

Machine Intelligence 2

6.1 Maximum Likelihood & Estimation Theory

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Estimation theory

Estimator

An estimator $\hat{P}(X)$ is a **function** that maps from its sample space X (data) to a set of *sample estimates* W

An estimator ...

- is a function of a random variable
- is a random variable
- can be statistically characterized via its moments (mean, variance, ...)
 \leadsto quality criteria: unbiasedness, efficiency

Probability distributions: an example

$$P\left(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}}^*\right)$$

set of observations: $\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\}, \alpha = 1, \dots, p$ from true distribution

Goal: estimate "true" values $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$ from observed data

estimator $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}$:

$$\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} = \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\})$$

- procedure for the determination of $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$ given the observed data
- $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$ is a function of $(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\})$
- $\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}$ are random variables $\rightarrow \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}$ is a **random variable!**

The Maximum Likelihood estimator

the likelihood function

$$\hat{P}(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}})$$

the log-likelihood function

$$\ln \hat{P}(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}}) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^p \ln \hat{P}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}; \underline{\mathbf{w}})$$

the Maximum Likelihood estimator

$$\underline{\hat{\mathbf{w}}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} \hat{P}(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}})$$

Quality criteria for estimators

What are good estimators?

bias: $\underline{\mathbf{b}} = \underbrace{\langle \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} \rangle_{P(x^\alpha; w)}}_{\substack{\text{expectation} \\ \text{w.r.t the true} \\ \text{distribution}}} - \underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$

variance: $\underline{\Sigma} = \langle (\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} - \langle \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} \rangle)(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} - \langle \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} \rangle)^T \rangle_{P(x^\alpha; w)}$

Optimal estimators

no bias: $\underline{\mathbf{b}} \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{only possible if true model within model class}$

minimal variance: $|\underline{\Sigma}| \stackrel{!}{=} \min$

The sample mean

N observations $x^{(\alpha)}$

$$x^{(\alpha)} = A + \epsilon^{(\alpha)}$$

with $\epsilon^{(\alpha)} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Examples for estimators for A :

$$\hat{A} = \frac{1}{N} \sum x^{(\alpha)}$$

unbiased

$$\tilde{A} = \frac{1}{2N} \sum x^{(\alpha)}$$

biased for $A \neq 0$

$$\tilde{A} = k$$

minimum variance but biased

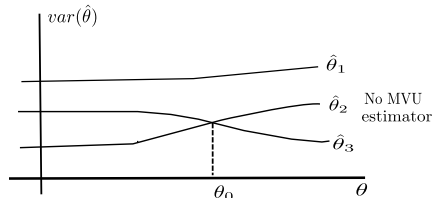
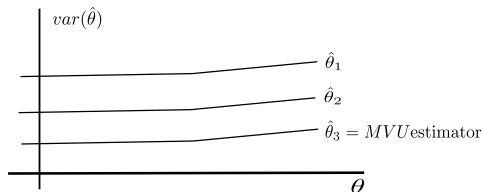
The Minimum Variance Unbiased estimator

Optimal estimators

no bias: $\underline{\mathbf{b}} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$ \leftarrow only possible if true model within model class

minimal variance: $|\underline{\Sigma}| \stackrel{!}{=} \min$

MVU: criteria have to hold for ALL possible values of $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$!



MVUs do not always exist

The Minimum Variance Unbiased estimator

given just observed sample conditionally independent observations with the 2 pdfs

$$x[0] \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta, 1) \quad x[1] \sim \begin{cases} \mathcal{N}(\theta, 1) & \text{if } \theta \geq 0 \\ \mathcal{N}(\theta, 2) & \text{if } \theta < 0 \end{cases}$$

two estimators

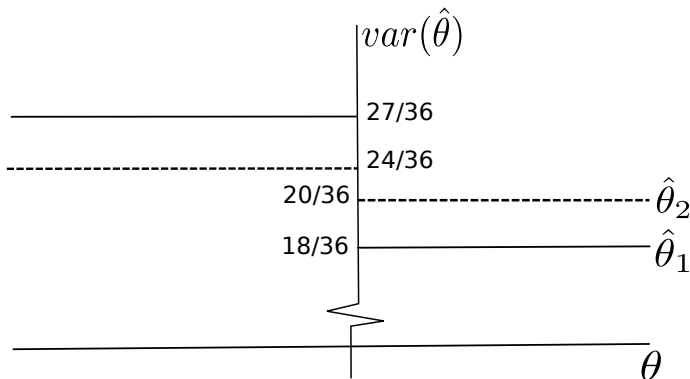
$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x[0] + x[1]) \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{2}{3}x[0] + \frac{1}{3}x[1]$$

variances:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\theta}_1) = \frac{1}{4}(\text{var}(x[0]) + \text{var}(x[1])) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{18}{36} & \text{if } \theta \geq 0 \\ \frac{27}{36} & \text{if } \theta < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\theta}_2) = \frac{4}{9}\text{var}(x[0]) + \frac{1}{9}\text{var}(x[1]) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{20}{36} & \text{if } \theta \geq 0 \\ \frac{24}{36} & \text{if } \theta < 0 \end{cases}$$

Example for the non-existence of MVUs (Kay, 1993)



MVU vs. minimal mean squared error

$$MSE(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}) = E[(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} - \underline{\mathbf{w}}^*)^2]$$

This however does not yield a realizable estimator because

$$\begin{aligned} MSE(\hat{w}) &= E \{ [(\hat{w} - E(\hat{w})) + (E(\hat{w}) - w^*)]^2 \} \\ &= var(\hat{w}) + [E(\hat{w}) - w^*]^2 \\ &= variance + bias^2 \end{aligned}$$

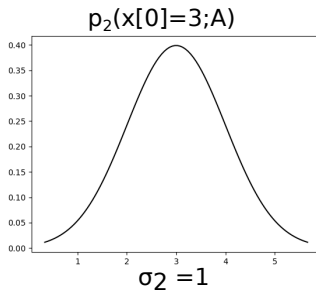
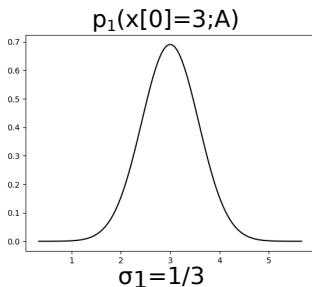
MSE trades bias against variance.

Cramer-Rao bound for unbiased estimators

The stronger a PDF depends on its parameters, the more accurate will their estimates be.

N observations $x^{(\alpha)}$ with $\epsilon^{(\alpha)} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

$$x^{(\alpha)} = A + \epsilon^{(\alpha)}, \quad \hat{A} = \frac{1}{N} \sum x^{(\alpha)}$$



Accuracy can be measured by the 'sharpness' of the likelihood function (\leadsto 2nd derivative of the neg. log likelihood).

Cramer-Rao bound for unbiased estimators

Fisher information matrix (Hessian matrix):

$$H_{ij} = - \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 \ln P}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} \right\rangle_{P(x^\alpha; w^*)} \Big|_{\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*}$$

For all unbiased estimators the following holds (Cramer-Rao Bound):

$\underline{\Sigma} - (\underline{\mathbf{H}}^{-1})$ is a positive semidefinite matrix

it follows:

$$\text{var}(\hat{w}_i) \geq [H^{-1}]_{ii} \text{ for all } i$$

Variance of an estimator $> 1/\text{Fisher Information}$

This is a universal lower bound on the variance of estimators. The bound is tight.

Example: CRB for a scalar parameter w

The property of "positive semidefinite":

$$\sigma_w^2 - \left\{ - \left\langle \frac{d^2 \ln P}{dw^2} \right\rangle_{p|\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*} \right\}^{-1} \geq 0$$

$$\sigma_w^2 > - \frac{1}{\left\langle \frac{d^2 \ln P}{dw^2} \right\rangle_{p|\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*}}$$

Comment

Fisher information: precision of the estimator / interesting measure for evaluating data representations

Good estimators

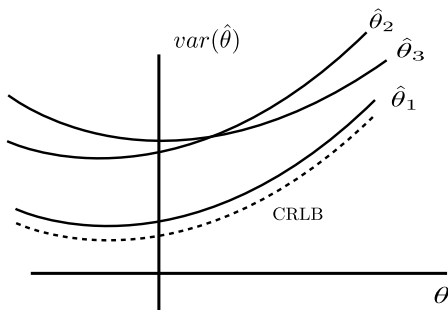
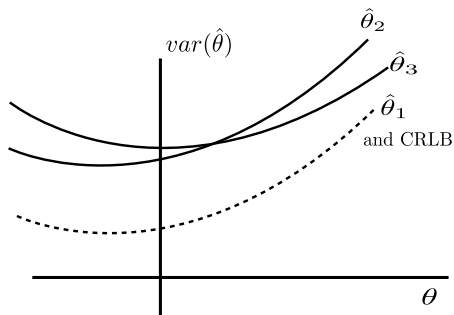
efficient estimator:

$$\underline{\mathbf{b}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}} \text{ and } \underline{\Sigma} = \underline{\mathbf{H}}^{-1} \quad \leftarrow \text{variance assumes lower bound}$$

unbiased minimum variance estimator:

$$\underline{\mathbf{b}} = \underline{\mathbf{0}} \text{ and } |\underline{\Sigma} - \underline{\mathbf{H}}^{-1}| \stackrel{!}{=} \min_{\text{all estimators}}$$

Illustration: Cramer-Rao bound



Asymptotic optimality

An estimator is said to be **asymptotically unbiased** if for $p \rightarrow \infty$ (limit of infinite sample size):

$$E(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}) \rightarrow \underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$$

An estimator is said to be **asymptotically efficient** if for $p \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\text{var}(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}) \rightarrow \text{Cramer Rao lower bound}$$

An estimator is said to be **consistent** if it converges to the true value for $p \rightarrow \infty$ and is asymptotically unbiased.

Results for the Maximum Likelihood estimator

$$P(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}^{(\alpha)}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}})$$

normalized and two times differentiable

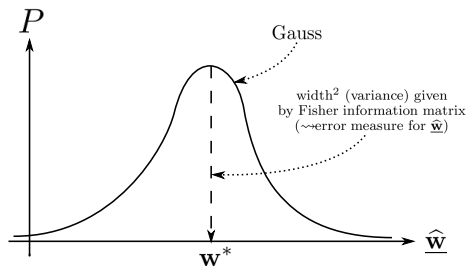
$$H_{ij} = - \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 \ln P}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} \right\rangle_{P(x^\alpha; w^*)}$$

Fisher information matrix

The Maximum Likelihood estimator is consistent and asymptotically unbiased and efficient.

$$\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*, \underline{\mathbf{H}}_{(\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*)}^{-1})$$

asymptotically Gaussian distributed



Summary

- An estimator is a random variable.
- \Rightarrow It can only be analyzed statistically (e.g. mean, variance, shape of distribution).
- biased & unbiased estimators
- Minimum Variance Unbiased estimator (MVU) has smallest variance for **all values** of the true parameter

MVUs and the Cramer-Rao bound

- Minimum Variance Unbiased estimators do not always exist
- Cramer Rao Bound provides a universal bound but may not be realizable

Outlook

Inclusion of prior knowledge

- MLEs: no prior knowledge regarding 'reasonable' parameter values
- Maximum A Posteriori estimates (MAP) incorporate such knowledge via Bayes Theorem (\leadsto regularisation)

$$p(\underline{\mathbf{w}}|\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \propto p(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|\underline{\mathbf{w}})p(\underline{\mathbf{w}})$$

- Beyond point estimates: Bayesian statistics. A complete (probabilistic) treatment should exploit the degrees of belief in a given model (set of parameters)

Model Fitting: Bayes & Maximum Likelihood

Estimators revisited

set of observations: $\{x^{(\alpha)}\}, \alpha = 1, \dots, p$

$$P\left(\{x^{(\alpha)}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}}^*\right)$$

drawn from the true distribution: $x^{(\alpha)} \in \{1, 2\}$

Goal: estimate "true" values $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$ from observed data

estimator $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}$:

$$\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}} = \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}(\{x^{(\alpha)}\})$$

- procedure for the determination of $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$ given the observed data
- $\underline{\mathbf{w}}^*$ is a function of $(\{x^{(\alpha)}\})$
- $x^{(\alpha)}$ are random variables $\rightarrow \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}$ is a **random variable**!

A two-armed bandit task



$$\mathcal{R}(x=1) = \begin{cases} 1, p = 0.7 \\ 0, p = 0.3 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{R}(x=2) = \begin{cases} 1, p = 0.3 \\ 0, p = 0.7 \end{cases}$$

$$Q^{(\alpha+1)}(x^{(\alpha)}) = Q^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) + w^{(1)}(R^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) - Q^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}))$$

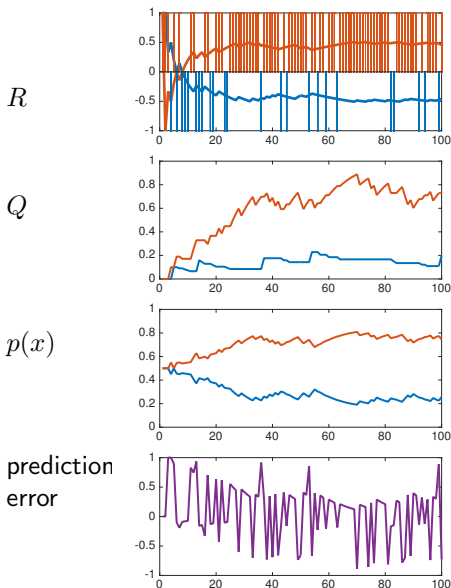
$$p^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) = \frac{e^{w^{(2)}} Q(x^{(\alpha)})}{\sum_i e^{w^{(2)}} Q(x_i)}$$

$$P(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\}; \underline{\mathbf{w}}^*) = \prod_{\alpha=1}^p p^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)})$$

"true" parameters:

$$w^{(1)} = 0.1, w^{(2)} = 2, Q^{(1)}(x=1) = Q^{(1)}(x=2) = 0$$

Agents playing games



$x = 1$ $x = 2$

average (per trial) cumulative
reward from the actions 1 and 2.

corresponding Q values

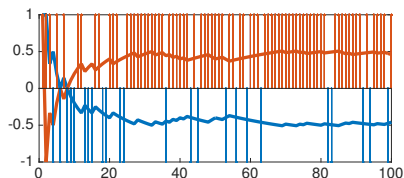
probability of actions 1 and 2

reward prediction error for the
chosen action
 $\delta^{(\alpha)} = R^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) - Q^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)})$

Model fitting

Data generated using the "true" parameters

$$w^{(1)} = 0.1, w^{(2)} = 2, Q^{(1)}(x=1) = Q^{(1)}(x=2) = 0$$

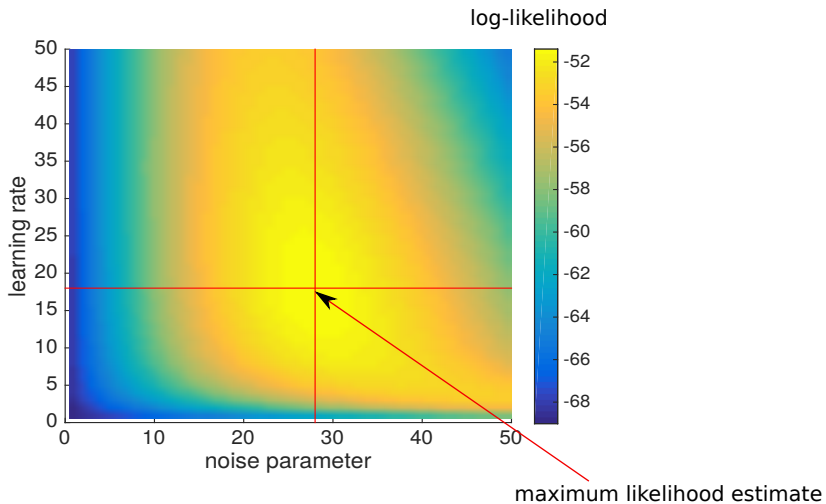


- compute the corresponding log-likelihood function:

$$\mathcal{L}(\{\underline{\mathbf{x}}\}; \underline{\hat{\mathbf{w}}}) = \ln\left(\prod_{\alpha=1}^p p^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)})\right) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^p (w^{(1)} Q(x^{(\alpha)}) - \ln(\sum_i e^{w^{(2)} Q(x_i)}))$$

- choose $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{w}}}$ which correspond to the maximum of the log-likelihood function.

Model fitting: grid search



"true" parameters $w^{(1)} = 0.1, w^{(2)} = 2, Q^{(1)}(x = 1) = Q^{(1)}(x = 2) = 0$

Model comparison

To avoid overfitting, we compare models according to the model evidence

$$P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M) = \int P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M, \underline{\mathbf{w}})P(\underline{\mathbf{w}}|M)d\underline{\mathbf{w}}$$

which requires computing very high-dimensional integral and analytically intractable posterior distributions.

We can use a Gaussian distribution to approximate $P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M, \underline{\mathbf{w}})P(\underline{\mathbf{w}}|M) := f(\underline{\mathbf{w}})$ around its mode $\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP}$:

$$\int f(\underline{\mathbf{w}})d\underline{\mathbf{w}} \approx f(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP}) \int \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\underline{\mathbf{w}}-\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP})^T H(\underline{\mathbf{w}}-\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP}))d\underline{\mathbf{w}} = f(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP})2\pi^{\frac{n}{2}} H^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Laplace approximation

$$\ln(P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M)) \approx \underbrace{\ln(P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M, \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP}))}_{\text{log likelihood at the optimized parameters}} + \underbrace{\ln(P(\hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_{MAP}|M)) + \frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(|H|)}_{\text{penalizes model complexity}}$$

Model comparison

■ Bayesian Information Criterion

- BIC simplifies Laplace approximation by assuming that the sample size is large and retains terms which grow with the number of data points only.
- Prior over parameters: Gaussian with broad variance (large sample size); data: iid distributed $\ln(|H|) \approx n \ln(p)$. Only terms $\mathcal{O}(\ln(p))$ are retained.

$$BIC \approx \ln(P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M, \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_M)) - \frac{n}{2} \ln(p)$$

n = number of free parameters

■ other penalized scores for model comparison:

- $AIC = \ln(P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}|M, \hat{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}_M)) - n$, penalizes the number of parameters less strongly than does BIC
- $DIC = D(\bar{\underline{\mathbf{w}}}) + 2p_D$, a hierarchical modeling generalization of the Bayesian information criteria, model complexity measured by estimate of the effective number of parameters.
- WAIC, LOO...

Model comparison

- Data generated using the "true" parameters
 $w^{(1)} = 0.1, w^{(2)} = 2, Q^{(1)}(x=1) = Q^{(1)}(x=2) = 0$
- model 1: 2 free parameters: $w^{(1)}, w^{(2)}$.
- model 2: 3 free parameters:
 $w^{(1)}, w^{(2)}, w^{(3)} = Q^{(1)}(x=1) = Q^{(1)}(x=2)$
- maximum likelihood estimate (grid search):
 Model1: $\hat{w}^1 = 0.009, \hat{w}^2 = 2.8$
 Model2: $\hat{w}^1 = 0.009, \hat{w}^2 = 4.9, \hat{w}^3 = 2.8$
- model comparison by BIC scores:

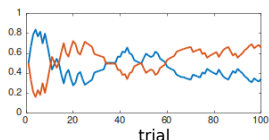
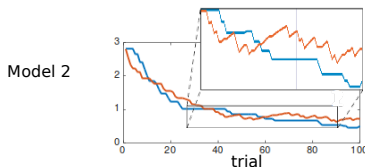
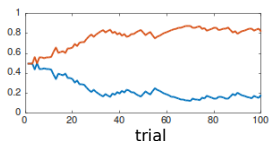
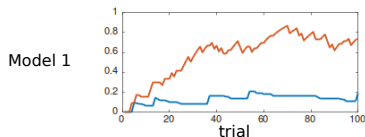
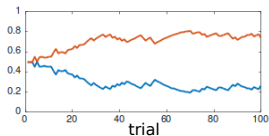
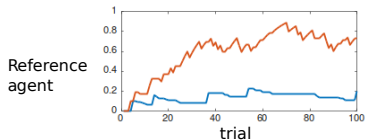
$$\text{BIC}_1 = -51.36 - \frac{2}{2} \ln(100) = -55.97$$

$$\text{BIC}_2 = -51.42 - \frac{3}{2} \ln(100) = -58.33$$

$$\text{BIC}_{\text{random}} = 100 \ln(0.5) = -69.32$$

Model performance

$$Q^{(\alpha+1)}(x^{(\alpha)}) = Q^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) + w^{(1)}(R^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) - Q^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)})) \quad p^{(\alpha)}(x^{(\alpha)}) = \frac{e^{w^{(2)} Q(x^{(\alpha)})}}{\sum_i e^{w^{(2)} Q(x_i)}} Q(x_i)$$



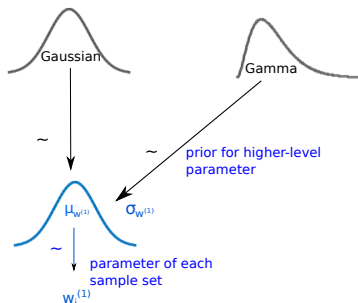
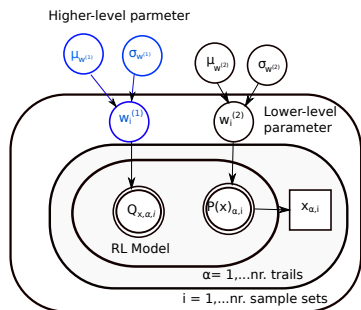
Model fitting: Maximum Likelihood estimation

- nonlinear function optimization: given a function to compute the likelihood with some free parameters.
- local search: likelihood surfaces may not be well- behaved but may have multiple peaks. The optimization may run into local minimum.
- model fitting process is feasible but finicky, which requires ongoing monitoring and tuning.

Choice of priors

- prior information: the likely range of the parameters via $P(\underline{\mathbf{w}}_M|M)$. Adopting a model with parameter priors (typically Gaussian or Beta distributions) gives us a two-level hierarchical model of how a full dataset is produced.
- probability distributions (from each level of the hierarchical model) can be approximated by drawing independent samples: Markov Chain Monte Carlo methods.
- MCMC method: approximating a distribution with a large set of samples and each sample is drawn based on the previous sample

Model fitting: Hierarchical Bayesian analysis



- assume the lower-level parameters come from a Gaussian prior, we can estimate parameters of the higher-level ($\mu_{w^{(1)}}, \sigma_{w^{(1)}}, \mu_{w^{(2)}}, \sigma_{w^{(2)}}$) to see the group differences.

$$P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}_i | \mu_{w^{(1)}}, \sigma_{w^{(1)}}, \mu_{w^{(2)}}, \sigma_{w^{(2)}}) = \int P(\underline{\mathbf{x}}_i | w_i^{(1)}, w_i^{(2)}) P(w_i^{(1)} | \mu_{w^{(1)}}, \sigma_{w^{(1)}}) P(w_i^{(2)} | \mu_{w^{(2)}}, \sigma_{w^{(2)}}) dw_i^{(1)} dw_i^{(2)}$$