

Probability & Statistics for DS & AI

Joint distributions

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What are joint distributions?

Joint distributions are high-dimensional PDF (or PMF or CDF).

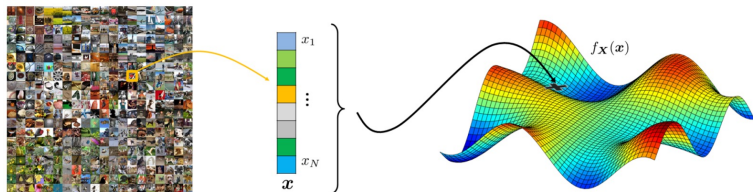
$$\underbrace{f_X(x)}_{\text{one variable}} \implies \underbrace{f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)}_{\text{two variables}} \implies \underbrace{f_{X_1, X_2, X_3}(x_1, x_2, x_3)}_{\text{three variables}} \\ \implies \dots \implies \underbrace{f_{X_1, \dots, X_N}(x_1, \dots, x_N)}_{N \text{ variables}}$$

Notation:

$$f_X(x) = f_{X_1, \dots, X_N}(x_1, \dots, x_N)$$

Why study joint distributions?

- Joint distributions are ubiquitous in modern data analysis.
- For example, an image from a dataset can be represented by a high-dimensional vector \mathbf{x} .
- Each vector has certain probability to be present.
- Such probability is described by the high-dimensional joint PDF $f_X(\mathbf{x})$.



Joint PMF

Definition

Let X and Y be two discrete random variables. The joint PMF of X and Y is defined as

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y) = \mathbb{P}[X = x \quad \text{and} \quad Y = y]$$

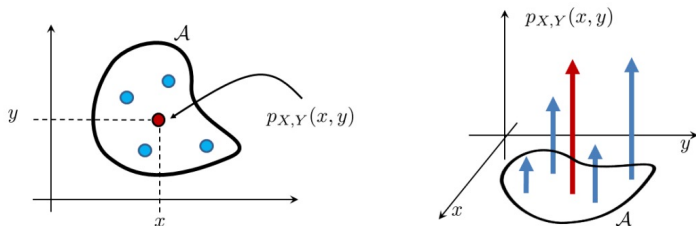


Figure: A joint PMF for a pair of discrete random variables consists of an array of impulses. To measure the size of the event \mathcal{A} , we sum all the impulses inside \mathcal{A} .

Example (Coin and die)

Let X be a coin flip, Y be a dice. Find the joint PMF.

Solution: The sample space of X is $\{0, 1\}$. The sample space of Y is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. The joint PMF is

	Y					
X = 0	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$
X = 1	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{12}$

Or written in equation:

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y) = \frac{1}{12}, \quad x = 0, 1, \quad y = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$$

Example (Coin and die - contd.)

In the previous example, define $\mathcal{A} = \{X + Y = 3\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\min(X, Y) = 1\}$. Find $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}]$ and $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{B}]$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}] &= \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{A}} p_{X,Y}(x,y) = p_{X,Y}(0,3) + p_{X,Y}(1,2) \\ &= \frac{2}{12}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{B}] &= \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{B}} p_{X,Y}(x,y) \\ &= p_{X,Y}(1,1) + p_{X,Y}(1,2) + \dots + p_{X,Y}(1,5) + p_{X,Y}(1,6) \\ &= \frac{6}{12}\end{aligned}$$

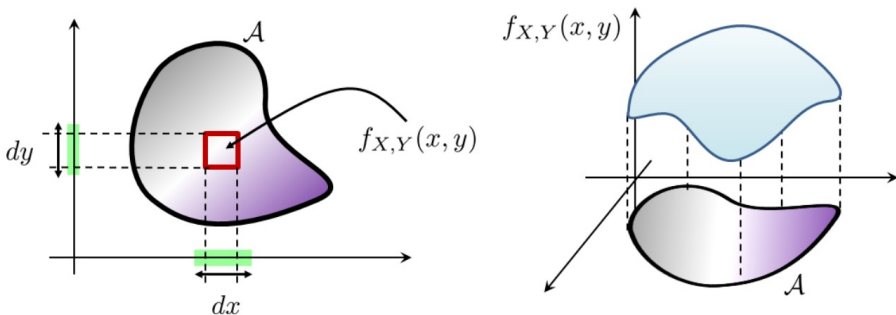
Joint PDF

Definition

Let X and Y be two continuous random variables. The joint PDF of X and Y is a function $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$ that can be integrated to yield a probability:

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}] = \int_{\mathcal{A}} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy$$

for any event $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \Omega_X \times \Omega_Y$



Example

Consider a uniform joint PDF $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$ defined on $[0, 2]^2$ with $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{1}{4}$. Let $\mathcal{A} = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. Find $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}]$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}] &= \mathbb{P}[a \leq X \leq b, \quad c \leq Y \leq d] \\ &= \int_c^d \int_a^b f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy \\ &= \int_c^d \int_a^b \frac{1}{4} dx dy = \frac{(d-c)(b-a)}{4}\end{aligned}$$

Suppose $[a, b] \equiv [0, 1]$, $[c, d] \equiv [0.5, 1.5]$, then

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}] = \mathbb{P}[0 \leq X \leq 1, \quad 0.5 \leq Y \leq 1.5] = \frac{1}{4}$$

Marginal PMF and PDF

The marginal PMF is defined as

$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p_{X,Y}(x, y) \text{ and } p_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

and the marginal PDF is defined as

$$f_X(x) = \int_{\Omega_Y} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad f_Y(y) = \int_{\Omega_X} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx$$

Independence of random variables

Definition

If two random variables X and Y are independent, then

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y), \quad \text{and} \quad f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$$

Definition

If a sequence of random variables X_1, \dots, X_N are independent, then their joint PDF (or joint PMF) can be factorized:

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_N}(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \prod_{n=1}^N f_{X_n}(x_n) \quad (1)$$

Example

- Consider a uniform joint PDF $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$ defined on $[0,2]^2$ with $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{1}{4}$. Let $\mathcal{A} = [a,b] \times [c,d]$. Find $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}]$

In this case,

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = f_X(x) f_Y(y) \quad 0 \leq x, y \leq 2$$

🤔 Why is this important?

👉 It is easy to compute in Python the probability of events of vectors of random variables (multivariate distributions) if we know the independence structure between the random variables. 💕

Example (Python example)

- Let $[a, b] \equiv [0, 1]$, $[c, d] \equiv [0.5, 1.5]$. Compute $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}] = \mathbb{P}[0 \leq X \leq 1, \quad 0.5 \leq Y \leq 1.5]$.
- We can use Monte Carlo approximation.

```
import numpy as np
import random
np.random.seed(12345)
nreps=1000000
x= np.random.uniform(low=0, high=2, size=nreps)
y= np.random.uniform(low=0, high=2, size=nreps)

# Probability of A
condition=np.zeros(nreps)
for rep in range(nreps):
    condition[rep]=(((x[rep]>0) and (x[rep]<1)) and ((y[rep]>0.5) and (y[rep]<1.5)))

count=sum(condition)
freq=count/nreps
print(freq)  #0.250293
```

Example

In the previous example, $\mathcal{B} = \{X + Y \leq 2\}$. Find $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{B}]$

```
import numpy as np
import random
np.random.seed(12345)
nreps=1000000
x= np.random.uniform(low=0, high=2, size=nreps)
y= np.random.uniform(low=0, high=2, size=nreps)

# Probability of B
sumxy=np.zeros(nreps)
for rep in range(nreps):
    sumxy[rep]=x[rep]+y[rep]

freq=sum(sumxy<=2)/nreps
print(freq) #0.4998
```

Not all r.v. are independent!!

- Consider two random variables X and Y with a joint PDF given by

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X,Y}(x,y) &\propto \exp\{-(x-y)^2\} \\ &= \exp\{-x^2 + 2xy - y^2\} \\ &= \underbrace{\exp\{-x^2\}}_{f_X(x)} \underbrace{\exp\{2xy\}}_{\text{extra term}} \underbrace{\exp\{-y^2\}}_{f_Y(y)} \end{aligned}$$

- This PDF cannot be factorized into a product of two marginal PDFs. Therefore, the random variables are dependent.

An interesting case

Example

- A joint Gaussian random variable (X, Y) has a joint PDF given by:

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\left((x - \mu_X)^2 + (y - \mu_Y)^2\right)}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

Find the marginal PDFs $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$

- **Solution:**

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\left((x - \mu_X)^2 + (y - \mu_Y)^2\right)}{2\sigma^2} \right\} dy \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x - \mu_X)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(y - \mu_Y)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} dy \end{aligned}$$

Example

- Recognizing that the last integral is equal to unity because it integrates a Gaussian PDF over the real line, it follows that

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x - \mu_X)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

- Similarly, we have

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(y - \mu_Y)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

- It's immediate to see that $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$, hence X, Y are independent.

Independent and Identically Distributed (i.i.d.)

A collection of random variables X_1, \dots, X_N are called **independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.)** if

- All X_1, \dots, X_N are independent;
- All X_1, \dots, X_N have the same distribution, i.e., $f_{X_1}(x) = \dots = f_{X_N}(x)$.

⚠ Why is i.i.d. so important?

- ▶ If a set of random variables are i.i.d., then the joint PDF can be written as a product of PDFs.
- ▶ Integrating a joint PDF is not fun. Integrating a product of PDFs is a lot easier.

Example

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N be a sequence of i.i.d. Gaussian random variables where each X_i has a PDF

$$f_{X_i}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{x^2}{2} \right\}$$

👉 The joint PDF of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N is

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X_1, \dots, X_N}(x_1, \dots, x_N) &= \prod_{i=1}^N \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{x_i^2}{2} \right\} \right\} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right)^N \exp \left\{ -\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{x_i^2}{2} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Joint CDF

- We can extend the definition of CDF also to vectors of r.v.'s.

Let X and Y be two random variables. The joint CDF of X and Y is the function $F_{X,Y}(x, y)$ such that

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = \mathbb{P}[X \leq x \cap Y \leq y]$$

- We won't say anything more about joint CDFs (see textbook)

Joint Expectation

- Similarly, for the expectation, we can define the **joint expectation**:

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} xy \cdot p_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

if X and Y are discrete, or

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \int_{y \in \Omega_Y} \int_{x \in \Omega_X} xy \cdot f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy$$

if X and Y are continuous.

Covariance

Let X and Y be two random variables. Then the covariance of X and Y is

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$

where $\mu_X = \mathbb{E}[X]$ and $\mu_Y = \mathbb{E}[Y]$.

Remark:

$$\text{Cov}(X, X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(X - \mu_X)] = \text{Var}[X]$$

Theorem

Let X and Y be two random variables. Then,

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

Interesting properties

- For any X and Y

$$\mathbb{E}[X + Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$\text{Var}[X + Y] = \text{Var}[X] + 2 \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Var}[Y]$$

Correlation coefficient

Definition

Let X and Y be two random variables. The **correlation coefficient** is

$$\rho = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[X] \text{Var}[Y]}}$$

- ρ is always between 0 and 1 , i.e., $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$. This is due to the cosine angle definition.
- When $X = Y$ (fully correlated), $\rho = +1$.
- When $X = -Y$ (negatively correlated), $\rho = -1$.
- When X and Y uncorrelated then $\rho = 0$.

Independence

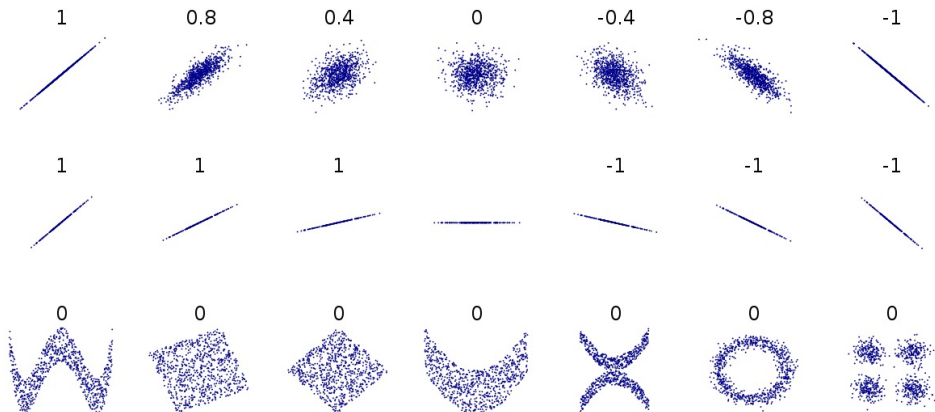
Theorem

If X and Y are independent, then

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

- Consider the following two statements:
 - a. X and Y are independent;
 - b. $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$.
- ⇒ It holds that (a) implies (b), but (b) does not imply (a). Thus, independence is a stronger condition than correlation.

Independence



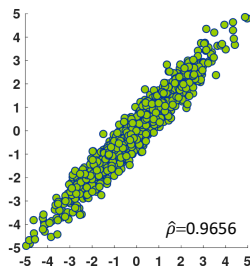
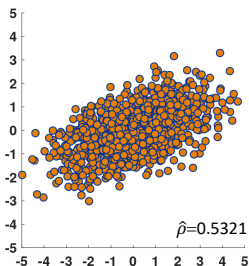
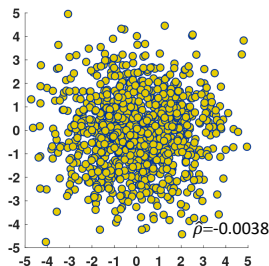
Ideal vs Empirical

Theory:

$$\rho = \frac{\mathbb{E}[XY] - \mu_X \mu_Y}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}.$$

Practice:

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n - \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - \bar{y})^2}},$$



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Conditional Distribution

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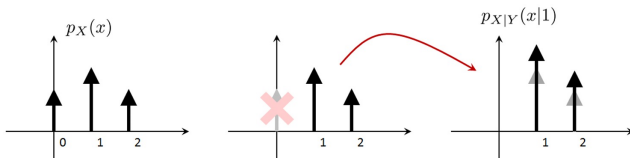


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Conditional PMF

Let X and Y be two discrete random variables. The conditional PMF of X given Y is

$$p_{X|Y}(x | y) = \frac{p_{X,Y}(x, y)}{p_Y(y)}$$



Suppose X is the sum of two coins with PMF 0.25, 0.5, 0.25. Let Y be the first coin. When X is unconditioned, the PMF is just [0.25, 0.5, 0.25]. When X is conditioned on $Y = 1$, then " $X = 0$ " cannot happen. Therefore, the resulting PMF $p_{X|Y}(x|1)$ only has two states. After normalization we obtain the conditional PMF [0, 0.66, 0.33].

See examples 5.17; 5.7; 1.18 in your textbook

Conditional PDF

Let X and Y be two continuous random variables. The conditional PDF of X given Y is

$$f_{X|Y}(x | y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

Conditional Expectation

The conditional expectation of X given $Y = y$ is

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y = y] = \sum_x x p_{X|Y}(x \mid y)$$

for the discrete random variables, and

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y = y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x \mid y) dx$$

- **What is conditional expectation?**
- $\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y = y]$ is the expectation using $f_{X|Y}(x \mid y)$.
- The integration is taken w.r.t. x , because $Y = y$ is given and fixed.

Law of total expectation

Example

- Suppose there are two classes of cars. Let X be the speed and C be the class.
- When $C = 1$, we know that $X \sim \text{Gaussian}(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$. We know that $\mathbb{P}[C = 1] = p$.
- When $C = 2$, $X \sim \text{Gaussian}(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$.
- Also, $\mathbb{P}[C = 2] = 1 - p$.
- Suppose you see a car on the freeway, what is its average speed?

Law of Total expectation

The problem has given us everything we need. In particular, we know the conditional PDFs of X , and the marginal pmf of C :

$$f_{X|C}(x | 1) =$$

$$f_{X|C}(x | 2) =$$

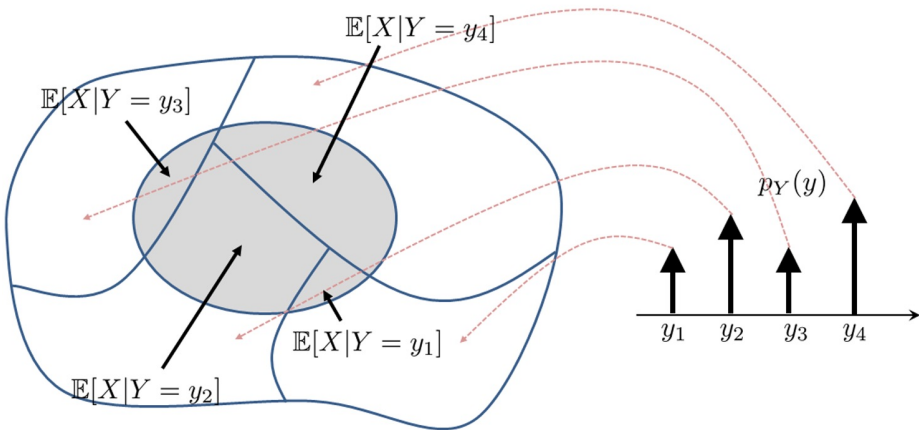
Conditioned on C , we have two expectations:

$$\mathbb{E}[X | C = 1] =$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X | C = 2] =$$

The overall expectation is:

Law of total expectation



Multivariate Gaussian

A d -dimensional joint Gaussian has a PDF

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}$$

where d denotes the dimensionality of the vector \mathbf{x} .

Multivariate Gaussian

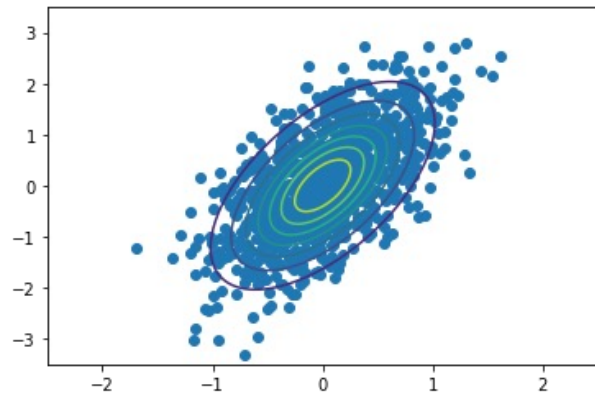
- Random vector: $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_d \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix}$

- Mean Vector:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[X_1] \\ \mathbb{E}[X_2] \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}[X_d] \end{bmatrix}$$

- Covariance:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}[X_1] & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) & \dots & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_d) \\ \text{Cov}[X_2, X_1] & \text{Var}[X_2] & \dots & \text{Cov}(X_2, X_d) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}(X_d, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_d, X_2) & \dots & \text{Var}[X_d] \end{bmatrix}$$



$$(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0.3 \\ 0.3 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

```
# Python code: Overlay random numbers with the Gaussian contour.
```

```
import numpy as np
```

```
import scipy.stats as stats
```

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

```
X = stats.multivariate_normal.rvs([0,0],[[0.25,0.3],[0.3,1.0]],1000)
```

```
x1 = np.arange(-2.5, 2.5, 0.01)
```

```
x2 = np.arange(-3.5, 3.5, 0.01)
```

```
X1, X2 = np.meshgrid(x1,x2)
```

```
Xpos = np.empty(X1.shape + (2,))
```

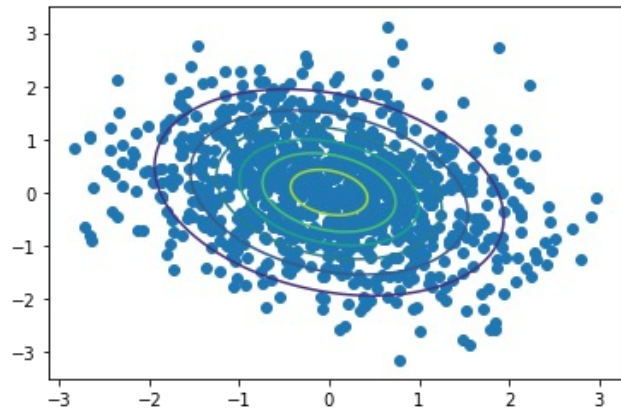
```
Xpos[:, :, 0] = X1
```

```
Xpos[:, :, 1] = X2
```

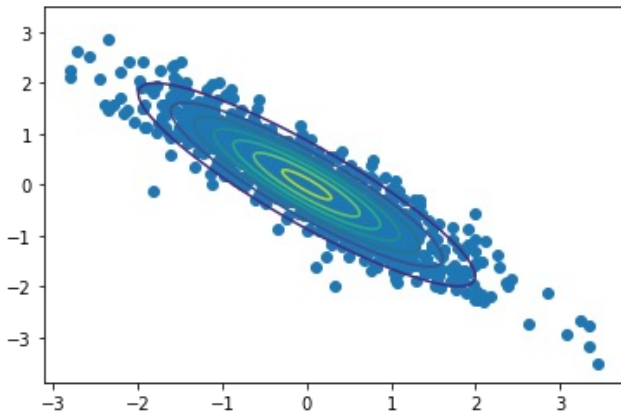
```
F = stats.multivariate_normal.pdf(Xpos,[0,0],[[0.25,0.3],[0.3,1.0]])
```

```
plt.scatter(X[:,0],X[:,1])
```

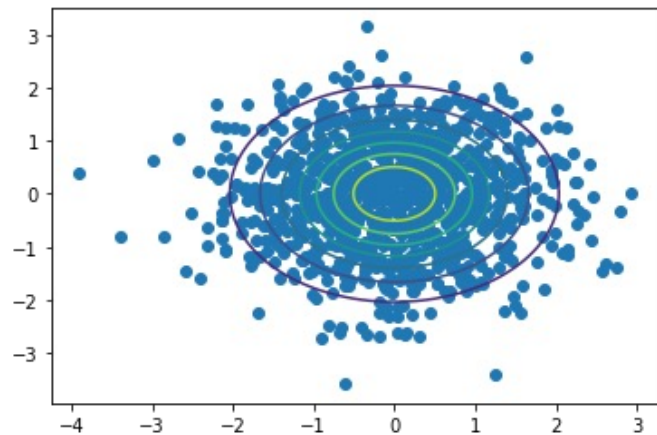
```
plt.contour(x1,x2,F)
```



$$(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -0.25 \\ -0.25 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$



$$(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.9 \\ -0.9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Estimation

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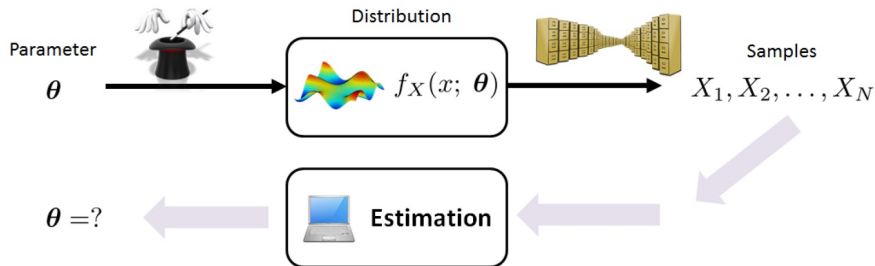


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Estimation

- Estimation is an inverse problem with the goal of recovering the underlying parameter θ of a distribution $f_X(x; \theta)$ based on the observed samples X_1, \dots, X_N

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Estimation is an inverse problem of recovering the unknown parameters that were used by the distribution. In this figure, the PDF of X using a parameter θ is denoted as $f_X(x; \theta)$. The forward data-generation process takes the parameter θ and creates the random samples X_1, \dots, X_N . Estimation takes these observed random samples and recovers the underlying model parameter θ .

What are parameters?

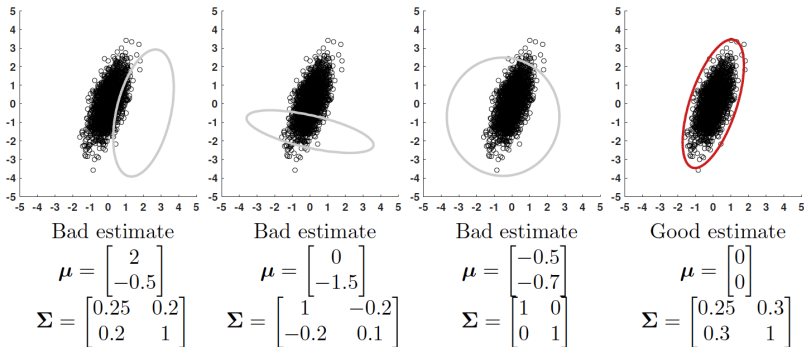
- All probability density functions (PDFs) have parameters.
- A Bernoulli random variable is characterized by a parameter p that defines the probability of obtaining a "head"
- A Gaussian random variable is characterized by two parameters: the mean μ and variance σ^2 :

$$f_{X_n}(x_n; \underbrace{\theta}_{=(\mu, \sigma)}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

If we know that $\sigma = 1$, then the PDF is

$$f_{X_n}(x_n; \underbrace{\theta}_{=\mu}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{2} \right\}$$

where θ is the mean



An estimation problem. Given a set of 1000 data points drawn from a Gaussian distribution with unknown mean μ and covariance Σ , we propose several candidate Gaussians and see which one would be the best fit to the data. Visually, we observe that the right-most Gaussian has the best fit. The goal of this chapter is to develop a systematic way of solving estimation problems of this type.

Estimation methods

- We will be looking at two estimation methods:
 - ① Maximum Likelihood methods
 - ② Maximum a posteriori method (Bayesian but used a lot in ML)

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Maximum Likelihood

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Likelihood function

Consider a set of N data points $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$.

Since we have N data points, based on the problem at hand, we can postulate a data generating model:

$$X_1, \dots, X_N \sim f(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

which means $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$, $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{PDF}$ of the random vector \mathbf{X} with parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

When you express the joint PDF as a function of \mathbf{x} and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, you have two variables to play with:

- ▶ observation \mathbf{x} , given by the measured data (known)
 - ▶ parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta} \Rightarrow$ our interest in an estimation problem.
- **GOAL:** find value of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ that offers the "best explanation" to data \mathbf{x}
- \Rightarrow maximize the likelihood

Likelihood function

Let $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, \dots, X_N]^T$ be a random vector drawn from a joint PDF $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$, and let $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_N]^T$ be the realizations. The likelihood function is a function of the parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ given the realizations \mathbf{x} :

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- ⚠ $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x})$ is not a conditional PDF because $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is not a random variable.

The correct way to interpret $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x})$ is to view it as a function of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

This function changes its shape according the observed data \mathbf{x} . We will return to this point shortly.

Independent observations

- If we measure the interarrival times of a bus for several days, it is quite likely the measurements are not correlated
- **Assumption:** the data points are independent and drawn from an identical distribution $f_X(x)$:

$$f_X(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = f_{X_1, \dots, X_N}(x_1, \dots, x_N; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{n=1}^N f_{X_n}(x_n; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- so the **likelihood** is

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \prod_{n=1}^N f_{X_n}(x_n; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- and the **log-likelihood** is

$$\log \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \log f_X(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{n=1}^N \log f_{X_n}(x_n; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Example (Bernoulli)

Find the log-likelihood of a sequence of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables X_1, \dots, X_N with parameter θ .

Solution: If X_1, \dots, X_N are i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables, we have

$$f_X(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N \{ \theta^{x_n} (1 - \theta)^{1-x_n} \}$$

Taking the log on both sides of the equation yields the log-likelihood function:

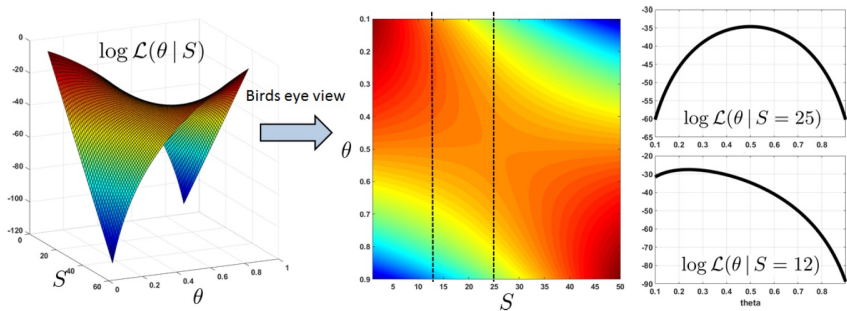
$$\begin{aligned} \log \mathcal{L}(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) &= \log \left\{ \prod_{n=1}^N \{ \theta^{x_n} (1 - \theta)^{1-x_n} \} \right\} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \log \{ \theta^{x_n} (1 - \theta)^{1-x_n} \} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \log \theta + (1 - x_n) \log(1 - \theta) \\ &= \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right) \cdot \log \theta + \left(N - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right) \cdot \log(1 - \theta) \end{aligned}$$

- We can write

$$\log \mathcal{L}(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) = \underbrace{\left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right)}_S \cdot \log \theta + \underbrace{\left(N - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right)}_{N-S} \cdot \log(1 - \theta)$$

That is: $\log \mathcal{L}(\theta \mid S) = S \log \theta + (N - S) \log(1 - \theta)$.

- We plot the surface of $L(\theta \mid S)$ as a function of S and θ , assuming that $N = 50$



We plot the log-likelihood function as a function of $S = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$ and θ . [Left] We show the surface plot of $\mathcal{L}(\theta|S) = S \log \theta + (N - S) \log(1 - \theta)$. Note that the surface has a saddle shape. [Middle] By taking a bird's-eye view of the surface plot, we obtain a 2-dimensional contour plot of the surface, where the color code matches the height of the log-likelihood function. [Right] We take two cross sections along $S = 25$ and $S = 12$. Observe how the shape changes.

Example (Gaussian)

Find the log-likelihood of a sequence of i.i.d. Gaussian random variables X_1, \dots, X_N with mean μ and variance σ^2

Solution Since the random variables X_1, \dots, X_N are i.i.d. Gaussian, the PDF is

$$f_X(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{n=1}^N \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right\}$$

Taking the log on both sides yields the log-likelihood function:

$$\begin{aligned} \log \mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{x}) &= \log f_X(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \log \left\{ \prod_{n=1}^N \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right\} \right\} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \log \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right\} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} \\ &= -\frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \mu)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Maximum Likelihood estimate

Let $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ be the likelihood function of the parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ given the measurements $\boldsymbol{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_N]^T$. The maximum-likelihood estimate of the parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is a parameter that maximizes the likelihood:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{ML} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$$

Example (Bernoulli)

Find the ML estimate for a set of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables $\{X_1, \dots, X_N\}$ with $X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$ for $n = 1, \dots, N$

Solution. The log-likelihood function of a set of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables is

$$\log \mathcal{L}(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) = \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right) \cdot \log \theta + \left(N - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right) \cdot \log(1 - \theta)$$

Thus, to find the ML estimate, we need to solve the optimization problem

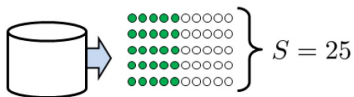
$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left\{ \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right) \cdot \log \theta + \left(N - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right) \cdot \log(1 - \theta) \right\}$$

Taking the derivative with respect to θ and setting it to zero,

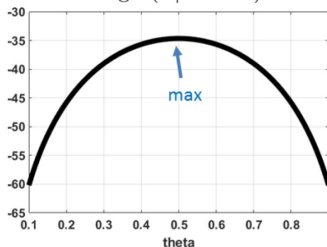
$$\frac{\left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \right)}{\theta} - \frac{N - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n}{1 - \theta} = 0$$

Rearranging the terms yields

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$$



$$\log \mathcal{L}(\theta \mid S = 25)$$



$$\log \mathcal{L}(\theta \mid S = 12)$$

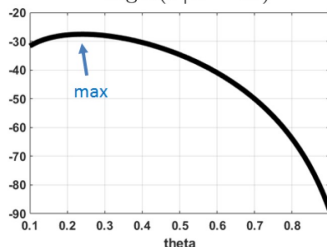
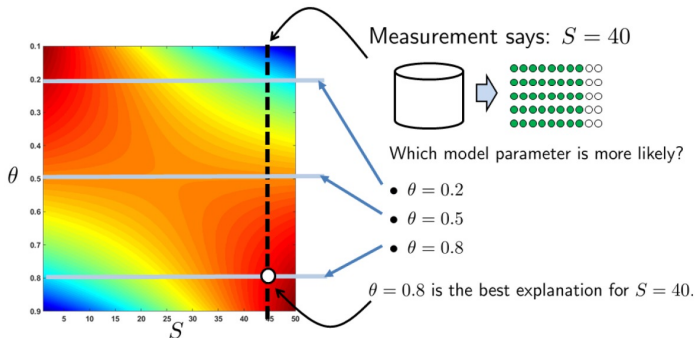


Illustration of how the maximum-likelihood estimate of a set of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables is determined. The subfigures above show two particular scenarios at $S = 25$ and $S = 12$, assuming that $N = 50$. When $S = 25$, the likelihood function has a quadratic shape centered at $\theta = 0.5$. This point is also the peak of the likelihood function when $S = 25$. Therefore, the ML estimate is $\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = 0.5$. The second case is when $S = 12$. The quadratic likelihood is shifted toward the left. The ML estimate is $\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = 0.24$.



Suppose that we have a set of measurements such that $S = 40$. To determine the ML estimate, we look at the vertical cross section at $S = 40$. Among the different candidate parameters, e.g., $\theta = 0.2$, $\theta = 0.5$ and $\theta = 0.8$, we pick the one that has the maximum response to the likelihood function. For $S = 40$, it is more likely that the underlying parameter is $\theta = 0.8$ than $\theta = 0.2$ or $\theta = 0.5$.

Example (Social Network Analysis)

- **Recall:** The Erdos-Renyi graph is one of the simplest models for social networks. The Erdos-Renyi graph is a single-membership network that assumes that all users belong to the same cluster. Thus the connectivity between users is specified by a single parameter:

$$X_{ij} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$$

- ▶ In other words, the edge X_{ij} linking user i and user j in the network is either $X_{ij} = 1$ with probability p , or $X_{ij} = 0$ with probability $1 - p$.
- ▶ The resulting matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ as the adjacency matrix, with the (i, j) th element being X_{ij} .