

Lecture 10 Estimation of Random Variables

Instructor Name: John Lipor

Recommended Reading: Pishro-Nik: 9.1.0 - 9.1.6, 8.2.2; Gubner: 8.4 - 8.6

In Lecture 5, we saw how the likelihood and posterior distributions can be used to decide between two hypotheses, resulting in the maximum likelihood (ML) and maximum a posteriori (MAP) detection rules. In the machine learning world, deciding between a finite number of hypotheses is known as *classification*. What if we instead wish to estimate an actual parameter (called *regression* in the machine learning world) instead of deciding among a few possible options?

Example 1. The canonical example of estimation is the case where we observe a noisy random variable $Y_i = X + Z_i$, where X is a parameter of interest, and Z_i is zero-mean noise.

1 Minimum Mean-Squared Error (MMSE) Estimation

One approach to estimation is to minimize the mean-squared error (MSE) between the estimate and the true value, i.e., to minimize

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{X}) = \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - X)^2 \right].$$

First, what is random in the above expression? Since we are estimating the RV X , we know that piece is random. Note also that if our observations are at all useful, \hat{X} will be a function of the Y_i 's, so the expectation above is a joint expectation.

1.1 MMSE Estimation With No Observations

Suppose we wish to estimate X without obtaining any observations Y_i . What is the best choice? In this case, the expectation when computing the MSE is only over X , so we can compute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - X)^2 \right] &= \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[X] - X)^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbb{E}[X] - X)^2 \right] + 2\mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - \mathbb{E}[X]) (\mathbb{E}[X] - X) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Note that \hat{X} and $\mathbb{E}[X]$ are both deterministic, so the last term above becomes

$$2(\hat{X} - \mathbb{E}[X]) \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X] - X] = 2(\hat{X} - \mathbb{E}[X]) (\mathbb{E}[X] - \mathbb{E}[X]) = 0.$$

Therefore, we see the following **extremely important** breakdown of MSE

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{X}) = \underbrace{(\hat{X} - \mathbb{E}[X])^2}_{\text{bias squared}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]}_{\text{variance}}.$$

In other words, the MSE can be decomposed into the sum of squared bias and variance. In machine learning, we spend a great deal of time developing estimators that balance these two terms. In estimation theory, we have no control over the variance, so the \hat{X} that minimizes the above is

$$\hat{X} = \mathbb{E}[X]. \tag{1}$$

1.2 MMSE Estimation With Observations

Now suppose we observe the RV Y and want to incorporate this information. To do this, we first establish a broader fact known as the *orthogonality principle*.

Theorem 1 (Orthogonality Principle). Let $\hat{X} = g(Y)$ be an estimator of X . If

$$\mathbb{E} [h(Y) (X - g(Y))] = 0$$

for all functions h , then

$$\mathbb{E} [(X - g(Y))^2] \leq \mathbb{E} [(X - h(Y))^2],$$

i.e., $g(Y)$ is the MMSE estimator.

Proof. We again use the “add and subtract” trick to rewrite the MSE

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - h(Y))^2] &= \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - g(Y) + g(Y) - h(Y))^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - g(Y))^2] + \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(g(Y) - h(Y))^2] - 2\mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - g(Y))(h(Y) - g(Y))]. \end{aligned}$$

Since $h(Y) - g(Y)$ is a function of Y , the final term above is zero by assumption of the theorem. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - h(Y))^2] &= \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - g(Y))^2] + \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(g(Y) - h(Y))^2] \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}_{XY} [(X - g(Y))^2] \end{aligned}$$

as desired, since the square of anything is nonnegative. \square

To gain some intuition for this theorem, we can think of X and Y as vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 . In this case, we’re trying to find the closest vector to X that lies in the direction of Y . In this case, we want to “project” X on to the span of Y , so the residual $X - g(Y)$ should be orthogonal to Y and any function of Y .

With the orthogonality principle in mind, we now present a function $g(Y)$ that satisfies the orthogonality principle and is therefore the MMSE estimator.

Theorem 2. Let $g(Y) = \mathbb{E}[X | Y]$. Then for all functions h ,

$$\mathbb{E} [h(Y) (X - g(Y))] = 0.$$

Proof. Using the law of total probability,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{XY} [h(Y) (X - g(Y))] &= \mathbb{E}_Y [\mathbb{E}_{X|Y} [h(Y) (X - g(Y))]] \\ &= \int_Y \mathbb{E}_{X|Y} [h(Y) (X - g(Y))] f_Y(y) dy \\ &= \int_Y h(Y) (\mathbb{E}_{X|Y} [X | Y = y] - g(y)) f_Y(y) dy \\ &= \int_Y h(Y) (\mathbb{E}_{X|Y} [X | Y = y] - \mathbb{E}_{X|Y} [X | Y = y]) f_Y(y) dy \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

\square

Combining the above with the orthogonality principle, we see that

$$\hat{X}_{MMSE} = \mathbb{E}[X | Y]. \quad (2)$$

1.3 Linear MMSE Estimation

Sometimes finding $\mathbb{E}[X | Y]$ is too difficult, since it may require knowing the joint distribution of X and Y , which I've mentioned can be impractical. One way to overcome this difficulty is to limit ourselves to simple estimators. One such restriction is to require that \hat{X} be a linear (actually affine) function of Y , i.e.,

$$\hat{X} = aY + b$$

for some constants $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\mu_X = \mathbb{E}[X]$ and $\mu_Y = \mathbb{E}[Y]$. To find a linear estimator, we plug this form of \hat{X} into the MSE equation to see that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - X)^2 \right] &= \mathbb{E} \left[(X - (aY + b))^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[(X - \mu_X - a(Y - \mu_Y) + (\mu_X - a\mu_Y - b))^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[(X - \mu_X - a(Y - \mu_Y))^2 \right] + (\mu_X - a\mu_Y - b)^2 + 2(\mu_X - a\mu_Y - b) \mathbb{E}[X - \mu_X - a(Y - \mu_Y)]. \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\mathbb{E}[X - \mu_X - a(Y - \mu_Y)] = \mathbb{E}[X - \mu_X] - a\mathbb{E}[Y - \mu_Y] = 0,$$

so

$$\mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{X} - X)^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[(X - \mu_X - a(Y - \mu_Y))^2 \right] + (\mu_X - a\mu_Y - b)^2.$$

Our goal now is to minimize the above over a and b . We begin by minimizing b , which we can do by making the second term zero, resulting in

$$b = \mu_X - a\mu_Y.$$

To find a , let $\bar{X} = X - \mu_X$ and $\bar{Y} = Y - \mu_Y$. We wish to minimize (over a)

$$\mathbb{E} \left[(\bar{X} - a\bar{Y})^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\bar{X}^2 + a^2\bar{Y}^2 - 2a\bar{X}\bar{Y} \right].$$

We can ignore the first term since it does not depend on a , so we wish to solve

$$\min_a a^2 \mathbb{E}[\bar{Y}^2] - 2a \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}\bar{Y}].$$

Differentiating and setting to zero, we see that

$$a = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}\bar{Y}]}{\mathbb{E}[\bar{Y}^2]} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\text{var}(Y)}.$$

Putting this all together gives the linear MMSE estimator

$$\hat{X}_{LMMSE} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\text{var}(Y)} (Y - \mu_Y) + \mu_X. \quad (3)$$

2 Minimum Absolute Error (MAE) Estimation

There is no reason to be restricted to the MSE as a cost function for our estimator. Another obvious function to consider is the absolute error

$$\text{AE}(\hat{X}) = |\hat{X} - X|.$$

As you showed on Homework 3, the optimal MAE estimator is the median of the resulting distribution

$$\hat{X}_{MAE} = \text{median}_x f_{X|Y}(x | y). \quad (4)$$

3 Maximum Likelihood (ML) Estimation

The ML estimator is probably the most used and has some nice properties that are discussed in future courses. It is defined as

$$\hat{X}_{ML} = \arg \max_x f_{Y|X}(y | x). \quad (5)$$

4 Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) Estimation

Just as with detection, we can define the MAP estimator, which is the same as ML if we have uniform priors on X .

$$\hat{X}_{MAP} = \arg \max_x f_{X|Y}(x | y) = \arg \max_x f_{Y|X}(y | x)f_X(x). \quad (6)$$