

Lecture 13 | Part 1

Parametric Density Estimation

Bayes Classifier

Recall the Bayes Classifier: predict

$$\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbb{P}(Y = 1 \mid \vec{X} = \vec{x}) > \mathbb{P}(Y = 0 \mid \vec{X} = \vec{x}), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Equivalently, using **Bayes' rule**:

$$\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p_X(x \mid Y = 1) \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) > p_X(x \mid Y = 0) \mathbb{P}(Y = 0), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

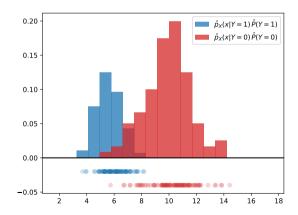
Estimating Densities

We rarely know the true distribution.

- We must **estimate** it from data.
- When \vec{X} is continuous, we estimate **density**.

Last Time: Histogram Estimators

 Histograms provide one way of estimating densities.



Histogram Drawbacks

We saw that histograms need massive amounts of data in high dimensions.

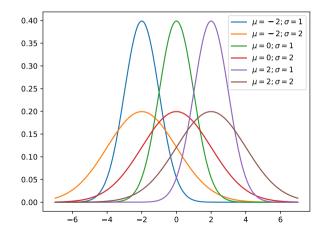
► The Curse of Dimensionality.

Observation

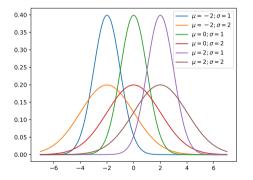
- Histogram estimators assume nothing about the shape of the true density.
- This makes them very flexible, but also data-hungry.
- Idea: Assume that the true, underlying density has a certain form.

Example: Gaussians

 Often assume that the true distribution is Gaussian (aka, Normal).



Example: Gaussians



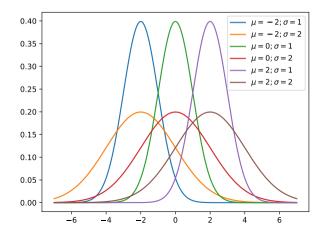
Recall: the pdf of the Gaussian distribution:

$$p(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- μ and σ are parameters
 - μ controls center
 - $\triangleright \sigma$ controls width

Gaussian

- Central Limit Theorem: sums of independent random variables are Gaussian
- **Examples:** test scores, heights, measurement errors, ...



Parametric Distributions

- A parametric distribution is totally determined by a finite number of parameters.
- Example: knowing μ and σ tells you everything about a Gaussian distribution.

Other Parametric Distributions

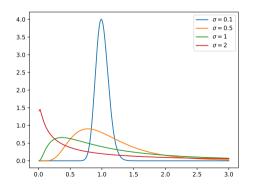
There are many parametric distributions.

- **Discrete**: Bernoulli, Multinomial, Poisson, ...
- Continuous: Log-normal, Gamma, Pareto, ...

Example: Lognormal

Product of many independent positive random numbers.

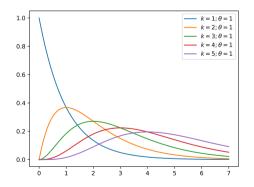
Example: length of comments in an internet forum



$$p(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Example: Gamma

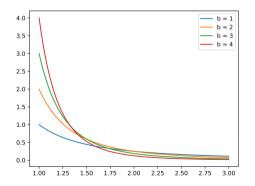
Examples: wait times, size of rainfalls, insurance claims, ...



$$p(x;k,\theta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)\theta^k} x^{k-1} e^{-x/\theta}$$

Example: Pareto

Examples: distribution of wealth, size of meteorites, ...



$$p(x; x_m, \alpha) = \frac{\alpha x_m^{\alpha}}{x^{\alpha+1}}$$

Parametric Density Estimation

- In parametric density estimation, we assume data comes from some parametric density.
 E.g., Gaussian, Log-Normal, Pareto, etc.
- But we don't know the parameters.
- Use data to estimate the parameters.

Non-Parametric Density Estimation

- Contrast this with estimating density with histograms.
- There were no parameters controlling the shape of the density.
- Histograms are non-parametric density estimators.



Lecture 13 | Part 2

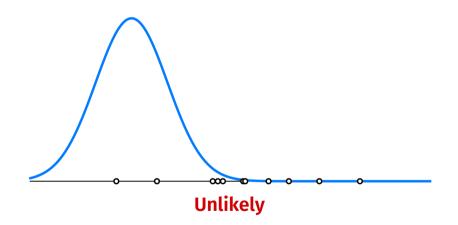
Maximum Likelihood Estimation

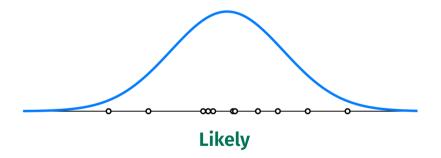
Parametric Density Estimation

Suppose we have data $x^{(1)}, ..., x^{(n)} \in \mathbb{R}$.

- Assume it came from a parametric distribution.
 Say, a Gaussian.
- What were the parameter values used to generate the data?
- Using data to guess μ and σ is called estimating the parameters.





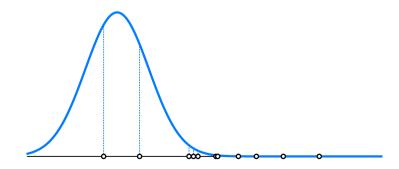


Intuition

- Some parameter choices seem more likely than others.
- That is, there is a greater chance that the data could have been generated by them.
- How can we quantify this?

Intuition

Let *p* be the Guassian probability density function.
 p(*x*⁽ⁱ⁾; μ, σ) quantifies how likely it is to see *x*⁽ⁱ⁾ if parameters μ and σ are used.



Exercise

Assume that $x^{(1)}, ..., x^{(n)}$ are all sampled independently from a density with parameters μ, σ .

Think of $p(x^{(i)}; \mu, \sigma)$ as the "chance" of seeing $x^{(i)}$ under parameters μ and σ .

What is the chance of seeing $x^{(1)}$ and $x^{(2)}$ and $x^{(3)}$ and ... and $x^{(n)}$?

Intuition

- ► $p(x^{(1)}; \mu, \sigma) \times p(x^{(2)}; \mu, \sigma) \times \cdots \times p(x^{(n)}; \mu, \sigma)$ quantifies likelihood of seeing $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}$ simultaneously.
- In fact, it is the joint density of the data.
- But instead think of this as a function of μ and σ .

Likelihood

• The **likelihood** of μ and σ with respect to data $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}$ is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu,\sigma;x^{(1)},\dots,x^{(n)}) = p(x^{(1)};\mu,\sigma) \times p(x^{(2)};\mu,\sigma) \times \dots \times p(x^{(n)};\mu,\sigma)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x^{(i)};\mu,\sigma)$$

Likelihood

- The likelihood function takes in parameters μ and σ and returns a real number.
- Interpretation: likelihood that data was generated by this choice of μ and σ.
- **Goal:** find μ and σ that **maximize** the likelihood.

http://dsc140a.com/static/vis/mle/

Maximizing Likelihood

- To maximize $\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma)$, we might take derivatives $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mu}$ and $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \sigma}$, set to 0, solve.
- But the likelihood is often difficult to work with.

Example: Gaussian

Assume that p is the Gaussian pdf.

$$p(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Then the likelihood function is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu,\sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{-(x^{(i)}-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right)$$

Log Likelihood

It is typically easier to work with the log likelihood instead.

$$\mathcal{\tilde{L}}(\mu,\sigma) = \ln \mathcal{L}(\mu,\sigma)$$

Fact: Because ln x is monotonically increasing, a maximizer of ln L also maximizes L

Procedure: Gaussian

1. Write the log likelihood function \mathcal{L} .

- 2. Take derivatives $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \mu$ and $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \sigma$
- 3. Set to zero and solve for μ and σ .

Recall: Log Properties

- ▶ If *a* and *b* are positive: $\ln(a \times b) = \ln a + \ln b$
- ▶ If *a* and *b* are positive: $\ln(a/b) = \ln a \ln b$
- ► If *a* is positive: $\ln a^p = p \ln a$

Step 1: Write Log Likelihood

Write the log likelihood function for the Normal distribution.

Step 2: Differentiate

► We have:
$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-\ln \sigma - \ln \sqrt{2\pi} - \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

► Compute $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \mu$:

Step 2: Differentiate

► We have:
$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-\ln \sigma - \ln \sqrt{2\pi} - \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

► Compute $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \sigma$:

Step 3: Solve

- We have $\partial \tilde{L} / \partial \mu = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x^{(i)} \mu)$
- Solve $\partial \tilde{L} / \partial \mu = 0$ for μ .

Step 3: Solve

► We have
$$\partial \tilde{L} / \partial \sigma = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-\frac{1}{\sigma} + \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^3} \right]$$

► Solve $\partial \tilde{L} / \partial \sigma = 0$ for σ .

MLEs for Gaussian Distribution

We have found the maximum likelihood estimates for the Gaussian distribution:

$$\mu_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x^{(i)}$$
 $\sigma_{\text{MLE}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)} - \mu_{\text{MLE}})^2}$

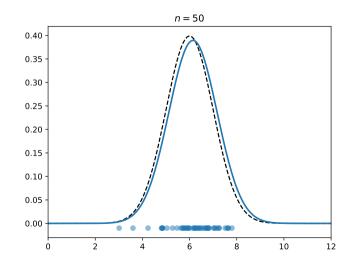
"Fitting" a Guassian

- Suppose we wish to "fit" a Gaussian to data x⁽¹⁾, ..., x⁽ⁿ⁾.
- The maximum likelihood approach:
 1. Compute:

$$\mu_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x^{(i)}$$
 $\sigma_{\text{MLE}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)} - \mu_{\text{MLE}})^2}$

2. Use these as parameters of the Gaussian.

Example



In General

- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) can be used for a variety of densities.
- Suppose density *p* has parameters $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$
- 1. Write log likelihood function:

$$\ln \mathcal{L}(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln p(x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}; \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$$

- 2. Compute derivatives: $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \theta_1, \partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \theta_2, ..., \partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \theta_k$
- 3. Set derivates to zero, solve for $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$.

In Practice

- The MLE for a parameter only needs to be derived once.
- Many textbooks, statistics packages, and Wikipedia list the MLE parameter estimators.



Lecture 13 | Part 3

Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Density Estimation

Making Predictions

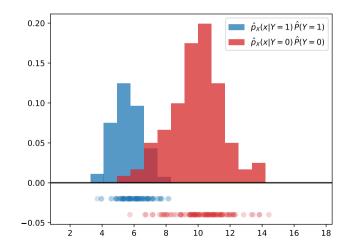
- We observe a data set $\{(x^{(i)}, y_i)\}$ of flipper lengths and penguin species (0 or 1).
- Task: Given the flipper length of a new penguin, what is its species?
- Bayes' classifier: predict
 - $\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p_X(x \mid Y = 1) \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) > p_X(x \mid Y = 0) \mathbb{P}(Y = 0), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Estimating Densities

- We must estimate $p_X(x | Y = 0)$ and $p_X(x | Y = 1)$.
- Approach 1: Non-parametric (histograms)
- Approach 2: Parametric

Approach 1: Non-Parametric

Estimate $p_x(x | Y = 0)$ and $p_x(x | Y = 1)$ with histograms.



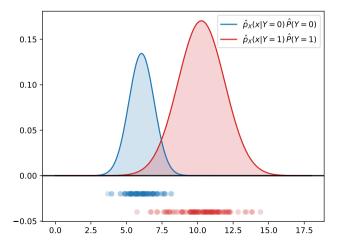
Approach 2: Parametric

Must choose a parametric distribution.

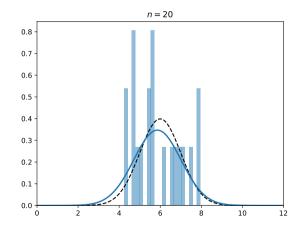
- Plotting a histogram, data looks roughly normal.
- We will fit Gaussians.

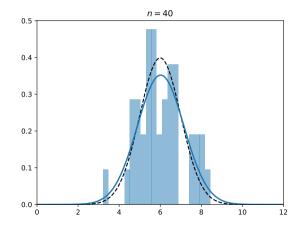
Approach 2: Parametric

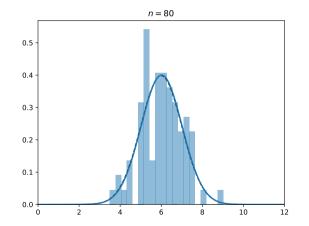
Estimate $p_X(x | Y = 0)$ and $p_X(x | Y = 1)$ by fitting Gaussians with MLE.

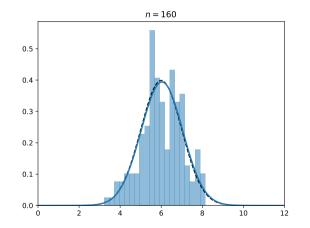


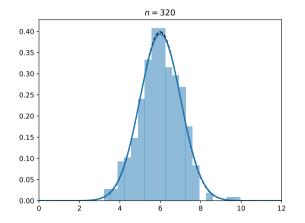
- Suppose the underlying distribution that produced the data actually was a Gaussian.
 Or close to one.
- The parametric approach will require less data than the non-parametric.

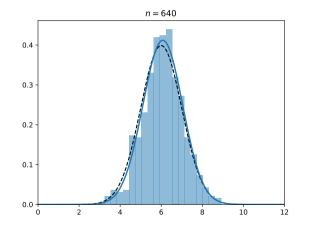


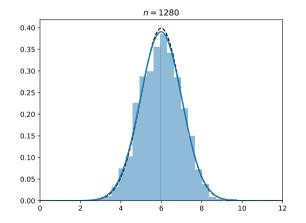






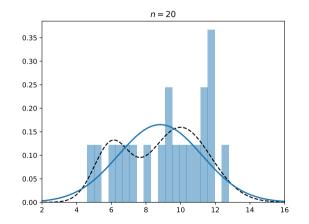


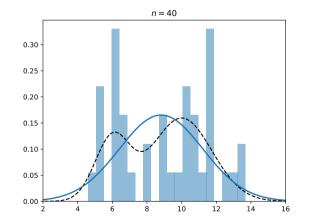


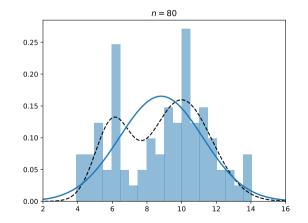


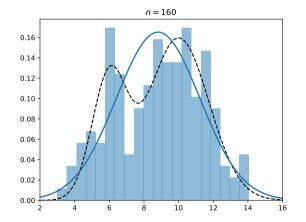
Mis-specification

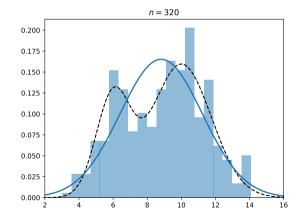
- However, suppose the underlying distribution is not Gaussian.
- No amount of data will allow the parametric approach to get close.
 - The model has been mis-specified.
- But the non-parametric approach will be close, eventually.

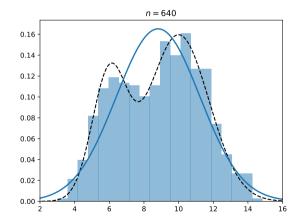


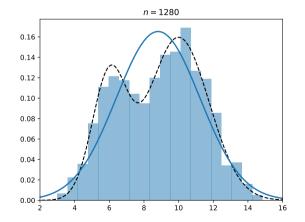












High Dimensions

- Non-parametric approaches can fit arbitrary densities, but they require lots of data.
 Especially in high dimensions!
- Parametric approaches require less data, provided that they are correctly specified.
- Next time: parametric density estimation in high dimensions.