Yesterday we...

- Constructed our first likelihood function
 - data, model, and parameters of interest

Maximised likelihood functions by differentiation

Maximised likelihood functions in R using optim()
 and optimize()

This morning

Properties of Maximum Likelihood Estimator

More examples (logistic regression)

Likelihood-Ratio test

Properties of ML Estimator

- Asymptotically unbiased
 - On average we are hitting the target
 - $-E[\widehat{\theta}] \to \theta$ when $n \to \infty$
- Low variance (efficient)
 - Better use of data
 - Narrower confidence intervals compared to other estimators



• Consistent: ML estimator converges in probability to the true parameters when $n \to \infty$

- Asymptotically normal
 - ML estimator is asymptotically distributed as normal with mean equals the true parameter value
 - Central limit theorem??
 - Construction of confidence interval (more on this later)

Invariant

– if $\hat{\theta}$ is the ML estimator for θ , then $g(\hat{\theta})$ is the ML estimator for $g(\theta)$

Example: Logistic regression

- Binary responses: dead or alive, yes or no, success or failure...
- Explanatory variable x is often called a risk factor (affect the risk/probability of "bad" outcome)
- Very common in public health/ medicine/ biology/ classification

#	State	Average cholesterol
1	Dead	5.0
2	Alive	4.4
3	Alive	3.4
4	Dead	3.7
5	Alive	3.6
6	Dead	4.7
•••	•••	

- We need to find r.v. with binary outcomes to model the response variable y_i
- Bernoulli r.v.! Logistic regression assumes each response variable y_i follows a Bernoulli distribution
- Each individual will have its own p_i , which is a function of the risk factor x_i
 - $-x_i$ is the risk factor
 - $-a + bx_i$ is the linear predictor
- $y_i \sim Bernoulli(p_i)$, where $p_i = \eta^{-1}(a + bx_i)$, a and b are our parameters.
- What is η^{-1} ?

- In logistic regression, $\eta^{-1}(a+bx_i) = \frac{e^{a+bx_i}}{1+e^{a+bx_i}}$
- η^{-1} is called "expit" transformation. The inverse of "logit" transformation
- $\eta^{-1}(a+bx_i)$ is bounded between 0 and 1 (remember, p_i is the probability of success), regardless of the values of $a+bx_i$
- Let us construct the likelihood function

Two parameters: a and b

$$L(a,b) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} [p_i^{y_i} (1-p_i)^{1-y_i}]$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} [expit(a+bx_i)^{y_i} (1-expit(a+bx_i))^{1-y_i}]$$

Take to log of the likelihood function

$$l(a,b) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{ y_i \ln[expit(a+bx_i)] + (1-y_i) \ln[1-expit(a+bx_i)] \}$$

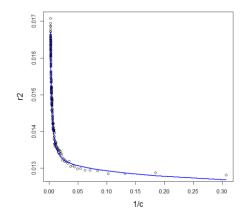
• It becomes a function of a and b only (with known y_i and x_i). We can maximise the log-likelihood function w.r.t. a and b.

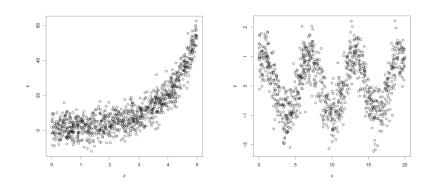
Non-standard regression

Learning MLE means you can build your own statistical models

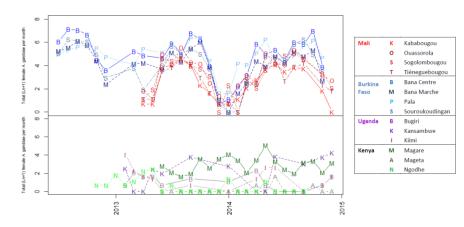
 Especially for non-standard cases where no "instant meals" are available

- $y_i = \exp(mx_i + b) + \epsilon_i$
- Over-dispersed data
- Seasonal data
- State-space model





All PSC Time series together - Ln+1



Likelihood-Ratio Test

- Hypothesis testing
- Let M1 and M2 be two models, and that M1 is nested in M2. If M2 has d2 parameters and M1 has d1 parameters (d2 > d1), then $D = 2 * (\ln(L2) \ln(L1))$ follows approximately a chi-square distribution with (d2 d1) degrees of freedom.
- D is the Likelihood-Ratio test statistic
- The procedure is as follows:
 - Fit M1 to the data, record the maximised log-likelihood value ln(L1)
 - Fit M2 to the data, record the maximised log-likelihood value $\ln(L2)$
 - Compute the likelihood-ratio statistic $D = 2 * (\ln(L2) \ln(L1))$
 - Look up χ^2_{d2-d1} table for critical value. Accept M1 as the simplified model if D is smaller than the critical value

Rationale:

- The larger the log-likelihood value the better fit the model
- M2 fits the data better with more parameters, thus yields a larger maximised log-likelihood value
- M1 is the simplified model who has less explanatory power than M2 and therefore a smaller maximised log-likelihood value
- D measures the difference in 'explanatory power'
- If the parameters dropped by M1 are unimportant, then the explanatory power of M1 is similar to M2, hence a small value of D
- Dropping unimportant terms means we tend to accept M1 as the simplified model

Linear regression: test for intercept

- In yesterday's recapture.csv, we may think (biologically) that the
 intercept should be zero, because if a rabbit falls back to the trap "within
 zero days", then there should be no difference in its body length
- We let M1 be a linear regression model without an intercept i.e. $y_i = bx_i + \varepsilon_i$ (Two parameters)
- We let M2 be the full linear regression model we fitted yesterday i.e. $y_i = a + bx_i + \varepsilon_i$ (Three parameters)
- Clearly M1 is a special case of M2 with a=0. We say M1 is nested in M2.

Log-likelihood function for M1

```
# THE LOG-LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION FOR M1 WITHOUT AN INTERCEPT
regression.no.intercept.log.likelihood<-function(parm, dat)
 DEFINE THE PARAMETERS
# NO INTERCEPT THIS TIME
33333
33333
# DEFINE THE DATA
# SAME AS BEFORE
x < -dat[, 1]
y<-dat[,2]
# DEFINE THE ERROR TERM, NO INTERCEPT HERE
error.term<-?????
# REMEMBER THE NORMAL pdf?
density<-dnorm(error.term, mean=0, sd=sigma, log=T)</pre>
# LOG-LIKELIHOOD IS THE SUM OF DENSITIES
return(sum(density))
```

Log-likelihood function for M1

```
# THE LOG-LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION FOR M1 WITHOUT AN INTERCEPT
regression.no.intercept.log.likelihood<-function(parm, dat)
 DEFINE THE PARAMETERS
# NO INTERCEPT THIS TIME
b<-parm[1]
sigma<-parm[2]</pre>
# DEFINE THE DATA
# SAME AS BEFORE
x < -dat[, 1]
y<-dat[,2]
# DEFINE THE ERROR TERM, NO INTERCEPT HERE
error.term<-(y-b*x)
# REMEMBER THE NORMAL pdf?
density<-dnorm(error.term, mean=0, sd=sigma, log=T)</pre>
# LOG-LIKELIHOOD IS THE SUM OF THE DENSITIES
return(sum(density))
```

Performing likelihood-ratio test

```
# PERFORMING LIKELIHOOD-RATIO TEST
M1<-optim(par=c(1,1), regression.no.intercept.log.likelihood,
         dat=recapture.data, method='L-BFGS-B',
         lower=c(-1000, 0.0001), upper=c(1000, 10000),
         control=list(fnscale=-1), hessian=T)
M2<-optim(par=c(1,1,1), regression.log.likelihood,
         dat=recapture.data, method='L-BFGS-B',
         lower=c(-1000, -1000, 0.0001), upper=c(1000, 1000, 10000),
         control=list(fnscale=-1), hessian=T)
# THE TEST STATISTIC D
D<-2* (M2$value-M1$value)
\Box
[1] 3.047676
```

```
# CRITICAL VALUE
qchisq(0.95, df=1)
[1] 3.841459
```

We accept the hypothesis that the intercept is zero at $\alpha=0.05$ (Same conclusion is drawn from lm () using anova table)

Model selection

 AIC is a tool to determine which of two models is better by weighting the improved fit of more complex models against their larger number of parameters.

• $AIC = -2l(\hat{\theta}) + 2K$, where $l(\hat{\theta})$ is the maximised log-likelihood and K is the number of parameters in the model

Find the model with the lowest AIC value

Exercise: Non-constant variance regression

- In recapture.csv, we observe that the variance of the response is increasing with day. (Why?)
- Can we incorporate non-constant variance in our regression?
- Not sure about how we can do it with 1m. Transformation of variables may help, but it is relatively simple MLE.
- How about $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, x_i^2 \sigma^2)$? The variance of the error terms increases linearly with the number of days?

Log-likelihood function: non-constant variance

```
# THE LOG-LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION FOR M1 WITHOUT AN INTERCEPT
regression.non.constant.var.log.likelihood<-function(parm, dat)
# DEFINE THE PARAMETERS
# NO CHANGE FROM M1
b<-parm[1]
sigma<-parm[2]</pre>
# DEFINE THE DATA
# SAME AS BEFORE
x < -dat[, 1]
y<-dat[,2]
# DEFINE THE ERROR TERM, NO INTERCEPT HERE
error.term<-(y-b*x)
# REMEMBER THE NORMAL pdf
density<-dnorm(error.term, mean=0, sd=x*sigma, log=T)</pre>
# THE LOG-LIKELIHOOD IS THE SUM OF INDIVIDUAL DENSITIES
return(sum(density))
```

```
> M4
$par
[1] 3.483407 1.149874
$value
[1] -60.62583
$counts
function gradient
      25
               2.5
$convergence
[1] 0
$message
[1] "CONVERGENCE: REL REDUCTION OF F <= FACTR*EPSMCH"
```

This afternoon...

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