#### Lecture 4 - Model fit diagnostics

Summary of model fitting steps:

1. collect data into a single data frame

```
times = c(1,3,6,9,12,18) # retention intervals (in seconds)
numRecall = c(94, 77, 40, 26, 24, 16) # number of words correctly recalled
X = data.frame(times, numRecall)
```

#### 2. build objective function for each model (Negative log likelihood)

```
10 - nll.power = function(data, pars){
11
      a = pars[1]
12
      b = pars[2]
13
      t = data$times
14
      x = data numRecall
      tmp1 = log(choose(100, x))
15
      tmp2 = x * log(a*t^b)
16
      tmp3 = (100-x) * log(1-a*t^b)
17
18
      return(-1*sum(tmp1 + tmp2 + tmp3))
19 - }
20
21 → nll.exp = function(data, pars){
22
      a = pars[1]
23
      b = pars[2]
24
      t = data$times
25
      x = data numRecall
26
      tmp1 = log(choose(100,x))
27
      tmp2 = x * log(a*b^t)
28
      tmp3 = (100-x) * log(1-a*b^t)
      return(-1*sum(tmp1 + tmp2 + tmp3))
29
30 - }
```

## 3. fit the models (using optim function)

```
36
    a_{init} = runif(1)
37
    b_{init} = runif(1)
38
    initPar = c(a_init, b_init) # collect a,b into one parameter vector
39
40
    model1 = optim(par = initPar,
41
           fn = nll.power,
42
           data = X)
43
44
    model2 = optim(par = initPar,
45
                    fn = nll.exp,
46
                    data = X)
```

## 4. Plot models with data to visually assess fit

```
# let's plot on top of original data
49
    plot(numRecall/100 ~ times)
50
51
52
    # first, extract parameters from power model
53
    a = model1 par[1]
54
    b = model1 par[2]
55
    curve(a*x^b,
56
           from=0, to=18,
57
           add=T
58
59
    # next, extract parameters from exponential model
    a = model2 par[1]
60
    b = model2 par[2]
61
62
    curve(a*b^x,
63
           from=0, to=18,
64
           add=T,
           lty=2) # this makes a dashed line
65
                                                 numRecall/100
66
                                                     9.0
                                                     0.2
                                                                 5
                                                                          10
                                                                                    15
```

times



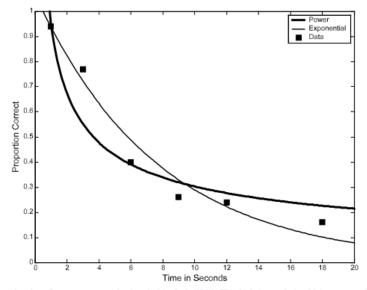
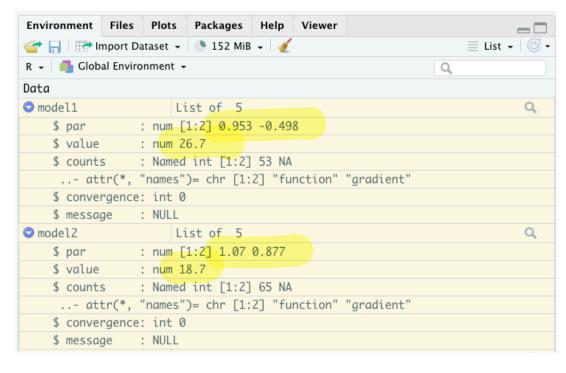


Fig. 4. Modeling forgetting data. Squares represent the data in Murdock (1961). The thick (respectively, thin) curves are best fits by the power (respectively, exponential) models.

Table 1
Summary fits of Murdock (1961) data for the power and exponential models under the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method and the least-squares estimation (LSE) method.

	MLE	MLE			LSE	LSE	
	Power		Exponen	tial	Power	Exponential	
Loglik/SSE (r <sup>2</sup> ) Parameter w <sub>1</sub>	-313.37 (0 0.953	0.886)	-305.31 1.070	(0.963)	0.0540 (0.894) 1.003	0.0169 (0.967) 1.092	
Parameter w <sub>2</sub>	0.498		0.131		0.511	0.141	

Note: For each model fitted, the first row shows the maximized log-likelihood value for MLE and the minimized sum of squares error value for LSE. Each number in the parenthesis is the proportion of variance accounted for (i.e.  $r^2$ ) in that case. The second and third rows show MLE and LSE parameter estimates for each of  $w_1$  and  $w_2$ . The above results were obtained using Matlab code described in the appendix.



These are roughly the same, but why are they different?

Question: why did we take the log of the likelihood function?

Answer: because multiplying small numbers < 1 males even smaller numbers!

Explanation: Recall that we have 6 observations  $x = (x_{1,1}x_{2,1}x_{3,1}x_{4,1}x_{5,1/6})$ 

If we assume they are all independent, we multiply the likelihoods:

$$L(a,b|x=(x,x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4,x_5,x_1)) = \frac{6}{1}L(a,b|x_i)$$

Each of the individual likelihoods L(a,b | xi) is a small number (<<1), so the product approaches D exponentially fast. Computers canot hardle numbers that are too small (or too big).

Trick: convert multiplication to addition with the logarithm:

 $\log L(a,b|x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4,x_5,x_6) = \log \left[\frac{b}{11}L(a,b|x_i)\right]$   $= \sum_{i=1}^{b} \log L(a,b|x_i)$ 

Now, when we add numbers (regardless of their size), the sum always has a bigger magnitude.

Computers can handle this.

Today's topic: how do we assess the fit of our models?

### Use information criteria:

- \* AIC Akaike Information Criterion, or
- \* BIC Bayesian Information Criterian

Basic idea - representing date with a model results in information loss. The best model is the one which loses the least information

#### Workflow:

- 1. calculate AIC (or BIC) for each model
- 2. model with smellest value is best fit.

least information loss

Let k = # parameters in model  $\hat{L} = \text{Value of likelihood function}$ at MLE.

Then:

AIC = 
$$2k - 2\log \hat{L}$$
  
BIC =  $k\log(N) - 2\log \hat{L}$   
 $N = \#$  observations

# Computing AIC/BIC

Model 1:

le = 2 parameters

N: 6 observations

log L = -26.7

 $A1C_1 = 2k - 2 \log(2)$ = 2(2) - 2(-26.7)

= 57.4

Model 2:

k= 2 parameters

N= 6 observations

log L= -18.7

A1C2 = 2t - 2 log (Î)

= 2(2)-2(-18.7)

= 41.4

$$BIC_2 = k|_{og}N - 2|_{og}(\hat{L})$$
  
=  $2|_{og}(\hat{L}) - 2(-18.7)$   
=  $40.98$ 

### Which one to use?

\* matter of choice.

\* AIC easy to use, but BIC better accounts for model complexity (it more severely penalizes more complex models)

\* BIC gives us a Bayes factor:

$$BF_{21} = \frac{P(data | m_1)}{P(deta | m_1)} \approx exp(\frac{BIC_1 - BIC_2}{2})$$

For our models, this gives!

$$BF_{21} \approx \exp\left(\frac{B1c_1 - B1c_2}{2}\right)$$

$$= \exp\left(\frac{56.98 - 40.98}{2}\right)$$

$$= \exp\left(\frac{16}{2}\right)$$

Interpretation: the observed data are approximately 3000 times more likely under Model 2 (the exponential model) than under Model 1 (the power model).