Parameter Estimation and Decision Making

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Outline

Parameter Estimation

Example

- Problem:
 - Observe whether the sky is cloudy or not cloudy on n successive days
 - ullet Predict whether the sky will be cloudy on the $n+1^{
 m th}$ day
- Step 1: Parameter estimation
 - Model the unknown as a random variable with a parameterized distribution with unknown parameter (Bayesian) or Model the unknown as a fixed but unknown constant (Frequentist).
 - Guess the unknown parameter/constant.
- Step 2: Decision making
 - Use guess about unknown parameter to find probability of event of interest
 - Decide based on the probability

Two Major Categories

Suppose you have $x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d.)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ But you don't know μ (you do know σ^2)

- Maximum Likelihood (MLE): For which μ is x_1, x_2, \dots, x_R most likely?
- Maximum a Posterior (MAP): Which μ maximizes $p(\mu|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_R, \sigma^2)$

Question

Which one do you prefer?

Question

Despite the intuitiveness of MAP, we'll spend 95% of our time on MLE. Why?



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Frequentist Estimation Problem

- Problem: find "the true value" of a parameter based on data sample
- Estimator: function from sample space to parameter space
- Estimate: specific point in sample space.
- Loss: measure of error w.r.t. true value of parameter

Properties of Estimators

- (Asymptotic) Consistency
 - Whether true value is recovered for infinite sample size
- Bias
 - Expected deviation of estimate from true value
- Variance
- Mean squared error
 - Bias-variance trade-off

Properties of Maximum Likelihood Estimator

- Asymptotically Unbiased
- Consistent
- Smallest variance among unbiased estimators (aka. asympototic efficiency)



Bayesian Parameter Estimation

- Model parameter θ as a random variable
- Prior distribution $P(\theta)$
- Maximum a posteriori probability estimation problem
 - Find posterior distribution $P(\theta|D)$ of θ given observed data D

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(\theta)P(D|\theta)}{\int P(\theta)P(D|\theta)d\theta}$$

• Likelihood $L(\theta) = P(D|\theta)$

Three Types of **Point** Estimation

- Frequentist:
 - Maximum likelihood estimator

$$\theta_{ML} = \arg\max_{\theta} L(\theta) = \arg\max_{\theta} P(D|\theta)$$

- Bayesian:
 - Maximum a posterior estimator

$$heta_{MAP} = \arg\max_{ heta} P(heta|D) = \arg\max_{ heta} P(heta)P(D| heta)$$

Bayesian estimator

$$heta_{\mathsf{Bayes}} = E[heta] = \int heta P(heta|D) d heta$$

Question

Can you draw a figure to distinguish the three?

Outline

We will illustrate how to perform these point estimation using examples.

Example 1: Maximum Likelihood Estimator

- Given a sequence of coin tosses, guess probability of getting head H
- Model $X \sim_{\text{i.i.d.}} Ber(p)$
- Likelihood $L(p) = P(X_1, X_2, ...; p)$
- Log likelihood

$$\ell(p) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \log L(p) = \sum_{i} P(X_i; p) = n_H \log p + n_T \log(1-p)$$

where n_H is #Heads and n_T is #Tails in N tosses

- Maximize $\ell(p)$ by setting $\frac{\partial \ell(p)}{\partial p} = 0$ and verify maximality.
- Maximum likelihood estimate

$$\hat{p}_{ML} = rg \max_{p} \ell(p) = rac{n_H}{N}$$

Example 1: MAP Estimator

Model p as random variable with a prior distribution

$$p \sim Beta(a,b); \quad f(p) \propto p^{a-1}(1-p)^{b-1}$$
 (Conjugate prior)

Formulate posterior distribution

$$p(p|D) \propto f(p) \sum_{i} P(X_i; p) = p^{a+n_H-1} (1-p)^{b+n_T-1}$$

Because

$$\pi(p|x) \propto \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \cdot \frac{p^{a-1}(1-p)^{b-1}}{B(a,b)}$$

$$\pi(p|x) \propto p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \cdot p^{a-1}(1-p)^{b-1}$$

$$\pi(p|x) \propto p^{x+a-1}(1-p)^{n-x+b-1} \qquad \text{(rearrange p and $1-p$ terms)}$$

Maximum a posteriori estimate

$$\hat{p}_{MAP} = \arg\max_{p} p(p|D) = \frac{n_H + a - 1}{N + a + b - 2}$$

Example 1: Bayes Estimator

Model p as random variable with a prior distribution

$$p \sim Beta(a,b); \quad f(p) \propto p^{a-1}(1-p)^{b-1}$$
 (Conjugate prior)

Formulate posterior distribution

$$p(p|D) \propto f(p) \sum_{i} P(X_i; p) = p^{a+n_H-1} (1-p)^{b+n_T-1}$$

= $Beta(a + n_H, b + n_T)$

Bayes estimate

$$\hat{p}_B = \mathbb{E}[p \mid X_1, \dots, X_n] = \frac{n_H + a}{N + a + b}$$

Example 1: Bayes Estimator

$$\hat{p}_{B} = E[p|X_{1}, ..., X_{n}]$$

$$= \frac{n_{H} + a}{N + a + b}$$

$$= \frac{a + b}{N + a + b} \cdot \frac{n_{H}}{a + b} + \frac{N}{N + a + b} \cdot \frac{n_{H}}{N}$$

$$= \frac{a + b}{N + a + b} \cdot E[p] + \frac{N}{N + a + b} \cdot \hat{p}_{ML}$$

- Weighted average of prior mean and MLE
- Weight of MLE proportional to number of observations

Role of priors

- Uniform prior vs. Beta prior
- With uniform prior

$$f(p) \propto 1$$
 $p(p|D) \propto f(p) \sum_i P(X_i;p) = p^{n_H+1} (1-p)^{n_T+1}$ $\hat{p}_{MAP} = rg \max_p p(p|D) = rac{n_H+1}{N+2}$

- Suppose you have $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim \text{(i.i.d)} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- But you don't know μ (you do know σ^2)
- MLE: For which μ is $x_1, x_2, ... x_R$ most likely?

$$\mu^{mle} = \arg\max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\begin{split} \mu^{\textit{mle}} &= \arg\max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \prod_{i=1}^R p(x_i | \mu, \sigma^2) \end{split} \tag{by i.i.d}$$

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$$\begin{split} \mu^{\textit{mle}} &= \arg\max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \prod_{i=1}^R p(x_i | \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^R \log p(x_i | \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^R \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \quad \text{(plug in formula for Gaussian)} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \mu^{\textit{mle}} &= \arg\max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \prod_{i=1}^R p(x_i | \mu, \sigma^2) \qquad \qquad \text{(by i.i.d)} \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^R \log p(x_i | \mu, \sigma^2) \qquad \qquad \text{(monotonicity of log)} \\ &= \arg\max_{\mu} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^R -\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \qquad \text{(plug in formula for Gaussian)} \\ &= \arg\min_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2 \qquad \qquad \text{(after simplification)} \end{split}$$

Intermission: A General Scalar MLE strategy

Task: Find MLE θ assuming known form for $P(Data \mid \theta, stuff)$

- Write $\ell = \log P(\mathsf{Data} \mid \theta, \mathsf{stuff})$
- ② Work out $\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta}$
- **3** Set $\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} = 0$ for a maximum, creating an equation in terms of θ
- Solve it*
- **5** Check that you've found a maximum rather than a minimum or saddle-point, and be careful if θ is constrained

^{*}This is a perfect example of something that works perfectly in all textbook examples and usually involves surprising pain if you need it for something new.

Example 2: The MLE μ

$$\mu^{mle} = rg \max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$= rg \min_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu)^2$$

$$= \mu \text{ s.t. } 0 = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} = ...$$

Example 2: The MLE μ

$$\mu^{mle} = \arg \max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$= \arg \min_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2$$

$$= \mu \text{ s.t. } 0 = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^R 2(x_i - \mu)$$

Example 2: The MLE μ

$$\begin{split} \mu^{\textit{mle}} &= \arg\max_{\mu} p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg\min_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2 \\ &= \mu \text{ s.t. } 0 = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^R 2(x_i - \mu) \end{split}$$
 Thus, $\mu = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^R x_i$.

Example 2: Lawks-a-lawdy!

$$\mu^{mle} = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} x_i$$

- The best estimate of the mean of a distribution is the mean of the sample!
- Unsurprising, but with MLE justifications
- 2 Naive and MLE estimates of σ^2 will be different

- Suppose you have $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- But you don't know μ or σ^2
- MLE: For which $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$ is $x_1, x_2, ... x_R$ most likely?

$$\log p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) = -R(\log \pi + \frac{1}{2} \log \sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu)$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma^2} = -\frac{R}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu)^2$$



- Suppose you have $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
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$$0 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)$$

$$0 = -\frac{R}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu)^2$$

- Suppose you have $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
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$$\log p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) = -R(\log \pi + \frac{1}{2} \log \sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2$$

$$0 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu) \Rightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^R x_i$$

$$0 = -\frac{R}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2 \Rightarrow \text{what?}$$

- Suppose you have $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- But you don't know μ or σ^2
- MLE: For which $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$ is $x_1, x_2, ... x_R$ most likely?

$$\log p(x_1, x_2, ... x_R | \mu, \sigma^2) = -R(\log \pi + \frac{1}{2} \log \sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu)^2$$

$$\mu^{mle} = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} x_i$$

$$\sigma_{mle}^2 = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2$$

Unbiased Estimators

- An estimator of a parameter is unbiased if the expected value of the estimate is the same as the true value of the parameters.
- If $x_1, x_2, ...x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then

$$\mathbf{E} \llbracket \mu^{mle} \rrbracket = \mathbf{E} \llbracket \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} x_i \rrbracket = \mu$$

ullet Hence, $\mu^{\it mle}$ is unbiased

Biased Estimators

- An estimator of a parameter is biased if the expected value of the estimate is different from the true value of the parameters.
- If $x_1, x_2, ...x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then

$$\mathbf{E} [\![\sigma_{mle}^2]\!] = \mathbf{E} [\![\frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^R (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2]\!] = \mathbf{E} [\![\frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^R \left(x_i - \frac{1}{R} \sum_{j=1}^R x_j \right)^2]\!] \neq \sigma^2$$

• Hence, σ_{mle}^2 is biased

MLE Variance Bias

• If $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{\text{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\left[\sigma_{mle}^2 \right] \right] = \mathbf{E} \left[\left[\frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^R \left(x_i - \frac{1}{R} \sum_{j=1}^R x_j \right)^2 \right] \right] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{R} \right) \sigma^2 \neq \sigma^2$$

• Intuition check: consider the case of R=1

Question

Why should our guts expect that σ_{mle}^2 would be an underestimate of true σ^2 ?

Question

How could you prove

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} \left(x_i - \frac{1}{R} \sum_{j=1}^{R} x_j \right)^2 \right] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{R} \right) \sigma^2$$
?

Unbiased estimate of Variance

• If $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{\mathsf{(i.i.d)}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then

$$\mathbf{E} \llbracket \sigma_{mle}^2 \rrbracket = \mathbf{E} \left[\frac{1}{R} \left(\sum_{i=1}^R x_i - \frac{1}{R} \sum_{j=1}^R x_j \right)^2 \right] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{R} \right) \sigma^2 \neq \sigma^2$$

So define
$$\sigma_{\text{unbiased}}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{\text{mle}}^2}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{R}\right)}$$

And $\mathbf{E} \left[\sigma_{\text{unbiased}}^2 \right] = \sigma^2$

$$\sigma_{\text{unbiased}}^2 = \frac{1}{R-1} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2$$

Unbiaseditude discussion

Question

Which one is better?

$$\sigma_{mle}^2 = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2$$

$$\sigma_{\text{unbiased}}^2 = \frac{1}{R-1} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2$$

Unbiaseditude discussion

Question

Which one is better?

$$\sigma_{mle}^2 = \frac{1}{R} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2$$

$$\sigma_{\text{unbiased}}^2 = \frac{1}{R-1} \sum_{i=1}^{R} (x_i - \mu^{mle})^2$$

Answer:

- It depends on the task
- And doesn't make much difference once $R \rightarrow large$

Don't get too excited about being unbiased

- Assume $x_1, x_2, ... x_R \sim_{(i.i.d)} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- Suppose we had these estimators for the mean

$$\mu^{\text{suboptimal}} = \frac{1}{R + 7\sqrt{R}} \sum_{i=1}^{R} x_i$$

$$\mu^{\text{crap}} = x_1$$

Questions

- Are either of these unbiased?
- Will either of them asymptote to the correct value as *R* gets large?
- Which is more useful?



Decision Theory

- Choose a specific point estimate under uncertainty
- Loss functions measure extent of error
- Choice of estimate depends on loss function

Loss Functions

• 0-1 loss

$$L(y, a) = I(y \neq a) = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } a = y \\ 1 \text{ if } a \neq y \end{cases}$$

- Minimized by MAP estimate (posterior mode)
- I₂ loss

$$L(y,a) = (y-a)^2$$

- Expected loss: $E[(y-a)^2|x]$ (Min mean squared error)
- Minimized by Bayes estimate (posterior mean)
- I₁ loss

$$L(y, a) = |y - a|$$

Minimized by posterior median



Loss Functions

- Cross-entropy loss
 - Binary classification: y is the prob of positive class

$$L(y, a) = y \log(a) + (1 - y) \log(1 - a)$$

Multi-class classification: y(a) is the prob distribution of all K classes, and k is the true class

$$L(y, a) = \log(a_k), k$$
 is the true class

Equivalent to KL divergence

$$H(y, a) = H(y) + D_{KL}(y||a)$$

Predictive distribution

ullet Find the probability of the outcome of the $n+1^{ ext{th}}$ experiment given outcomes of previous n experiments

$$P(A_{n+1}|A_1,...,A_n)$$

- Frequentist
 - Construct point estimate of parameter $\hat{\theta}$ from n outcomes

$$P(A_{n+1}|A_1,...,A_n) \cong P(A_{n+1};\hat{\theta})$$

- Bayesian
 - ullet Consider the entire posterior distribution of heta

$$P(A_{n+1}|A_1,...,A_n) = \int P(A|\theta)P(\theta|A_1,...,A_n)d\theta$$



Summary

- Parameter estimation problem
- Frequentist vs Bayesian
- MLE, MAP and Bayes estimators for Bernoulli trials
- Optimal estimators for different loss functions
- Prediction using estimated parameters