

Probability and Stochastic Processes II: Estimation

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1 Parametric Models and Method of Moments

2 MMSE Estimation

Estimating the parameters of a distribution

- ▶ A **parametric model** is a family of probability distributions that can be described by a finite number of parameters¹
 - the family of normal/Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, with parameters μ and $\sigma^2 \geq 0$; and
 - the family of Bernoulli distribution $\text{Bern}(p)$, with parameter p ; and
 - the family of Gamma distribution $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$, with parameters α and β .
- ▶ PDF/PMF $\{f(x|\theta) : \theta \in \Omega\}$ for general **parameter model**, with **parameters** $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ the **parameter space**
- ▶ **Example**: Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, with $\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}$, $\Omega = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+$, and

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}. \quad (1)$$

- ▶ **Question**: given observations $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} f(x|\theta)$, how can we **estimate** the **unknown** parameters θ and possibly quantify the **quality** of the proposed estimate?

¹If the number of parameters **increases** with the sample size, the “double asymptotic” regime in RMT.

Method of moments

- ▶ if θ is a single number, a simple idea to estimate θ is to “MATCH” the theoretical mean of $X \sim f(x|\theta)$ equals to the sample mean $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

Poisson distribution

The Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$ (denoted $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$) is a discrete distribution over the non-negative integers $\{0, 1, \dots\}$ having PMF

$$f(x|\lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}. \quad (2)$$

- ▶ if $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$, we have $\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$, so a simple estimate of λ as

$$\hat{\lambda} = \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i. \quad (3)$$

Method of moments

- ▶ if θ is a single number, a simple idea to estimate θ is to “MATCH” the theoretical mean of $X \sim f(x|\theta)$ equals to the sample mean $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

Exponential distribution

The exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$ (denoted $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$) is a continuous distribution over \mathbb{R}_+ having PDF

$$f(x|\lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}. \quad (4)$$

- ▶ if $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$, we have $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$, so a simple estimate of λ as

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\bar{X}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}. \quad (5)$$

- ▶ more generally, for $X \sim f(x|\theta)$ where θ contains k unknown parameters, the **method of moments estimator** proposes to consider the first k **moments** of the distribution of X ,

$$\mu_1 = \mathbb{E}[X], \quad \mu_2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2], \quad \dots, \quad \mu_k = \mathbb{E}[X^k]. \quad (6)$$

- ▶ leading to the following empirical estimates

$$\hat{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad \hat{\mu}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2, \quad \dots, \quad \hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^k. \quad (7)$$

Method of moments: Gaussian distribution

Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$. With the method of moments estimator, we write the empirical estimates

$$\hat{\mu} = \hat{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad \hat{\mu}^2 + \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2. \quad (8)$$

Solving for the parameter estimates $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$, we get

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}, \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \bar{X}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2. \quad (9)$$

- ▶ **Question:** what can we say about these MoM estimators?
- ▶ **Answer:** characterization via the **mean-squared-error (MSE)**

Bias, variance, and mean-squared-error

- ▶ any estimator $\hat{\theta} \equiv \hat{\theta}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is a statistics – randomness from the data X_1, \dots, X_n
- ▶ for $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} f(x|\theta)$, measure the **quality** of the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ as
 - **bias** of $\hat{\theta}$ as $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] - \theta$, the expectation taken with respect to the randomness in X_1, \dots, X_n
 - the **standard error** of $\hat{\theta}$ is the standard deviation $\sqrt{\text{Var}[\hat{\theta}]}$
 - the mean-squared-error (MSE) of $\hat{\theta}$ given by $\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$

- ▶ Note that

$$\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2] = \text{Var}[\hat{\theta}] + (\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] - \theta)^2. \quad (10)$$

- ▶ This is the **bias-variance decomposition** of MSE:

$$\text{MSE} = \text{Variance} + \text{Bias}^2. \quad (11)$$

Example: MSE of MoM for Poisson distribution

MSE of MoM for Poisson distribution

Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$, the MoM estimator of λ is

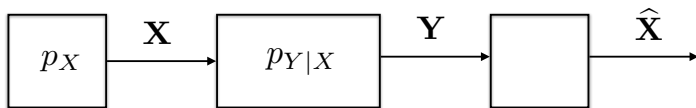
$$\hat{\lambda} = \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i. \quad (12)$$

The bias-variance decomposition of MSE of $\hat{\lambda}$ can be derived as

- ▶ bias $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\lambda}] - \lambda = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] - \lambda = 0$: **unbiased!**
- ▶ variance $\text{Var}[\hat{\lambda}] = \text{Var}[\bar{X}] = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] = \frac{\lambda}{n}$: **of vanishing variance (order $O(n^{-1})$)!**
- ▶ So $\text{MSE}[\hat{\lambda}] = 0 + \frac{\lambda}{n} = \frac{\lambda}{n}$.

MMSE Estimation

- ▶ We observe some data y , which we assume to be produced as the realization of some RV Y .
- ▶ We have that Y is generated as a random transformation $X \mapsto Y$ of another RV X .
- ▶ The random transformation is described by a conditional PDF $p_{Y|X}$.
- ▶ X is distributed according to some **known** PDF p_X (i.e., the **statistical modeling**).
- ▶ **Goal:** find an estimator $\hat{X} = g(Y)$ such that $\mathbb{E}[\|X - \hat{X}\|^2]$ is minimized.



Reminder on vector spaces

Definition

A vector space V over \mathbb{R} is a set of elements called *vectors* such that

- 1 For all $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}' \in V$, $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}' \in V$.
- 2 $\exists \mathbf{0} \in V$ such that $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$.
- 3 For all $\mathbf{v} \in V$ there exists an opposite element $-\mathbf{v} \in V$ such that $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$.
- 4 $x\mathbf{v} \in V$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- 5 $0\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$.
- 6 $1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$.

- ▶ This implies that V is closed with respect to linear combinations with coefficients in \mathbb{R} .

Reminder on norms and normed vector spaces

Definition

A norm is a function $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ that satisfies the following properties:

- 1 $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.
- 2 $\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}\| \leq \|\mathbf{v}\| + \|\mathbf{u}\|$ (triangle inequality).
- 3 $\|x\mathbf{v}\| = |x| \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

And a normed vector space is a vector space V with a norm $\|\cdot\|$.

Notice: a norm is a “distance” function.

- ▶ For example, one can check that the norm defined as

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2}$$

where $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ is the standard Euclidean n -dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} , defines a distance in the usual sense (length of the vector joining two points in \mathbb{R}^n).

- ▶ Let $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (v_i - u_i)^2}$$

is the Euclidean distance between the points (vectors) \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{u} .

Reminder on inner product

Definition

Given a vector space V over \mathbb{R} , an inner product is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with the following properties:

- 1 $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ (symmetry).
- 2 $\langle x\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = x\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$, for all $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \in V$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ (scaling).
- 3 $\langle \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{u} \rangle$ (linearity).
- 4 $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \geq 0$, with equality if and only if $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.

A vector space with an inner product is called **inner product space**.

Theorem (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$$

with equality if and only if $a\mathbf{v} = b\mathbf{u}$, with $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ not both zero. □

Theorem (2-norm)

Let V be an inner product space. Then, the following is a norm (called 2-norm, or standard Euclidean norm):

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}$$

Least Squares approximation

- ▶ Let be \mathbf{x} a point (vector) in some vector space V over \mathbb{R} and let $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_m$ be a given collection of vectors:
we wish to find the “best” approximation of \mathbf{x} by a linear combination of the vectors $\{\mathbf{y}_i\}$.
- ▶ We have to give a rigorous meaning to the term “best”: if V is an inner product space, we shall consider the minimum distance approximation, that is, we look for

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \mathbf{y}_i$$

such that

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\|_2^2 = \langle \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}} \rangle$$

is minimum.

- ▶ This approximation is called (linear) “Least-Squares” (some people call it “linear regression”).

- A brute-force approach: we can write, for $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^m$,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}}\|_2^2 &= \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 - 2\langle \mathbf{x}, \widehat{\mathbf{x}} \rangle + \|\widehat{\mathbf{x}}\|_2^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^m \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_i \rangle a_i + \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m a_i \langle \mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_j \rangle a_j \\ &= \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{r}_{xy}^T \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{G}_y \mathbf{a} \end{aligned}$$

where we define the “cross-correlation vector”

$$\mathbf{r}_{xy} = [\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_m \rangle]^T$$

and the matrix of inner products (Gram matrix)

$$\mathbf{G}_y = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_1 \rangle & \langle \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_m \rangle \\ \langle \mathbf{y}_2, \mathbf{y}_1 \rangle & \langle \mathbf{y}_2, \mathbf{y}_2 \rangle & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & \\ \langle \mathbf{y}_m, \mathbf{y}_1 \rangle & \langle \mathbf{y}_m, \mathbf{y}_2 \rangle & \cdots & \langle \mathbf{y}_m, \mathbf{y}_m \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice: this is true independent of the “dimension” of the vector space V !

- ▶ Notice that $\mathbf{G}_y \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is symmetric and positive semi-definite (WHY?).
- ▶ Taking the gradient of the distance function with respect to \mathbf{a} , we obtain the equation

$$\mathbf{G}_y \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{r}_{xy}$$

- ▶ Assuming for simplicity that \mathbf{G}_y is invertible (otherwise, we can eliminate some linearly dependent \mathbf{y}_i and obtain the same subspace), we obtain $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{G}_y^{-1} \mathbf{r}_{xy}$.
- ▶ This leads to the solution $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = [\mathbf{y}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{y}_m] \mathbf{a}$, is this the minimal $\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\|$? If yes, WHY?
- ▶ **OBSERVATION:** notice that the solution $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ satisfies the following orthogonality condition:

$$\langle \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{y}_i \rangle = 0, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, m$$

How to prove this?

Zero-mean Finite Covariance RVs

- ▶ The space of zero-mean finite covariance RVs forms a vector space.
- ▶ Inner product:

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \mathbb{E}[XY]$$

- ▶ Induced 2-norm:

$$\|X\|_2 = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[|X|^2]}$$

- ▶ In this vector space, distance is expressed by the MSE

$$\|X - Y\|_2^2 = \mathbb{E}[|X - Y|^2]$$

Generalization to Random Vectors

- ▶ For zero-mean finite covariance random vectors, we can combine the standard inner product in \mathbb{R}^n with what defined before:

$$\langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \rangle = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i Y_i]$$

- ▶ The induced 2-norm is given by

$$\sqrt{(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X})} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}]} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T])} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x)}$$

- ▶ Then, the MSE for the vector case is given by

$$\text{MSE} = \mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}\|^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[|X_i - Y_i|^2] = \text{tr}(\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}))$$

A remark about notation

- ▶ Unfortunately, the same symbol $\|\cdot\|_2$ takes on different meanings depending on the inner product space it is referred to.
- ▶ In our case, for all $\omega \in \Omega$, $\mathbf{X}(\omega)$ is an element of \mathbb{R}^n , but when defining the vector space V of finite-dimensional random vectors with mean zero and finite per-component variance, we need to be careful!
- ▶ We shall use

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |X_i|^2$$

to denote the standard squared 2-norm in \mathbb{R}^n . Since \mathbf{X} is a random vector, $\|\mathbf{X}\|^2$ is a random variable.

- ▶ Instead, we use

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|_2^2 = \mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{X}\|^2]$$

to denote the squared norm in V . This is a non-random quantity (expectation).

Linear Minimum Mean-Square Error estimation

- ▶ We have two jointly distributed random vectors $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.
- ▶ We observe \mathbf{Y} and we wish to “guess” the value of \mathbf{X} by some **estimator** $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = g(\mathbf{Y})$ in order to minimize the **Mean-Square-Error** sense:

$$\text{MSE} = \mathbb{E} \left[\|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|^2 \right]$$

- ▶ For now, we seek an estimator $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ in the form of a **linear** function of the observation \mathbf{Y} , that is,

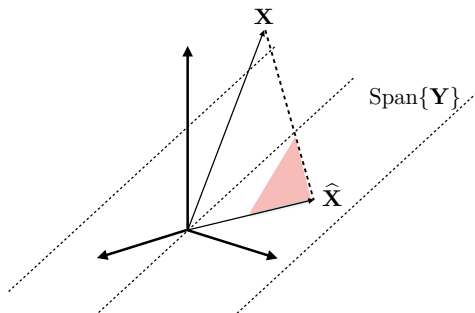
$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}$$

Orthogonality principle

- ▶ The approximation error $\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}$ must be orthogonal with respect to the space of linear functions of \mathbf{Y} .
- ▶ This means that for any matrix $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ it must be:

$$\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})^\top \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}] = 0$$

for all linear functions $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$ of the observation.



- ▶ The orthogonality principle yields the condition

$$\langle \mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y} \rangle = \mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})^\top \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y} \right] = \text{tr} \left(\mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})^\top \right] \right) = 0$$

for all $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$.

- ▶ In turns, by replacing $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}$, we find the condition that, for all \mathbf{B} , it must be

$$\text{tr} \left(\mathbf{B} \left(\mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}^\top \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^\top \right] \mathbf{A}^\top \right) \right) = 0$$

- ▶ This yields the equation

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^\top \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^\top \right]$$

- ▶ Solving for \mathbf{A} (under the assumption that the covariance $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^T]$ is **strictly positive definite**), we find:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^T] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^T] \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{Y}^T] \left(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^T] \right)^{-1}$$

- ▶ In the general case of non-zero mean vectors, we define the centralized RVs $\mathbf{X}_0 = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_x$ and $\mathbf{Y}_0 = \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y$, and notice that $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ is the LMMSE estimator for \mathbf{X} if and only if $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_0 = \hat{\mathbf{X}} - \mathbf{m}_x$ is the LMMSE estimator for \mathbf{X}_0 :

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|^2] = \mathbb{E}\left[\|\mathbf{X}_0 - \underbrace{(\hat{\mathbf{X}} - \mathbf{m}_x)}_{\hat{\mathbf{X}}_0}\|^2\right]$$

- ▶ Furthermore, $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_0$ must be a (linear) function of $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_0$, since \mathbf{m}_y is just an (arbitrary) constant.

► Letting

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} &= \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_x)(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)^\top] \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y &= \text{Cov}(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)^\top]\end{aligned}$$

we obtain

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}}_0 = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1} \mathbf{Y}_0$$

and for the non-zero mean case

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{m}_x + \hat{\mathbf{X}}_0 = \mathbf{m}_x + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)$$

- ▶ The MMSE covariance matrix is given by

$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}^T$$

- ▶ The resulting MMSE, is given by $\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|^2] = \text{tr}(\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}))$.
- ▶ **Notice:** The estimation error vector $\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}$ is uncorrelated with any linear function of the observation vector \mathbf{Y} .

- ▶ With the same setting as before, we now seek an estimator $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = g^*(\mathbf{Y})$, in the space of all (measurable, so **not** necessarily linear) functions of the observation \mathbf{Y} .

Theorem

The MMSE estimator of \mathbf{X} given \mathbf{Y} is the conditional mean

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = g^*(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}]$$

We use the orthogonality principle: the optimal estimator $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ must satisfy

$$\mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})^T g(\mathbf{Y}) \right] = 0, \quad \text{for all functions } g$$

Letting $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}]$ and using the iterated expectation theorem², we find:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}])^T g(\mathbf{Y}) \right] &= \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}])^T g(\mathbf{Y}) | \mathbf{Y} \right] \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{X}^T g(\mathbf{Y}) | \mathbf{Y} \right] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}]^T g(\mathbf{Y}) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}]^T g(\mathbf{Y}) - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}]^T g(\mathbf{Y}) \right] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

² $\mathbb{E}[f(X, Y)] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[f(X, Y)|Y]]$.

Reminder on Conditional Gaussian distribution

- ▶ Consider a random vector with $n + m$ components, denoted for simplicity by (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) .
- ▶ A very important problem in statistics is to find the **conditional distribution** of a group of components given the other group. Without loss of generality, we are interested in the conditional distribution of \mathbf{X} given \mathbf{Y} .
- ▶ In particular, suppose that $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}, \Sigma)$, with

$$\mathbf{m} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{m}_x \\ \mathbf{m}_y \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_x & \Sigma_{xy} \\ \Sigma_{yx} & \Sigma_y \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{m}_x = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}]$, $\mathbf{m}_y = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Y}]$, $\Sigma_x = \text{cov}(\mathbf{X})$, $\Sigma_y = \text{cov}(\mathbf{Y})$ and

$$\Sigma_{xy} = \text{cov}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = \mathbb{E} \left[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_x)(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)^\top \right]$$

with $\Sigma_{yx} = \Sigma_{xy}^\top$.

Reminder on Conditional Gaussian distribution

With the notation defined before,

$$f_{\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y})}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})\right)$$

where the conditional mean value is given by

$$\mathbf{m}_{x|y} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}] = \mathbf{m}_x + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m}_y)$$

and the conditional covariance matrix is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y} = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})^\top | \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx}$$

Notice: given jointly Gaussian \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} , \mathbf{X} given \mathbf{Y} is Gaussian, with conditional mean **affine function** of \mathbf{Y} and conditional covariance **constant** with \mathbf{Y} .

MMSE estimation for Gaussian vectors

- ▶ If \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} are jointly Gaussian, then the linear MMSE estimator and the optimal MMSE estimator **coincide**.
- ▶ In order to see this, recall

$$f_{\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y})}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})\right)$$

where the conditional mean value is given by

$$\mathbf{m}_{x|y} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}] = \mathbf{m}_x + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m}_y)$$

and the conditional covariance matrix is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y} = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_{x|y})^\top | \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx}$$

- ▶ Hence, in the Gaussian case, the (general) MMSE estimator of \mathbf{X} given \mathbf{Y} coincides with the LMMSE estimator (Wiener filter):

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}] = \mathbf{m}_x + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)$$

- ▶ **MMSE decomposition:**

$$\mathbf{X} = \hat{\mathbf{X}} + (\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}) = \hat{\mathbf{X}} + \mathbf{V}$$

where the MMSE estimator $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ and the estimation error vector \mathbf{V} are **uncorrelated**, and therefore **independent** (in the Gaussian case), where we have

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_x, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx}), \quad \mathbf{V} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y})$$

Application to proper Gaussian random vectors

- ▶ If \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are proper jointly Gaussian, i.e.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{CN} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{m}_x \\ \mathbf{m}_y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_x)(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_x)^H], \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)^H]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy} = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{m}_x)(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{m}_y)^H]$$

we define the MSE as

$$\text{MSE} = \mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}\|^2] = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})^H(\mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}})]$$

- ▶ **Result:** all the derivations and results found before are still valid when replacing “transpose” with “Hermitian transpose”.

- ▶ Often we need to estimate a signal observed through a linear transformation \mathbf{H} in additive noise:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Z}$$

where $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x)$ and $\mathbf{Z} = \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z)$.

- ▶ In this case, we have

$$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{H}^H \left(\mathbf{H} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{H}^H + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z \right)^{-1} \mathbf{Y}$$

with estimation error covariance

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{x|y} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{H}^H \left(\mathbf{H} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x \mathbf{H}^H + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_z \right)^{-1} \mathbf{H} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_x$$

Example: MMSE Multi-user Detection

- ▶ A Gaussian **Multiple Access Channel** can be represented as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{k=1}^K \sqrt{P_k} \mathbf{s}_k X_k + \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{P}^{1/2}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Z}$$

where $\mathbf{s}_k = (s_{1,k}, \dots, s_{N,k})^T$ is the vector formed by the samples of user k waveform, P_k is the received power of user k , X_k are information symbols from a unit energy signal constellation (e.g., QAM), and $\mathbf{Z} \sim \mathcal{CN}(\mathbf{0}, N_0\mathbf{I})$.

- ▶ A linear detector for user k consists of a projection of \mathbf{Y} onto a unit vector \mathbf{u}_k , forming the scalar observation $\hat{X}_k = \mathbf{u}_k^H \mathbf{Y}$.
- ▶ We define the **Signal to Interference plus Noise Ratio (SINR)** as

$$\text{SINR}_k = \frac{|\mathbf{u}_k^H \mathbf{s}_k|^2 P_k}{N_0 + \sum_{j \neq k} |\mathbf{u}_k^H \mathbf{s}_j|^2 P_j}$$

- ▶ It can be shown that the SINR is maximized over all linear detectors by choosing

$$\mathbf{u}_k = \alpha_k \left(N_0 \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^K P_j \mathbf{s}_j \mathbf{s}_j^H \right)^{-1} \mathbf{s}_k$$

where α_k is a normalization constant in order to have $\|\mathbf{u}_k\| = 1$.

- ▶ Notice that this SINR-maximizing detector is **proportional** to the MMSE estimator of X_k given \mathbf{Y} .
- ▶ The resulting maximum SINR can be compactly written as

$$\text{SINR}_k = P_k \mathbf{s}_k^H \left(N_0 \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j \neq k} P_j \mathbf{s}_j \mathbf{s}_j^H \right)^{-1} \mathbf{s}_k.$$

Thank you!

Thank you! Q & A?

Method of moments: Gamma distribution

Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$, derive the corresponding MoM estimators $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}$ for the parameters α and β , and **try** to derive the bias-variance decomposition of their MSE.

Binary Signal in Gaussian noise

Consider X taking values in $\mathcal{X} = \{+1, -1\}$ with equal probability, and the observation

$$Y = hX + Z$$

where $h \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$. Show that

- ▶ the linear MMSE estimator is given by $\hat{X}_{\text{lin}} = \frac{h}{h^2 + \sigma^2} Y$; and
- ▶ the optimal MMSE estimator is

$$\hat{X}_{\text{opt}} = \tanh\left(\frac{hY}{\sigma^2}\right).$$

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- ▶ For $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{\alpha}{\beta}, \quad \mathbb{E}[X^2] = \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\beta^2}. \quad (13)$$

- ▶ This leads to the MoM estimators as

$$\hat{\alpha} =, \quad \hat{\beta} =, \quad (14)$$

with corresponding bias and variance given by

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\alpha}] - \alpha =, \quad \mathbb{E}[\hat{\beta}] - \beta =, \quad \text{Var}[\hat{\alpha}] =, \quad \text{Var}[\hat{\beta}] = \quad (15)$$

so that MSE as

$$\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\alpha} - \alpha)^2] =, \quad \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^2] =, \quad (16)$$

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- ▶ for LMMSE, consider $\hat{X}_{\text{lin}} = aY$, and it suffices to determine $a \in \mathbb{R}$ that minimizes $\mathbb{E}[(X - \hat{X})^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2 - 2X\hat{X} + \hat{X}^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2a\mathbb{E}[X(hX + Z)] + a^2\mathbb{E}[(hX + Z)^2] = 1 - 2a(h + 0) + a^2(h^2 + \sigma^2)$.
- ▶ This leads to $a = \frac{h}{h^2 + \sigma^2}$ and thus the conclusion.
- ▶ To derive the optimal MMSE estimator, we use the conclusion that $\hat{X}_{\text{opt}} = \mathbb{E}[X|Y]$.
- ▶ For given Y , we have that $X = \frac{Y-Z}{h}$, for $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$,