

X Lecture 8, Oct. 27, 2010

Estimation of non-random parameters

As in the case of random parameter estimation assume that our observation $Y \in \Gamma$ has a conditional distribution P_θ where $\theta \in \Lambda$.

However, in this case θ is a fixed value but unknown to us. That is, we either do not know about its statistical properties or it is non-random (fixed) but unknown.

In this case, as in the case of random parameters, the conditional risk is

$$R_\theta(\hat{\theta}) = E_\theta \{ C(\hat{\theta}(Y), \theta) \}, \theta \in \Lambda$$

and in the case of squared-error:

$$R_\theta(\hat{\theta}) = E_\theta \{ (\hat{\theta}(Y) - \theta)^2 \}, \theta \in \Lambda$$

Since we do not have any prior on Λ , we cannot average over θ and we can only average over Y . So, we can only minimize $R_\theta(\hat{\theta})$.

But, it is not usually possible to minimize this uniformly for all θ . For example, in the

case of mean-squared-error, we can minimize

$R_{\theta}(\hat{\theta}) = E_{\theta} \{ (\hat{\theta}(Y) - \theta)^2 \}$ for each value of θ , say θ_0 , by equating $\hat{\theta}(Y)$ with θ_0 and making $R_{\theta_0}(\hat{\theta}) = 0$. But this is not a good solution if θ_0 is not close to the actual value of θ .

So, it is clear that in this case, Minimum Mean-Squared-Error Criterion by itself is not sufficient for finding the estimator for non-random parameters.

It is necessary, therefore, to put restrictions on the estimator in order to avoid solutions such as $\hat{\theta}(Y) = \theta_0$.

Un-biased estimator

One reasonable restriction is to require that the expected value of the estimate be equal to the actual value of the parameter, i. e.,

$$E_{\theta} \{ \hat{\theta}(Y) \} = \theta$$

Such an estimate is called un-biased estimate.

Mean-Squared-Error for an un-biased estimate will be the variance of the estimate. So, the minimum-mean-squared error estimator in this case will be Minimum-Variance Un-biased Estimator (MVUE).

Sufficient Statistics:

Let Δ be an arbitrary set and D be its event class then the function $T: (\Gamma, G) \rightarrow (\Delta, D)$ is called a sufficient statistics if the distribution of Y given $T(Y)$ does not depend on θ . It means that knowing $T(Y)$, we do not need to look more into Y to get any clue about θ .

Minimum Sufficient Statistics:

A function $T(Y)$ on (Γ, G) is called

the minimal sufficient statistics for $\{P_\theta, \theta \in \Lambda\}$ if it is a function of every other sufficient statistics for $\{P_\theta, \theta \in \Lambda\}$.

This means that the minimum sufficient statistics is the most compact form that the observation can be compressed without destroying the information about θ .

The factorization Theorem:

Let $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Lambda\}$ have a family of densities $\{p(y|\theta); \theta \in \Lambda\}$. A statistics T is sufficient for θ if and only if there are functions g_θ such that

$$p(y|\theta) = g[T(y)|\theta]h(y) = g_\theta(T(y))h(y)$$

for all $y \in \Gamma$ and $\theta \in \Lambda$.

Proof: Consider the case of discrete Γ .

Suppose Γ is discrete and $\{p(y|\theta); \theta \in \Lambda\}$

satisfies $p(y|\theta) = g_\theta(T(y))h(y)$. Let

$p_\theta(y|x) = p(y|T(y)=x)$ be the conditional density

of Y given $T(Y) = t$, when $Y \sim P_\theta$.

Then, using Bayes formula:

$$P(Y | T(Y) = t, \theta) = \frac{P(Y = y | \theta) P[T(Y) = t | Y = y, \theta]}{P[T(Y) = t | \theta]}$$

But

$$P[T(Y) = t | Y = y, \theta] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } T(Y) = t \\ 0 & \text{if } T(Y) \neq t \end{cases}$$

and $P(Y = y | \theta) = p(y | \theta)$.

So:

$$P(Y | T(Y) = t, \theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{p(y | \theta)}{P(T(Y) = t | \theta)} & \text{if } T(Y) = t \\ 0 & \text{if } T(Y) \neq t \end{cases}$$

But, we have

$$P(T(Y) = t | \theta) = \sum_{\{y | T(y) = t\}} P(y | \theta).$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} P(T(Y) = t | \theta) &= \sum_{\{y | T(y) = t\}} g(T(y) | \theta) h(y) \\ &= g(t | \theta) \sum_{\{y | T(y) = t\}} h(y) \end{aligned}$$

We also have,

$$p(y|\theta) = g(t|\theta)h(y)$$

So:

$$p(y|T(y)=t, \theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{h(y)}{\sum_{\{y|T(y)=t\}} h(y)} & \text{if } T(y)=t \\ 0 & \text{if } T(y) \neq t \end{cases}$$

It is seen that this conditional density does not depend on θ . So, $T(y)$ is sufficient statistics for θ .

On the other hand (to prove only if part):

$$p(y|\theta) = p(y|T(y), \theta) p(T(y)=T(y)|\theta)$$

Since T is sufficient for θ , $p(y|T(y), \theta)$ depends only on y and not on θ . Also

$P[T(y)=T(y)|\theta]$ is a function of $T(y)$ and θ only. Let

$$h(y) \triangleq p(y|T(y), \theta)$$

and

$$g_{\theta}(T(y)) \triangleq P(T(y)=T(y)|\theta)$$

Then we have

$$p(y|\theta) = g_{\theta}(T(y))h(y)$$

Sufficient Statistics for Hypothesis Testing

You noticed in previous lectures when we dealt with detection problem, any sort of hypothesis testing ended up with a ratio test dealing with the ratio of $p(y|H_1)$ over $p(y|H_0)$, i. e.,

$$L(y) = \frac{p(y|H_1)}{p(y|H_0)} = \frac{p(y|\theta=1)}{p(y|\theta=0)}$$

Note that,

$$p(y|\theta) = \begin{cases} p(y|\theta=0) & \text{if } \theta=0 \\ \frac{p(y|\theta=1)}{p(y|\theta=0)} p(y|\theta=0) & \text{if } \theta=1 \end{cases}$$

So, if we choose $h(y) = p(y|\theta=0)$

$$g_{\theta}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \theta=0 \\ x & \text{if } \theta=1 \end{cases}$$

Then

$$p(y|\theta) = g_{\theta}[L(y)]h(y)$$

So, $L(y) = \frac{p(y|H_1)}{p(y|H_0)}$ is sufficient statistics for H_j .

The Rao-Blackwell Theorem

Suppose $\hat{g}(Y)$ is an unbiased estimate of $g(\theta)$ and that T is sufficient for θ .

Define

$$\tilde{g}[T(Y)] = E_{\theta} \{ \hat{g}(Y) | T(Y) = T(Y) \}$$

Then $\tilde{g}[T(Y)]$ is also an unbiased estimate of $g(\theta)$. Furthermore,

$$\text{Var}_{\theta}(\tilde{g} | T(Y)) \leq \text{Var}_{\theta}[\hat{g}(Y)]$$

with equality if and only if,

$$P[\hat{g}(Y) = \tilde{g}(T(Y)) | \theta] = 1.$$

Proof: See the text, page 161.

This theorem gives us a means to find MVUE for a parameter starting from any estimate.

Of course, in case there is a unique unbiased estimate, that estimate is itself MVUE.

Definition:

The family of distributions $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Lambda\}$ is said to be complete if

$$E_\theta \{f(Y)\} = 0 \text{ for all } \theta \in \Lambda$$

implies that

$$P\{f(Y) = 0 | \theta\} = 1 \text{ for all } \theta \in \Lambda.$$

A sufficient statistics T is said to be complete if its distribution $\{Q_\theta; \theta \in \Lambda\}$ is complete.

Assume that T is sufficient statistics for θ and $\tilde{g}(T(Y))$ and $g^*(T(Y))$ are functions of $T(Y)$ that are unbiased estimates of $g(\theta)$.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} E_\theta \{ \tilde{g}(T(Y)) - g^*(T(Y)) \} &= E_\theta \{ \tilde{g}(T(Y)) \} - E_\theta \{ g^*(T(Y)) \} \\ &= g(\theta) - g(\theta) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Because of completeness, we have ^{for all $\theta \in \Lambda$}

$$P[\tilde{g}(T(Y)) = g^*(T(Y))] = 1 \text{ all } \theta \in \Lambda.$$

This means that for a complete sufficient statistics the MVUE is unique.

So, the procedure for seeking MVUE can be summarized as:

1) Find a complete sufficient statistics T for $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Lambda\}$

2) Find any unbiased estimator $\hat{g}(Y)$ for $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Lambda\}$

3) Then find

$$\tilde{g}[T(Y)] = E_\theta \{ \hat{g}(Y) | T(Y) = T(Y) \}$$

This is the MVUE for $g(\theta)$.

Maximum-Likelihood Estimation

The above discussed technique is not always applicable either because of complexity or lack of ^{complete} sufficient statistics.

An alternative is to use Maximum-Likelihood Estimation or ML estimation.

Similar to the case of detection ML technique is optimal only if the parameter to be estimated is uniformly distributed. In such a case

ML detection (estimation as the case is here) is same as the MAP detection (or estimation).

Note that MAP estimation consists in finding θ that maximizes $w(\theta)p(y|\theta)$, i.e.,

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}(y) = \arg\{\max_{\theta \in \Lambda} w(\theta)p(y|\theta)\}$$

In the absence of any prior for θ , we can assume that θ is uniformly distributed, i.e., $w(\theta) = k \quad \forall \theta \in \Lambda$ where $k = \frac{1}{\text{Vol}(\Lambda)}$.

For example in case of a phase variable, we may assume $w(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \quad \theta \in [0, 2\pi]$.

With constant $w(\theta)$, the maximization is done on $p(y|\theta)$, i.e., on the likelihood function of y (given θ):

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}}(y) = \arg\{\max_{\theta \in \Lambda} p(y|\theta)\}$$

maximizing $p(y|\theta)$ is equivalent to maximizing $\log p(y|\theta)$. If $\log p(y|\theta)$

is smooth enough, we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log P_i(y|\theta) \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}_{ML}(y)} = 0$$

Note that in case of MAP estimation, we needed to maximize $p(\theta|y)$, i.e.,

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{w(\theta)P(y|\theta)}{P(y)}$$

or its \log : $\log\{p(\theta|y)\}$. So, for MAP, we had to set

$$\left[\frac{\partial \log P(y|\theta)}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial \log w(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right]_{\theta = \hat{\theta}_{MAP}} = 0$$

in the case of non-random parameters, or, equivalently, uniformly distributed parameters the second term vanishes and we have ML estimation.

Example: Consider the problem of estimating a parameter θ in additive noise, i.e.,

$$y_i = \theta + N_i \quad i=1, 2, \dots, n$$

where $N_i \sim (0, \sigma_N^2)$ i.i.d

- 1) First assume that $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma_\theta^2)$. Find MAP estimate.
- 2) Assume that θ is a non-random parameter and find ML estimate.

$$P(\theta | \underline{y}) = \frac{w(\theta) p(\underline{y} | \theta)}{\int_{\Lambda} w(\theta) p(\underline{y} | \theta) d\theta} = \frac{w(\theta) p(\underline{y} | \theta)}{p(\underline{y})}$$

$$p(\underline{y} | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_N} e^{-\frac{(y_i - \theta)^2}{2\sigma_N^2}}$$

and

$$w(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_\theta} e^{-\frac{\theta^2}{2\sigma_\theta^2}}$$

We do not need to find $p(\underline{y})$ since it is not dependant on θ . We can just maximize $w(\theta) p(\underline{y} | \theta)$.

$$P(\theta | \underline{y}) = K(\underline{y}) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_m^2} \left(\theta - \frac{\sigma_m^2}{\sigma_N^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i\right)\right)^2\right]$$

where

$$\sigma_m^2 = \frac{\sigma_\theta^2 \sigma_N^2}{n\sigma_\theta^2 + \sigma_N^2}$$

The MAP estimate results by choosing

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}(\underline{y}) &= \frac{\sigma_m^2}{\sigma_N^2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \\ &= \frac{\sigma_\theta^2}{\sigma_\theta^2 + \sigma_N^2/n} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right)\end{aligned}$$

Note that $T(\underline{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ is a sufficient statistics for θ .

2) Now for the case where θ is non-random.

Since θ has no prior, we take $w(\theta) = \text{constant}$ and find ML estimate by taking derivative of $\log p(\underline{y}|\theta)$, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\underline{y}|\theta) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_N} \exp\left[-\frac{(y_i - \theta)^2}{2\sigma_N^2}\right] \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - n\theta \right) = 0\end{aligned}$$

or

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

That is, the ML estimate is the sample mean of observations.

Example 2: Consider estimating $g(\theta)$ which is a non-linear function of θ in Gaussian Noise, i. e.,

$$y_i = g(\theta) + N_i \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

where

$$N_i \sim (0, \sigma_N^2) \quad \text{i. i. d.}$$

$$P(\underline{y} | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma_N} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_N^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - g(\theta))^2\right]$$

Here,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log P(\underline{y} | \theta) = \frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - g(\theta)] \frac{\partial g(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}_{ML}} = 0$$

or

$$\left[\frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} \frac{\partial g(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right] \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - g(\theta) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}_{ML}} = 0$$

So

$$g(\hat{\theta}_{ML}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

or

$$\hat{\theta}_{ML}(\underline{y}) = g^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \right]$$