# 1.3 Likelihoods for Regression Models

We will start with linear regression and then talk about more general models.

### 1.3.1 Linear Model

Consider the familiar linear model

$$Y_i = oldsymbol{x}_i^ op oldsymbol{eta} + \epsilon_i, \qquad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

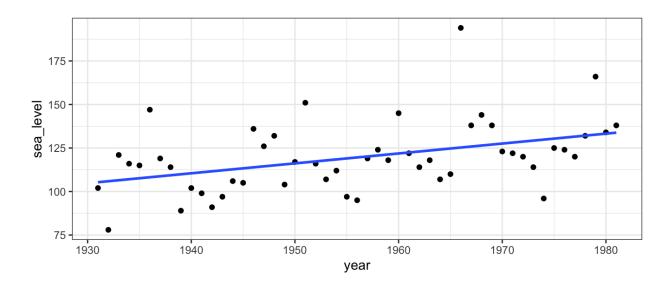
where  $\boldsymbol{x}_1,\dots,\boldsymbol{x}_n$  are known nonrandom vectors.

For likelihood-based estimation,

$$L(oldsymbol{eta}, \sigma | \{Y_i, oldsymbol{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n) =$$

What do you do when  $\epsilon_i$  are not Gaussian?

**Example (Venice sea levels):** The annual maximum sea levels in Venice for 1931-1981 are:



#### 1.3.2 Additive Errors Nonlinear Model

### 1.3.3 Generalized Linear Models

Imagine an experiment where individual mosquitos are given some dosage of pesticide. The response is whether the mosquito lives or dies. The data might look something like:

Goal: Model the relationship between the predictor and response.

Question: What would a curve of best fit look like?

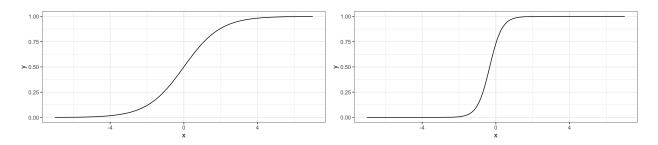
#### Refined Goal:

Let's build a sensible model.

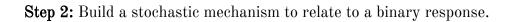
**Step 1:** Find a function that behaves the way we want.

```
# understanding the logistic function
# first, theta just equals x
x <- seq(-7, 7, .1)
theta <- x
y <- exp(theta)/(1 + exp(theta))
ggplot() + geom_line(aes(x, y))

# now, let theta be a linear function of x
theta <- 1 + 3*x
y <- exp(theta)/(1 + exp(theta))
ggplot() + geom_line(aes(x, y))</pre>
```



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Step 3: Put Step 1 and Step 2 together.

Fitting our model: Does OLS make sense?

Consider the likelihood contribution.

$$L_i(p_i|Y_i) =$$

So the  $\log$ -likelihood contribution is

$$\ell_i(p_i) =$$

Recall, we said  $p_i = rac{\exp( heta_i)}{1+\exp( heta_i)}$  was sensible.

Which gives us,

$$\ell_i( heta_i) =$$

So the log-likelihood is

$$\ell( heta_1,\ldots, heta_n)=$$

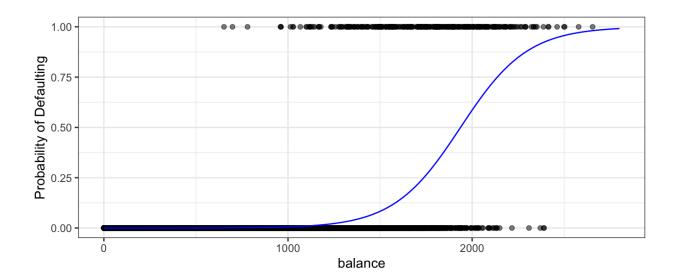
To optimize?

```
## data on credit default
data("Default", package = "ISLR")
head(Default)
##
     default student balance
                                  income
## 1
         No
                 No 729.5265 44361.625
## 2
         No
               Yes 817.1804 12106.135
## 3
                 No 1073.5492 31767.139
         No
## 4
         No
                 No 529.2506 35704.494
## 5
                No 785.6559 38463.496
         No
## 6
         No
                Yes 919.5885 7491.559
## fit model with ML
m0 <- glm(default ~ balance, data = Default, family = binomial)</pre>
tidy(m0) |> kable()
```

term	estimate	std.error	statistic	p.value
(Intercept)	-10.6513306	0.3611574	-29.49221	0
balance	0.0054989	0.0002204	24.95309	0

```
glance(m0) |> kable()
```

null.deviance	df.null	logLik	AIC	BIC	deviance	df.residual	nobs
2920.65	9999	-798.2258	1600.452	1614.872	1596.452	9998	10000



In general, a GLM is three pieces:  1. The random component	
2. The systemic component	
3. A linear predictor	
Remarks:	

Example (Poisson regression):

Consider a general family of distributions:

$$\log f(y_i; heta_i,\phi) = rac{y_i heta_i - b( heta_i)}{a_i(\phi)} + c(y_i,\phi).$$

Example (Normal model):

We can learn something about this distribution by considering it's mean and variance. Because we don't have an explicit form of the density, we rely on two facts:

$$1.~\mathrm{E}\left[rac{\partial \log f(Y_i; heta_i,\phi)}{\partial heta_i}
ight]=0.$$

$$2.~\mathrm{E}\left[rac{\partial^2 \log f(Y_i; heta_i,\phi)}{\partial heta_i^2}
ight] + \mathrm{E}\left[\left(rac{\partial \log f(Y_i; heta_i,\phi)}{\partial heta_i}
ight)^2
ight] = 0.$$

For 
$$\log f(y_i; heta_i, \phi) = rac{y_i heta_i - b( heta_i)}{a_i(\phi)} + c(y_i, \phi),$$

# Example (Bernoulli model):

$$f(y_i;p_i) = p_i^{y_i} (1-p_i)^{1-y_i}$$

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Finally, back to modelling. Our **goal** is to build a relationship between the mean of  $Y_i$  and covariates  $x_i$ .

Example (Bernoulli model, cont'd):

# 1.4 Marginal and Conditional Likelihoods

Consider a model which has  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2)$ , where  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1$  are the parameters of interest and  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_2$  are nuisance parameters.

One way to improve estimation for  $\theta_1$  is to find a one-to-one transformation of the data Y to (V, W) such that either

The key feature is that one component of each contains only the parameter of interest.

Example (Neyman-Scott problem): Let  $Y_{ij}$ ,  $i=1,\ldots,n, j=1,2$  be intependent normal random variables with possible different means  $\mu_i$  but the same variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Our goal is to estimate  $\sigma^2$ . Should we be able to?

Following the usual arguments,

$$egin{aligned} \hat{\mu}_{i, ext{MLE}} &= rac{Y_{i1} + Y_{i2}}{2} \ \hat{\sigma}_{ ext{MLE}}^2 &= rac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^2 (Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{i, ext{MLE}})^2 \end{aligned}$$

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$$\mathrm{E}[\hat{\sigma}_{\mathrm{MLE}}^2] =$$

A reworking of the data seems more promising. Let,

$$V_i = rac{Y_{i1} - Y_{i2}}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad ext{and} \qquad W_i = rac{Y_{i1} + Y_{i2}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

For conditional likelihoods, we can often exploit the existence of sufficient statistics for the nuisance parameters under the assumption that the parameter of interest is known.

**Example (Exponential Families):** The structure of exponential families is such that it is often possible to exploit their properties to eliminated nuisance parameters. Let *Y* have a density of the form

$$f(y;oldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \expiggl\{ \sum_{i=1}^s \eta_i T_i(y) - A(oldsymbol{\eta}) iggr\},$$

then

Thus, exponential families often provide an automatic procedure for finding  $oldsymbol{W}$  and  $oldsymbol{U}.$ 

**Example (Logistic Regression):** For binary  $Y_i$ , the standard logistics regression model is

$$P(Y_i = 1) = p_i(oldsymbol{x}_i, oldsymbol{eta}) = rac{\exp(oldsymbol{x}_i^ op oldsymbol{eta})}{1 + \exp(oldsymbol{x}_i^ op oldsymbol{eta})}$$

and the likelihood is

$$L(oldsymbol{eta}|oldsymbol{Y},oldsymbol{X}) =$$