

# **Chapter 2. Probability and Statistics in PHM**

# **Prognostics and Health Management (PHM)**

#### **Byeng D. Youn**

System Health & Risk Management Laboratory Department of Mechanical & Aerospace Engineering Seoul National University



# **CONTENTS**

1 Uncertainty

Δ

2 Characterization of Uncertainty

**3** Types of Probability Distribution

Estimation of Parameter and Distribution

Bayesian Theorem

#### 1. Uncertainty

Uncertainty Analytics (1)

• Uncertainty Types

Aleatory Uncertainty	Epistemic Uncertainty	
<ul> <li>Inherent randomness associated with physical systems</li> <li>Alea: (Latin Word) The rolling of dice</li> <li>Irreducible with the acquisition of additional data</li> <li>Ex) material properties, product geometry, loading condition, boundary condition,</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Due to the lack of knowledge</li> <li>The smaller sample size, the wider confidence interval in statistical parameter estimation</li> <li>Reducible with additional information</li> <li>Ex) manufacturing tolerance, material property, expert opinion in case of knowledge absence,</li> </ul>	
30000 20000 10000 Henty of Data	No Data No Data Insufficient Data	

#### 1. Uncertainty

Uncertainty Analytics (2)

• Uncertainty Sources

<b>Uncertainty Sources</b>	Meaning	
Physical Uncertainty	<ul> <li>Inherent variation in physical quantity</li> <li>Description by probability distribution</li> <li>Ex) material property, manufacturing tolerance, loading condition, boundary condition,</li> </ul>	
Statistical Uncertainty	<ul> <li>Imprecise statistical estimation (probability distribution type, parameters,)</li> <li>Only depending on the sample size and location</li> <li>Ex) lack of data, improper sampling</li> </ul>	
Modeling Uncertainty	<ul> <li>Uncertainty from invalid modeling</li> <li>Ex) improper approximation, inaccurate boundary condition,</li> </ul>	

Data Collection

- Population
  - All observation of a random variable
  - Impossible to collect all population
  - Representative sample is collected instead
- Sample
  - Gather information on population
  - A relatively large sample size is always preferable

#### Data Classification

Continuous	Discrete	
- The values can take on any value within a finite or infinite interval	- The values belong to the set are distinct and separate	
- Measured	- Counted	
- ex. Failure time	- ex. Number of defective specimen	
< < < < < < < < < < < < < < < < < < <	$\left  \begin{array}{ccc} \bullet \bullet$	











Characterizing Descriptors

• Measure of Central Tendency

Mean	Mean Median	
<ul> <li>Location of centroid</li> <li>First moment (µ = E[X])</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Middle value of a set of data</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>The most frequentist value in a data set</li> </ul>
Ex. Data set {1 2 3 4 5 5} $\rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \frac{1+2+3+4+5+5}{6}$ $= \frac{10}{3}$	Ex. Data set {1 2 3 4 5 5} $\rightarrow \frac{3+4}{2} = 3.5$	Ex. Data set {1 2 3 4 5 5} → 5





Quantifying Descriptors

- Quantile & Percentile
  - The *x* value at which the CDF takes a value  $\alpha$  is called the  $\alpha$  -quantile for 100 $\alpha$  percentile.

$$F(x) = P(x \le x_{\alpha}) = \alpha$$



- Quartile
  - Data are grouped into four equal parts. Each quartile includes 25% of the data





Quantifying Descriptors

• Measure of Dispersion

Variance	Standard Deviation	Coefficient of Variation	
- Mean of squared deviation $Var(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu_{x_i})^2$ - The second Moment $E[(\mathbf{X} - \mu)^2] = E(\mathbf{X}^2) - E(\mathbf{X})^2$	- Degree of dispersion of same unit with data $\sigma_{\mathbf{X}} = \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{X})}$	- Non-dimensional term of standard deviation - COV(X)=0 : deterministic variable $\delta_{X} = \frac{\sigma_{X}}{\mu_{X}}$	
Ex. Data set {1 2 3 4 5 5} $\rightarrow \frac{1}{6}$ {(3.333 - 1) <sup>2</sup> + +	Ex. Data set $\{1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 5\}$ $\rightarrow \sqrt{2.6667} = 1.633$	Ex. Data set {1 2 3 4 5 5} $\rightarrow \frac{1.633}{3.333} = 0.4899$	

Quantifying Descriptors

• Measure of Asymmetry

- Skewness = 
$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu_{x_i})$$

- The third moment (used as a **PHM feature**)
- Skewness Coefficient =  $\theta_X = \frac{skewness}{\sigma_X^3}$

< Positively Skewed >

< Symmetric >

3

< Negatively skewed >



 $\pmb{\theta_X} > 0$ 

– The fourth moment

- Used as a PHM feature

• Measure of Flatness (Peakedness)

- Kurtosis =  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu_{x_i})^4$ 

- Kurtosis Coefficient =  $\frac{Kurtosis}{\sigma_x^4}$ 









Probability Distribution

- Continuous
  - Probability Density Function (PDF) :  $P(x_1 < X < x_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f_X(x) dx$
  - Cumulative Density Function (CDF) :  $P(X < x) = F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(x) dx$



- Discrete
  - Probability Mass Function (PMF) :  $P(X = x) = p_X(x)$
  - Cumulative Density Function (CDF) :  $P(X < x) = \sum_{x_i < x} p_X(x_i)$





Multivariate Distribution

• Joint Distribution





Multivariate Distribution

• Marginal PDF & PMF

The marginal distribution of a random variable X is obtained from the joint probability distribution of two random variables X and T by summing or integrating over the values of the random variable Y.



Covariance and Correlation

• Covariance

- Degree of linear relationship between two random variables

$$Cov(X,Y) = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)] = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$  when (linearly) independent
- Correlation Coefficient
  - Nondimensionalizing the covariance

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

- Range between -1 and +1







#### **3. Types of Probability Distribution**

Normal (Gaussian) Distribution

• Probability Density Function





where  $\mu$ : Mean of *X*  $\sigma$ : Standard deviation of *X* 

- The PDF of normal distribution is symmetry
- Two parameters which are mean ( $\mu$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) defines the PDF

• Properties 
$$(\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mathbf{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2), X_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2), X_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2))$$
  
 $- Z = \alpha \mathbf{X} + \beta \rightarrow Z \sim N(\alpha \mathbf{\mu} + \beta, \alpha^2 \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$   
 $- Z = X_1 + X_2 \rightarrow Z \sim N(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + 2Cov(X_1, X_2))$   
 $- Z = \frac{\mathbf{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \rightarrow Z \sim N(0, 1)$ 

- Z~N(0,1), Z is called standard Gaussian and  $f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}$ 



# **3. Types of Probability Distribution**

Lognormal Distribution

• Probability Density Function



- Closely related to the normal distribution

- Defined for positive values only
- Properties
  - λ: Mean of ln*X*, ζ: Variance of ln *X*
  - μ: Mean of *X*, σ: Standard deviation of *X*,  $\delta = \sigma/\mu$ : Coefficient of Variation of *X*

$$-\zeta = \sqrt{\ln(1+\delta^2)}, \lambda = \ln \mu - 0.5\ln(1+\delta^2)$$
$$-\mu = \exp(\lambda + 0.5\zeta^2), \delta = \sigma/\mu = \sqrt{\exp(\zeta^2) - 1}$$



### **3. Types of Probability Distribution**

Beta Distribution

 $f_X(x)$  Probability Density Function  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{B(q,r)} \frac{(x-a)^{q-1}(b-x)^{r-1}}{(b-a)^{q+r-1}}, a < x < b$ • Properties - Variable is bounded  $\rightarrow$  a < x < b - Parameter relationship X q = r = 0.5 q = 5, r = 1 q = 1, r = 3 q = 2, r = 2 q = 2, r = 5 $E(X) = a + \frac{q}{a+r}(b-a)$  $Var(X) = \frac{qr}{(q+r)^2(q+r+1)}(b-a)^2$ - Standard beta distribution  $\rightarrow$  substitute a=0, b=1  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{B(a,r)} x^{q-1} (1-x)^{r-1}$ q, r = shape parameter– Beta function  $B(q,r) = \int_{0}^{1} x^{q-1} (1-x)^{r-1} dx = \frac{\Gamma(q)\Gamma(r)}{\Gamma(q+r)}$ 



 $\lambda = 0.5$ 

 $\lambda = 1$  $\lambda = 1.5$ 

• X

#### **3. Types of Probability Distribution**

Exponential Distribution

- Probability Density Function
- Properties

- Parameter and Variable is bounded  $\rightarrow 0 < \lambda, 0 < x$ 

- Parameter relationship

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda}, \quad Var(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$
– Memorylessness

$$P(X > s + t | X > s) = P(X > t)$$

 $f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ 

 $f_X(x)$ 

Weibull Distribution

• Probability Density Function

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\mathrm{k}}{\lambda} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{\mathrm{k}-1} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{\mathrm{k}}}$$

- Generalization of the exponential distribution
- Properties
  - Widely used to model the TTF distribution

$$MTTF = \frac{\Gamma(1+1/k)}{\lambda}$$

$$f_X(x)$$

$$\lambda = 1, k = 2$$

$$\lambda = 1, k = 1$$

$$\lambda = 0.5, k = 1$$

Parameter (**θ**)

- A property of an unknown probability distribution.
- For example, mean, variance, or a particular quantile
- One of the goals of statistical inference is to estimate them.
- Examples
  - Mean of Normal Distribution: $\mu$
  - Standard Deviation of Normal Distribution:  $\sigma^2$

Statistics

- To denote a quantity that is a property of a sample.
- For example, sample mean, a sample variance, or a particular sample quantile.
- Statistics can be used to estimate unknown parameters.
- Examples

- Sample mean : 
$$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$
  
- Sample variance :  $\mathbf{s}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \overline{\mathbf{x}})^2}{n-1}$ 



#### **Point Estimation**

- Minimum Mean Square Error Estimation
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation
- Probability Distribution Estimation
  - Method of Moments
  - Goodness of Fit (Chi-square, K-S test)

Interval Estimation

Hypothesis Testing





Point Estimation of Parameters

- Unbiased and Biased Point Estimates
  - $\theta$ : statistical parameter (fixed constant)
  - $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$  : a statistics which serves as an estimator of  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
  - Unbiased if  $E(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}$
  - Not unbiased, bias=  $E(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \boldsymbol{\theta}$
  - To make  $E(\widehat{\theta})$  with  $\theta$  consistent for eliminating the bias which expresses systematic error.





- Point Estimate of a Population Mean
  - If  $X_1, ..., X_n$  is a sample of observations from a probability distribution with a mean  $\mu$ , then the sample mean  $\hat{\mu} = \overline{X}$  is an unbiased point estimate of the population mean  $\mu$ .
- Point Estimate of a Population Variance
  - If  $X_1, ..., X_n$  is a sample of observations from a probability distribution with a variance  $\sigma^2$ , then the sample variance  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$  is an unbiased point estimate of the population variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Proof.  $E(S^{2}) = \frac{1}{n-1} E(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \bar{x})^{2})$   $= \frac{1}{n-1} E(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu) - (\bar{x} - \mu))^{2})$   $= \frac{1}{n-1} E(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2} - 2(\bar{x} - \mu) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu) + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^{2})$   $= \frac{1}{n-1} E(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2} - n(\bar{x} - \mu)^{2})$   $= \frac{1}{n-1} E(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2}) - n E((\bar{x} - \mu)^{2})$   $= \frac{1}{n-1} (n\sigma^{2} - n(\frac{\sigma^{2}}{n})) = \sigma^{2}$ 



Minimum Mean Square Error Estimation (MMSE)

- The average of the square of the errors between the estimator and what is estimated.
- Because of randomness or because the estimator doesn't account for information that could produce a more accurate estimate.

$$MSE(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) = E((\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - \mathbf{\theta})^2) = E[(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) + E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) - \mathbf{\theta})]^2 = E[((\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}))^2 + 2(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}))(E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) - \mathbf{\theta}) + (E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) - \mathbf{\theta})^2] = E[((\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}))^2] + 2(E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) - \mathbf{\theta})E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}})) + (E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) - \mathbf{\theta})^2] = E((\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}} - E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}))^2 + (E(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) - \mathbf{\theta})^2 = Var(\widehat{\mathbf{\theta}}) + bias^2$$

• Example

When  $\widehat{\theta_1} \sim N(1.2\theta, 0.02\theta^2), \widehat{\theta_2} \sim N(0.9\theta, 0.04\theta^2)$ , Mean Square Error of each estimator  $\rightarrow \operatorname{Var}(\widehat{\theta_1}) < \operatorname{Var}(\widehat{\theta_2})$   $\operatorname{bias}_1 = \operatorname{E}(\widehat{\theta_1}) - \theta = 0.2 \ \theta$ ,  $\operatorname{bias}_2 = \operatorname{E}(\widehat{\theta_2}) - \theta = -0.1 \ \theta$   $\operatorname{MSE}(\widehat{\theta_1}) = \operatorname{Var}(\widehat{\theta_1}) + (\operatorname{bias}_1)^2 = 0.06\theta^2$ ,  $\operatorname{MSE}(\widehat{\theta_2}) = \operatorname{Var}(\widehat{\theta_2}) + (\operatorname{bias}_2)^2 = 0.05\theta^2$  $\rightarrow \operatorname{MSE}(\widehat{\theta_1}) > \operatorname{MSE}(\widehat{\theta_2})$ 



Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

• Likelihood function can be defined as

 $L(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = f_X(\mathbf{x}_1 | \boldsymbol{\theta}) f_X(\mathbf{x}_2 | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \dots, f_X(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\theta}).$ 

 $f_X(x_i|\mathbf{\theta})$  = The PDF values of random variable X at  $x_i$  when statistical parameter is given as  $\mathbf{\theta}$ 

• Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) is to find the  $\theta^*$  that maximizes the likelihood function, so the following equation is satisfied.

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}|_{\boldsymbol{\theta}=\boldsymbol{\theta}^*}=0$$

Ex) There's a big box with some black and white balls. But we don't know the number of the balls. Someone picked up a ball 10 times by sampling with replacement. And he picked up black balls 1 time, and white balls 9 times. Likelihood of black ball p?

Sol.) 
$$L = p(1-p)^9$$
  
 $\frac{\partial L}{\partial p} = (1-p)^9 - 9p(1-p)^8 = 0 \qquad \therefore p = \frac{1}{10}$ 



Method of Moments

- Basic concept : All the parameters of a distribution can be estimated using the information on its moment.
- Parameters of a distribution have a definite relation with the moments of the random variable.

Distribution	Relation to mean and variance	Inverse Relation
Normal	$E(X) = \mu_x$ , $Var(X) = \sigma_x^2$	$\mu_X = E(X), \sigma_X = \sqrt{Var(X)}$
Lognormal	$E(X) = \exp(\lambda + \frac{1}{2}\zeta^2)$ $Var(X) = E^2(X)[e^{\zeta^2} - 1]$	$\lambda = \ln E(X) - 0.5 \ln(1 + \delta^2)$ $\zeta = \sqrt{\ln(1 + \delta^2)}$ $\delta = \sqrt{Var(X)} / E(X)$
Weibull	$E(X) = \lambda \Gamma(1 + \frac{1}{k})$ $Var(X) = \lambda^2 \left[ \Gamma\left(1 + \frac{2}{k}\right) - \left(\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)\right)^2 \right]$	$\lambda = \frac{E(X)}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{1}{k})}, \frac{\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{2}{k}\right)}{\left(\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)\right)^2}$ $= \frac{Var(X)}{E(X)^2} - 1 \rightarrow \text{implicit}$ Approximation : $\lambda = \frac{E(X)}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{1}{k})},$ $k = \left(\sqrt{Var(X)}/E(X)\right)^{-1.086}$



Distribution	Relation to mean and variance	<b>Inverse Relation</b>
Rayleigh	$E(X) = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}}\alpha$ $Var(X) = (2 - \frac{\pi}{2})\alpha^{2}$	$\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} E(X) \text{ or } \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{2 \operatorname{Var}(X)}{4 - \pi}}$
Exponential	$E(X) = \frac{1}{v}, Var(X) = \frac{1}{v^2}$	$v = \frac{1}{E(X)},  v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{Var(X)}}$

#### System Health & Risk Management

#### 4. Estimation of Parameter and Distribution

Goodness of Fit

- Quantitative method
- Based on the error between observed data and an assumed PDF
- Assume a distribution will be acceptable if an error between the observed data and the assumed PDF is less than a critical value.
- Examples
  - Chi-Square test
  - Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test

Chi-Square Test



Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) Test

 $D_n = \max|F_X(x_i) - S_n(x_i)|$ 

 $D_n$ : Maximum difference between CDFs

 $F_X(x_i)$ : CDF of the theoretical CDF

 $S_n(x_i)$ : CDF of the observed data

$$P(D_n \le D_n^{\alpha}) = 1 - \alpha$$

 $D_n^{\alpha}$ : Values at significance level  $\alpha$ 



Approaches to determine a probability

- Frequentist's approach
  - Postulate its probability based on the number of times the event occurs in a large number of samples

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{k}{n}$$

- Bayesian approach
  - Employs a degree-of-belief, which is subjective information (e.g. previous experience, expert's opinion, data from handbook)
  - Express in the form of probability density function (PDF) and observations are used to change or update the PDF

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)} (P(B) \neq 0)$$

- P(A) is initial degree-of-belief in event A or called the *prior*.
- -P(A|B) is the degree-of-belief after accounting for evidence B or called the *posterior*.
- The Bayes' theorem is modifying or updating the prior probability P(A) to the posterior probability P(A/B) after accounting for evidence.

#### System Health & Risk Managemen

# 5. Bayesian

(

Bayesian Theorem in Probability Density Form (PDF)

•  $f_X$  be a PDF of uncertainty variable X and test measure a value Y, random variable, whose PDF denoted by  $f_Y$  $f_{XY}(x, y) = f_X(x|Y = y)f_Y(y) = f_Y(y|X = x)f_X(x)$ 

• Ex. Fatigue life of X has epistemic uncertainty in the form of 
$$f_X$$
. After measuring a fatigue life y of a specimen, our knowledge on fatigue life of X can be changed to  $f_X(x|Y = y)$ .

$$f_X(x|Y=y) = \frac{f_Y(y|X=x)f_X(x)}{f_Y(y)} (f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Y(y|X=\varepsilon)f_X(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon)$$

• Analytical calculation is possible when prior distribution is as  $f_X(x) = N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$  and likelihood is normal distribution as  $f_Y(y|X = x) = N(y, \sigma_y^2)$ .

$$f_X(x|Y=y) = \frac{f_Y(y|X=x)f_X(x)}{f_Y(y)} \sim \exp\left[-\frac{(y-x)^2}{2\sigma_y^2} - \frac{(x-\mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2}\right]$$



#### Example 3.1

There are three doors and behind two of the doors are goats and behind the third door is a new car with each door equally likely to provide the car. Thus the probability of selecting the car for each door at the beginning of the game is simply 1/3. After you have picked a door, say A, before showing you what is behind that door, Monty opens another door, say B, revealing a goat. At this point, Monty gives you the opportunity to switch doors from A to C if you want to. What should you do? (Given that Monty is trying to let you get a goat.)<sup>*c*</sup>

#### Solution .

The question is whether the probability is 0.5 to get the car since only two doors left, or mathematically,  $P(A|B_{Monty}) = P(C|B_{Monty}) = 0.5$ . Basically we need to determine the probabilities of two event  $E_1 = \{A|B_{Monty}\}, E_2 = \{C|B_{Monty}\}$ . We elaborate the computation in the following steps:

**1.** The prior probabilities read  $\underline{P}(A) = P(B) = P(C) = 1/3$ .

**2.** We also have some useful conditional probabilities  $P(B_{Monty}|A) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $P(B_{Monty}|B) = 0$ , and  $P(B_{Monty}|C) = 1$ .

**3.** We can compute the probabilities of joint events as  $P(B_{Monty}, A) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{6}$ ,  $P(B_{Monty}, B) = 0$ , and  $P(B_{Monty}, C) = 1 \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$ .

**4.** Finally, with the denominator computed as  $P(B_{Monty}) = 1/6 + 0 + 1/3 = \frac{1}{2}$ , we then get  $P(A|B_{Monty}) = 1/3$ ,  $P(C|B_{Monty}) = 2/3$ . Thus, it is better to switch to C.



**Bayesian Updating** 

• Overall Bayesian Update

$$f_X(x|Y=y) = \frac{1}{K} \prod_{i=1}^N [f_Y(y_i|X=x)] f_X(x)$$

- Likelihood functions of individual tests are multiplied together to build the total likelihood function.
- *K* is a normalizing constant.
- Recursive Bayesian Update

$$f_X^{(i)}(x|Y = y_i) = \frac{1}{K_i} f_Y(y_i|X = x) f_X^{(i-1)}(x), \quad i = 1, \dots, N$$

-  $K_i$  is a normalizing constant at *i*-th update and  $f_X^{(i-1)}(x)$  is the PDF of X, updated using up to (i - 1)th tests.



#### **Bayesian Parameter Estimation**

- Bayes theorem's main purpose is parameter estimation and calibration of model parameters.
- Vector of unknown model parameters is denoted as **θ**, while the vector of measured data is denoted as **y**.

$$f(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})f(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{f(\boldsymbol{y})}$$

• Denominator in the above equation is independent of unknown parameters and a normalizing constant to make the one.

$$f(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y}) \propto f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- $f(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{\theta})$  is a likelihood function that is the PDF value at  $\mathbf{y}$  conditional on given  $\mathbf{\theta}$ .
- $-f(\mathbf{\theta})$  is the prior PDF of  $\mathbf{\theta}$ , which is updated to  $f(\mathbf{\theta}|\mathbf{y})$ , the posterior PDF of  $\mathbf{\theta}$  conditional on given  $\mathbf{\theta}$ .



**Example 3.2**: Suppose that we have a set of random samples  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M\}$  from a normal PDF  $f_X(x; \mu, \sigma)$  of a random variable *X*, where  $\mu$  is unknown and  $\sigma$  is known. Assume that the prior distribution of  $\mu$ ,  $f_M(\mu)$ , is a normal distribution with its mean, *u*, and variance,  $\tau^2$ . Determine the posterior distribution of  $\mu$ ,  $f_{MX}(\mu | \mathbf{x})$ .

#### Solution .

Firstly, we compute the conditional probability of obtaining **x** given  $\mu$  as

$$f_{X|M}\left(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{M} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$$

$$= \left(2\pi\sigma^2\right)^{-M/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^{M}\left(x_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}\right)^2\right]$$
(28)

Next, we compute the joint probability of **x** and  $\mu$  as

$$\begin{split} f_{X,M}(\mathbf{x},\mu) &= f_{X|M}(\mathbf{x} \mid \mu) f_{M}(\mu) \\ &= \left(2\pi\sigma^{2}\right)^{-M/2} \left(2\pi\tau^{2}\right)^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2} - \frac{1}{2\tau^{2}} (\mu - u)^{2}\right] \\ &= K_{1}(x_{1},...,x_{M},\sigma,u,\tau) \exp\left[-\left(\frac{M}{2\sigma^{2}} + \frac{1}{2\tau^{2}}\right) \mu^{2} + \left(\frac{M\overline{x}}{\sigma^{2}} + \frac{u}{\tau^{2}}\right) \mu\right]^{*} \end{split}$$



We then set up a square with  $\mu$  in the exponent as

$$f_{X,M}(\mathbf{x},\mu) = K_2(x_1,...,x_M,\sigma,u,\tau) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{M}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2}\right) \left(\mu - \frac{M\overline{x}}{\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{u}{\tau^2}}\right)^2\right]$$
$$= K_2(x_1,...,x_M,\sigma,u,\tau) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{M}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2}\right) \left(\mu - \frac{M\tau^2\overline{x} + \sigma^2u}{M\tau^2 + \sigma^2}\right)^2\right]^*$$

Since the denominator  $f_X(x_1, x_2, ..., x_M)$  does not depend on  $\mu$ , we then derive the posterior distribution of  $\mu$  as

$$f_{M|X}\left(\mu \mid \mathbf{x}\right) = K_3\left(x_1, \dots, x_M, \sigma, u, \tau\right) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{M}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2}\right)\left(\mu - \frac{M\tau^2 \overline{x} + \sigma^2 u}{M\tau^2 + \sigma^2}\right)^2\right]$$

Clearly, this is a normal distribution with the mean and variance as .

$$\hat{u} = \frac{M\tau^{2}\overline{x} + \sigma^{2}u}{M\tau^{2} + \sigma^{2}}, \quad \hat{\tau} = \left(\frac{M}{\sigma^{2}} + \frac{1}{\tau^{2}}\right)^{-1} = \frac{\sigma^{2}\tau^{2}}{M\tau^{2} + \sigma^{2}}$$
(29)

Therefore, the Bayes estimate of  $\mu$  is essentially a weighted-sum of the sample mean and the prior mean. In contrast, the maximum likelihood estimator is only the sample mean. As the number of samples M approaches the infinity, the Bayes estimate becomes equal to the maximum likelihood estimator since the sample data tend to have a predominant influence over the prior information. However, for the case of a small sample size, the prior information often plays an important role, especially when the prior variance  $\tau^2$  is small (or we have very specific prior information).



# THANK YOU FOR LISTENING



#### Reference

- [1] Achintya Haldar, Sankaran Mahadevan, Probability, Reliability and Statistical Methods in Engineering Design, John Wiley, 2000.
- [2] Anthony Hayter, Probability and Statistics For Engineers and Scientists, Duxbury Resource Center, 2012.

Interval Estimation of Parameters

- An interval that contains a set of plausible value of the parameter.
  - The confidence level :  $1 \alpha$ 
    - ex) confidence interval for  $\mu$

$$P\left(\bar{X} - \frac{t_{\alpha/2, n-1}S}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \bar{X} + \frac{t_{\alpha/2, n-1}S}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

- Confidence interval length

$$-L = \frac{2t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \times S}{\sqrt{n}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- Higher confidence levels require longer confidence intervals. ( $\alpha_2 > \alpha_1$ )

• t-Interval

$$\mu \in \left(\bar{x} - \frac{t_{\alpha/2, n-1}s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + \frac{t_{\alpha/2, n-1}s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

- with **unknown** population variance
- small sample sizes when the data are taken to be normally distributed.
- not normally distributed small sample data (nonparametric techniques)



#### System Health & Risk Management

#### 4. Estimation of Parameter and Distribution

• z-Interval

$$\mu \in \left(\bar{x} - \frac{z_{\alpha/2, n-1}\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + \frac{z_{\alpha/2, n-1}\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

- with **known** population standard-deviation( $\sigma$ )
- observations :  $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$ independent RV :  $X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ sample mean is itself a RV

$$(\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i)$$

• One-sided t-Interval

$$\mu \in \left(-\infty, \bar{x} + \frac{t_{\alpha, n-1}s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \text{ and } \mu \in \left(\bar{x} - \frac{t_{\alpha, n-1}s}{\sqrt{n}}, \infty\right)$$

• One-sided z-Interval

$$\mu \in \left(-\infty, \bar{x} + \frac{z_{\alpha, n-1}\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \text{ and } \mu \in \left(\bar{x} - \frac{z_{\alpha, n-1}\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \infty\right)$$



Hypothesis Testing

• Deciding the rejection yes or no of 'Null hypothesis' by providing the intensity of it's counterevidence.

	Two sided	One s	sided
Null hypothesis( $H_o$ )	$\mu = \mu_o$	$\mu \leq \mu_o$	$\mu \ge \mu_o$
Alternative hypothesis( $H_A$ )	$\mu \neq \mu_o$	$\mu > \mu_o$	$\mu < \mu_o$

• Ex) The machine that produces metal cylinders is set to make cylinders with a diameter 50mm. Is it calibrated correctly?

 $H_o: \mu=50$  vs  $H_A: \mu\neq 50$ 

- p-Value(significance probability) : the probability of obtaining the worse data set when the null hypothesis is true. (usually 0.01)
  - The smaller the p-value, the less plausible is the null hypothesis.
  - $H_A$  cannot be proven to be true;  $H_o$  can only be shown to be implausible.

• Two-sided problem

$$H_o: \mu = \mu_o \quad vs \quad H_A: \mu \neq \mu_o$$
  
Test statistic:  $t = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu_o)}{s}$ 

• One-sided problem

 $\begin{aligned} H_o: \ \mu &\leq \mu_o \quad vs \quad H_A: \mu > \mu_o \\ H_o: \ \mu &\geq \mu_o \quad vs \quad H_A: \mu < \mu_o \end{aligned}$ 

- Rejection region
  - The set of values for the test statistic that leads to rejection of  $H_0$ .
  - If the value falls inside the rejection region, you reject the null hypothesis.
  - If you choose the alpha level 5%, that level is the rejection region.

H <sub>A</sub>	P-value(reject), $X \sim t(n-1)$	Rejection region
$\mu \neq \mu_o$	$P\{ X  \ge  t \} < \alpha$	$ t  > t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, n-1}$
$\mu > \mu_o$	$P\{X \ge t\} < \alpha$	$ t  > t_{\alpha,n-1}$
$\mu < \mu_o$	$P\{X \le t\} < \alpha$	$ t  < -t_{\alpha,n-1}$



• Ex) The data : the times in minutes taken to remove paint. Question : Is the average blast time is less than 10 min?

Data : 10.3, 9.3, 11.2, 8.8, 9.5, 9.0

- 1. Data summary  $n = 6, \bar{x} = 9.683, s=0.906$
- 2. Determination of suitable hypothesis  $H_o: \mu \ge 10 \ vs \ H_A: \mu < 10$
- 3. Calculation of the test statistic  $t = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu_0)}{s} = \frac{\sqrt{6}(9.683 - 10)}{0.906} = -0.857$
- 4. Expression for the p value $p - value = P(X \le -0.857), X \sim t(5)$

- 5. Evaluation of the p valueset  $\alpha = 0.1$ ,  $P(X \le -0.857) >$ 0.1 or  $t = -0.857 > -t_{0.1,5} = -1.476$
- 6. Decision  $H_o$  is accepted.
- 7. Conclusion

The data can't provide sufficient evidence that the average blast time is less than 10 min.





• Type of errors

		Real	
		Н <sub>о</sub> true	H <sub>A</sub> true
Result of test	select H <sub>o</sub>	OK	Туре 2 error( <b>β</b> )
	select H <sub>A</sub>	Type 1 error( <b>a</b> )	ОК