

Unbiased Parameter Estimation

[Following Jaynes' book, sections 13.8 and 9, 17.2]

Estimate parameter α from data $\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$

using a function of the data - an "estimator" $\beta(\underline{x})$.

An "unbiased" estimate has the property $\langle \beta(\underline{x}) \rangle = \alpha$.

Given density $f(\underline{x} | \alpha)$,

$$\langle \beta(\underline{x}) \rangle = \int \beta(\underline{x}) f(\underline{x} | \alpha) d\underline{x}$$

\uparrow
 $\iint \dots \int dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_n$

For example, variance of a variable x_c given n independent samples, \underline{x} .

$$f(\underline{x} | \alpha) = g(x_1 | \alpha) g(x_2 | \alpha) \dots g(x_n | \alpha)$$

$$\text{and } \alpha = \langle (x - \langle x \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$$

$$\langle x \rangle = \int x' g(x' | \alpha) dx'$$

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As an estimator, try:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \beta(\bar{x}) &= \overline{(x - \bar{x})^2} = \bar{x}^2 - \bar{x}^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i \right)^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_i x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n^2} \left(\sum_i x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} x_i x_j \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} \left((n-1) \sum_i x_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i \neq j} x_i x_j \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{So } \langle \beta \rangle &= \frac{1}{n^2} \left[(n-1) \sum_i \underbrace{\int x_i^2 g(x_i | \alpha) dx_i}_{\langle x^2 \rangle} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - \sum_{i \neq j} \underbrace{\int x_i g(x_i | \alpha) dx_i}_{\langle x \rangle} \underbrace{\int x_j g(x_j | \alpha) dx_j}_{\langle x \rangle} \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} \left[(n-1) \cdot n \langle x^2 \rangle - \underbrace{n(n-1)}_{n} \cdot \langle x \rangle^2 \right] \\
 &= \frac{n-1}{n} \left(\langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 \right) \\
 &\downarrow \\
 \therefore \langle \beta \rangle &= \frac{n-1}{n} \alpha \quad \text{So } \beta \text{ is a "biased" estimator.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Easy to construct an "unbiased" estimator $\hat{\beta}$: ③

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i. \text{ Then } \langle \hat{\beta} \rangle = \alpha.$$

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \leftarrow \text{usual "sample variance" formula.}$$

- "degree of freedom" argument
- Fishy?

How well do we expect $\hat{\beta}$ to do on average?

↑ define wellness via "cost" function $(\alpha - \hat{\beta})^2$
 For arbitrary estimator β , (error)

$$\langle (\alpha - \beta)^2 \rangle = \alpha^2 - 2\alpha \langle \beta \rangle + \langle \beta^2 \rangle$$

$$\uparrow \beta(x) = \underbrace{(\alpha - \langle \beta \rangle)^2}_{\text{"bias"}} + \underbrace{\langle \beta^2 \rangle - \langle \beta \rangle^2}_{\text{"variance"}}$$

Want this to be small, so want to eliminate both "bias" and "variance"

→ "unbiased minimum variance" estimators

"efficient" in older terminology.

In our example of sample variance, what is the effect
on the quality of the estimate by eliminating the bias? (4)

$$\text{bias is } (\alpha - \langle \hat{\beta} \rangle)^2 = \alpha^2 \left(1 - \left(\frac{n-1}{n} \right) \right)^2$$
$$= \frac{\alpha^2}{n^2}, \text{ so we lose that from the cost function.}$$

new variance is: $\langle \hat{\beta}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{\beta} \rangle^2 = \left(\frac{n}{n-1} \right)^2 \underbrace{\left(\langle \beta^2 \rangle - \langle \beta \rangle^2 \right)}$
old variance.

For large n , lose small bias contribution,
but variance contribution stays \sim constant,
but gets slightly bigger.

Is this the best we can do?

Why quadratic loss?

Where do estimators come from? Do we have
to guess them then measure their cost?

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Let's keep the cost function arbitrary: $L(\alpha, \beta)$.

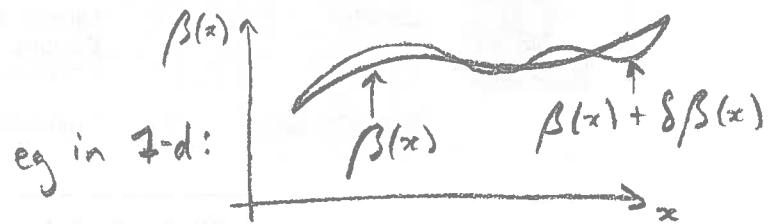
Expected cost: $R_\alpha = \int L(\alpha, \beta) f(x|\alpha) dx$

\uparrow
 $\beta(x)$

Given L , what is $\beta(x)$ that minimizes R_α ?

Variational calculus!

$$\delta R_\alpha = \int \frac{\delta L(\alpha, \beta(x))}{\delta \beta} \delta \beta f(x|\alpha) dx$$



R_α at a minimum when $\delta R_\alpha = 0 \quad \forall \delta \beta$

$\Rightarrow \frac{\delta L}{\delta \beta} = 0 \quad ? \quad$ So loss function doesn't depend on β ?

- need to rethink!

We are asking: "given α , what is the best estimator?"

answer is: $\beta(x) = \alpha$ - indep of x !

Any solution to the problem as posed would depend on α , but we ... actually, start a new page for this.

(6)

Any solution to the problem as posed would depend
on the particular value of α on which $f(z|\alpha)$ is conditioned,

so: " $\beta_\alpha(z)$ "

But we don't know α - that is why we need an estimator
in the first place! The best estimator will protect
against cost no matter what α turns out to be.

So instead minimize:

$$R = \int g(\alpha) R_\alpha d\alpha$$

where $g(\alpha)$ measures relative importance of R_α
for the different possible values of α .

Now: variational calculus again:

$$\delta R = \int_z \int_x g(\alpha) \frac{\delta L(z, \beta)}{\delta \beta} f(z|\alpha) dz \delta \beta(z) dx$$

for this to vanish under arbitrary small changes to $\beta(z)$,
this must vanish.

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$$\int g(\alpha) \frac{\delta L(\alpha, \beta)}{\delta \beta} f(z|\alpha) d\alpha = 0$$

This lets us solve for functional form of β given a choice of cost metric $L(\alpha, \beta)$ that gives the best estimator for α .

Eg: quadratic cost from before: $L(\alpha, \beta) = c(\alpha - \beta)^2$

$$\text{get: } \int g(\alpha) (\alpha - \beta) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta(z) = \frac{\int \alpha \cdot g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha}{\int g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha}$$

↑ note ordering!

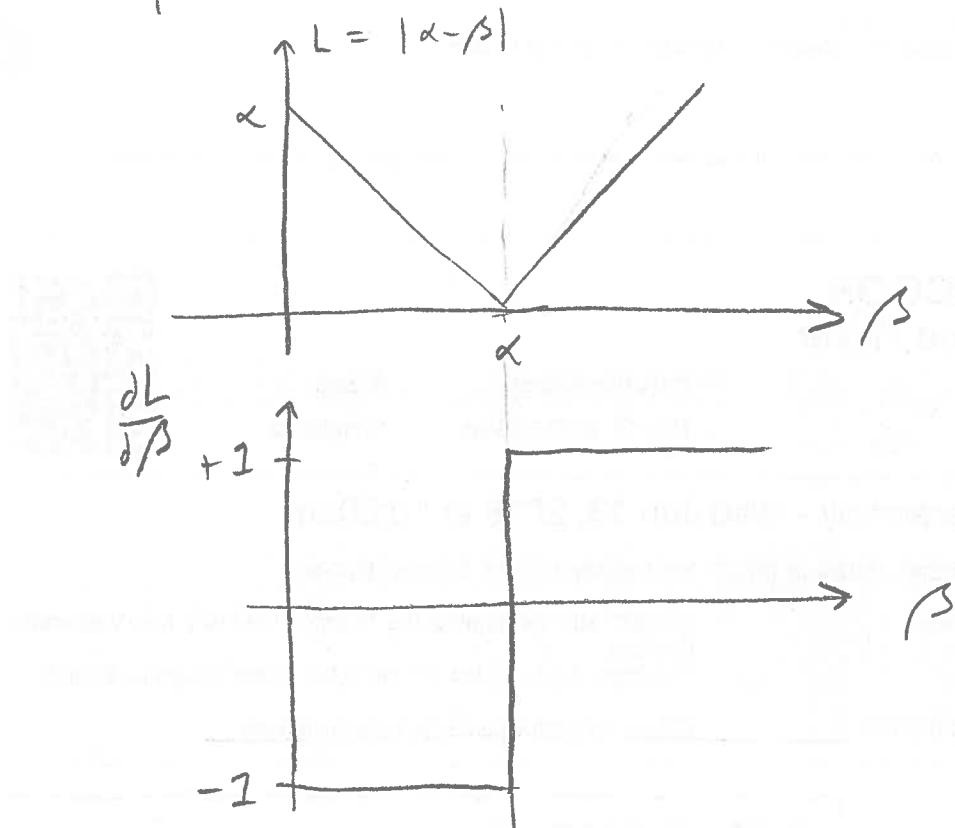
$$\text{write as } \beta(z) = \int \alpha f(\alpha|z) d\alpha$$

where $f(\alpha|z) = \frac{g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha)}{\int g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha}$ is the (normalized) posterior density for α if $g(\alpha)$ is the prior.

ie $\beta(z) = \langle \alpha \rangle$, the posterior mean.

over prob of α , not z , now!

Next example: absolute error $L(\alpha, \beta) = |\alpha - \beta|$. (8)



so in α integral, when $\alpha < \beta$, $L = -1$

$\alpha > \beta$, $L = +1$

$$\rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\beta} g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha = \int_{\beta}^{\infty} g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha$$

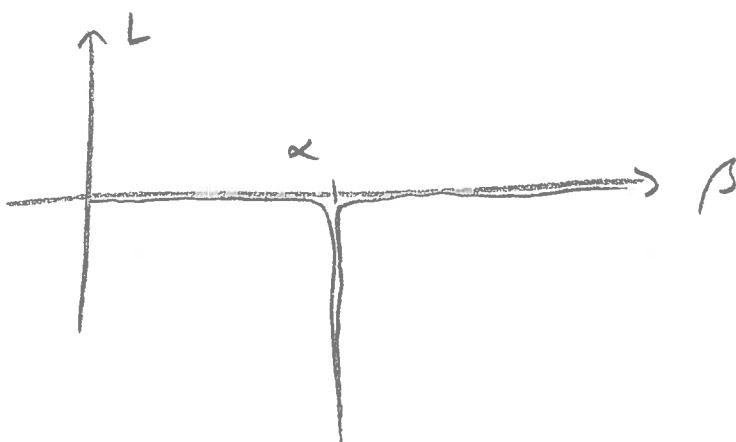
$\Rightarrow \beta$ is median over posterior density $f(\alpha|z)$.

Final example: L is "inverted delta function" (9)

$$L(\alpha, \beta) = -\delta(\alpha - \beta).$$

So, dramatic drop in cost when β estimates correctly, but if incorrect, don't really care ↪

by how much:



Have, in terms of posterior density $f(\alpha | x)$:

$$\int \frac{\partial L}{\partial \beta} f(\alpha | x) d\alpha = 0$$

$$\therefore -\frac{d}{d\beta} \int \delta(\alpha - \beta) f(\alpha | x) d\alpha = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{d\beta} f(\beta | x) = 0 \rightarrow \underline{\text{mode}} \text{ of posterior.}$$

IF $g(\alpha) \sim \text{const}$ where likelihood $f(x | \alpha)$ peaks,
then we have: Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

- have insight into what it achieves / when it is appropriate.
ie when ↪

Moral

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"Bias" in statistics is a term that carries an implied value judgement, causing us to be biased against it.

By removing "bias" alone, we don't get the best estimator.

In that sense, "unbiased" estimators are biased away from the best answer. By removing our bias against statistical "bias", we arrive at truly unbiased estimators

- those derived via

$$\int_{\delta L}^{\delta \beta} g(\alpha) f(z|\alpha) d\alpha = 0$$