Estimation Theory

Hebrew University of Jerusalem

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- 1 Estimators
- 2 Estimator Properties
- Maximum Likelihood
- 4 Estimation Quality Measure of Concentration
- 5 Multivariate Distributions
- **6** Summary

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- 1 Estimators
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 Suppose we wish to know the current time but we do not have the means of telling it. How should we find out what is the time?

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- We can ask someone but will the answer be correct/accurate?
- We can ask multiple individuals and estimate the actual time as the average of their answers.

• The answers are referred to as observations and are denoted by x_1, \ldots, x_m . Our estimated time is then:

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} x_{i}$$

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- The set of observations is called a sample.
- We consider x_1, \ldots, x_m as the *realizations* of the random variables X_1, \ldots, X_m
- We assume the samples x_1, \ldots, x_m follow some underlying probability distribution \mathcal{P} .

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Definition

We say that samples x_1, \ldots, x_m are identically distributed if they are all the realizations of random variables over the sample probability distribution

$$X_1, \ldots, X_m \sim \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall i \ X_i = x_i$$

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Definition

We say that samples x_1, \ldots, x_m are independently identically distributed (i.i.d) if they are identically distributed and are independent

$$X_1, \dots, X_m \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall i \ X_i = x_i$$

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- Assume $\mathcal P$ is some *parametric* distribution characterized by a set of parameters $m heta \in \Theta$.
 - ullet $oldsymbol{ heta}$ a vector of parameters
 - ullet Θ the set of all possible values for the parameters

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- For $\mathcal{P}\coloneqq Poisson(\lambda)$ then $\boldsymbol{\theta}\coloneqq \{\lambda\}$ and $\Theta\coloneqq \mathbb{R}_+$
- For $\mathcal{P}\coloneqq\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2)$ then $\pmb{\theta}\coloneqq\{\mu,\sigma^2\}$ and $\Theta\coloneqq\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}_+$

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- For $\mathcal{P} \coloneqq \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then $\boldsymbol{\theta} \coloneqq \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$ and $\Theta \coloneqq \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+$
- Given a sample x_1, \ldots, x_m , drawn i.i.d according to $\mathcal{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$, where we do not know θ , we wish to choose θ^* that "best" fits the true θ

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- Denote $\Delta := \{\delta : \mathbb{R}^m \to \Theta\}$ the set of possible decision functions (referred to as *hypothesis class*. Also denoted as \mathcal{H})
- We wish to choose the *optimal* $\delta \in \Delta$: $\delta \in \Delta$ such that $\theta^* \coloneqq \delta(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ best describes θ .

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Definition

Let $\delta \in \Delta$ be a decision function. Then $\delta(X_1, \ldots, X_m)$ is called a point statistical estimator of a parameter θ , or simply an estimator.

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Estimators of Gaussians

Suppose we have obtained a sample $x_1,\ldots,x_m \overset{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{P}$ for $\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2)$, and we wish to estimate μ,σ^2 . How should we do so? Which estimators should we define for μ,σ^2 ?

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The sample mean estimator is defined as:

$$\hat{\mu}_X \coloneqq \frac{1}{m} \sum x_i$$

• The sample variance estimator is defined as:

$$\hat{\sigma}_X^2 := \frac{1}{m-1} \sum (x_i - \hat{\mu}_X)^2$$

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Estimator Properties

Defining the sample mean and -variance estimators, we could have considered many other functions

$$\hat{\sigma}_1^2 := \frac{1}{m-1} \sum (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2, \quad \hat{\sigma}_2^2 := \frac{1}{m} \sum (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2, \quad \hat{\sigma}_3^2 := \frac{1}{m} \sum |x_i - \hat{\mu}|$$

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- What does "right"/"best" even mean?

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We answer the above questions in two steps:

- Defining/deriving properties of estimators
- We need to define some criterion by which we define what "best" means

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Observation: An estimator δ as a function of random variables X_1,\ldots,X_m , it itself is a random variable. We can therefore ask what is the expectation of the estimator, its variance variance or its distribution

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When defining an estimator, one logical property we might want to have is that it will be *unbiased*. That is, that on average the estimated value will be equal to the true value.

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When defining an estimator, one logical property we might want to have is that it will be *unbiased*. That is, that on average the estimated value will be equal to the true value.

Definition

Let δ be an estimator for a parameter θ . The difference $d \coloneqq \delta(X_1, \dots, X_m) - \theta$ is called the *error* of δ .

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Definition

Let δ be an estimator for a parameter θ . The quantity

$$\begin{array}{lll} \operatorname{Bias}_{\theta} \left[\delta(X_1, \dots, X_m) \right] & \coloneqq & \mathbb{E}_{X_1, \dots, X_m \mid \theta} \left[d \right] \\ & = & \mathbb{E}_{X_1, \dots, X_m \mid \theta} \left[\delta(X_1, \dots, X_m) - \theta \right] \end{array}$$

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Definition

Let δ be an estimator for a parameter θ . δ is said to be *unbiased* iff

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta \quad \mathsf{Bias}_{\theta} \left[\delta(X_1, \dots, X_m) \right] = 0$$

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Biasness of sample mean and -variance

The sample mean is an unbiased estimator:

$$\mathbb{E}_{x_1,\dots,x_m|\mu} \left[\hat{\mu}(x_1,\dots,x_m) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{x_1,\dots,x_m|\mu} \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum x_i \right]$$

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$$= \mu$$

The sample variance is an unbiased estimator:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\sigma}^2\right] = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[\left(x_i - \hat{\mu}\right)^2\right]$$

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$$= \frac{1}{m-1} \left(\sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i}^{2}\right] - \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i,j} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i} x_{j}\right] + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j,k} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{j} x_{k}\right]\right)$$

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The sample variance is an unbiased estimator:

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= \frac{1}{m-1} \left(\sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i}^{2}\right] - \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i,j} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i} x_{j}\right] + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j,k} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{j} x_{k}\right]\right) \\
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= \frac{1}{m-1} \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right) \sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i}^{2}\right] - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \neq j} \mathbb{E}\left[x_{i} x_{j}\right]\right)$$

The sample variance is an unbiased estimator:

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Since the samples are i.i.d then:

- For any $i: \mathbb{E}[x_i] = \mathbb{E}[X], \mathbb{E}[x_i^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2]$
- For any $i \neq j$: $\mathbb{E}[x_i x_i] = \mathbb{E}[x_i] \mathbb{E}[x_i] = \mathbb{E}^2[X]$

The sample variance is an unbiased estimator:

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= \mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] - \mathbb{E}^{2}\left[X\right] \\
= Var\left(X\right) \\
= \sigma^{2}$$

Definition

Let δ be an estimator for a parameter θ . The variance of δ is

$$Var(\delta) := \mathbb{E}_{X_1,\dots,X_m|\theta} \left[\left(\delta(X_1,\dots,X_m) - \mathbb{E}_{X_1,\dots,X_m|\theta} \left[\delta(X_1,\dots,X_m) \right] \right) \right]$$

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$$= \frac{1}{m^2}Var\left(\sum x_i\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m^2}\sum Var\left(x_i\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{m^2}\cdot m\cdot \sigma^2$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{m}$$

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The variance of an estimator provides us with an indication of how well is the estimator performing.

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Maximum Likelihood

Recall, given the set of possible estimators, the hypothesis class, we wanted to answer the following questions:

- Which is the "right"/"best" estimator?
- What does "right"/"best" even mean?

The properties defined above, though interesting in themselves and provide us with tools to assess our estimators, can also be used to define optimality criteria. We can decide for example that the "optimal" estimator is $\delta \in \Delta$ which is *unbiased* and with the *minimial variance* out of all unbiased estimators.

Maximum Likelihood

Another approach is by looking for the *Maximum Likelihood Estimator*, that is, the estimator under which the observed data is *most likely*.

Definition

Let $X \sim \mathcal{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and f be the probability density function of \mathcal{P} . The *likelihood* function is:

$$\mathcal{L}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{x}\right)\coloneqq f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}\right)$$

for x the realization of X.

Consider the case of a univariate Gaussian distribution with $x_1, \ldots, x_m \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and denote $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$.

The likelihood function is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|x_i) = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad i \in [m]$$

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$$= \prod_{i=1}^m f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(x_i)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{m/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

Using the likelihood function we can now provide each θ with a quantity (the likelihood) of how likely is it to have generated the observed data.

Let $x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4\stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim}\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2)$ where $x_1=-1$, $x_2=0$, $x_3=0$, $x_4=1$ and $\sigma^2=1$.

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• The likelihood of $\mu=0$ is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1 | x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^4 x_i^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \exp(-\frac{2}{2})$$

$$\approx 0.00931$$

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• The likelihood of $\mu = 1$ is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu = 1, \sigma^2 = 1 | x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^4 (x_i - 1)^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \exp(-\frac{2^2 + 1 + 1}{2})$$

$$\approx 0.00126$$

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Definition

Let $\mathcal L$ be the likelihood function of some probability distribution $\mathcal P$ characterized by $\theta \in \Theta$. Let $X \sim \mathcal{P}(\theta)$ be a random variable and xits realization. The Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE) for $oldsymbol{ heta}$ is

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{MLE} \coloneqq \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta} \mathcal{L}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta} | x\right)$$

Let us derive the MLE of a univariate Gaussian distribution's mean $\hat{\mu}^{MLE}$, when σ^2 is known. Let $x_1, \ldots, x_m \overset{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. We wish to find

$$\hat{\mu}^{MLE} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\mu \in \mathbb{R}} \, \mathcal{L}(\mu|x_1, \dots, x_m, \sigma^2)$$

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$$\begin{array}{rcl} \hat{\mu}^{MLE} &=& \underset{\mu \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ \mathcal{L}(\mu|x_1,\ldots,x_m,\sigma^2) \\ &=& \underset{\mu \in \mathbb{R}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ \prod_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \end{array}$$

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Notice that the maximizer of the likelihood is also the maximizer of the log-likelihood as the logarithm is a monotonous increasing transformation. Thus

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$$\begin{array}{rcl} \hat{\mu}^{MLE} &=& \operatorname*{argmax} \ \log \left(\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \right) \right) \\ &=& \operatorname*{argmax} \ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \\ & \mu \in \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

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To find the maximizer, we derive (with respect to μ) and equate to zero:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left(-\sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_i - \mu)^2 \right) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial (x_i - \mu)^2}{\partial \mu} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} 2 (x_i - \mu) = 0$$

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We therefore also conclude that the sample mean minimizes the sum of squared distances

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- 1 Estimators
- 2 Estimator Properties
- 3 Maximum Likelihood
- 4 Estimation Quality Measure of Concentration
- Multivariate Distributions
- **6** Summary

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• Since an estimator is a random variable, and as we have seen that we could calculate it's expected value and variance, a natural question is to ask "how does the estimator distribute".

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- Since an estimator is a random variable, and as we have seen that we could calculate it's expected value and variance, a natural question is to ask "how does the estimator distribute".
- In the case of the sample mean estimator, We have shown that for $x_1, \ldots, x_m \overset{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ it holds that:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\mu}\right] = \mu, \quad Var\left(\hat{\mu}\right) = \frac{\sigma^2}{m}$$

It can further be shown that: $\hat{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{m}\right)$

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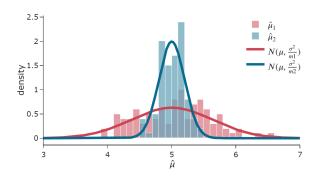
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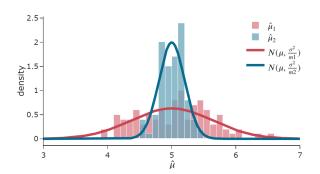
It can further be shown that: $\hat{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{m}\right)$

 Namely, this estimator follows a Gaussian distribution centered at the true value μ (unbiased) and with a variance proportional to the variance of the data, and that decays linearly in the number of samples.

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We can therefore ask questions such as:

- What is the probability of estimating a certain value?
- How certain are we in our prediction? (variance? confidence-interval?)
- What is the probability of deviating from the true value, and how does it depend on the number of samples?

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Estimation Theory

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• Given a sample of m coin tosses $S := \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ we denote the probability distribution of m coin tosses by \mathcal{D}_n^m and the probability of obtaining S by $\mathcal{D}_p^m(S)$.

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- The coin prediction learning algorithm takes S as input, drawn i.i.d according to \mathcal{D}^m and outputs an estimation of p. We denote this by $\mathcal{A}(S)$ or $\hat{p}(S)$ or simply \hat{p} .
- The learning algorithm we will use is to simply calculate the empirical proportion of heads, i.e the sample mean:

$$\hat{p}(S) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i} x_i$$

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• We already know that this algorithm (estimator) is unbiased. Namely, if we sample many sets $S_j = \{x_1^{(j)}, \dots, x_m^{(j)}\}$ and for each obtain \hat{p}_j , their average will be p. Formally $\mathbb{E}_S\left[\hat{p}\right] = p$.

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- Problem: Finite sample sets and usually only one set. Our estimation is not likely to be exactly p. We therefore settle for \mathcal{A} to be accurate enough: $|\hat{p} - p| \leq \varepsilon$ for some $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$.
- **Problem:** Even then, unless p equals exactly to 0 or 1, there is always some chance to obtain S that is highly non-representative. We will therefore ask how often is \mathcal{A} accurate enough, that is calculate $\mathbb{P}(|\hat{p}-p|\leq\varepsilon)$.

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Recall Markov's Inequality which states that for a non-negative random variable X, with a finite expectation, for any a>0 then:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(X \ge a\right) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[X\right]}{a}$$

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As $|\hat{p} - p|$ is a non-negative random variable, for any accuracy level $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$ we can bound the probability of deviating from p by more than ε by:

$$\mathcal{D}^{m}\left[|\hat{p} - p| \ge \varepsilon\right] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[|\hat{p} - p|\right]}{\varepsilon}$$

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We bound the expectation from above as follows. Since $Var(A)=\mathbb{E}\left[A^2\right]-\mathbb{E}^2\left[A\right]$ then:

$$Var(|\hat{p} - p|) = \mathbb{E}\left[|\hat{p} - p|^2\right] - \mathbb{E}^2[|\hat{p} - p|]$$

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$$= Var \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum x_{i} \right) = \frac{1}{m^{2}} Var \left(\sum x_{i} \right)$$

$$= \frac{p(1-p)}{m} \leq \frac{1}{4m}$$

Therefore:

$$\mathbb{E}^2\left[|\hat{p}-p|\right] \le \frac{1}{4m} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{E}\left[|\hat{p}-p|\right] \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{4m}}$$

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Therefore:

$$\mathbb{E}^2\left[|\hat{p}-p|\right] \le \frac{1}{4m} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{E}\left[|\hat{p}-p|\right] \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{4m}}$$

Put all together then:

$$\mathcal{D}^{m}\left[|\hat{p} - p| \ge \varepsilon\right] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[|\hat{p} - p|]}{\varepsilon} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{4m\varepsilon^{2}}}$$

$$\updownarrow$$

$$\mathcal{D}^{m}\left[|\hat{p} - p| \le \varepsilon\right] \ge 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{4m\varepsilon^{2}}}$$

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As a last step, denote
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 Solving for m then: $m=\frac{1}{4\varepsilon^2\delta^2}$

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Namely, by providing enough samples, we can guarantee with confidence of $1-\delta$ that our estimation is accurate (ε) enough.

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We can improve the upper bound achieved using Markov's Inequality by including the estimator's second moment (i.e its variance).

 That is, achieve a tighter bound on the needed number of samples to achieve a given accuracy and confidence levels.

Definition

Let X be a random variable with a finite mean and variance. Then, for every $\varepsilon \geq 0$:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|X - \mathbb{E}\left[X\right] \ge \varepsilon\right|\right) \le \frac{Var(X)}{\varepsilon^2}$$

So, given a sample $x_1 \dots, x_m \overset{i.i.d}{\sim} Ber(p)$ we bound the deviance of \hat{p} from its expected value as follows:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[|\hat{p} - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{p}\right]| \geq \varepsilon\right] \quad \overset{unbiased}{=} \quad \mathbb{P}\left[|\hat{p} - p| \geq \varepsilon\right] \quad \overset{Cheb.}{\leq} \quad \frac{Var(\hat{p})}{\varepsilon^2}$$

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= \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} Var\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum x_{i}\right) \stackrel{i.i.d}{=} \frac{1}{m^{2}\varepsilon^{2}} \sum Var\left(x_{i}\right)$$

Estimation Theory

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Coin Prediction - Chebyshev Bounding

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- As before, we denote $\delta=\frac{1}{4m\varepsilon^2}$ and solve for $m\colon m=\frac{1}{4\delta\varepsilon^2}$

We conclude that for any $\varepsilon,\delta\in(0,1)$, if we provide $m\geq\lceil\frac{1}{4\delta\varepsilon^2}\rceil$ samples then:

$$\mathcal{D}^m \left[|\hat{p} - p| \le \varepsilon \right] \ge 1 - \delta$$

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- 1 Estimators
- 2 Estimator Properties
- Maximum Likelihood
- 4 Estimation Quality Measure of Concentration
- 5 Multivariate Distributions
- **6** Summary

• Up to this point, we have dealt with univariate estimation tasks, i.e. estimating a single value and thus modeling the problem with random variables taking a single value.

Hebrew University of Jerusalem Estimation Theory

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Consider for example describing human weight and height.

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Consider for example describing human weight and height.

• It is possible to model (i.e describe how the data behaves) each push property independently. For example:

$$w_1, \dots, w_m \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N} (75, 3)$$

 $h_1, \dots, h_m \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N} (170, 5)$

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We know however that these properties are linked. There
exists ("in the data"/ "in the nature of the problem") a
connection between the two such that, in general, the taller an
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 individual the higher the weight.
- To model such connection we must first define multivarite probabilities.

Definition

Let X_1,\ldots,X_d be a finite set of random variables defined over the same probability space. Then $X\coloneqq (X_1,\ldots,X_d)^{\top}$ is called a random vector

That is, a random vector is a map from the probability space to \mathbb{R}^d .

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Definition

Let $X := (X_1, \dots, X_d)^{\top}$ be a random vector. The joint probability distribution distribution of X_1, \ldots, X_d is the corresponding probability distribution on all possible outputs of X_1, \ldots, X_d .

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Definition

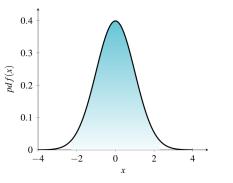
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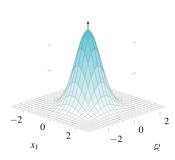
Let $X := (X_1, \dots, X_d)^{\top}$ be a random vector. The *covariance* matrix Σ is a $d \times d$ matrix whose (i, j) entry is the covariance

$$\Sigma_{ij} \coloneqq COV(X_i, X_j) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(X_i - \mathbb{E}\left[X_i\right]\right)\left(X_j - \mathbb{E}\left[X_j\right]\right)\right]$$

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(a) Univariate Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$

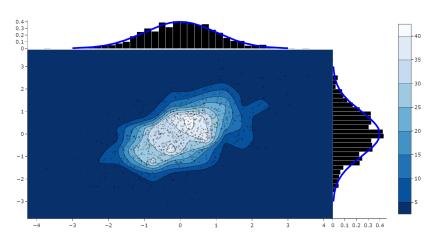


(b) Bivariate Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(0, I_2)$

Note: the contour lines of a Gaussian distribution as ellipsoids.

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Multivariate Gaussian Distribution - Empirical



Note: the contour lines simply capture the *empirical* density of the data.

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Definition

A random vector $X := (X_1, \dots, X_d)^{\top}$ follows a multivariate normal distribution with expectation $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and covariance matrix $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ if it has a joint probability density function of the form:

$$f(X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\Sigma|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(X - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu)\right\}$$

In this case we write $X \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \Sigma\right)$

Definition

Let $X \coloneqq (X_1, \dots, X_d)^{\top}$ be a random vector with a joint probability distribution function. The marginal distribution of a subset of coordinates $A \in [d]$ and $B = [d] \setminus A$, is the probability distribution of the coordinates in the set:

$$f(X_A) := \int_{X_B} f(X_A, X_B) \ dX_B$$

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In the case of the Gaussian distribution, the marginal distributions (of any coordinate subset size) is also a Gaussian distribution

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Claim: Let $X \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \Sigma\right)$ be a bivariate Gaussian, i.e $X = (X_1, X_2)^{\top}$, with a diagonal covariance matrix:

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} \sigma_1^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 \end{array}\right]\right)$$

In the case of the Gaussian distribution, the marginal distributions (of any coordinate subset size) is also a Gaussian distribution

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The marginal distribution of coordinate i is

$$f(X_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{X_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2\right)$$

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Returning to the task of describing human weight and height, we can now model each observation as a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, being the realization of a random vector $X \coloneqq (X_{weight}, X_{height})^{\top}$.

• Therefore a sample is $S \coloneqq \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m\}$, where each \mathbf{x}_i is the realization of X_i .

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- The j'th property $\mathbf{x}_i(j)$ is the realization of the j'th coordinate of X_i : $X_i^{(j)}$.

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Now, given a sample of m i.i.d observations we wish to estimate the distribution parameters

$$\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m \overset{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 75\\170 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1\\1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

 The multivariate sample mean estimator is simply the univariate estimator of each variable:

$$\hat{\mu} \coloneqq \left[\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \hat{\mu}_j \\ \vdots \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \frac{1}{m} \sum_i x_{i,j} \end{array} \right]$$

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 To define an estimator for the covariance matrix we first define an estimator of the sample covariance between two random variables. The unbised sample covariance estimator between X_i, X_i is given by

$$\hat{\sigma}(X_i, X_j) := \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{k} (x_{ki} - \hat{\mu}_i) (x_{kj} - \hat{\mu}_j)$$

• Then, the sample covariance matrix estimator is a $d \times d$ matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$ such that

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{ij} := \hat{\sigma}(X_i, X_j), \quad i, j \in [d]$$

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In matrix notation, for $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ whose rows are the samples $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m$ the:

biased sample covariance matrix is given by

$$\hat{\Sigma} := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu})^{\top} = \frac{1}{m} \widetilde{\mathbf{X}}^{\top} \widetilde{\mathbf{X}}$$

for $\widetilde{\mathbf{X}}$ being the centered matrix: $\widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{\cdot,i} \coloneqq \mathbf{X}_{\cdot,i} - \hat{\mu}$.

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 We have defined the basic terminology of estimation theory: observation, sample, i.i.d, decision rule, hypothesis class, estimator

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- We have seen how to estimate univariate and multivariate
 Gaussian distributions

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