

Lecture 12 | 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**:

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

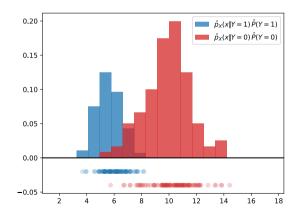
# **Estimating Densities**

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.

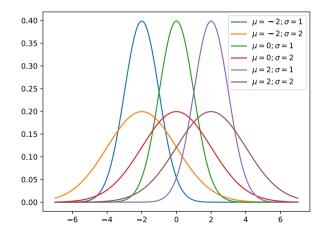
► The Curse of Dimensionality.

#### Observation

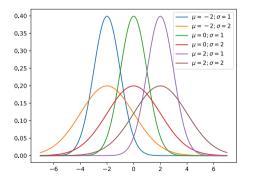
- Histogram estimators assume nothing about the shape of the true density.
- This makes them very flexible, but also data-hungry.
- Idea: Assume that the true, underlying density has a certain form.

#### **Example: Gaussians**

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



#### **Example:** Gaussians



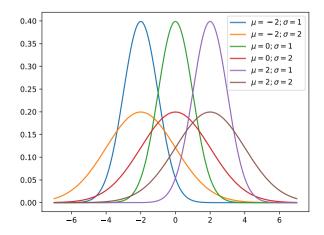
**Recall:** the pdf of the Gaussian distribution: 

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

- $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are parameters
  - $\mu$  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**

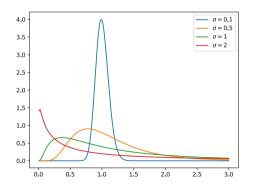
There are many parametric distributions.

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

#### **Example: Lognormal**

Product of many independent positive random numbers.

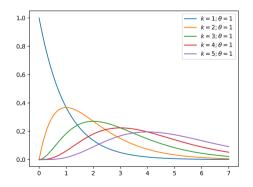
**Example:** length of comments in an internet forum



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

#### **Example: Gamma**

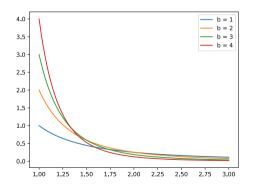
**Examples:** wait times, size of rainfalls, insurance claims, ...



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

#### **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 12 | Part 2

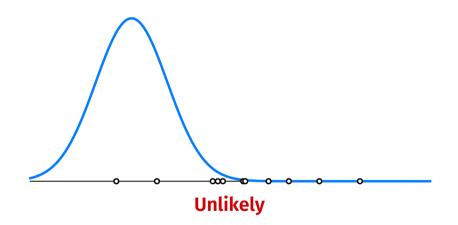
**Maximum Likelihood Estimation** 

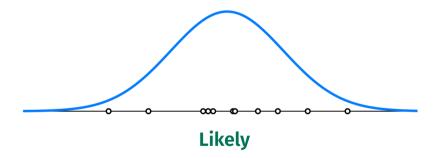
## **Parametric Density Estimation**

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.





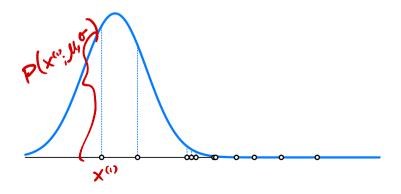


#### Intuition

- 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*<sup>(i)</sup>; μ, σ) quantifies how likely it is to see *x*<sup>(i)</sup> if parameters μ and σ are used.



#### Exercise

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

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

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  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .

#### Likelihood

• The **likelihood** of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  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  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  and returns a real number.
- Interpretation: likelihood that data was generated by this choice of μ and σ.
- **Goal:** find  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  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.

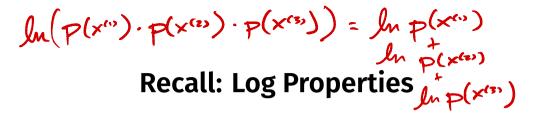
$$\mathcal{\tilde{L}}(\mu,\sigma) = \ln \mathcal{L}(\mu,\sigma)$$

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

#### **Procedure: Gaussian**

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

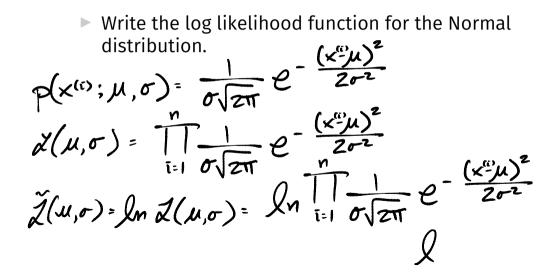
- 2. Take derivatives  $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \mu$  and  $\partial \tilde{\mathcal{L}} / \partial \sigma$
- 3. Set to zero and solve for  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .



▶ If *a* and *b* are positive:  $\ln(a \times b) = \ln a + \ln b$ 

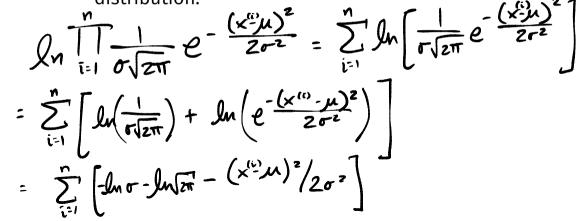
- ▶ If *a* and *b* are positive:  $\ln(a/b) = \ln a \ln b$
- If a is positive:  $\ln a^p = p \ln a$

# Step 1: Write Log Likelihood



# Step 1: Write Log Likelihood

Write the log likelihood function for the Normal distribution.

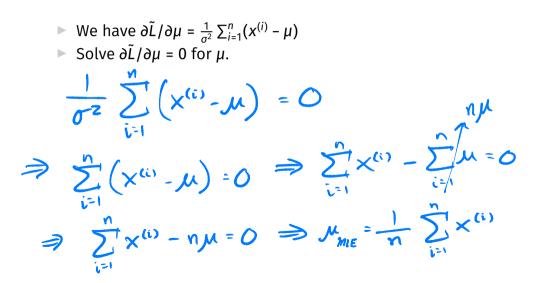


### **Step 2: Differentiate**

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

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

### Step 3: Solve



## 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  $\sigma$ .  $O_{\text{MLE}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum \left( \chi^{(c)} - M_{\text{MLE}} \right)^2}$  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{-1}{\sigma} + \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^3} \right] = 0$  $\Rightarrow \Sigma \stackrel{-}{\rightarrow} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma (x^{(1)} - M)^2 = 0$  $\Rightarrow -\frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum (x^{(1)} - y)^2 = 0$  $= -n + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x^{(n)} - x)^2 = 0$   $= \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x^{(n)} - x)^2$ 

## **MLEs for Gaussian Distribution**

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

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

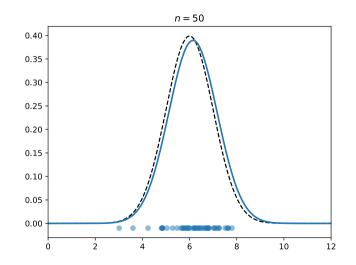
# "Fitting" a Guassian

- Suppose we wish to "fit" a Gaussian to data x<sup>(1)</sup>, ..., x<sup>(n)</sup>.
- 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 12 | Part 3

Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Density Estimation

# **Making Predictions**

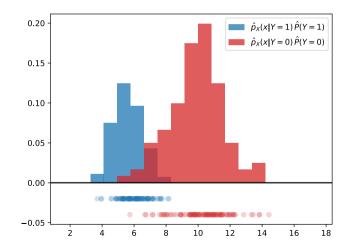
- We observe a data set  $\{(x^{(i)}, y_i)\}$  of flipper lengths and penguin species (0 or 1).
- Task: Given the flipper length of a new penguin, what is its species?
- Bayes' classifier: predict
  - $\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p_X(x \mid Y = 1) \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) > p_X(x \mid Y = 0) \mathbb{P}(Y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

## **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.



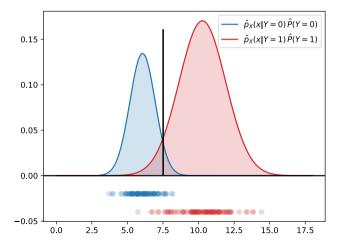
## **Approach 2: Parametric**

Must choose a parametric distribution.

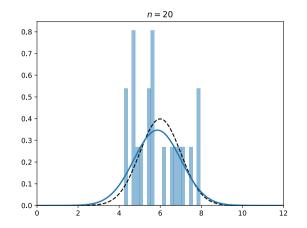
- Plotting a histogram, data looks roughly normal.
- We will fit Gaussians.

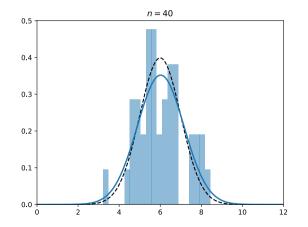
## **Approach 2: Parametric**

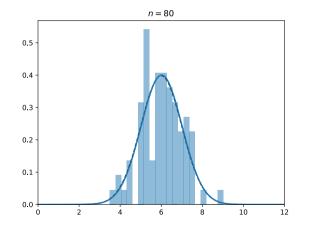
Estimate  $p_X(x | Y = 0)$  and  $p_X(x | Y = 1)$  by fitting Gaussians with MLE.

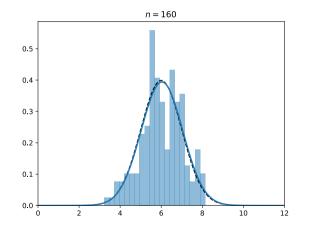


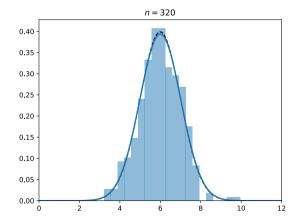
- Suppose the underlying distribution that produced the data actually was a Gaussian.
   Or close to one.
- The parametric approach will require less data than the non-parametric.

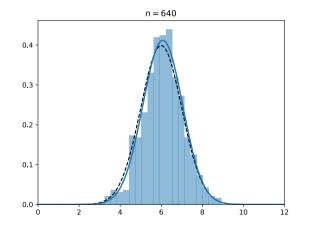


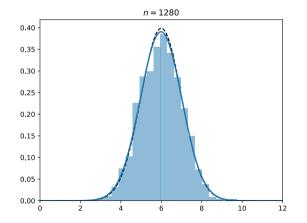






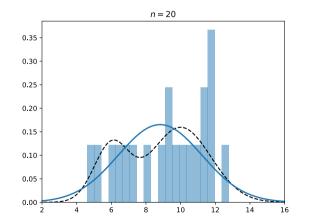


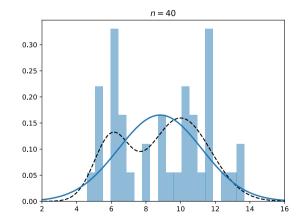


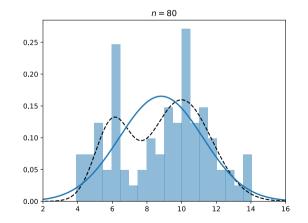


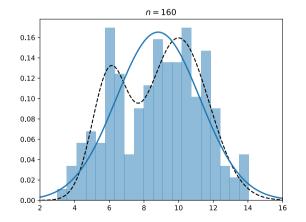
# **Mis-specification**

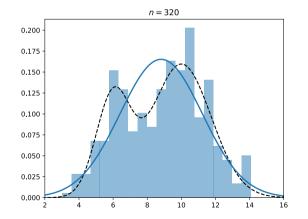
- However, suppose the underlying distribution is not Gaussian.
- No amount of data will allow the parametric approach to get close.
  - The model has been mis-specified.
- But the non-parametric approach will be close, eventually.

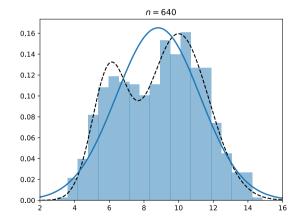


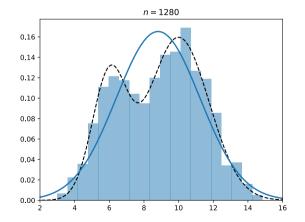












# **High Dimensions**

- 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.