Hodgepodge | CSE 312 Spring 24

Biased

One property we might want from an estimator is for it to be unbiased.

An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is "unbiased" if $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$

The expectation is taken over the randomness in the samples we drew. The formula is fixed, the data we draw to evaluate the formula becomes the source of the randomness.

So we're not consistently overestimating or underestimating.

If an estimator isn't unbiased then it's **biased**.

Not Unbiased

$$
\mathbb{E}[\widehat{\theta_{\sigma^2}}] = \mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \widehat{\theta_{\mu}})^2]
$$

$$
= \frac{n-1}{n}\sigma^2
$$

Which is not what we wanted. This is a biased estimator. But it's not too biased…

> An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is "consistent" if lim $n\rightarrow\infty$ $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$

The MLE is consistent (under some very mild assumptions), but it can be biased or unbiased.

Correction

The MLE slightly underestimates the true variance.

You could correct for this! Just multiply by $\frac{n}{n}$ $n-1$.

This would give you a formula of:

$$
\frac{n}{n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \widehat{\theta_\mu})^2
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \widehat{\theta_\mu})^2
$$
 where $\widehat{\theta_\mu}$ is the sample mean.

Called the "sample variance" because it's the variance you estimate if you want an (unbiased) estimate of the variance given only a sample.

If you took a statistics course, you probably learned the square root of this as the definition of standard deviation.

What's with the $n - 1$?

Soooooooooo, why is the MLE for variance off?

Intuition 1: when we're comparing to the real mean, x_1 doesn't affect the real mean (the mean is what the mean is regardless of what you draw).

But when you compare to the sample mean, x_1 pulls the sample mean toward it, decreasing the variance a tiny bit.

Intuition 2: We only have $n - 1$ "degrees of freedom" with the mean and $n-1$ of the data points, you know the final data point. Only $n-1$ of the data points have "information" the last is fixed by the sample mean.

Why does it matter?

When statisticians are estimating a variance from a sample, they usually divide by $n-1$ instead of n.

They also (with unknown variance) generally don't use the CLT to estimate probabilities.

A "t-test" is used when scientists/statisticians think their data is approximately normal, but they don't know the variance.

They aren't using the $\Phi()$ table, they're using a different table based on the altered variance estimates.

Why use MLEs? Are there other estimators?

If you have a prior distribution over what values of θ are likely, combining the idea of Bayes rule with the idea of an MLE will give you

Maximum a posteriori probability estimation (MAP)

You pick the maximum value of $\mathbb{P}(\theta|E)$ starting from a known prior over possible values of θ .

$$
\operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \frac{\mathbb{P}(E|\theta) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\theta)}{\mathbb{P}(E)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \mathbb{P}(E|\theta) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\theta)
$$

 $P(E)$ is a constant, so the argmax is unchanged if you ignore it. Note when prior is constant, you get MLE!

What about X and Y from last Friday?

We polled n people and said, Flip a coin: If coin is heads OR you have cheated on a partner, tell me "heads" If coin is tails AND you have never cheated on a partner, tell me "tails"

 X was the number of people polled who said "heads"

Y was the number of people polled who cheated on a partner. We're trying to find an estimator for Y .

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We picked the estimator " $\hat{Y} = 2(X \boldsymbol{n}$ 2 $^{\prime\prime}$ $\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y}] = 2 (\mathbb{E}[X]) \overline{n}$ 2 $= 2$ \boldsymbol{n} 2 $+$ np 2 − \overline{n} 2 $= np$ where p is fraction of people who cheated. I.e., \overline{Y} This was an unbiased estimator!

What about X and Y from last Friday?

X was the number of people polled who said "heads"

Y was the number of people polled who cheated on a spouse.

We're trying to find an estimator for.

$$
\mathcal{L}(X = k; Y) = {n-Y \choose k-Y}. 5^{k-Y}. 5^{n-k} = {n-Y \choose k-Y}. 5^{n-Y} \text{ Analysis is more complicated because we can't use calculus (defined only on integers).}
$$

$$
k - Y = \frac{n-Y}{2} \Rightarrow k - \frac{n}{2} = \frac{Y}{2} \Rightarrow Y = 2(k - \frac{n}{2})
$$

The binomial coefficient is maximized when

 \ldots (m)

So this is also an MLE! This estimator is only handling the randomness in the coin flips, not the randomness in who was selected. You get the same answer if you back up that far.

Confidence for MLEs

We said our MLE for "probability of heads on a flip" is $\widehat{p} =$ num heads num flips

And $\mathbb{E}[\hat{p}] = p$. (where p is the true probability of heads).

But how close is it to the true value? What if on-average it's correct, but it's often very far away.

If only we had a tool…one that would describe the probability of being far from your expectation…

Confidence for MLEs

By Hoeffding's Inequality

 $\mathbb{P}(|\hat{p} - p| \ge t) \le 2 \exp(-2t^2 n)$

For $n = 100$ and $p = .1$ we'd get $\mathbb{P}(|\hat{p} - p| \geq .1) \leq 2 \exp(-2 \cdot (.1)^2 \cdot 100) \approx .14$

We can do that computation even with p unknown!

Preliminary: Random Vectors

In ML, our data points are often multidimensional.

For example:

To predict housing prices, each data point might have: number of rooms, number of bathrooms, square footage, zip code, year built, …

To make movie recommendations, each data point might have: ratings of existing movies, whether you started a movie and stopped after 10 minutes,…

A single data point is a full vector

Preliminary: Random Vectors

A random vector X is a vector where each entry is a random variable.

 $E[X]$ is a vector, where each entry is the expectation of that entry.

For example, if X is a uniform vector from the sample space 1 2 3 , −1 2 3 , 0 2 6 $\mathbb{E}[X] = [0,2,4]^T$

Covariance Matrix

Remember Covariance?

 $Cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$ We'll want to talk about covariance between entries:

Define the "covariance matrix"

Covariance

Let's think about 2 dimensions.

Let $X = [X_1, X_2]^T$ where $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and X_1 and X_2 are independent. What is Σ ? Which of these pictures are 200 i.i.d. samples of X ?

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Unequal Variances, Still Independent

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What is Σ ? Which of these pictures are i.i.d. samples of X ?

 $\Sigma =$ 5 0 0 1

What about dependence.

When we introduce dependence, we need to know the mean vector and the covariance matrix to define the distribution

(instead of just the mean and the variance).

Let's see a few examples…

Let's think about 2 dimensions.

Let $X = [X_1, X_2]^T$ where $Var(X_1) = 3$, $Var(X_2) = 3$ BUT X_1 and X_2 are dependent. $Cov(X_1, X_2) = 2$

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Let $X = [X_1, X_2]^T$ where $Var(X_1) = 5$, $Var(X_2) = 7$ BUT X_1 and X_2 are dependent. $Cov(X_1, X_2) = -2$

Let's think about 2 dimensions.

Let $X = [X_1, X_2]^T$ where $Var(X_1) = 5$, $Var(X_2) = 7$ BUT X_1 and X_2 are dependent. $Cov(X_1, X_2) = -2$

$$
\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}
$$

Using the Covariance Matrix

What were those ellipses in those datasets?

How do we know how many standard deviations from the mean a 2D point is, for the independent, variance 1 ones

Well $(x_1 - \mathbb{E}[X_1])$ is the distance from x to the center in the x-direction.

And $(x_2 - \mathbb{E}[x_2])$ is the distance from x to the center in the y-direction.

So the number of standard deviations is $\sqrt{(x_1 - \mathbb{E}[X_1])^2 + (x_2 - \mathbb{E}[x_2])^2}$ That's just the distance!

In general, the major/minor axes of those ellipses were the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix. And the associated eigenvalues tell you how the directions should be weighted.

Probability and ML

Many problems in ML: Given a bunch of data points, you'll find a function f that you hope will predict future points well.

We usually assume there is some true distribution $\mathcal D$ of data points (e.g. all theoretical possible houses and their prices).

You get a dataset S that you assume was sampled from $\mathcal D$ to find f_s

 f_s depends on the data (just like our MLEs depended on the data), so before you knew what S was, f was a random variable. You then want to figure out what the true error is if you knew \mathcal{D} .

Probability and ML

But D is a theoretical construct. I can't calculate probabilities. What can we do instead? Get a second dataset T drawn from D (drawn independently of S)

(or actually save part of your database before you start).

Then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}$ [error of f] = $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{T}}$ [error of f_s |S]

But how confident can you be? You can make confidence intervals

(statements like the true error is within 5% of our estimate with probability at least .9) using concentration inequalities.

Experiments with the correct expectation

Gradient Descent

How did I "train" the model in the first place?

Lots of options…one is "gradient descent"

Think of the "error on the data-set" as a function we're minimizing.

Take the gradient (derivative of the error with respect to every coefficient in your function), and move in the direction of lower error.

But finding the gradient is expensive…what if we could just estimate the gradient…like with a subset of the data.

Experiments with the correct expectation

We could find an unbiased estimator of the true gradient!

An experiment where the expectation of the vector we get is the true gradient (but might not be the true gradient itself).

Looking at a random subset of the full data-set would let us do that!

For many optimizations it's faster to approximate the gradient. You'll be less accurate in each step (since your gradient is less accurate), but each step is much faster, and that tradeoff can be worth it.

Practice with conditional expectations

Consider of the following process:

Flip a fair coin, if it's heads, pick up a 4-sided die; if it's tails, pick up a 6 sided die (both fair)

Roll that die independently 3 times. Let X_1, X_2, X_3 be the results of the three rolls.

What is $\mathbb{E}[X_2]$? $\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_1 = 5]$? $\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_3 = 1]$?

Using conditional expectations

Let F be the event "the four sided die was chosen"

 $\mathbb{E}[X_2] = \mathbb{P}(F)\mathbb{E}[X_2|F] + \mathbb{P}(\overline{F})\mathbb{E}[X_2|\overline{F}]$ = 1 2 \cdot 2.5 + 1 2 \cdot 3.5 = 3 $E[X_2|X_1 = 5]$ event $X_1 = 5$ tells us we're using the 6-sided die. $\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_1=5] = 3.5$

 $E[X_2|X_3 = 1]$ We aren't sure which die we got, but... is it still 50/50?

Setup

Let E be the event $\mathcal{X}_3 = 1$ " $\mathbb{P}(E) =$ 1 2 ⋅ 1 6 + 1 2 ⋅ 1 4 = 5 24 $\mathbb{P}(F|E) =$ $\mathbb{P}(E|F) \cdot \mathbb{P}(F)$ $\mathbb{P}(E)$ = 1 4 ⋅ 1 2 5/24 = 3 5 $\mathbb{P}(\bar{F}|E) =$ $\mathbb{P}(E|\overline{F})\!\cdot\!\mathbb{P}(\overline{F})$ $\mathbb{P}(E)$ = 1 6 ⋅ 1 2 5/24 = 2 5 (we could also get this with LTP, but it's good confirmation)

Analysis

 $E[X_2|X_3 = 1] = \mathbb{P}(F|X_3 = 1)\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_3 = 1 \cap F] + \mathbb{P}(\overline{F}|X_3 = 1)\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_3 = 1 \cap \overline{F}]$ Wait what?

This is the LTE, applied in the space where we've conditioned on $X_3 = 1$. Everything is conditioned on $X_3 = 1$. Beyond that conditioning, it's LTE.

$$
=\frac{3}{5}\cdot 2.5+\frac{2}{5}\cdot 3.5=2.9.
$$

A little lower than the unconditioned expectation. Because seeing a 1 has made it ever so slightly more probable that we're using the 4-sided die.