

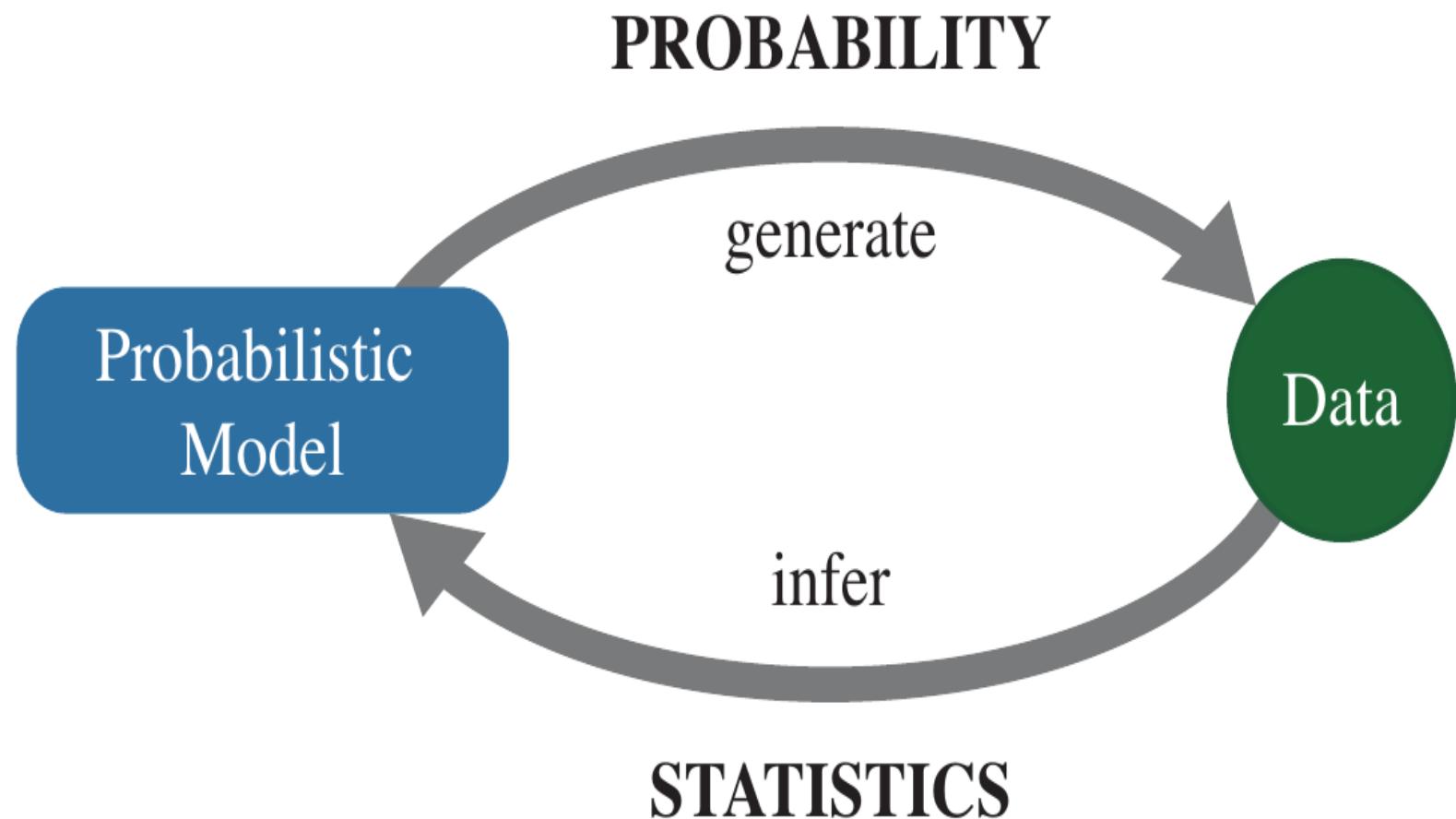
MA 6.101

# Probability and Statistics

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# Statistics



# Statistical Inference

- ▶ Statistical Inference methods deal with drawing inference about an unknown model/**random variable**/random process from observations/data.
- ▶ There is an unknown quantity  $\theta^*$  that we would like to estimate using data  $\mathcal{D}$ . eg: ML, communication systems.
- ▶ For the purpose of this course  $\mathcal{D}$  will contain samples of a random variable and  $\theta^*$  could be mean, variance, moments or parameters of the underlying random variable.
- ▶ Broadly, you can give 3 types of estimates for  $\theta^*$ .
  1. Point Estimation: Here you want to give a point estimate which is a single numerical value that is your best guess for  $\theta^*$ .
  2. Interval Estimation: here you give an interval on say  $\mathbb{R}$  where  $\theta^*$  is bound to lie with some certainty.
  3. Hypothesis testing: In binary hypothesis testing, you have two hypothesis ( $H_0 : \theta = \alpha_1$  and  $H_1 : \theta = \alpha_2$ ) and you use data  $\mathcal{D}$  to decide which is true.

# Statistical Inference

- ▶ There are two approaches to Statistical Inference:
  - 1) Bayesian 2) Frequentist (or classical)
- ▶ In Bayesian Inference, the unknown quantity is modelled as a random variable with a distribution that keeps changing as more and more data becomes available.
- ▶ Bayesian inference assumes a prior distribution  $p_{\Theta}(\theta)$  on the unknown parameter  $\theta^*$  and uses the likelihood  $p_{X|\Theta}(x|\theta)$  for observing data  $x$  to obtain the posterior  $p_{\Theta|x}(\theta|x)$
- ▶ In Bayesian inference, prior and posterior distribution reflect our state of knowledge.

# Frequentist or Classical Inference

- ▶ Classical Inference models the unknown quantity as a constant and come up with estimators that are deterministic functions of the observed data.
- ▶ Given data, these estimators are deterministic functions of the data, but in reality are also random variables.
- ▶ For example sample mean as an estimator for the mean.

# Classical Inference: Point Estimation

- ▶ Let  $\theta^*$  denote the unknown parameter of a random variable  $X$  (typically mean, variance, scale, shape etc) and suppose we observe i.i.d samples of  $X$  which are recorded in the dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .
- ▶ In frequentist approach, we estimate  $\theta^*$ , by defining a point estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  as a function of the random samples  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  as  $\hat{\Theta} = h(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ .
- ▶ While  $\hat{\Theta}$  is a random variable, given  $\mathcal{D}$  the estimator takes the value  $\hat{\Theta} = h(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .
- ▶ Example : Sample mean  $\hat{\mu}_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$ .

## Point Estimators: Properties

- The Bias  $B(\hat{\Theta})$  of an estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is defined as

$$B(\hat{\Theta}) = E[\hat{\Theta}] - \theta^*$$

- Unbiased estimators are estimators with zero bias, i.e.,  $B(\hat{\Theta}) = 0$  and hence  $E[\hat{\Theta}] = \theta^*$
- Are all unbiased estimators good ? Let  $\hat{\Theta}_1 = X_1$  and  $\hat{\Theta}_2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$ . Which estimator is better?
- $Var(\hat{\Theta}_1) = \sigma^2$  while  $Var(\hat{\Theta}_2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ .
- We need other measures to determine how good an estimator is, something that looks at the variance of these estimators.

# Mean square error of Point Estimators

- The mean squared error of an estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is defined as

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}) = E[(\hat{\Theta} - \theta^*)^2]$$

- Note that

$$\begin{aligned} MSE(\hat{\Theta}) &= E[(\hat{\Theta} - \theta^*)^2] \\ &= Var(\hat{\Theta} - \theta^*) + E[\hat{\Theta} - \theta^*]^2 \\ &= Var(\hat{\Theta}) + Bias(\hat{\Theta})^2 \end{aligned}$$

- This means that biased estimators could possibly have lower MSE error if they have extremely low variance!
- Find MSE of  $\hat{\Theta}_1 = X_1$  and  $\hat{\Theta}_2 = \hat{\mu}_n + 1$ .
- Bias-Variance tradeoff talks a lot in machine learning!

## Consistency of estimators

- ▶ What happens to estimators as the size of the data set ( $|\mathcal{D}| = n$ ) increases? Do all estimators converge to  $\theta^*$ ?
- ▶ Not necessarily! For example  $\hat{\Theta}_1 = X_i$  where  $X_i$  is picked random from  $\mathcal{D}$  does not converge.
- ▶ What about  $\hat{\mu}_n$ . Using SLLN, we see that this does.
- ▶ Let  $\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\Theta}_n, \dots$ , be a sequence of point estimators of  $\theta^*$  (here  $n$  denotes the size of the dataset) We say that  $\hat{\Theta}_n$  is a **consistent estimator** of  $\theta$ , if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\hat{\Theta}_n - \theta^*| \geq \epsilon) = 0, \quad \text{for all } \epsilon > 0$$

- ▶ This is convergence in probability. If almost sure convergence holds, it is called strongly consistent.
- ▶ Clearly,  $\hat{\Theta}_n = \hat{\mu}_n$  is strongly consistent and hence consistent.

## RECAP

- ▶ A point estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is a function of the random samples  
$$\hat{\Theta} = h(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$
- ▶ The Bias  $B(\hat{\Theta})$  of an estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is defined as

$$B(\hat{\Theta}) = E[\hat{\Theta}] - \theta^*$$

- ▶ The mean squared error of an estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is defined as

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}) = E[(\hat{\Theta} - \theta^*)^2]$$

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- ▶  $MSE(\hat{\Theta}) = Var(\hat{\Theta}) + Bias(\hat{\Theta})^2$
- ▶ We say that  $\hat{\Theta}_n$  is a **consistent estimator** of  $\theta$ , if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\hat{\Theta}_n - \theta^*| \geq \epsilon) = 0, \quad \text{for all } \epsilon > 0$$

# Markov's Inequality: Statement

**Markov's Inequality:** Let  $X$  be a non-negative random variable, and let  $a > 0$ . Then:

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}.$$

## Key Points:

- ▶ Applies to **non-negative** random variables.
- ▶ Provides an upper bound on the probability of large deviations.
- ▶ Useful in analyzing tail probabilities.

# Proof of Markov's Inequality

## Proof:

Let  $X$  be a positive continuous random variable. We start by writing the expectation  $\mathbb{E}[X]$  as:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf_X(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} xf_X(x) dx \quad (\text{since } X \geq 0).$$

For any  $a > 0$ , we can split the integral as follows:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^a xf_X(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} xf_X(x) dx.$$

Thus,

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \geq \int_a^{\infty} xf_X(x) dx.$$

## Proof of Markov's Inequality (cont'd)

Since  $x \geq a$  for  $x \in [a, \infty)$ , we have

$$\int_a^\infty xf_X(x) dx \geq \int_a^\infty af_X(x) dx = a \int_a^\infty f_X(x) dx.$$

Now, we recognize that  $\int_a^\infty f_X(x) dx = \mathbb{P}(X \geq a)$ , so:

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \geq a \cdot \mathbb{P}(X \geq a).$$

Dividing both sides by  $a$  (for  $a > 0$ ), we conclude:

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{a}.$$

