

Probability, Statistics & Parameter Estimation

1 September 2017

Logistics

- Did everyone get the class email that I sent?
 - If not, send me your NetID so that I can add you to the mailing list
- Make sure you're on piazza.com as well
- Is there a waiting list to register for the class?
 - Sorry no, just keep trying to register, spots will open up

Today's refresher

** Once again, this is all for future reference, don't expect to learn it all today*

- Probability
- Statistics
- Parameter Estimation

Probability

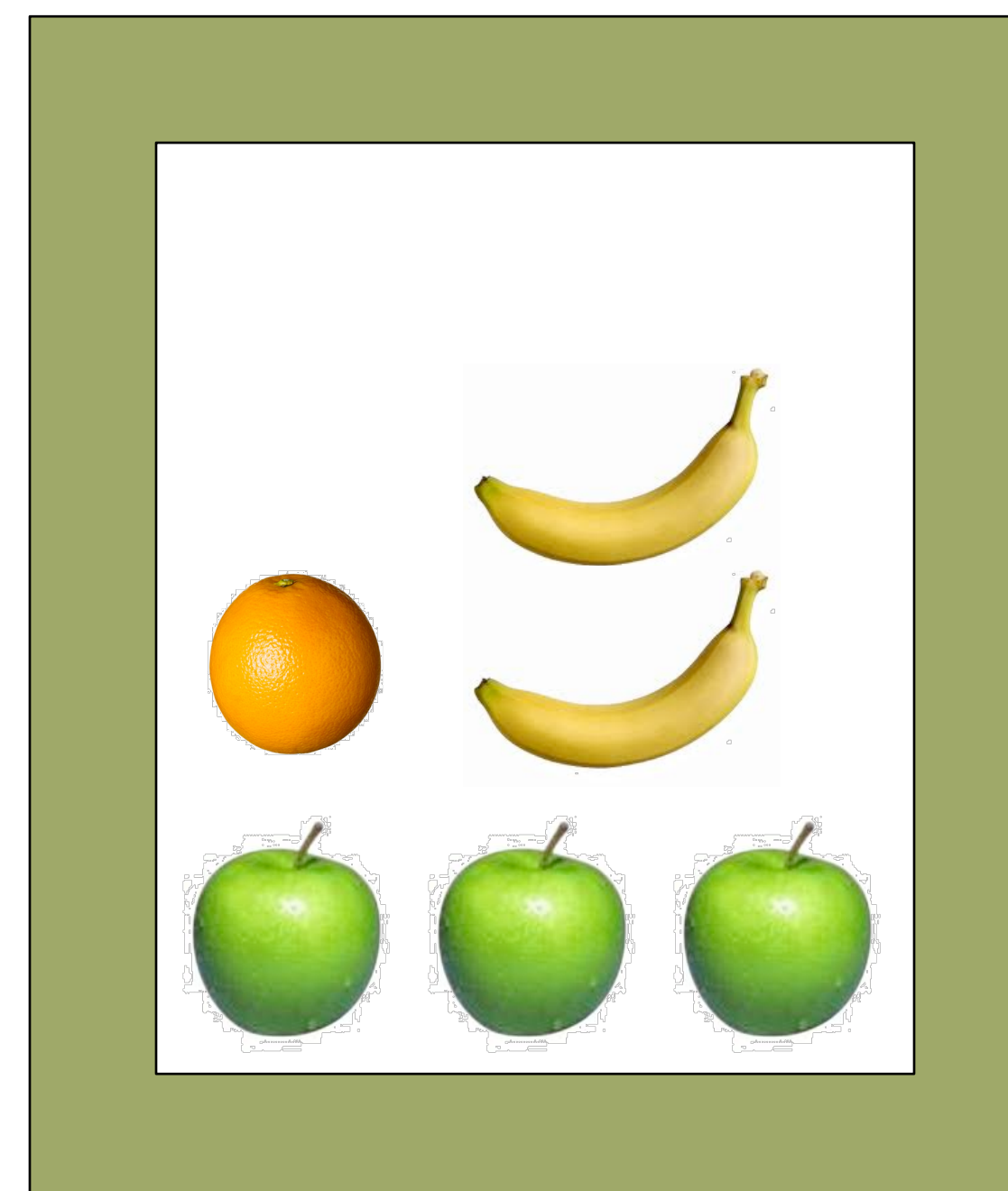
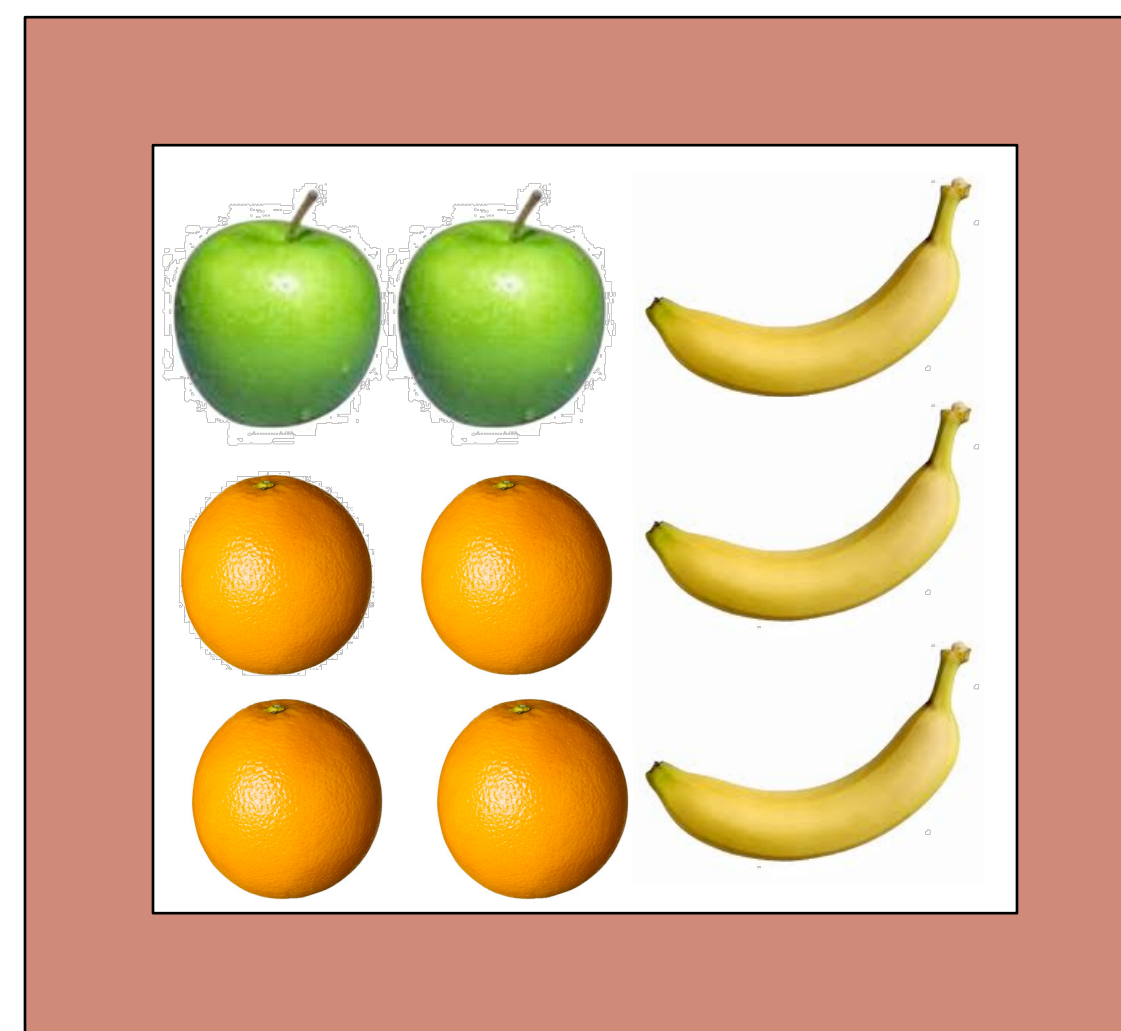
- Probity
 - Measure of legal authority/nobility
 - Passed muster in the middle ages
- Probability
 - Measure of belief/likelihood
 - Passes muster today

Goals of probability

- Characterize stochastic processes
 - How do dice roll?
 - What am I more likely to say next?
- Indicate belief given evidence
 - The suspect was nearby and there are feathers on his clothes. Was he the chicken thief?

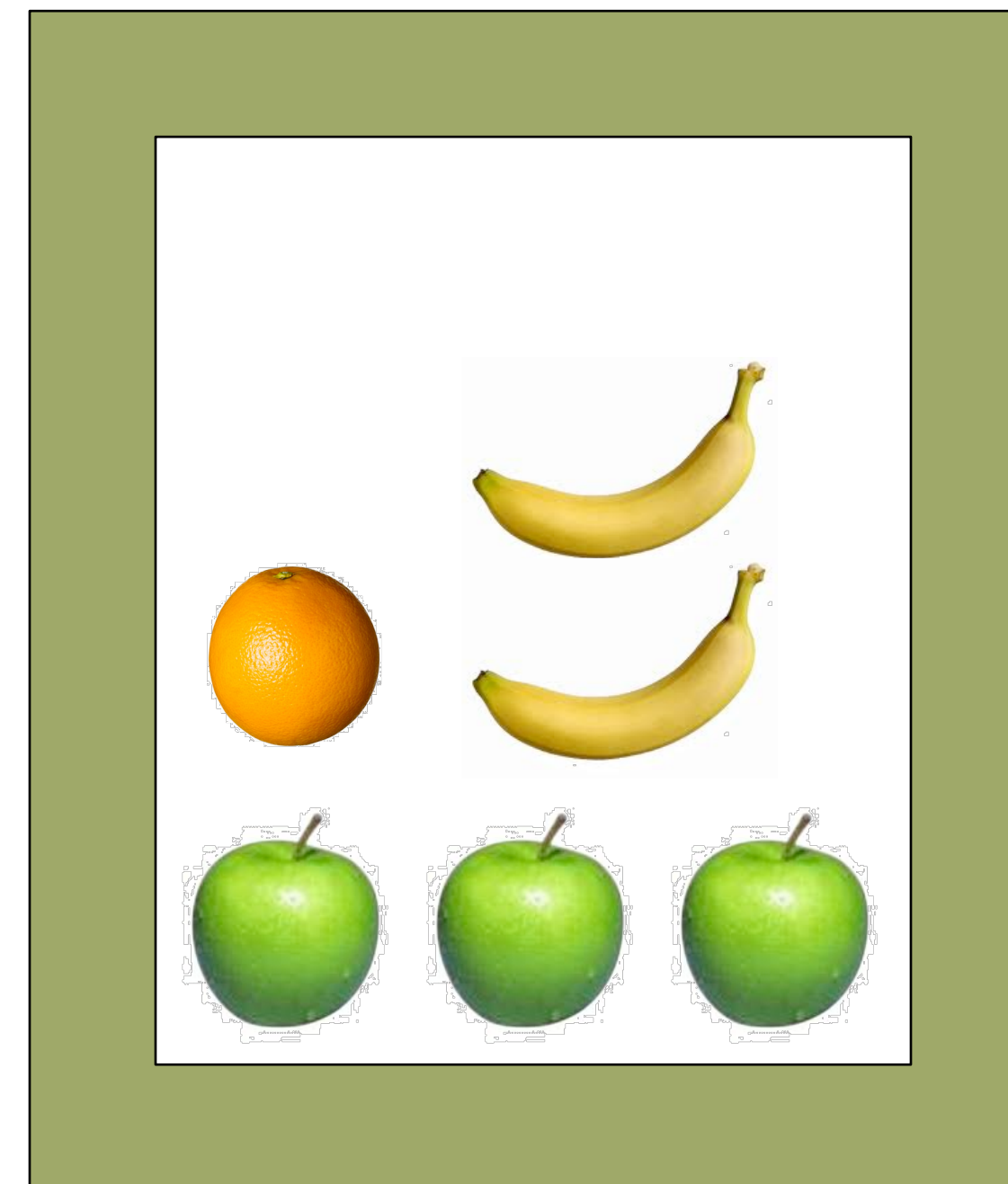
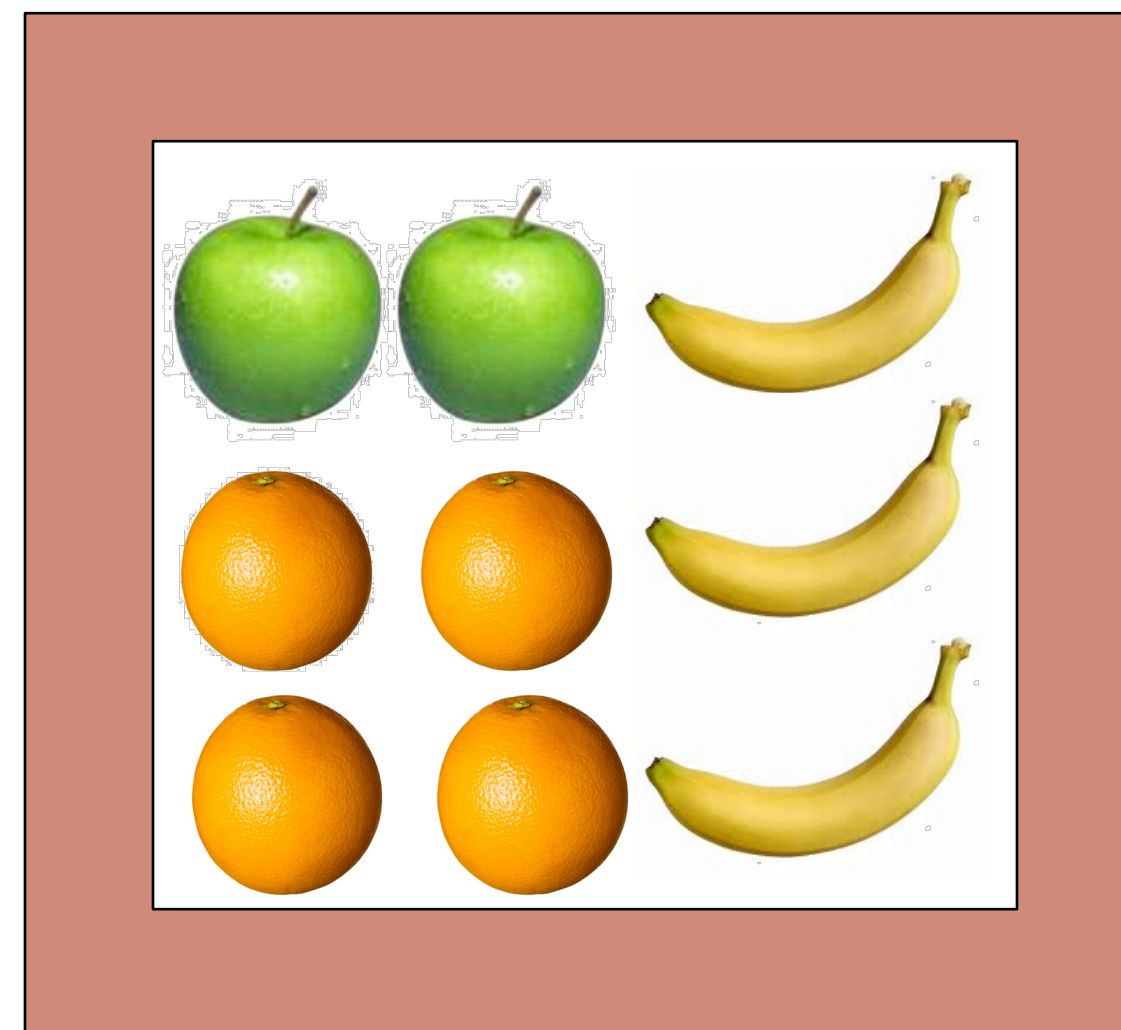
An example

- We start picking oranges, apples and bananas, from the two boxes below
 - Pick 40% from red box, 60% from green box



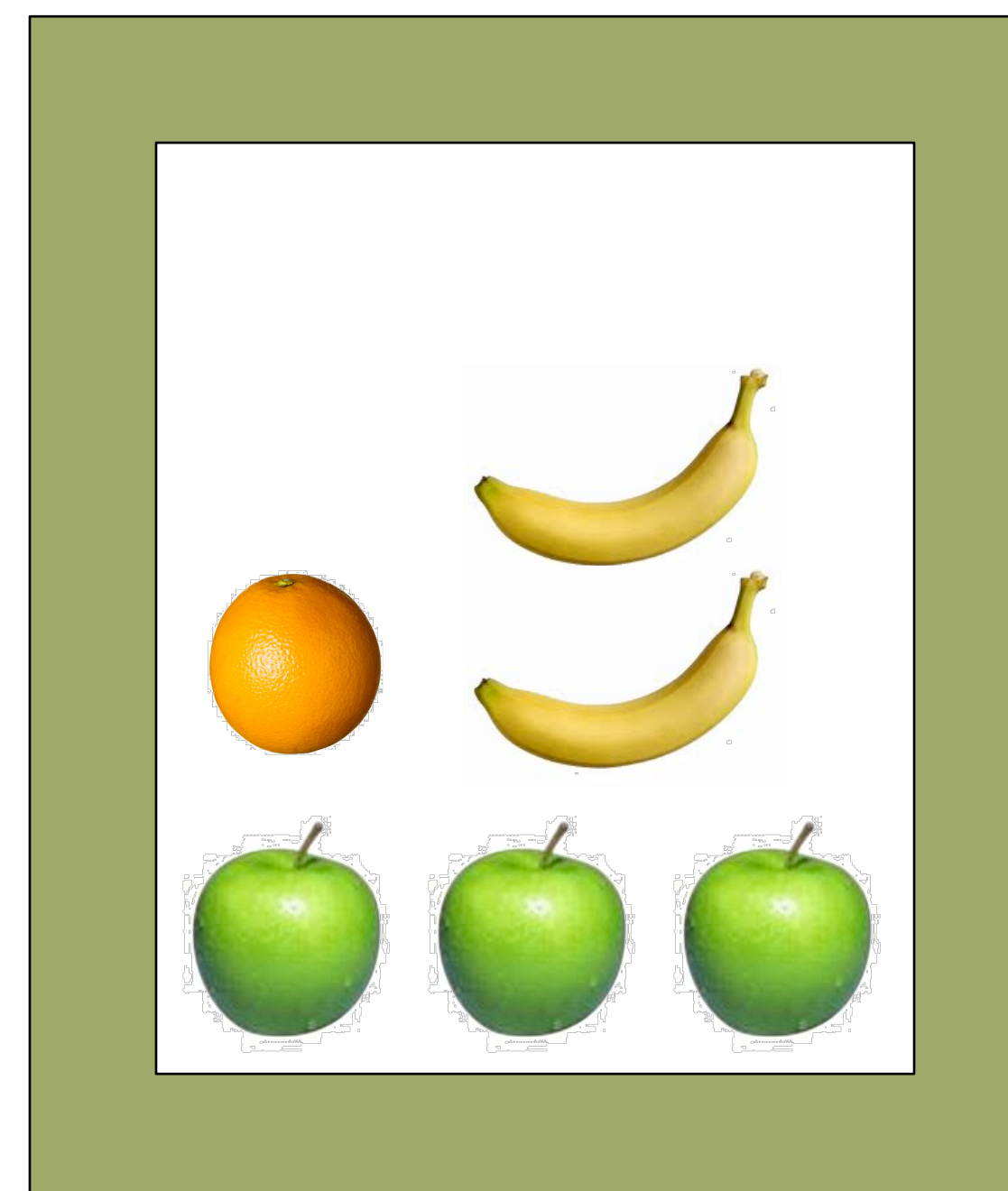
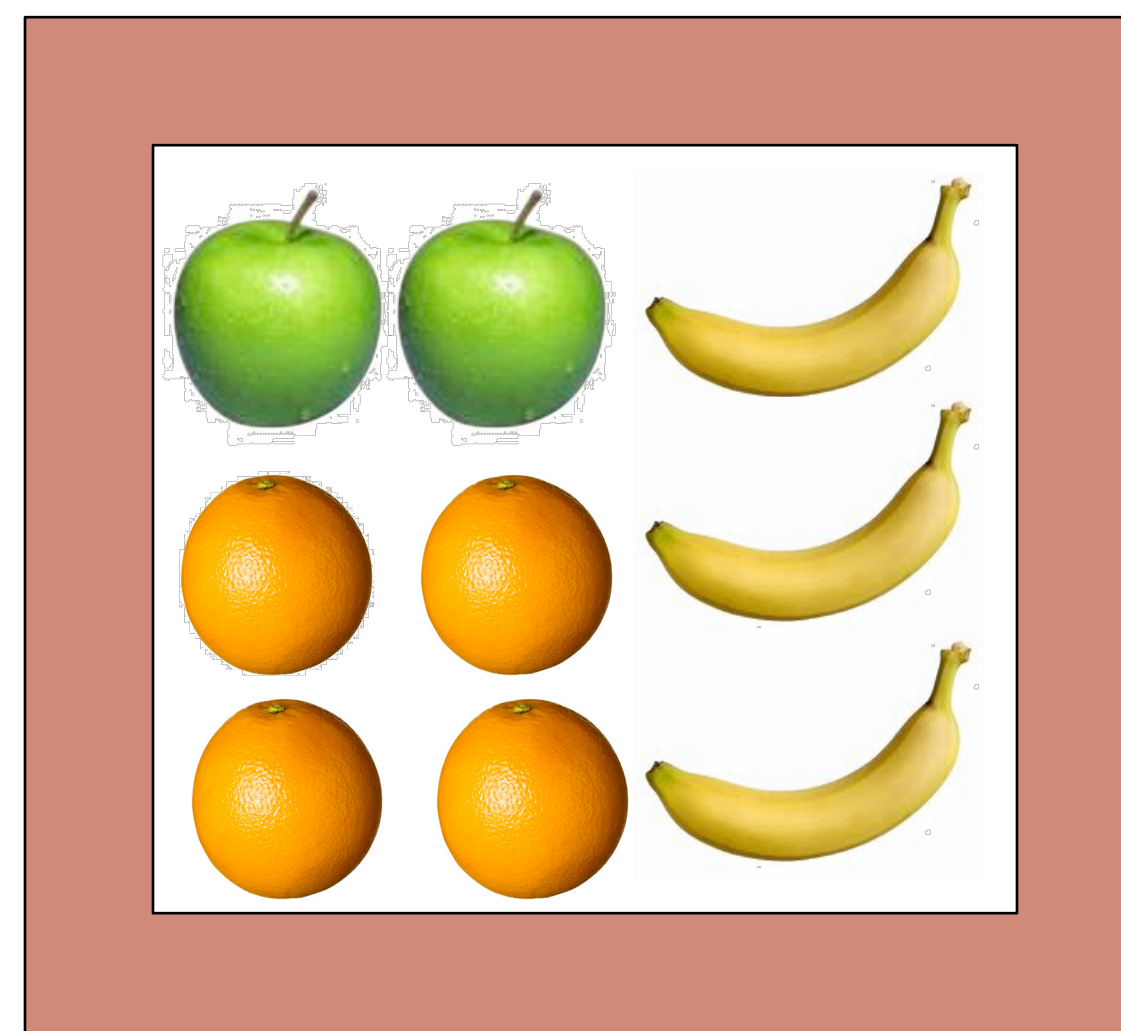
The random variables

- The box: $B = \{r, g\}$
- The fruit: $F = \{a, o, b\}$
 - What are their probabilities?



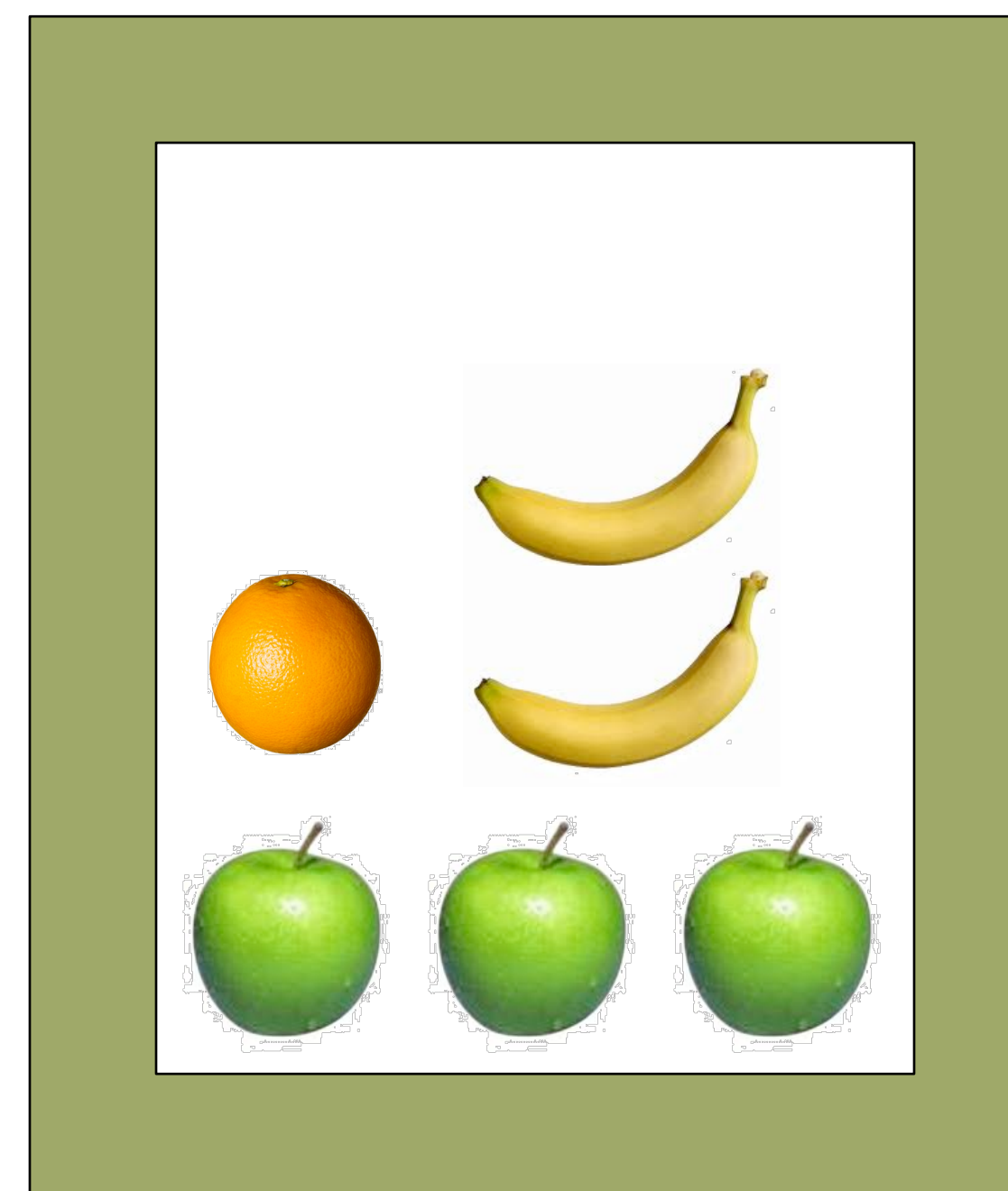
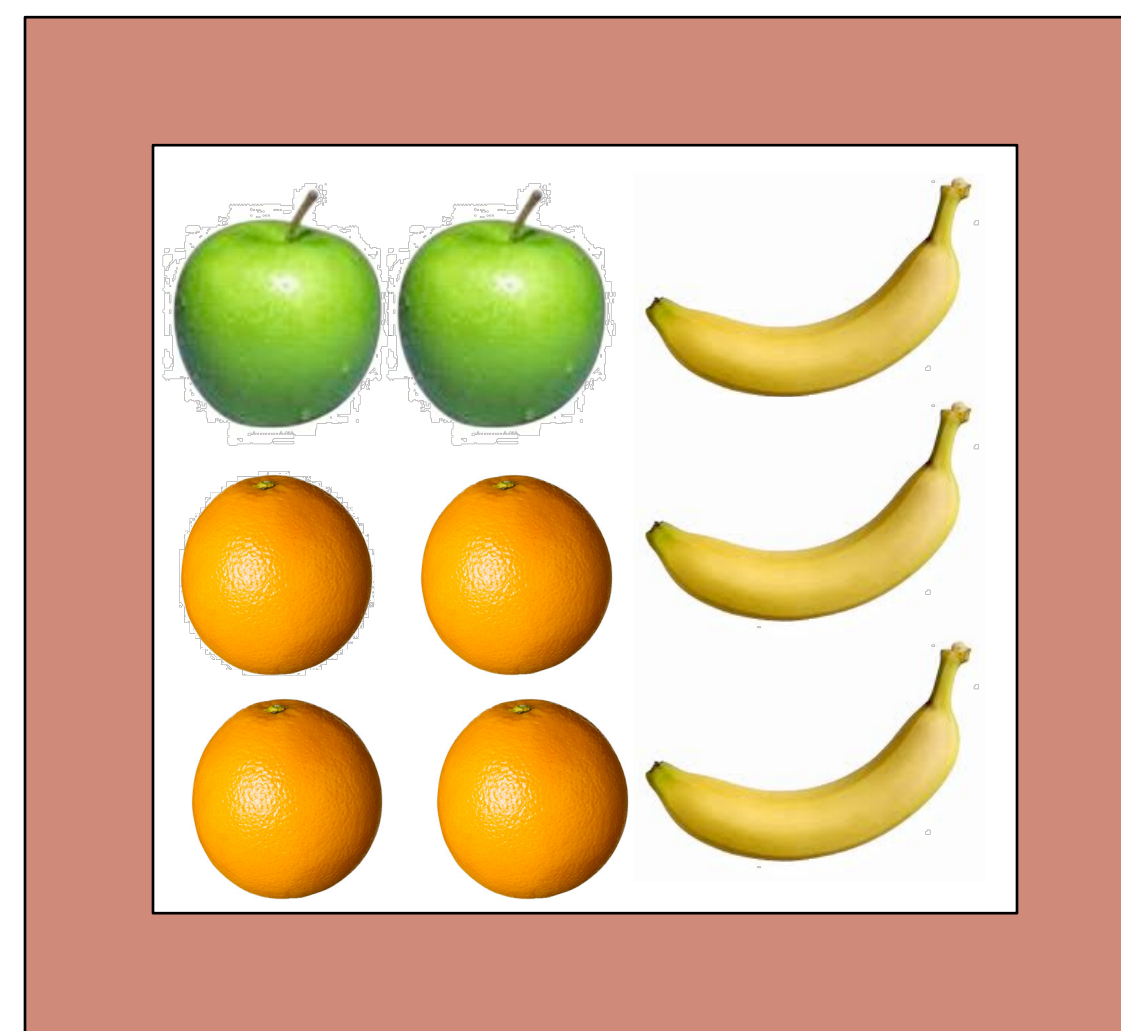
Box probabilities

- Obviously:
 - $P(B == g) = 60/100$
 - $P(B == r) = 40/100$
 - $P(\cdot) \in [0,1]$



Asking questions

- What is the probability of picking an apple?
- If we pick an orange, what is the probability that it came out of the green box?



Keeping track

- Keep track of N experiments in a table
 - N is large, even infinite

		F			
		Apple	Banana	Orange	Any fruit
B	Green Box	n_{ga}	n_{gb}	n_{go}	n_g
	Red Box	n_{ra}	n_{rb}	n_{ro}	n_r
	Any box	n_a	n_b	n_o	

Single variable probabilities

$$P(B == i) = n_i / N$$

$$P(F == j) = n_j / N$$

		<i>F</i>			
		Apple	Banana	Orange	Any fruit
<i>B</i>	Green Box	n_{ga}	n_{gb}	n_{go}	n_g
	Red Box	n_{ra}	n_{rb}	n_{ro}	n_r
	Any box	n_a	n_b	n_o	

Joint probabilities

$$P(B == i, F == j) = \frac{n_{ij}}{N}$$

$$P(B == i, F == j) = P(F == j, B == i)$$

		<i>F</i>			
		Apple	Banana	Orange	Any fruit
<i>B</i>	Green Box	n_{ga}	n_{gb}	n_{go}	n_g
	Red Box	n_{ra}	n_{rb}	n_{ro}	n_r
		n_a	n_b	n_o	

The sum rule

$$n_i / N = \left(n_{ia} + n_{ib} + n_{io} \right) / N$$

$$P(B == i) = \sum_{\forall j} P(B == i, F == j)$$

F

		Apple	Banana	Orange	Any fruit
B	Green Box	n_{ga}	n_{gb}	n_{go}	n_g
	Red Box	n_{ra}	n_{rb}	n_{ro}	n_r
		n_a	n_b	n_o	

Conditional probability

$$P(F == j \mid B == i) = \frac{n_{ij}}{n_i}$$

		<i>F</i>			
		Apple	Banana	Orange	Any fruit
<i>B</i>	Green Box	n_{ga}	n_{gb}	n_{go}	n_g
	Red Box	n_{ra}	n_{rb}	n_{ro}	n_r
		n_a	n_b	n_o	

The product rule

$$P(B == i, F == j) = \frac{n_{ij}}{N} = \frac{n_{ij}}{n_i} \frac{n_i}{N} = P(F == j \mid B == i) P(B == i)$$

		<i>F</i>			
		Apple	Banana	Orange	Any fruit
<i>B</i>	Green Box	n_{ga}	n_{gb}	n_{go}	n_g
	Red Box	n_{ra}	n_{rb}	n_{ro}	n_r
		n_a	n_b	n_o	

The two basic rules

- Sum Rule:

$$P(X) = \sum_Y P(X, Y)$$

- Product Rule:

$$P(X, Y) = P(Y | X)P(X)$$

Bayes theorem

- From product rule & symmetry of joint

$$\overset{\text{Posterior}}{P(Y | X)} = \frac{\overset{\text{Likelihood}}{P(X | Y)} \overset{\text{Prior}}{P(Y)}}{\underset{\text{Normalizing constant}}{P(X)}}$$

- Will answer most of your questions!

Independence

- If:

$$P(B == i, F == j) = P(B == i)P(F == j)$$

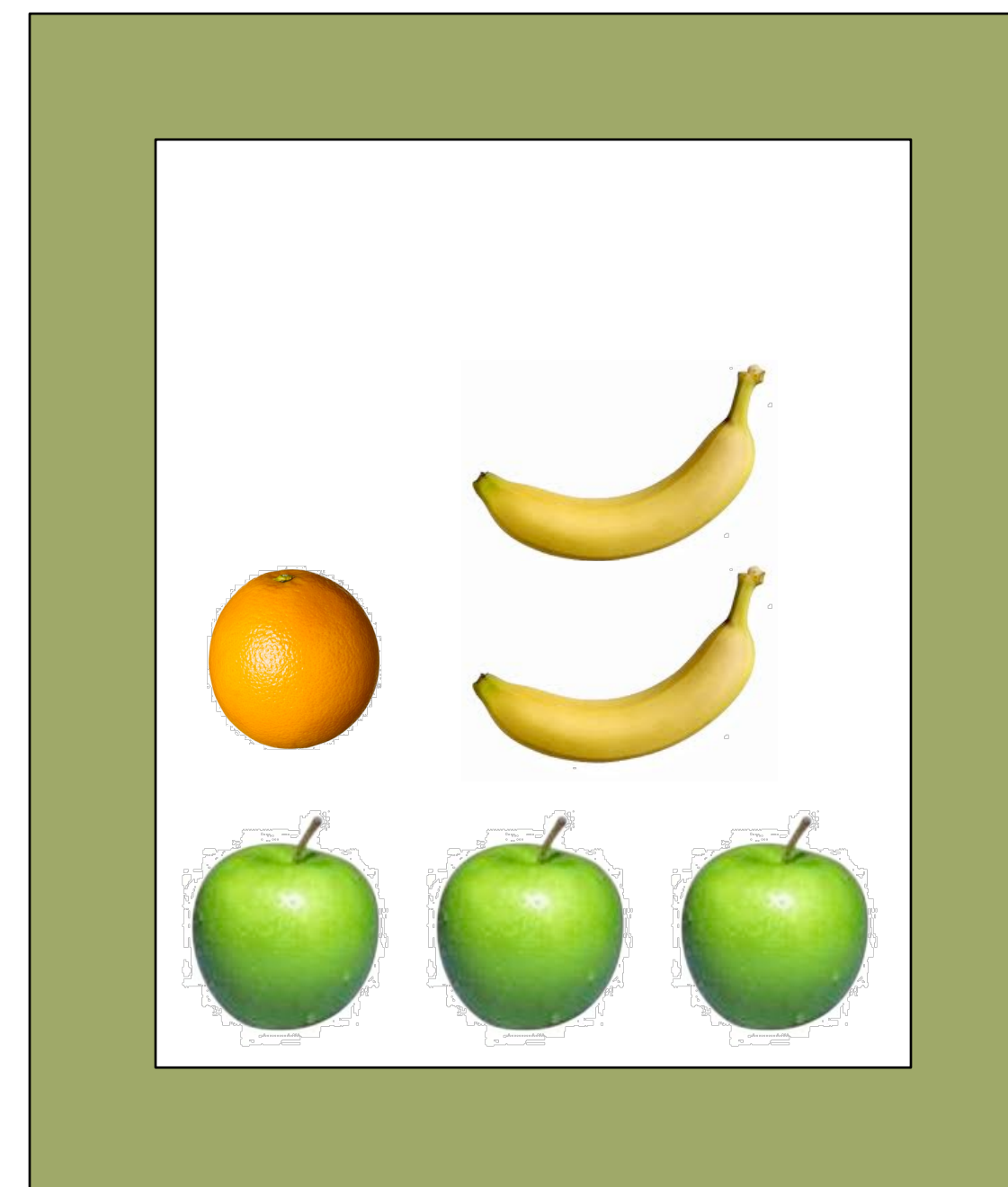
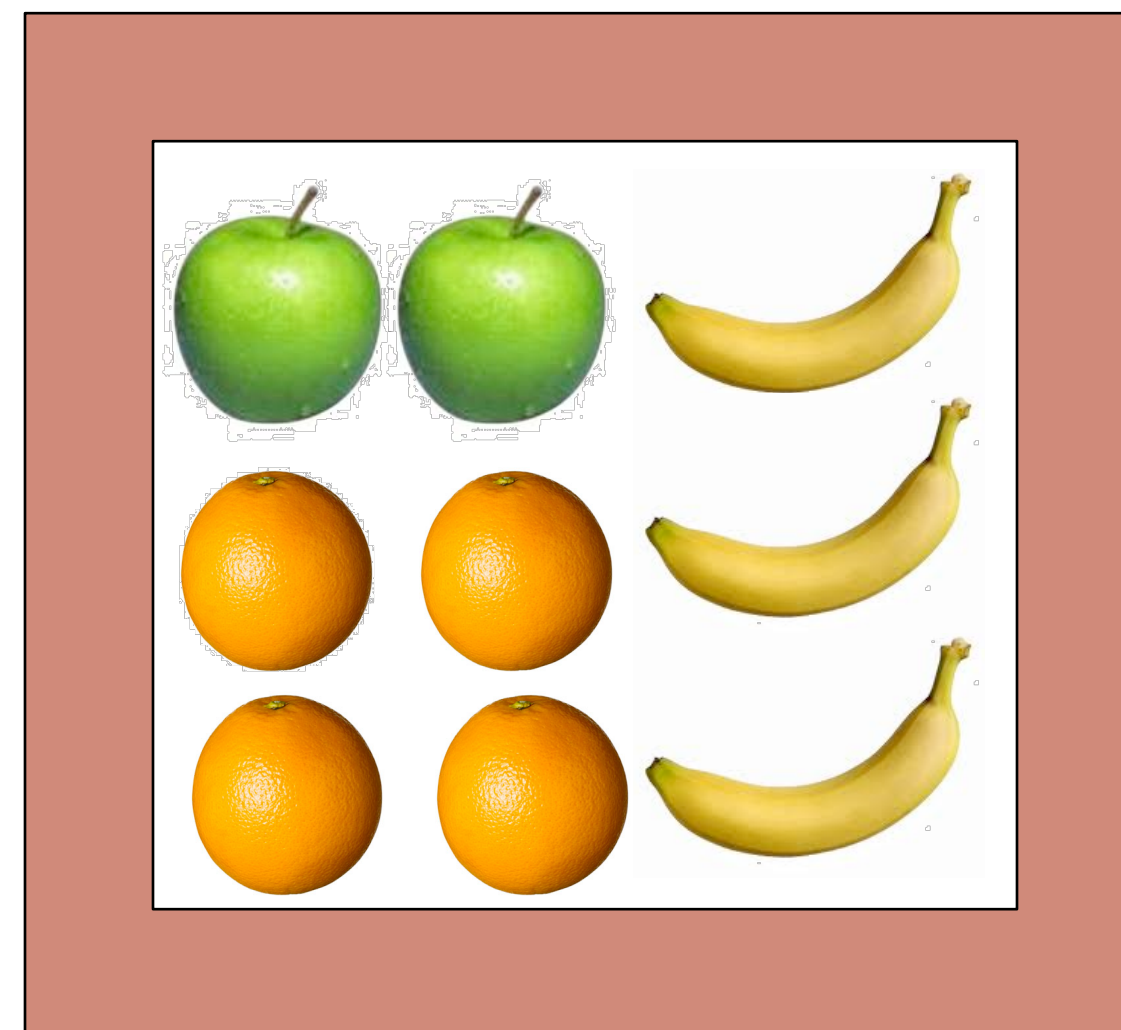
- Then B and F are independent
- Also means, via the product rule, that:

$$P(F | B) = P(F)$$

- If both boxes had the same fraction of fruits, then we would have independence

Back to the fruit

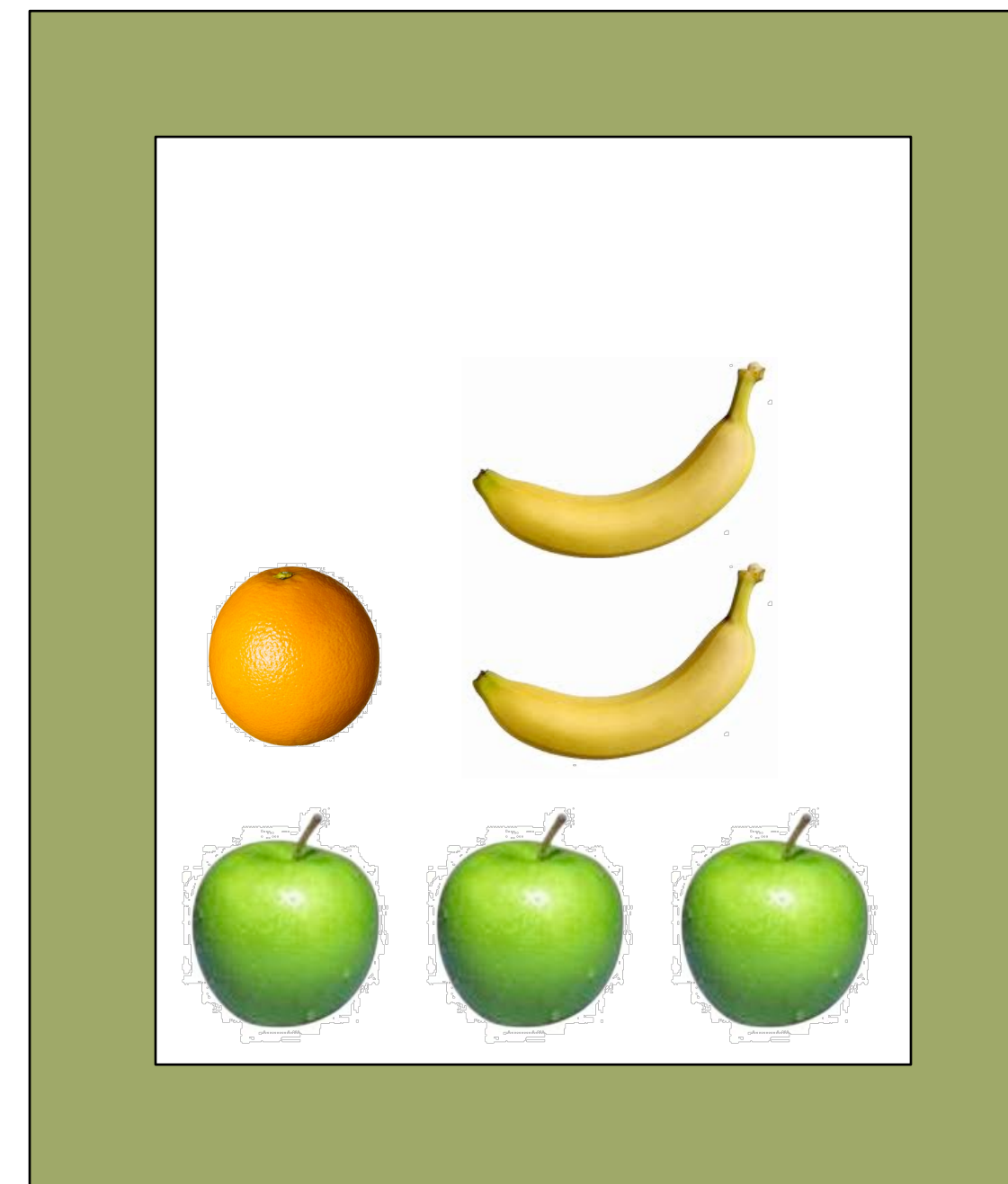
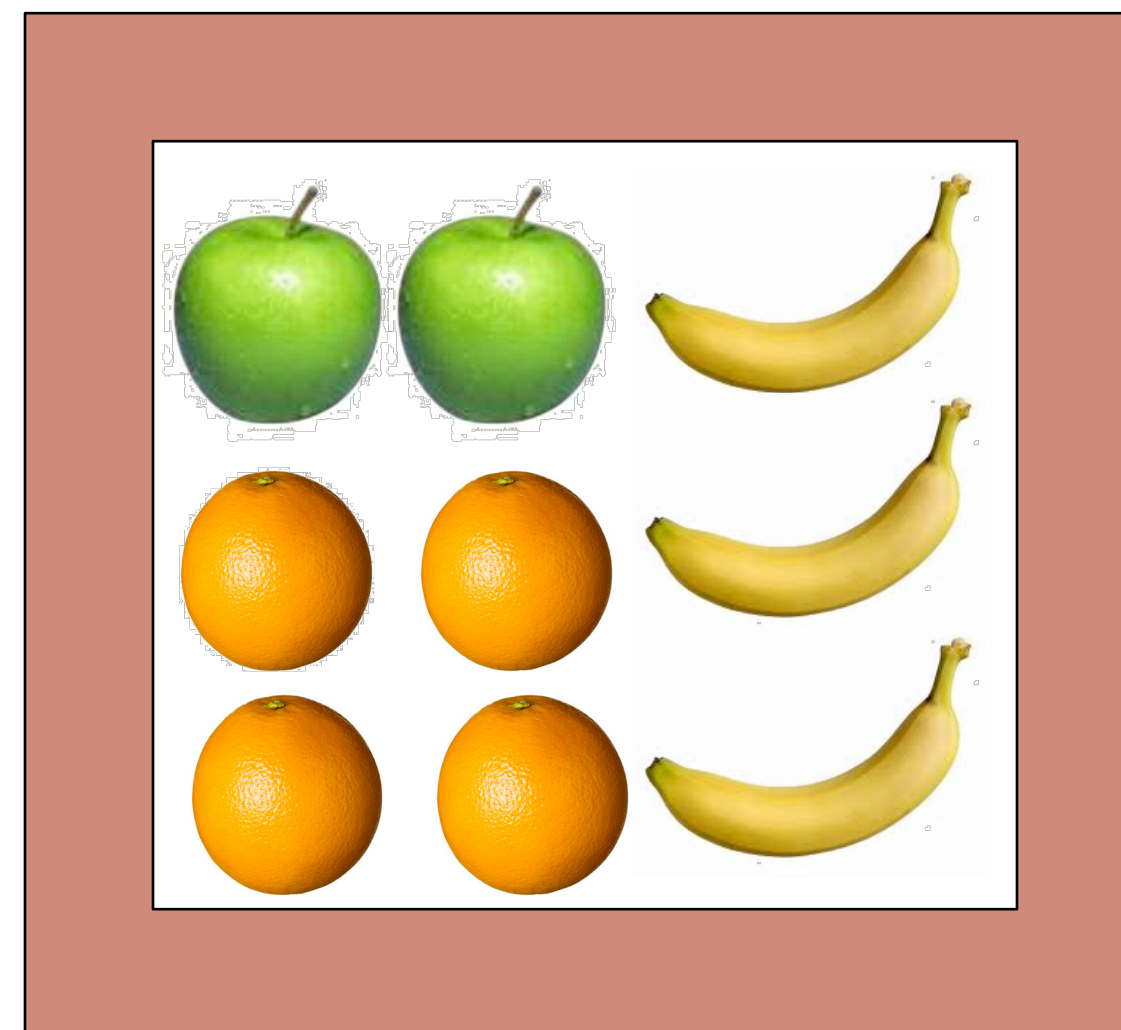
- What's the probability of picking an apple?
 - Sum rule: $P(a) = P(a, r) + P(a, g)$



Back to the fruit

- What's the probability that I picked from the red box given that I picked an apple?

- Bayes rule:
$$P(r | a) = \frac{P(a | r)P(r)}{P(a)}$$



Schools of thought

- **Frequentists**

- Probabilities are interpretations of frequencies of occurrence in experiments
 - There can only be one solution!

- **Bayesians**

- Probabilities are a degree of belief, not a result of a counting experiment
 - What's the distribution of the parameter? The priors?

Why belief?

- “Will a meteor hit earth?”
 - Frequentist: Let us wait until N is large ...
- Using a Bayesian treatment we can find a likelihood given the evidence, not the data
 - But that requires models, priors, assumptions, ... More later

A practical application

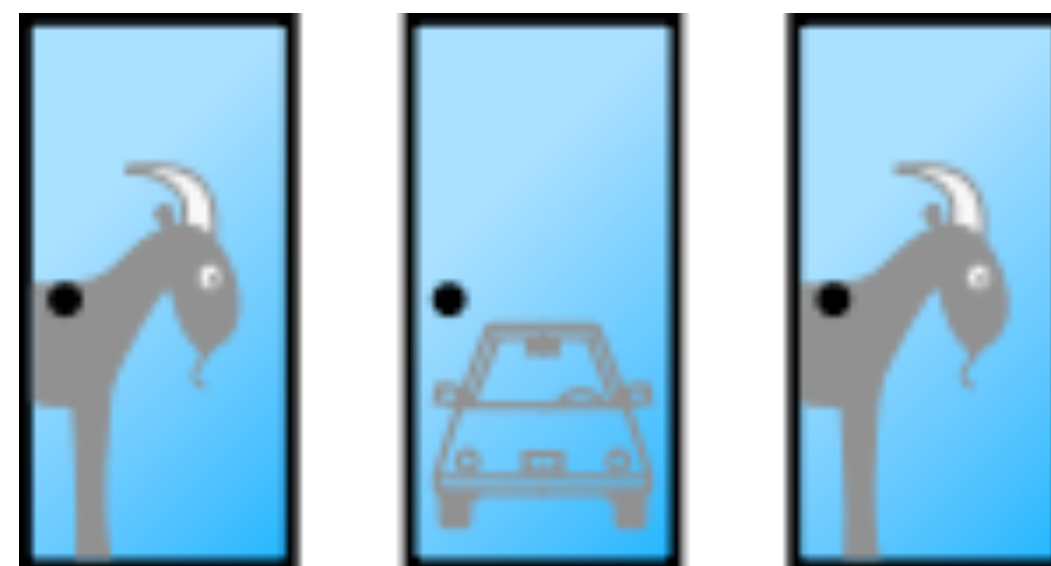
**Statistics in the Real World:
The Search for the USS Scorpion**

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U9-G-noZrwc>

Getting lost? Don't worry

- Probability is super tricky
 - Even seasoned professionals get it wrong!
 - E.g. the Monty Hall problem

<http://marilynvossavant.com/game-show-problem/>

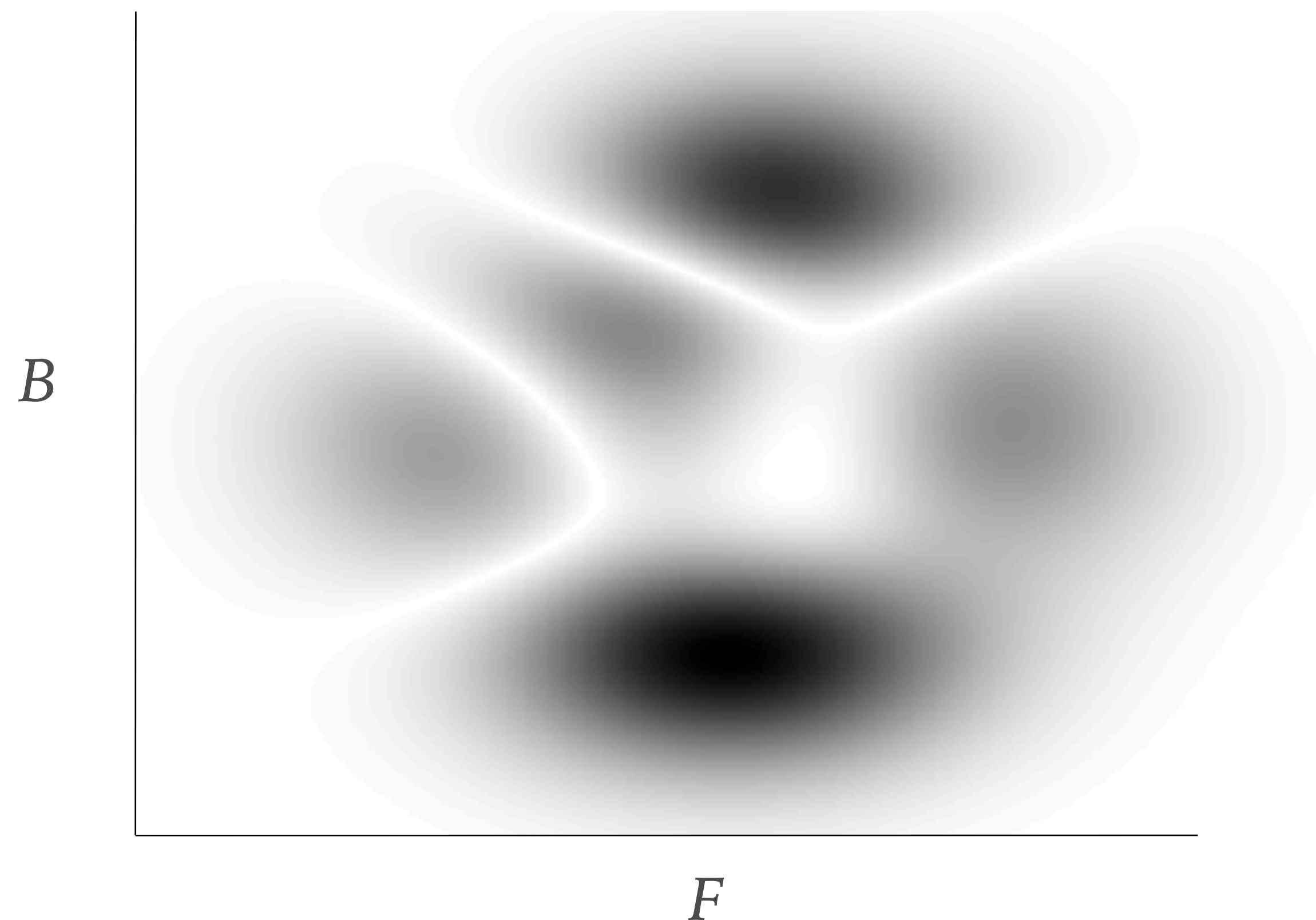


Quick answer

		Door 1	Door 2	Door 3	Outcome
Pick door 1 and switch	1st case	Car	Goat	Goat	Switch & lose
	2nd case	Goat	Car	Goat	Switch & win
	3rd case	Goat	Goat	Car	Switch & win
Pick door 1 and stay	4th case	Car	Goat	Goat	Stay & win
	5th case	Goat	Car	Goat	Stay & lose
	6th case	Goat	Goat	Car	Stay & lose

Continuous distributions

- What if we have infinite colors of boxes, and infinite types of fruit?



Same(ish) rules (harder proofs)

- Sum rule: $P(x) = \int P(x, y) dy$
- Product rule: $P(x, y) = P(y | x)P(x)$
- Bayes rule: $P(x | y) = \frac{P(y | x)P(x)}{P(y)}$

Some properties

- Integration to unity

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x) = 1$$

- You'll be amazed how many papers get this wrong!

- Probabilities are real and non-negative

$$P(x) \in \mathbb{R} \quad P(x) \geq 0$$

- Well, they don't have to be. More on that later ...

Some common operations

- **Expectation:** $E(f(x)) = \int P(x)f(x)dx$
- **Variance:** $\text{var}(f(x)) = E\left[\left(f(x) - E[f(x)]\right)^2\right] = E[f(x)^2] - E[f(x)]^2$
- **Covariance:** $\text{cov}[x, y] = E_{x,y}(xy) - E(x)E(y)$

Popular distributions

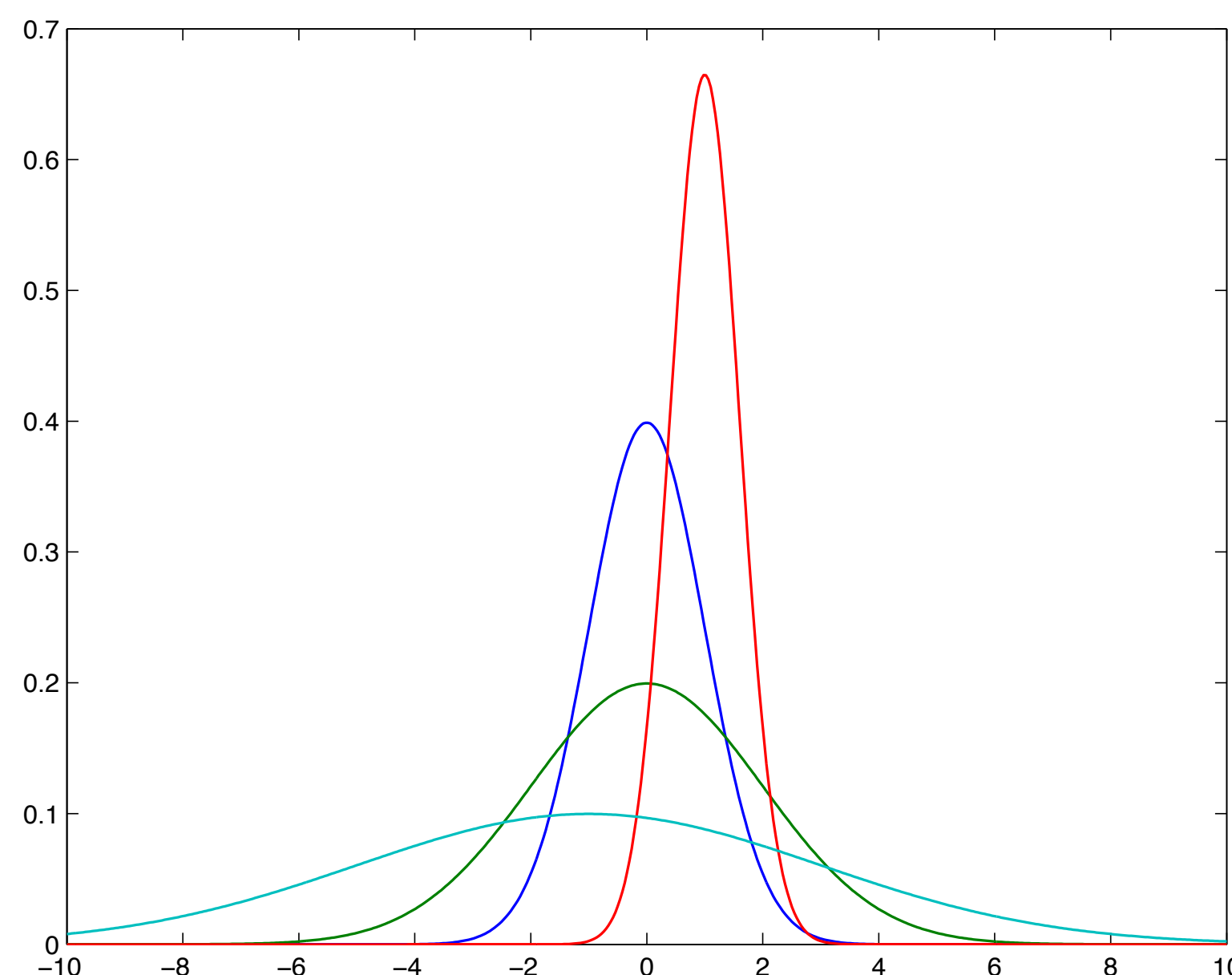
- We'll be seeing a lot of:
 - The Gaussian
 - Used pretty much everywhere
 - The Laplacian
 - Used for sparse models
 - The Dirichlet
 - Used for compositional models
 - The Exponential Family
 - Very useful properties!

The Gaussian

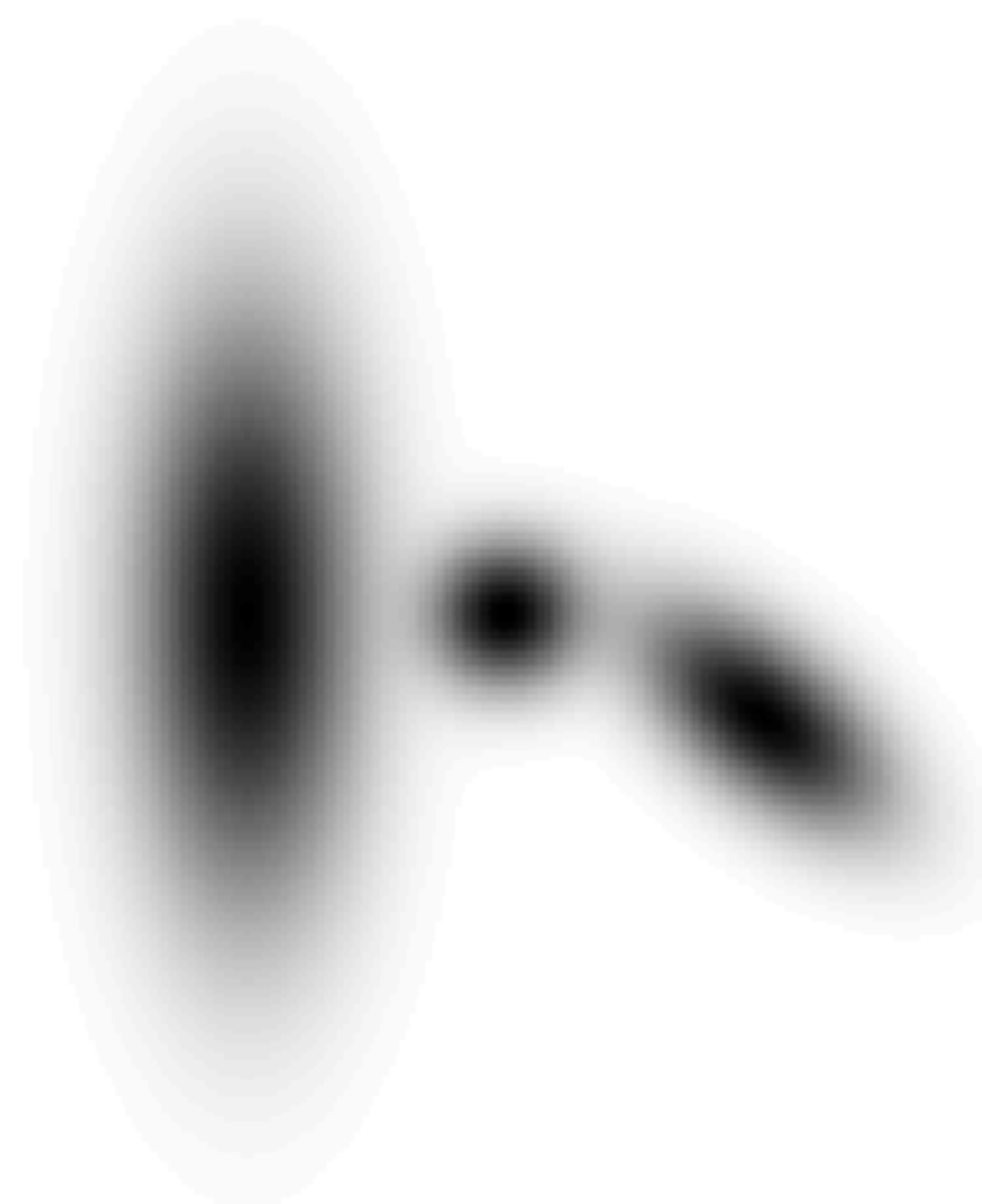
- Also known as the Normal distribution or the bell curve

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$$

One-dimensional Gaussians



Two-dimensional Gaussians



Why the Gaussian?

- Makes the Euclidean distance a distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- If you assume squared Euclidean errors, then you are using a Gaussian

The Gaussian parameters

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$$

- The mean: $E(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}$
- The covariance: $\text{cov}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$
 - The mode: $\text{mode}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}$

Special case

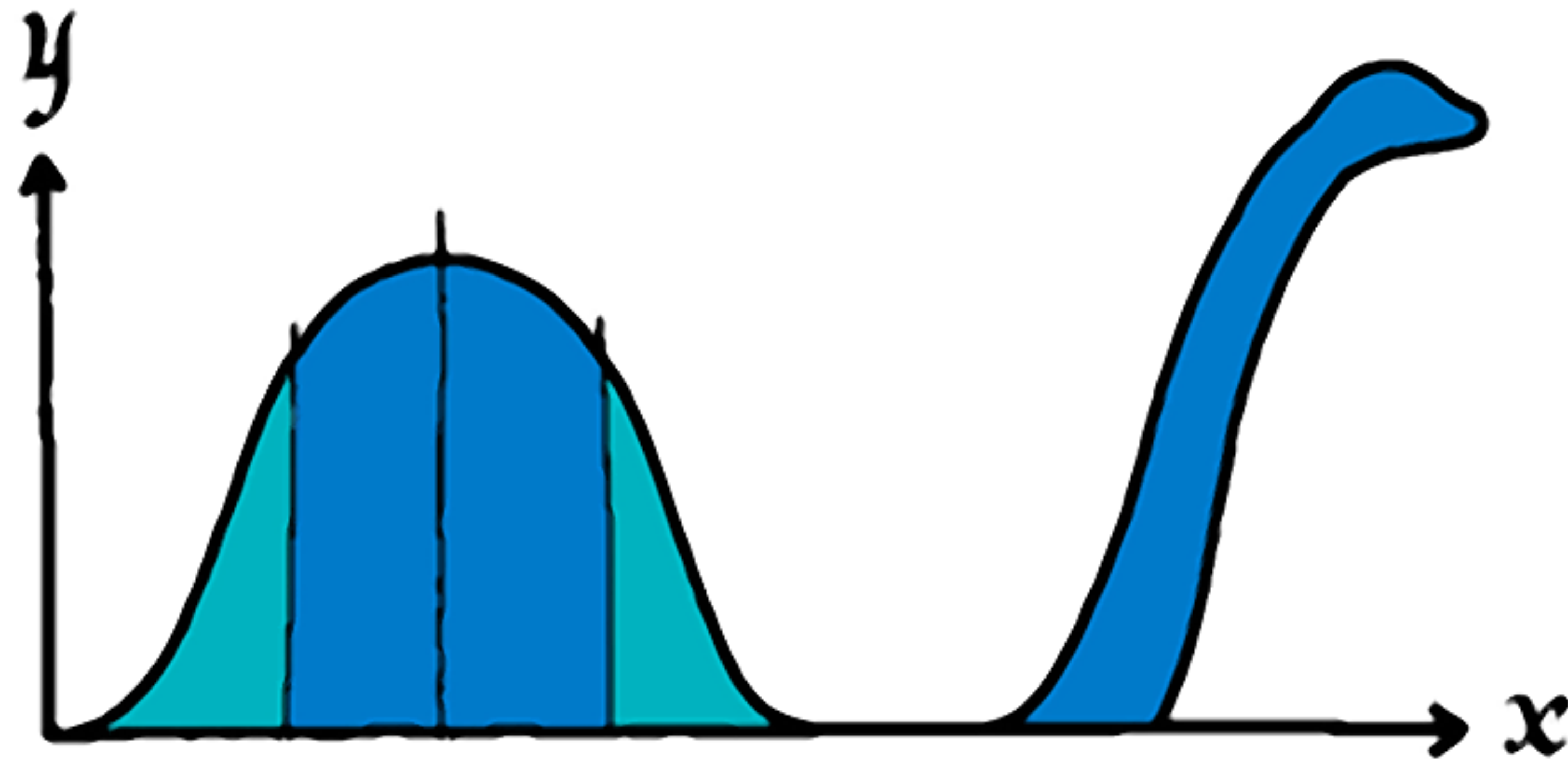


Fig 1.0 The Extended Bell Curve.

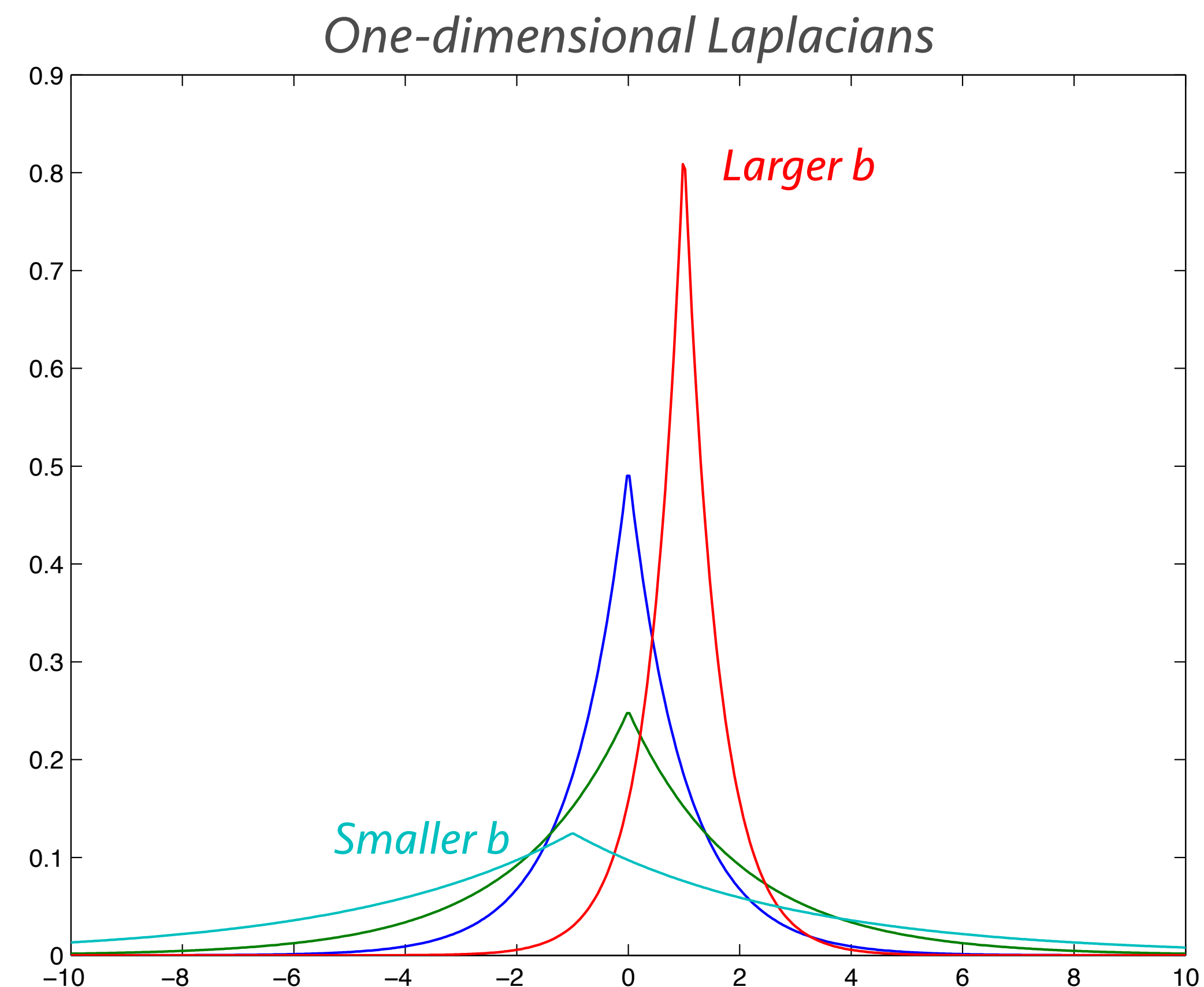
– by Tang Yau Hoong

The Laplacian

- Sharper than the Gaussian
 - Uses absolute distance, not Euclidean

$$P(x; \mu, b) = \frac{1}{2b} e^{-\frac{|x-\mu|}{b}}$$

- Mean: μ
- Variance: $2b^2$
- Mode: μ



Beta/Dirichlet distributions

- Defined on a simplex

- $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots = 1$

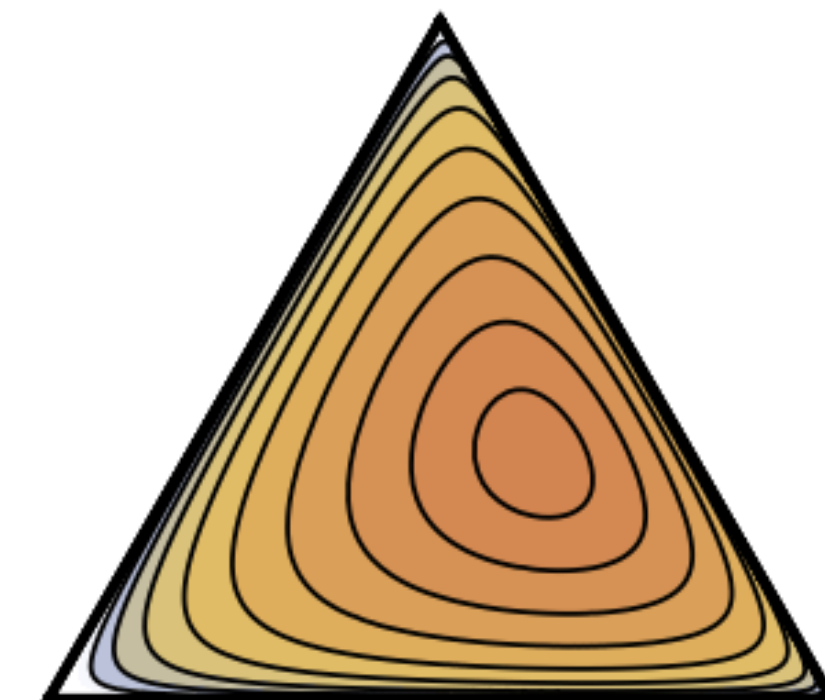
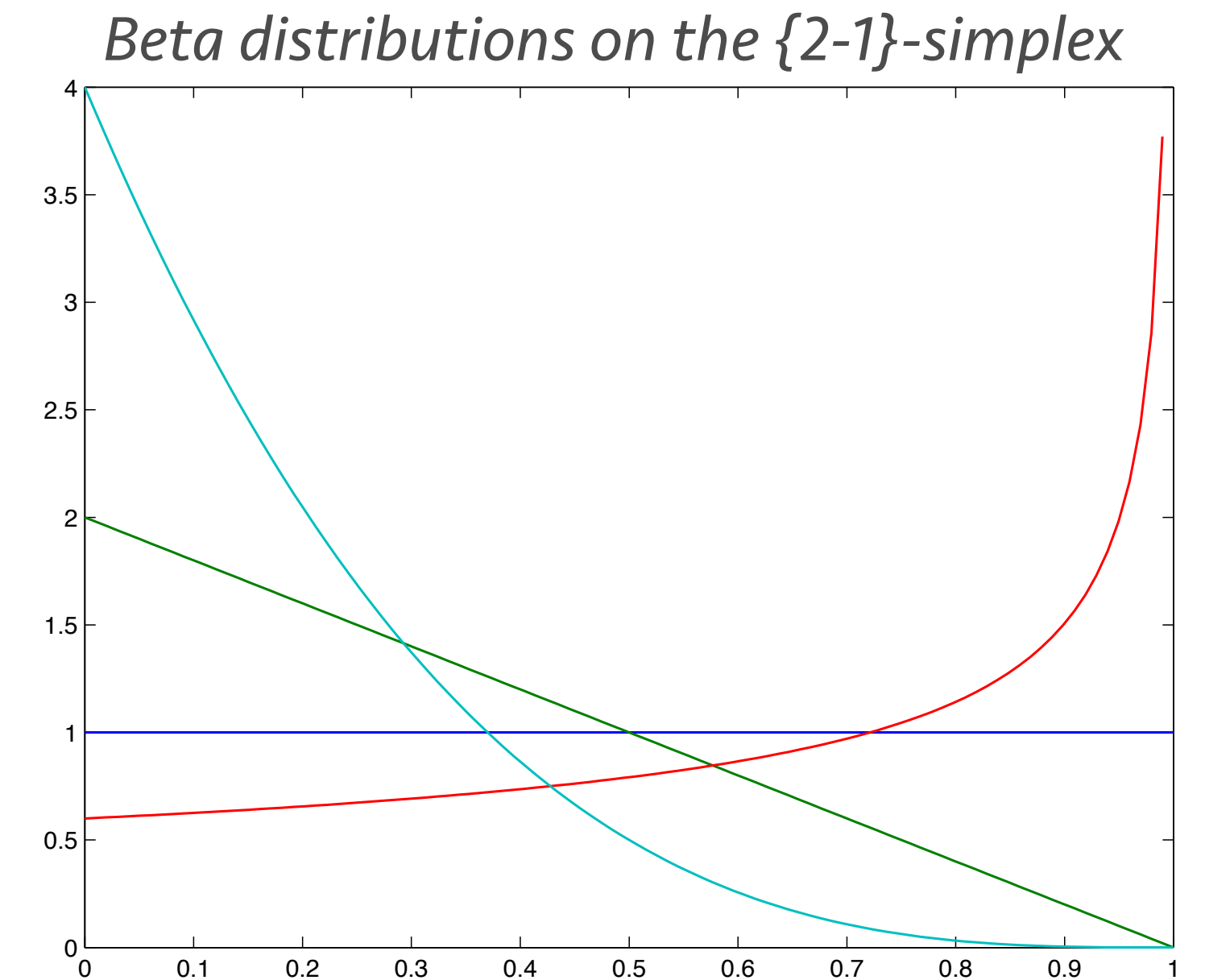
$$P(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{a}) = \frac{\prod \Gamma(a_i)}{\Gamma(\sum a_i)} \prod x_i^{a_i-1}$$

- For 1D the Dirichlet is the Beta

- Mean: $E[x_i] = a_i / a_0$

- Variance: $\text{cov}[x_i, x_j] = \frac{-a_i a_j}{a_0^2 (a_0 + 1)}$

- Mode: $x_i = (a_i - 1) / (a_0 - K)$



Dirichlet distribution on a {3-1}-simplex

The exponential family

- Any distribution that can be written as:

$$P(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(\mathbf{x})g(\boldsymbol{\eta})e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}^\top \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})}$$

- $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ contains the “natural” parameters
- $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$ is some function of \mathbf{x}
- $g(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ is just for normalization

Gaussian example

$$P(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(\mathbf{x})g(\boldsymbol{\eta})e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}^\top \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})}$$

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad h(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-1/2}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\eta} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu / \sigma^2 \\ -1 / 2\sigma^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad g(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = (-2\eta_2)^{1/2} e^{\eta_1^2 / 4\eta_2}$$

$$P(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{h}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}x^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}x - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\mu^2} = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Why this mess???

- Allow us to see a broader picture
- Exponential distributions have convenient properties
 - Sufficiency
 - You won't need more parameters for more data
 - Conjugate priors
 - Make life easy when we perform parameter estimation (more later)



Parameter estimation

- So what do we do with distributions?
 - We like to explain data with them
- To do so we need parameter estimation
 - Find the distribution parameters that result in explaining the observed data best
 - Various ways to go about it

Parameter estimation

- Given some independent samples:

$$\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$$

- and a model:

$$P(\mathbf{X}; \theta)$$

- Find the parameters θ

Maximum likelihood

- The overall likelihood is:

$$P(\mathbf{X};\theta) = P(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N; \theta) = \prod_i P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)$$

- We want to find:

$$\theta_{ML} = \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_i P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)$$

- We can use straightforward solving

Maximum likelihood

- Set the derivative to zero:

$$\frac{\partial \prod_i P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

- Go to the log domain to remove product:

$$\frac{\partial \log \prod_i P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \log P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)}{\partial \theta} = \sum_i \frac{1}{P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)} \frac{\partial P(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta)}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

- Substitute your P and solve

Example

- Mean of Gaussian distributed data

- Define the model:

$$P(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{N}(x_i; \mu, \sigma^2)$$

- Form log-likelihood:

$$\log P(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \mu)^2 - \frac{N}{2} \log \sigma^2 - \frac{N}{2} \log 2\pi$$

- Set derivative to zero and solve:

$$\frac{\partial \log P(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2)}{\partial \mu} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\partial (x_i - \mu)^2}{\partial \mu} = 0 \Rightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

Wait a minute!

- All that to prove the obvious?
- Yes, it is tedious
 - In many cases the answer will be obvious
 - But keep in mind that looks might be deceiving!
- In other cases the answer will not be easy
 - Requiring numerical/approximate optimization

Maximum a posteriori (MAP)

- Sometimes we have a prior belief
 - E.g. we believe the answer should be close to a value
 - Maximum likelihood doesn't incorporate that
 - MAP does
- Same setup as before but in addition to $P(x;\theta)$ we also have a $P(\theta)$

MAP estimation

- We use Bayes' theorem and we now maximize:

$$P(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\theta)P(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta)}{P(\mathbf{x})}$$

- The denominator is constant so we only have to maximize the numerator:

$$\theta_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} P(\theta)P(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta)$$

- Same story as before ...

MAP estimation example

- Estimate the mean, but use a prior:

$$P(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{N}(x_i; \mu, \sigma^2), \quad P(\mu; \mu_0, \sigma_\mu^2) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \mu_0, \sigma_\mu^2)$$

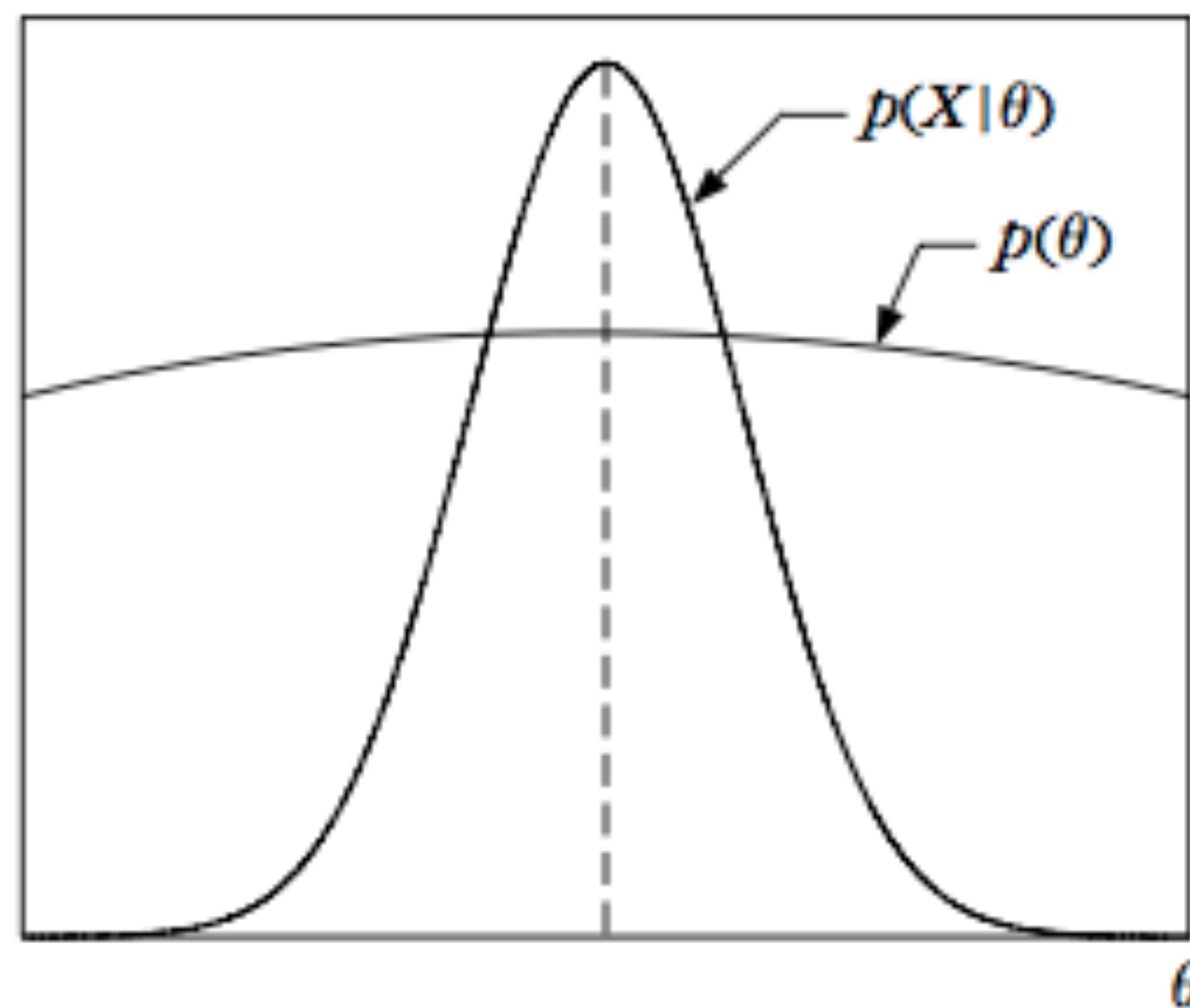
- Take log, differentiate, solve:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \log \prod_{i=1}^N P(x_i | \mu) P(\mu) &= 0 \\ \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (x_i - \mu) - \frac{1}{\sigma_\mu^2} (\mu - \mu_0) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \mu_{MAP} &= \frac{\mu_0 + \frac{\sigma_\mu^2}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i}{1 + \frac{\sigma_\mu^2}{\sigma^2} N} \end{aligned}$$

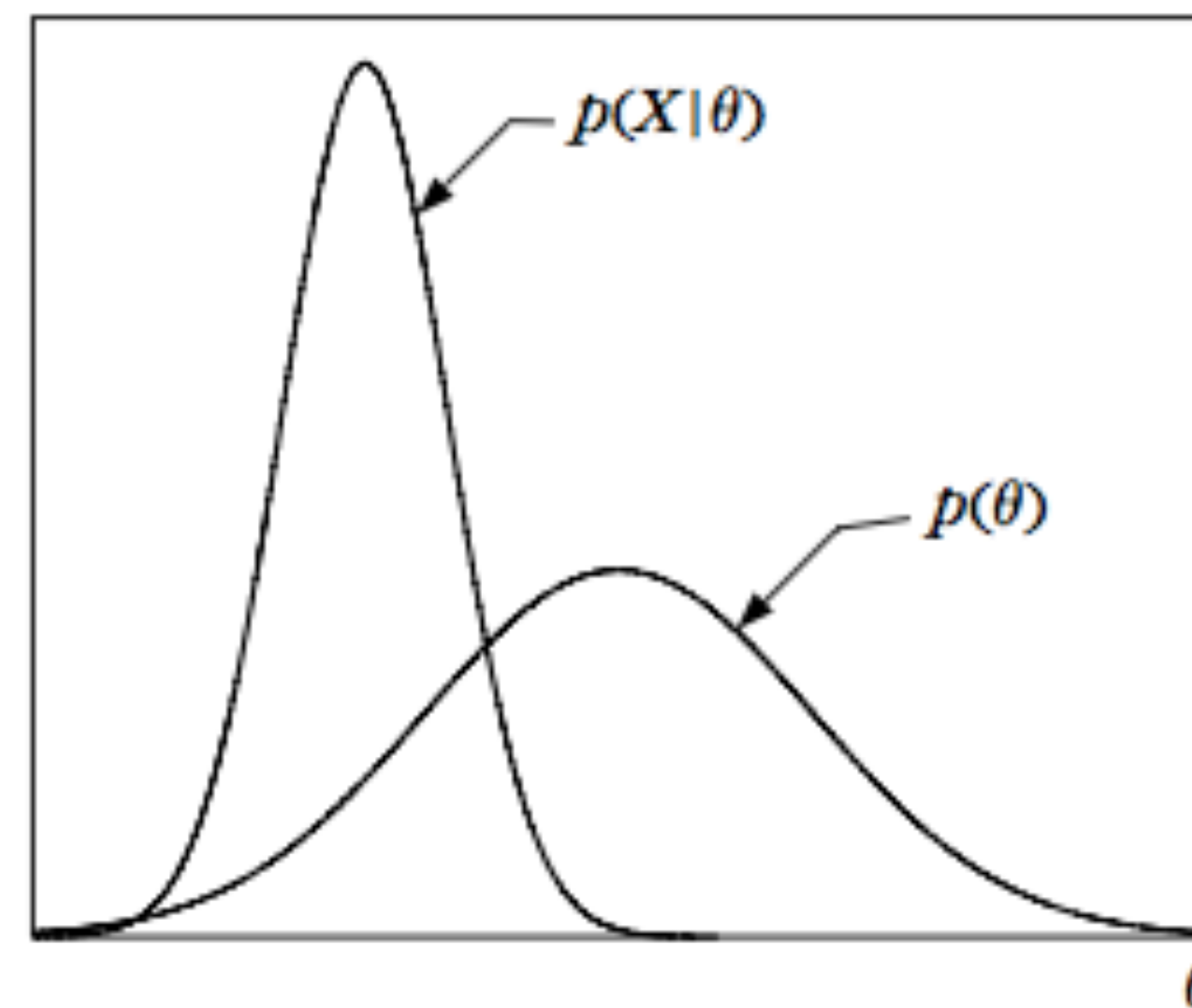
MAP vs. ML

- If $P(\theta)$ is uniform then MAP == ML
 - Otherwise they will most likely not coincide

ML and MAP will be the same

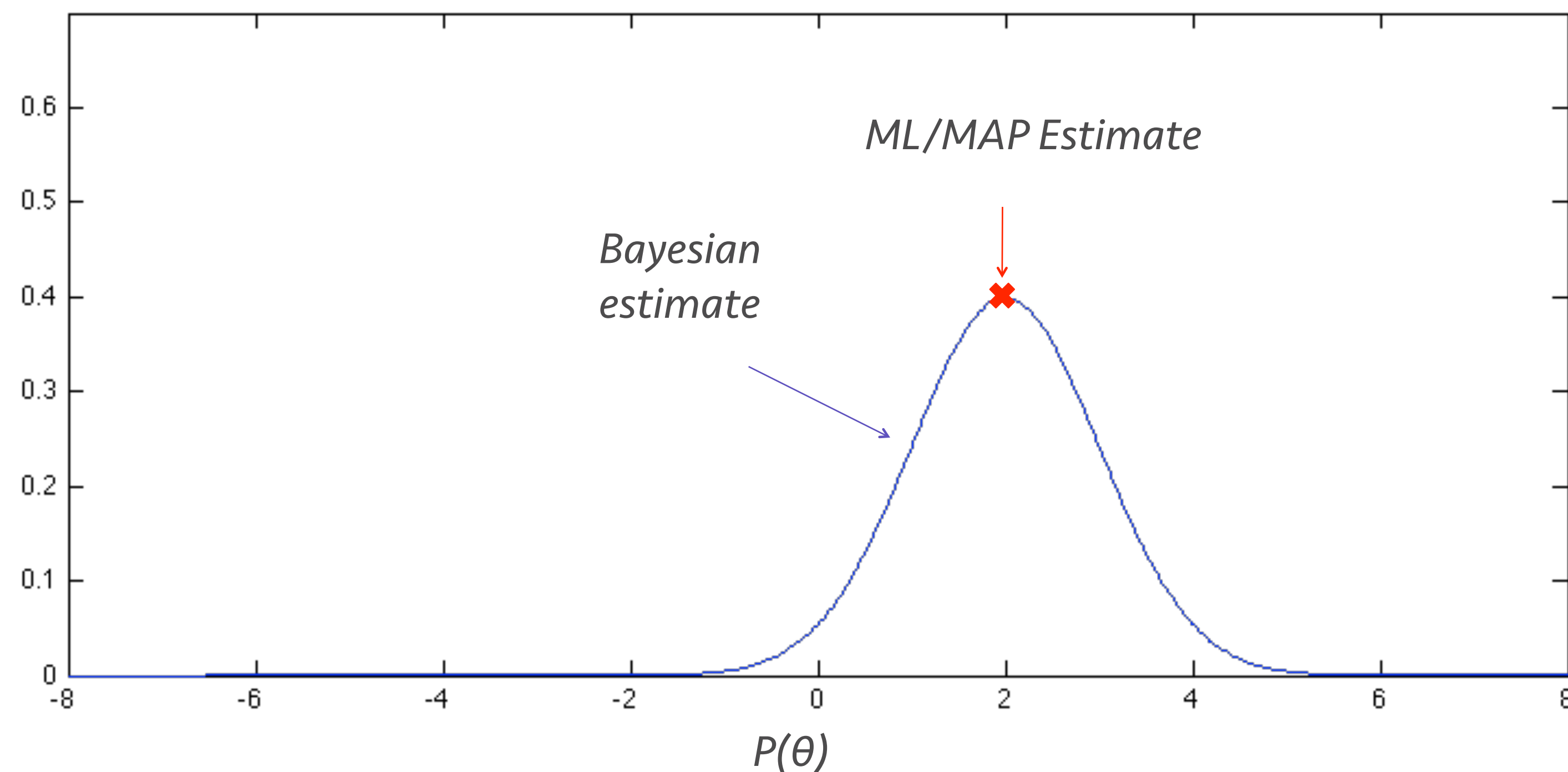


ML and MAP will be different



Bayesian inference

- Bayesian inference doesn't care about the optimal value, it cares about its distribution



Example estimation

- Same setup as in the MAP case:

$$P(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2), \quad P(\mu; \mu_0, \sigma_\mu^2) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \mu_0, \sigma_\mu^2)$$

- We now find the distribution of the mean:

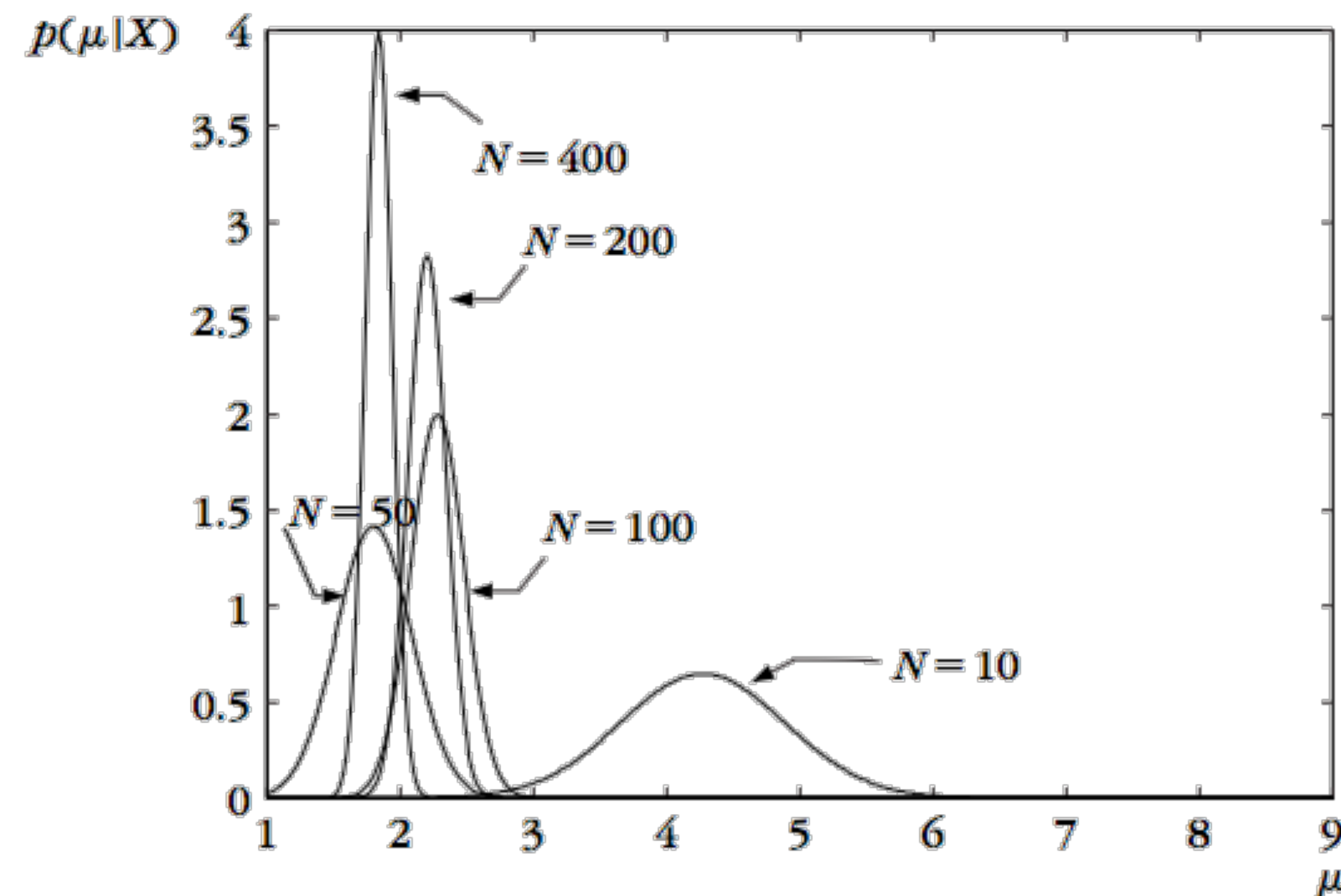
$$P(\mu | \mathbf{X}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} | \mu)P(\mu)}{P(\mathbf{X})} = \dots = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \mu_N, \sigma_N^2)$$

$$\mu_N = \frac{N\sigma_0^2 \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{x}] + \sigma^2 \mu_0}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}, \quad \sigma_N^2 = \frac{\sigma^2 \sigma_0^2}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}$$

- Which is also Gaussian!

Obtaining the estimate

- For different values of N we obtain a different distribution of the parameter we estimate
 - The bigger the N the more sharp the distribution



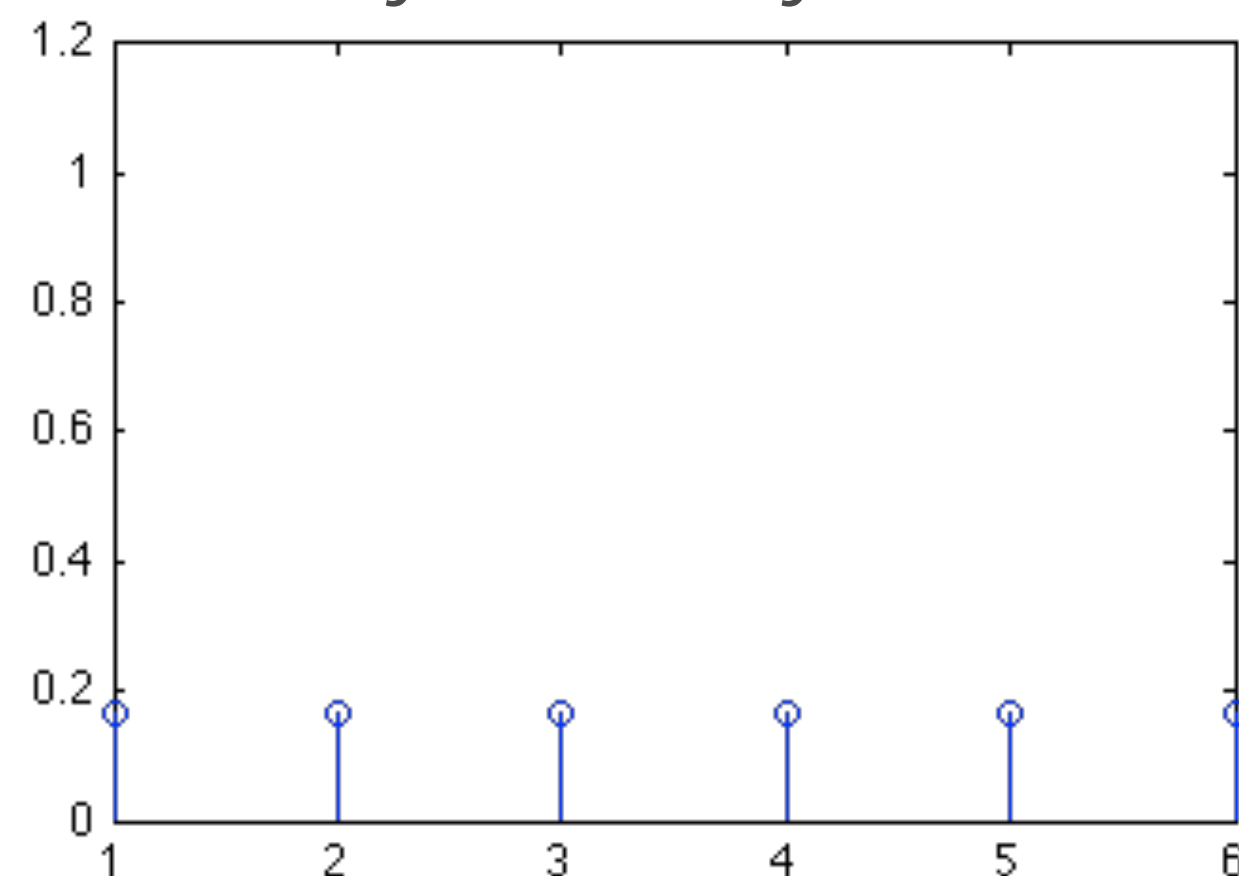
And that was a clean case

- Often the distributions don't work out
- We often resort to numerical solutions
 - Usually sampling (Monte Carlo, etc.)
- And there are many more estimation approaches!
 - We'll see more later in the semester

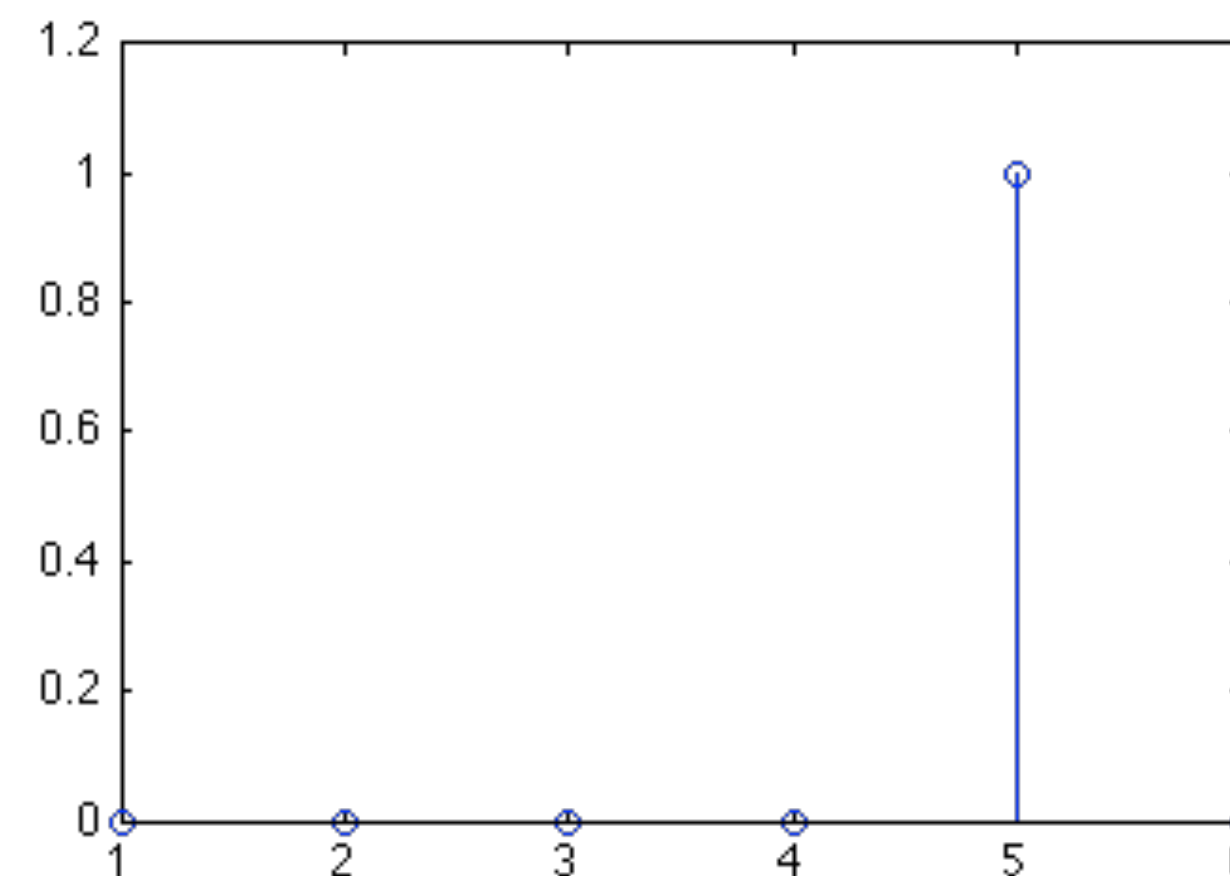
Examining the information in a signal

- **Entropy:** $H(x) = -\int P(x) \log P(x) dx$ or $-\sum_x P(x) \log P(x)$
 $H(x, y) = -\int \int P(x, y) \log P(x, y) dx dy$ or $-\sum_x \sum_y P(x, y) \log P(x, y)$
- A measure of “randomness” in a random variable

*A fair die, $H = 1.79$
There is a lot of uncertainty
therefore more information*



*A heavily biased die, $H = 0$
no message to convey*



Comparing information content

- Mutual information

- Measures amount of shared information

$$I(x, y) = H(x) + H(y) - H(x, y)$$

- If 0 then x, y are independent

- Kullback-Leibler divergence

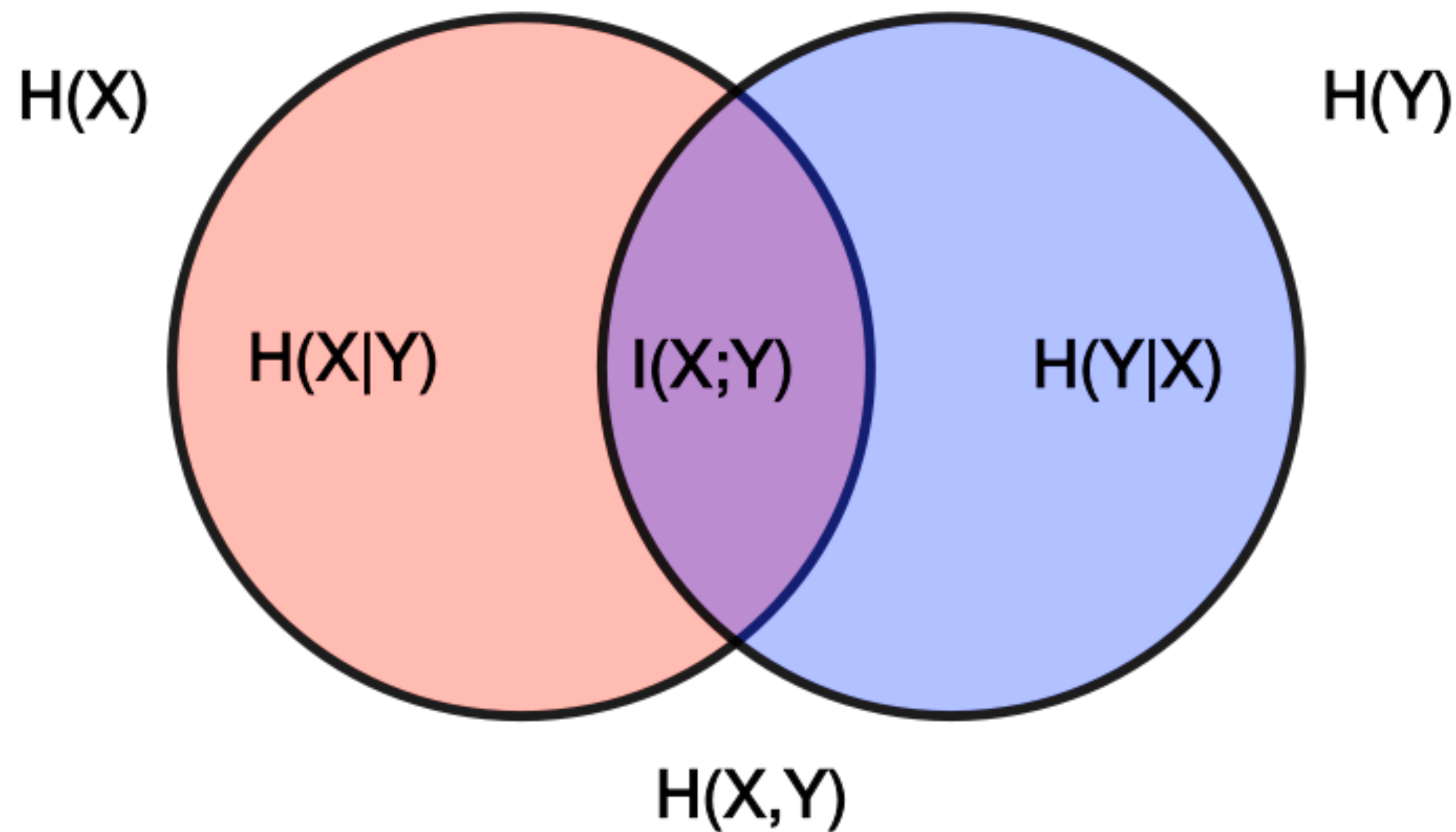
- a pseudo-distance for distributions

$$D(p || q) = \sum p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} \quad \text{or} \quad \int p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$$

$$D(P(x, y) || P(x)P(y)) = I(x, y)$$

- If 0 then p and q are the same

Entropy types



Recap

- Probability
 - sum/product/Bayes rules
- Distributions
 - Gaussian, Laplacian, Dirichlet
- Parameter estimation
 - ML, MAP, Bayesian
- Information theory
 - Entropy, Mutual Info, KL divergence

Too much information?

- You are not supposed to master all this
 - We will be encountering these ideas later
 - This lecture should serve as a reference

Some more reading

- Get textbook from class page
 - UIUC network access only
- Probability basics
 - Appendix 1 of textbook
- Parameter estimation
 - Section 2.5 of textbook

Next week

- Signals refresher
 - “All of DSP in a lecture”