loosely (but technically incorrectly) use these two terms interchangeably.

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