# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

# Frequentist Statistics

Answers the question: What is Data? with

"data is a sample from an existing population"

- data is stochastic, variable
- model the sample. The model may have parameters
- find parameters for our sample. The parameters are considered FIXED.

# Our coin flip example

- in our coins example, the true proportion, called  $p^*$  comes from all possible (infinite) coin flips. We never get to see this
- This of course depends on if our model describes the true generating process for the data, otherwise we can find a  $p^*$  given a population, but still have model mis-specification error
- if we are only given one (finite sample sized) replication, which is the situation in real life, we can only estimate a probability  $\hat{p}$
- In our idealized, simulated case we have many M replications, and thus samples, and we can now find the **distribution** of estimated probabilities  $\hat{p}$

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Lets start by focussing on how to find one  $\hat{p}$ 

# Likelihood

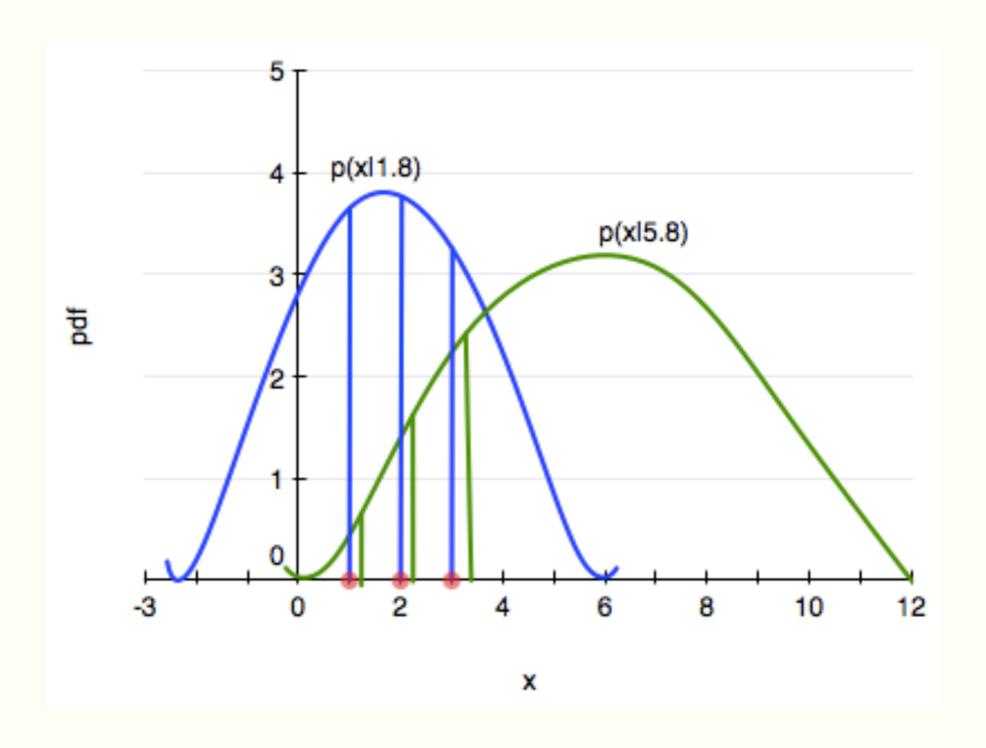
How likely it is to observe values  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  given the parameters  $\theta$ ?

$$L(\lambda) = P(\{x_i\}| heta) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i| heta)$$

How likely are the observations if the model is true?

Remember, if your model describes the true generating process for the data, then there is some true  $\theta^*$ . We dont know this. The best we can do is to estimate  $\hat{\theta}$ .

# Maximum Likelihood estimation



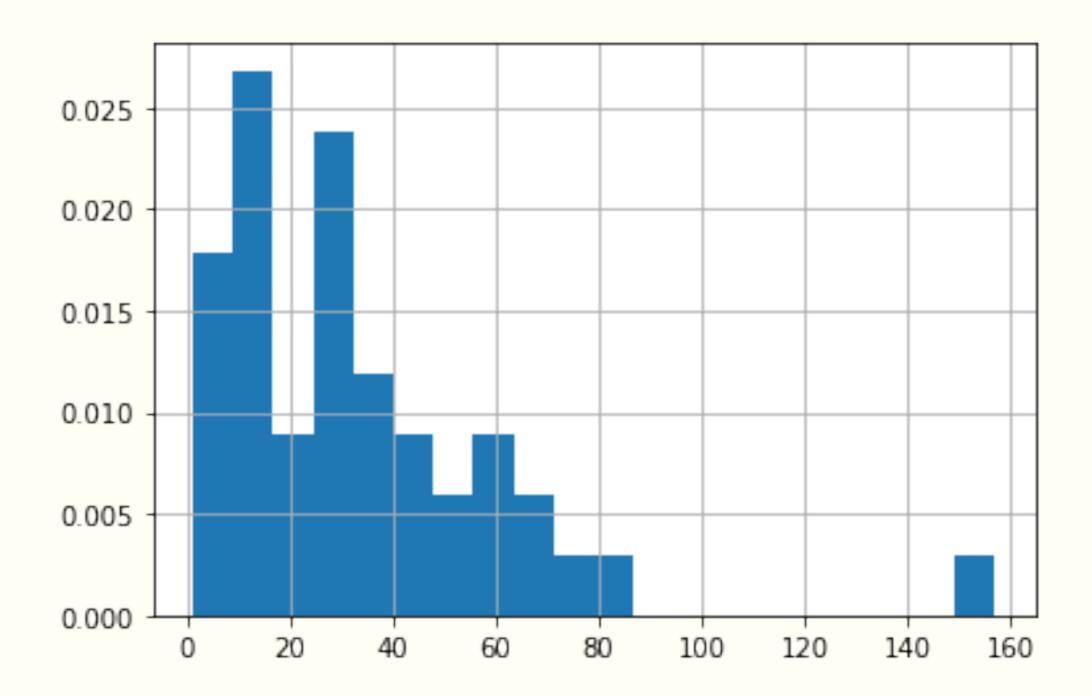
# Example: Exponential Distribution Model

$$f(x;\lambda) = egin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0, \ 0 & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Describes the time between events in a homogeneous Poisson process (events occur at a constant average rate). Eg time buses arriving, radioactive decay, telephone calls and requests for a particular document on a web server

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Consider the arrival times of the babies in a hospital. There is no reason to expect any specific clustering in time, so one could think of modelling the arrival of the babies via a poisson process.



# log-likelihood

Maximize the likelihood, or more often (easier and more numerically stable), the log-likelihood

$$\ell(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n ln(P(x_i \mid \lambda))$$

In the case of the exponential distribution we have:

$$\ell(lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n ln(\lambda e^{-\lambda x_i}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(ln(\lambda) - \lambda x_i
ight).$$

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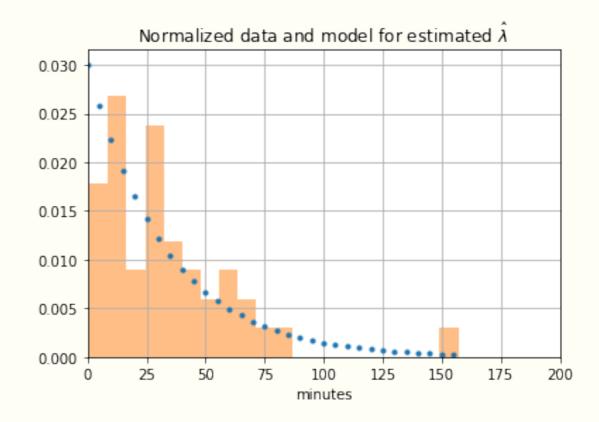
### Maximizing this:

$$rac{d\ell}{d\lambda} = rac{n}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0$$

and thus:

$$rac{1}{\lambda_{MLE}} = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i,$$

which is the sample mean of our sample.



```
lambda_from_mean = 1./timediffs.mean()
minutes=np.arange(0, 160, 5)
rv = expon(scale=1./lambda_from_mean)
plt.plot(minutes,rv.pdf(minutes),'.')
timediffs.hist(density=True, alpha=0.5, bins=20);
```

# INFERENCE: True vs estimated

If your model describes the true generating process for the data, then there is some true  $\theta^*$ .

We dont know this. The best we can do is to estimate  $\hat{\theta}$ .

Now, imagine that God gives you some M data sets **drawn** from the population, and you can now find  $\theta$  on each such dataset.

So, we'd have M estimates.

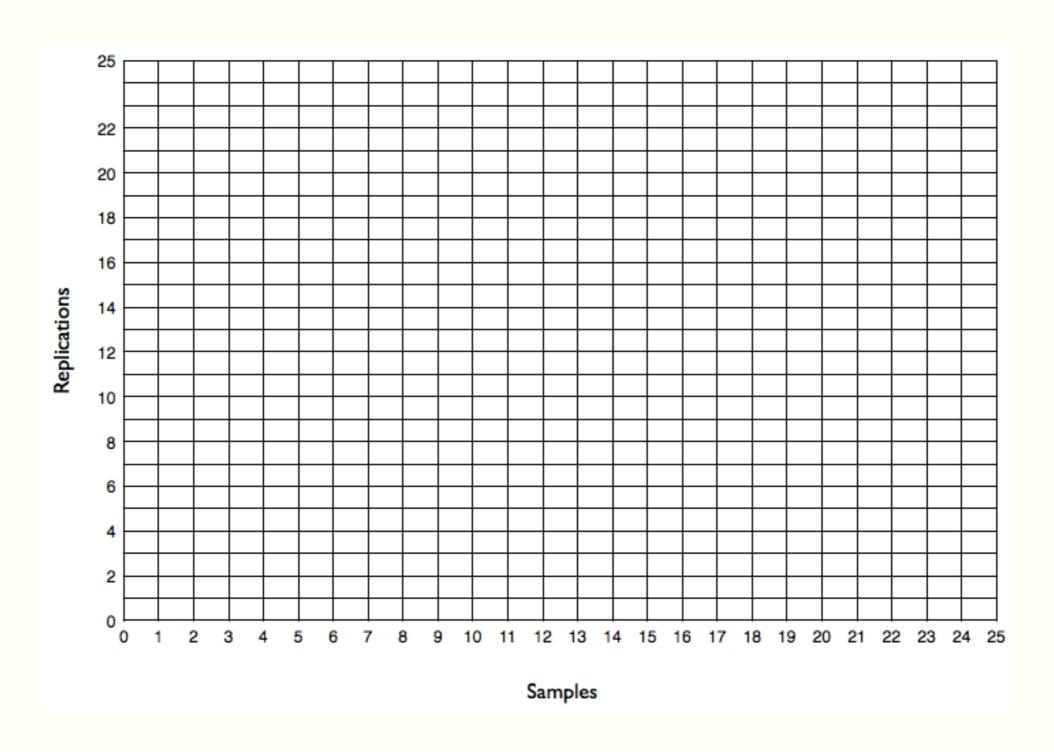
# Sampling distribution

As we let  $M \to \infty$ , the distribution induced on  $\hat{\theta}$  is the empirical sampling distribution of the estimator.

We could use the sampling distribution to get confidence intervals on  $\theta$ .

But we dont have M samples. What to do?

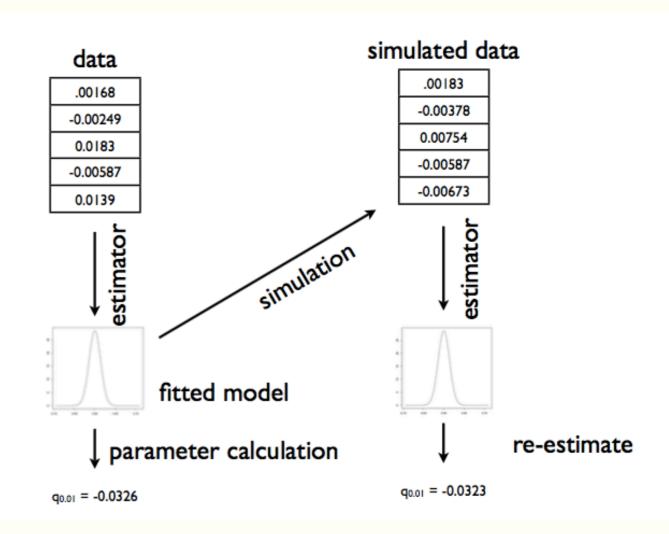
# M samples of N data points



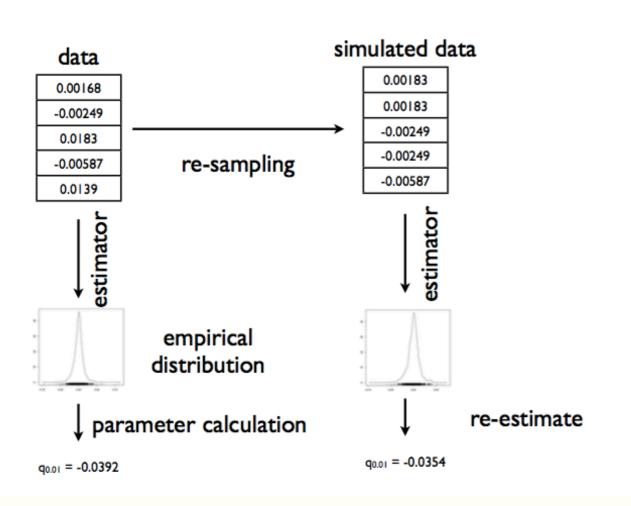
# Bootstrap

- If we knew the true parameters of the population, we could generate M fake datasets.
- we dont, so we use our estimate heta to generate the datasets
- this is called the Parametric Bootstrap
- usually best for statistics that are variations around truth

(diagram from Shalizi)



# Non Parametric Bootstrap<sup>1</sup>



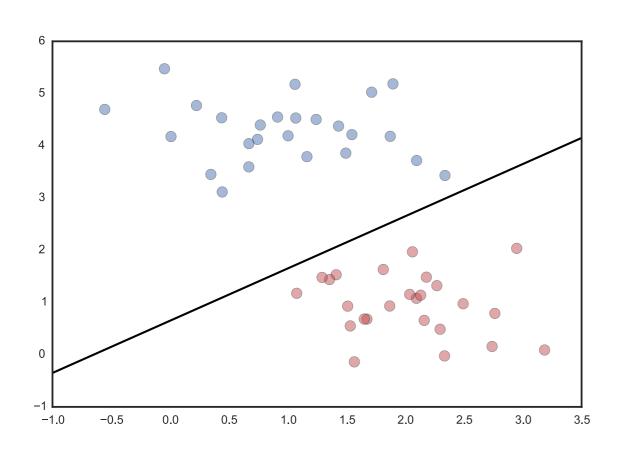
Specification error: what if the model isnt quite good?

Then Sample with replacement the X from our original sample D, generating many fake datasets.

Use the empirical distribution!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> (from Shalizi)

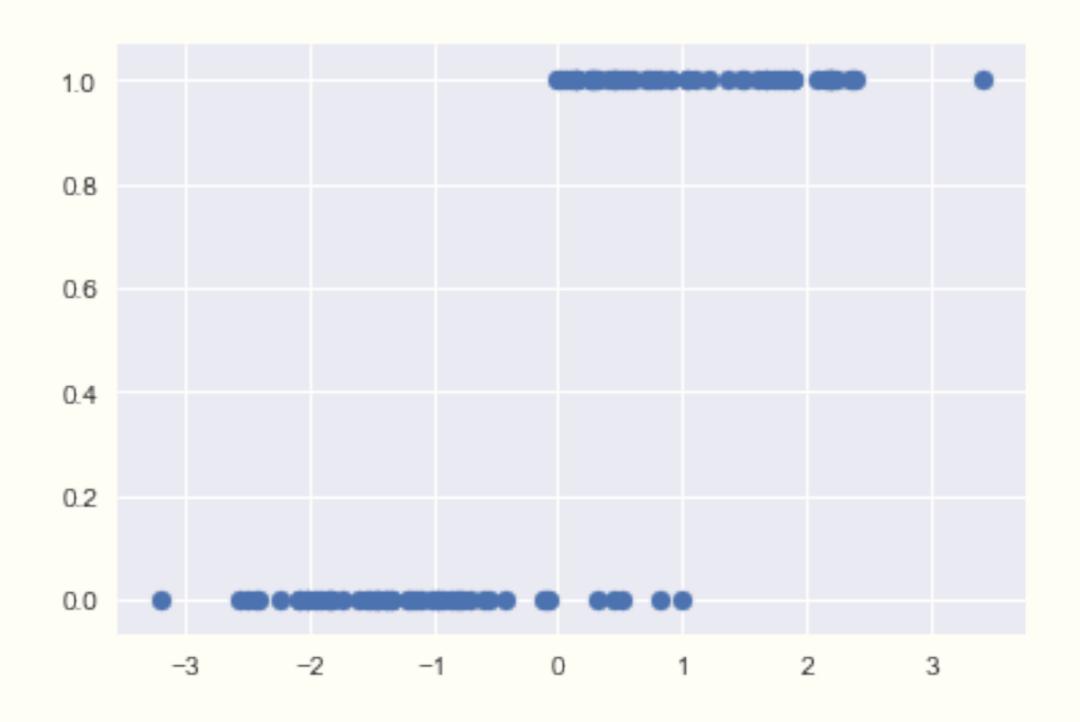
# CLASSIFICATION



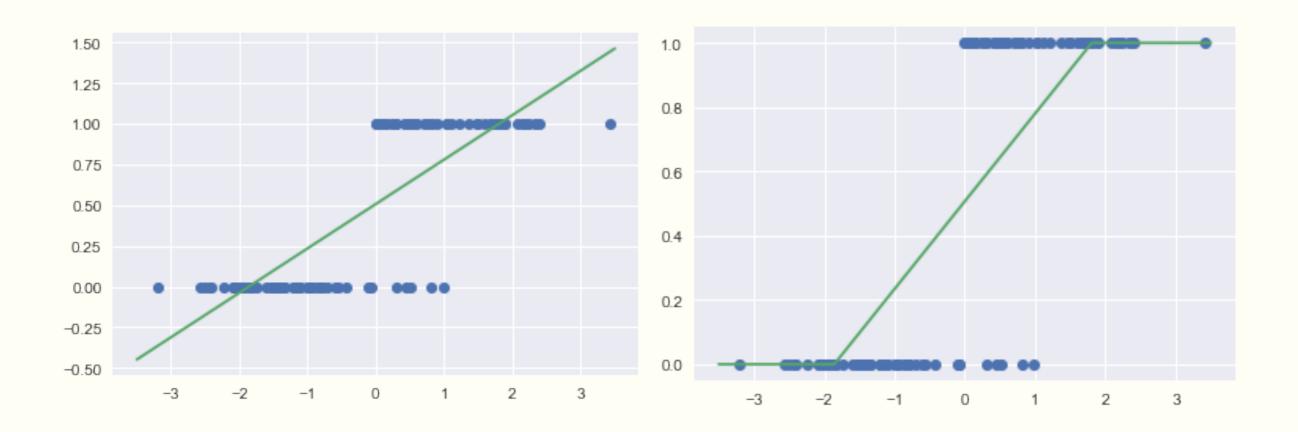
- will a customer churn?
- is this a check? For how much?
- a man or a woman?
- will this customer buy?
- do you have cancer?
- is this spam?
- whose picture is this?
- what is this text about?<sup>j</sup>

image from code in http://bit.ly/1Azg29G

# 1-D classification problem



# 1-D Using Linear regression



# 6 w|x| + w2x2 + b >> 0 5 w|x| + w2x2 + b > 0 w|x| + w2x2 + b > 0 w|x| + w2x2 + b < 0 -1 -1.0 -0.5 0.0 0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5

# Logistic regression..split via line

Draw a line in feature space that divides the '1' (blue) samples from the '0' (red)samples.

Now, a line has the form  $w_1x_1+w_2x_2+b=0$  in 2-dimensions.

Our classification rule then becomes:

$$y=1, \ \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b \geq 0$$
  
 $y=0, \ \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b < 0$ 

Highly positive and negative values go far from this line!

# Sigmoid Function

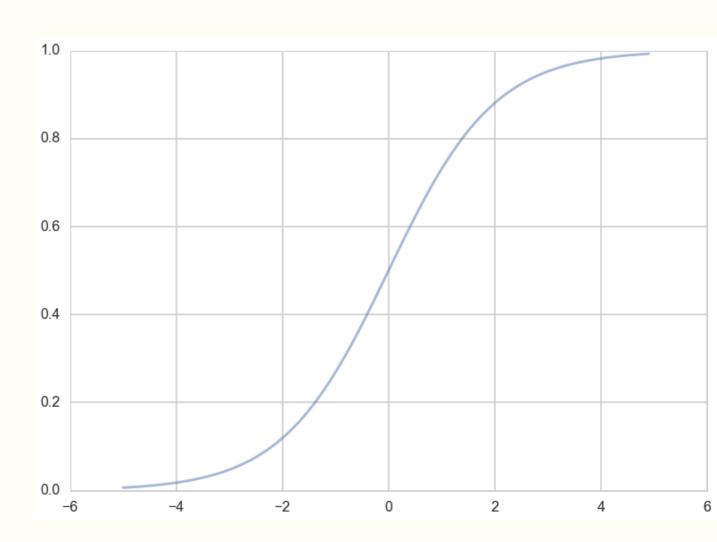
Consider the **sigmoid** function:

$$h(z)=rac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$$
 with the identification

$$z = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b$$

- At z = 0 this function has the value 0.5.
- If z>0, h>0.5 and as  $z\to\infty, h\to1$ .
- If z<0, h<0.5 and as  $z\to-\infty,$   $h\to0.$

As long as we identify any value of h>0.5 as classified to '1', and any h<0.5 as 0, we can achieve what we wished above.



# 1.0 0.8 0.6 0.4 0.2 0.0 -6 -4 -2 0 2 4 6

# Sigmoid Probability

The further away we are from the dividing line, the better our classification.

As 
$$z o \infty$$
 ,  $h o 1$  . As  $z o -\infty$  ,  $h o 0$  .

Pure certainty of a '1' and of not being a '1', respectively.

Identify: 
$$h(z)=\frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$$
 as the probability that the data point is a '1'.

Since  $z = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b$ , this is a affine function FOLLOWED by a **non-linearity**. This is called a Generalized Linear Model (GLM).

# Bernoulli

Then, the conditional probabilities of y=1 or y=0 given a particular data point's features  ${\bf x}$  are:

$$P(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$$
  
 $P(y=0|\mathbf{x}) = 1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b).$ 

These two can be written together as

$$P(y|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)^y (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b))^{1-y}$$

# MLE for Logistic Regression

- "Squeeze" linear regression through a Sigmoid function
- this bounds the output to be a probability
- now multiply probabilities to get the "maximum likelihood" of the data, given the parameters.

Multiplying over the samples we get:

$$P(y|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = P(\{y_i\}|\{\mathbf{x}_i\},\mathbf{w}) =$$

$$\prod_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} P(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b)^{y_i} (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b))^{(1-y_i)}$$

maximum likelihood estimation maximises the likelihood of the sample y, or alternately the log-likelihood,

$$\mathcal{L} = P(y \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$$
. OR  $\ell = log(P(y \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}))$ 

#### Thus

$$egin{aligned} \ell &= log \left( \prod_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b)^{y_i} (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b))^{(1 - y_i)} 
ight) \ &= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} log \left( h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b)^{y_i} (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b))^{(1 - y_i)} 
ight) \ &= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} log h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b)^{y_i} + log \left( 1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b) 
ight)^{(1 - y_i)} \ &= \sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} \left( y_i log (h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)) + (1 - y_i) log (1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)) 
ight) \end{aligned}$$

# Logistic Regression: NLL

The negative of this log likelihood (NLL), also called *cross-entropy*.

$$NLL = -\sum_{y_i \in \mathcal{D}} \left( y_i log(h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)) + (1 - y_i) log(1 - h(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}) + b) 
ight)$$

Gradient: 
$$abla_{\mathbf{w}} NLL = \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i^T (p_i - y_i) = \mathbf{X}^T \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{w})$$

Hessian:  $H = \mathbf{X}^T diag(p_i(1-p_i))\mathbf{X}$  positive definite  $\implies$ 

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# How to calculate?

#### Use Layers.

```
class Layer:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        self.params = {}
        self.grads = {}
    def forward(self, inputs):
        raise NotImplementedError
    def backward(self, grad):
        raise NotImplementedError
```

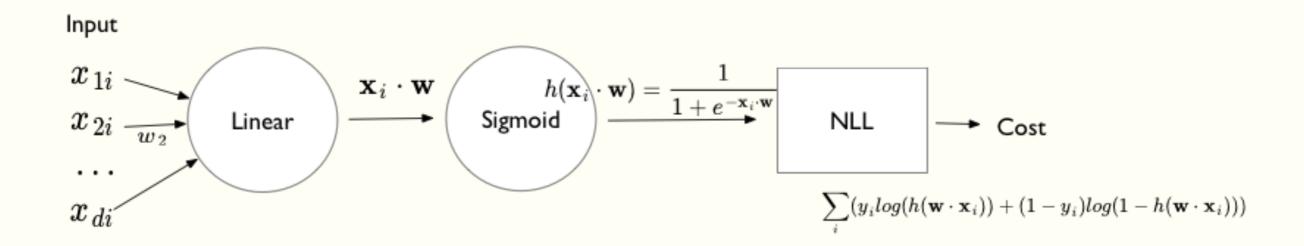
Layers replace functions.

You can think of 3 layers in Logistic Regression.

- 1. Affine Function
- 2. Sigmoid
- 3. Loss.

We will feed the gradients backward from loss to affine.

# Layer based diagram



$$z_{0i} = x_i, \,\, z_{1i} = wx_i + b, \,\, z_{2i} = h(z_{1i}), \,\, Loss = -\sum_i y_i log(z_{2i} + (1-y_i)log(1-z_{2i})$$

# Backpropagation

The *forward* mode, implemented with dunder \_\_call\_\_ makes a **prediction**, thus:

$$\mathbf{M}odel = (\mathbf{f}^3(\mathbf{f}^2(\mathbf{f}^1(\mathbf{x}))), \ Loss = f^4(\mathbf{M}odel).$$
 Loss is scalar.

Backpropagation: pass gradients back through layers:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} Loss = \frac{\partial f^4}{\partial \mathbf{f}^3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}^3}{\partial \mathbf{f}^2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}^2}{\partial \mathbf{f}^1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}^1}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \left( \left( \left( \frac{\partial f^4}{\partial \mathbf{f}^3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}^3}{\partial \mathbf{f}^2} \right) \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}^2}{\partial \mathbf{f}^1} \right) \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}^1}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right)$$

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You **pass in** vector, **always** multiply vector by matrix, get **vector**, pass it **back**. Huge Memory Savings!

# Affine Layer

```
class Affine(Layer):
    def __init__(self, name, input_dims):
        super().__init__(name)
        self.params['w'] = np.random.randn(input_dims, 1)
        self.params['b'] = np.random.randn(1,)
        self.grads['w'] = np.zeros((input_dims, 1))
        self.grads['b'] = np.array([0.])
    def forward(self, inputs):
        self.inputs = inputs
        return inputs@self.params['w'] + self.params['b']
    def backward(self, grad):
        \# (m,n) @ (n, 1) = (m, 1)
        #print("gradshape", grad.shape)
        self.grads['w'] = self.inputs.T @ grad
        \# (n, 1) @ (n, 1) = (1,)
        self.grads['b'] = np.sum(grad, axis=0)
        # return (n, 1) @ (1, m) = (n, m)
        return grad@self.params['w'].T
```

$$rac{\partial Loss}{\partial z_{0u}} = \sum_v \delta_v^1 \; rac{\partial z_{1,v}}{\partial z_{0u}} =$$

grad@self.params['w'].T

Already done these!

$$rac{\partial Loss}{\partial heta^0} = \sum_u \delta^1_u rac{\partial z_{1,u}}{\partial heta^0}$$

$$rac{\partial Loss}{\partial w} = \sum_{u} \delta_{u}^{1} rac{\partial z_{1,u}}{\partial w} =$$

self.inputs.T @ grad

$$rac{\partial Loss}{\partial b} = \sum_{u} \delta_{u}^{1} rac{\partial z_{1,u}}{\partial b} =$$

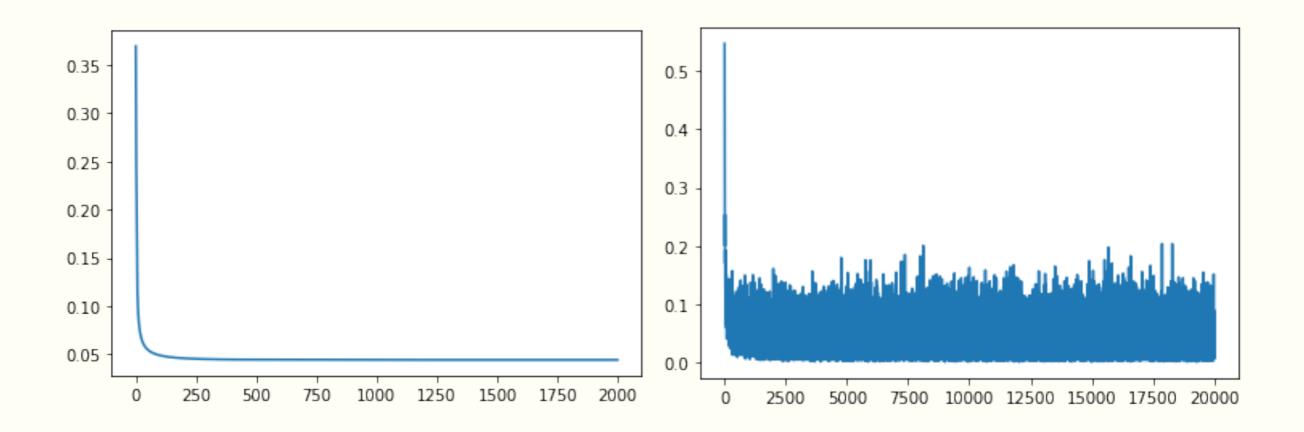
np.sum(grad, axis=0)

# Model holds everything together

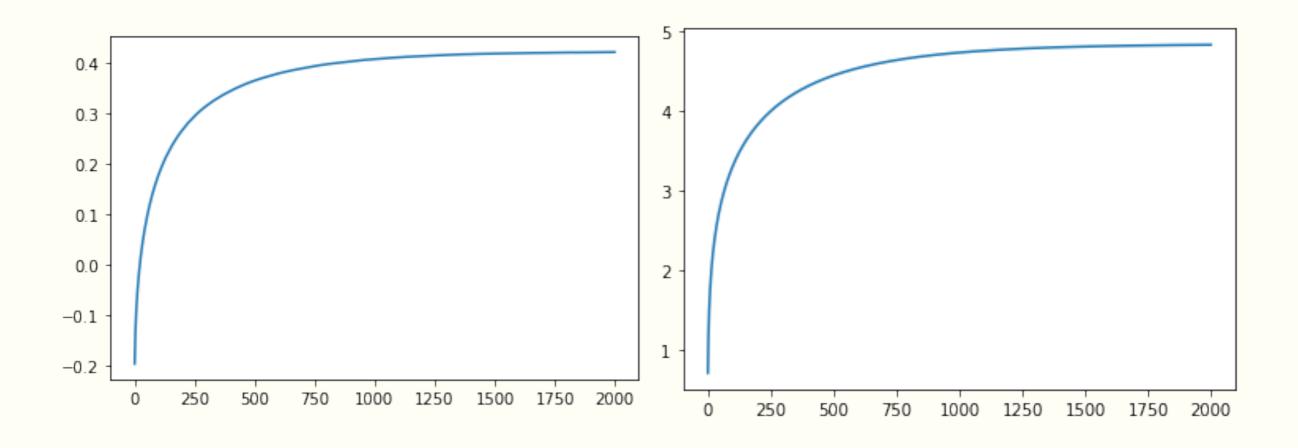
```
class Model:
    def __init__(self, layers):
        self.layers = layers
    def forward(self, inputs):
        for layer in self.layers:
            inputs = layer.forward(inputs)
        return inputs
    def backward(self, grad):
        for layer in reversed(self.layers):
            grad = layer.backward(grad)
        return grad
    def params_and_grads(self):
        for layer in self.layers:
            for name, param in layer.params.items():
                grad = layer.grads[name]
                yield layer, name, param, grad
```

- Dunder forward runs through the layers forward, making a prediction.
- backward runs through them in reversed order, passing the returned gradient with respect to a layer's inputs backwards through the model.
- in python software, backward is implemented automatically!!

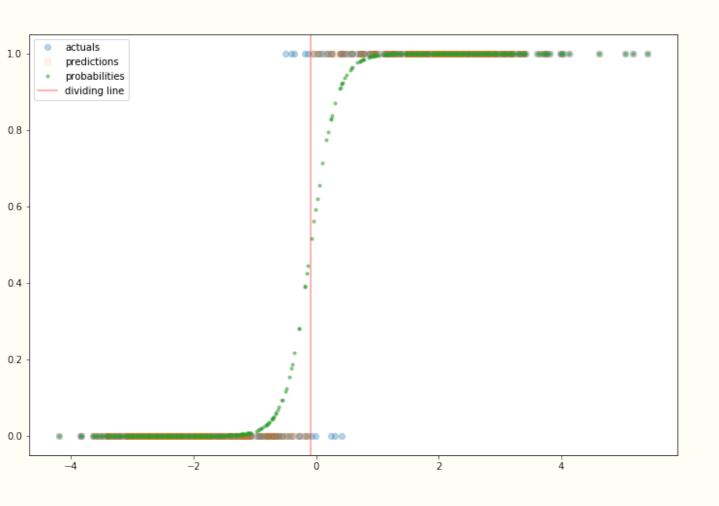
# Losses



# **Parameters**



# Classification Using Logistic regression



$$z = wx = b$$

$$p=h(z)=rac{1}{1+e^{-z}}=rac{1}{1+e^{-(wx+b)}}$$

if  $p \geq 0.5$  classify as positive. We make some misclassifications:

# Sampling Distribution

We have focussed on prediction here.

But its important to realize that a particular sample of 1's and 0s can be thought of as a draw from some "true" probability distribution.

The various "datasets" that can be generated given our probabilities are the samples, and you can get sampling distributions on w and b.

# **Gradient Descent**

$$heta := heta - \eta 
abla_{ heta} J( heta) = heta - \eta \sum_{i=1}^m 
abla J_i( heta)$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate.

#### ENTIRE DATASET NEEDED

```
for i in range(n_epochs):
   params_grad = evaluate_gradient(loss_function, data, params)
   params = params - learning_rate * params_grad`
```