Parameter estimation

Alexander Khanov

PHYS6260: Experimental Methods is HEP Oklahoma State University

September 20, 2023

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆臣▶ ◆臣▶ 臣 のへで

Estimators

- As a result of an experiment, we have data (measurements), which are a set of N numbers $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$
- We have a theory describing (we think) our data, which depends on a number of parameters p = (p₁,..., p_n)
- We want to find the best estimates for the theory parameters and also figure out if the theory is good or bad. For that, we construct a function of measurements P(x) called an estimator
- We want P to be consistent with p, meaning that as the number of measurements N increases, the probability of P to be near the true values of p approaches 1 (this is called "convergence in probability"):

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 : \lim_{N \to \infty} \operatorname{Prob}(|\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{p}| < \varepsilon) = 1$$

• Since the measurements are subject to fluctuations (i.e. x_i are distributed according to their p.d.f.'s), so are the estimators

(日) (同) (三) (三)

Properties of estimators

- Bias b: the difference between the expectation value of the estimator and the true value of the parameter, $b = \langle P \rangle p$
 - in general, we want an "unbiased" estimator for which b = 0
 - bias depends on the choice of parameters
 - ★ e.g. if P is an unbiased estimator of p it doesn't mean that $P' = P^2$ is an unbiased estimator of p^2
 - if P is biased with bias b then P' = P b is unbiased
- Efficiency ε : the ratio of the minimum possible variance of any estimator to the variance of a given estimator, $\varepsilon = \sigma_{\min}^2 / \sigma^2$
 - an estimator is called efficient if $\varepsilon = 1$
 - in many cases there is a trade-off between bias and efficiency the unbiased estimator may have very low efficiency, e.g. due to large systematic uncertainties

(日) (同) (三) (三)

Estimator for mean

$$X = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

- If x_1, \ldots, x_N are unbiased measurements of the same unknown quantity x with a common mean x_0 and variance σ^2 , then $\langle X \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle x_i \rangle = \frac{1}{N} N x_0 = x_0 \qquad (X \text{ is unbiased})$
- The variance of the estimator

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) = \left\langle (X - \langle X \rangle)^2 \right\rangle = \left\langle X^2 \right\rangle - \left\langle X \right\rangle^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}, \text{ since}$$
$$\left\langle X^2 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \left\langle x_i x_j \right\rangle, \ \left\langle x_i x_j \right\rangle = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 0, \ i \neq j \\ \left\langle x^2 \right\rangle = \sigma^2 + x_0^2, i = j \end{array} \right.$$

2

Estimator for variance

$$V = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - X)^2$$

• If x_1, \ldots, x_N come from a normal distribution with a common mean x_0 and variance σ^2 , then $\frac{V(N-1)}{\sigma^2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(x_i - X)^2}{\sigma^2}$ is distributed as χ^2 with N-1 degrees of freedom: $\left\langle \frac{V(N-1)}{\sigma^2} \right\rangle = N-1, \quad \operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{V(N-1)}{\sigma^2}\right) = 2(N-1), \text{ therefore}$ $\langle V \rangle = \sigma^2$ (V is unbiased), Var(V) = $\frac{2\sigma^4}{N-1}$ • If x_0 is known, then the unbiased estimator is $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i-x_0)^2$

Mean-squared error

- Mean-squared error $MSE = \langle (P p)^2 \rangle$ $b = \langle P \rangle - p \quad \sigma^2 = \langle P^2 \rangle - \langle P \rangle^2$ $\langle P \rangle = b + p \quad \langle P^2 \rangle = \sigma^2 + (b + p)^2$ $MSE = \langle P^2 \rangle - 2 \langle P \rangle p + p^2 = a^2 + (b + p)^2 - 2(b + p)p + p^2 = \sigma^2 + b^2$
- MSE characterizes both bias and variance

A B F A B F

Mean-squared error: example

• Consider a different estimator for variance: $V' = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle (x_i - X)^2 \rangle$

$$\langle V' \rangle = \frac{N-1}{N} \langle V \rangle = \frac{N-1}{N} \sigma^2,$$

 $\operatorname{Var}(V') = \left(\frac{N-1}{N}\right)^2 \quad \operatorname{Var}(V) = \frac{2(N-1)\sigma^4}{N^2}$

• V' is obviously biased:
$$b = \left(\frac{N-1}{N} - 1\right)\sigma^2 = -\frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

• However, this estimator has better MSE than V:

$$\begin{split} \text{MSE}(V') &= \frac{2(N-1)\sigma^4}{N^2} + \frac{\sigma^4}{N^2} = \frac{(2N-1)\sigma^4}{N^2}, \quad \text{MSE}(V) = \frac{2\sigma^4}{N-1} \\ \frac{\text{MSE}(V')}{\text{MSE}(V)} &= \frac{(N-1/2)(N-1)}{N^2} < 1 \end{split}$$

Efficient estimators

- How one can figure out that an estimator is efficient (has the least possible variance)?
- Cramér-Rao bound: for any unbiased estimator P of parameter p that depends on N independent measurements of a variable x distributed according to the probability density function f(x, p),

$$\operatorname{Var}(P) \geq \frac{1}{N \, I(p)},$$

where I(p) is Fisher information:

$$I(p) = \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln f(x, p)\right)^2 \right\rangle = \int \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln f(x, p)\right)^2 f(x, p) \, dx$$

Robust estimators

- An estimator *P* is robust for a given distribution if small deviations from the distribution result in small changes of the estimator
- Sensitivity curve: effect of adding a datapoint

$$SC(x, N) = \frac{P\{x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}, x\} - P\{x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}\}}{1/N}$$

• Influence curve: $IC(x) = \lim_{N \to \infty} SC(x, N)$

• example: mean
$$P_N\{x_1, \dots, x_N\} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i, \lim_{N \to \infty} P_N = p$$

 $SC(x, N) = \frac{\frac{(N-1)P_{N-1}+x}{N} - P_{N-1}}{1/N} = x - P_{N-1}, IC(x) = x - p$

- An estimator is robust if its SC is a bounded function
 - mean is not robust, median is

Estimators for mean and variance: different variances

• If x_1, \ldots, x_N are unbiased measurements of the same unknown quantity x with different variances $\sigma_1^2 \ldots \sigma_N^2$, then a commonly used estimator is the weighted average:

$$X = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i}, \text{ where } w_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} \text{ is unbiased } (\langle X \rangle = x) \text{ with variance}$$
$$\sigma_X^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i}$$

Resistance measurement: an example

- Suppose we want to measure the value of a resistor.
- We have three voltage supplies 5 V, 10 V, and 20 V, and an ammeter



- The results of the measurements are 5.1 mA, 9.9 mA, 19.2 mA for the voltage of 5 V, 10 V, 20 V, respectively
- We assume the Ohm's law I = V/R
- *R* is the parameter of the theory we want to estimate

Resistance measurement: solution 1



• We need to make some assumptions about the errors

Model 1: errors are unknown but scale with the measurement In this case all measurements of R will have the same error:

$$R = \frac{0.98 + 1.01 + 1.04}{3} = 1.01 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$\Delta R = \sqrt{rac{1}{3-1} \left(0.03^2 + 0^2 + 0.03^2
ight)} = 0.03 \ \mathrm{k}\Omega$$

Resistance measurement: solution 2

Model 2: the current has a fixed measurement error 0.3 mA

<i>V</i> [V]	5	10	20
/ [mA]	5.1	9.9	19.2
<i>R</i> [kΩ]	0.98	1.01	1.04
$\sigma(R)$ [k Ω]	0.058	0.031	0.016

$$R = \frac{\frac{0.98}{0.058^2} + \frac{1.01}{0.031^2} + \frac{1.04}{0.016^2}}{\frac{1}{0.058^2} + \frac{1}{0.031^2} + \frac{1}{0.016^2}} = 1.032 \text{ k}\Omega$$
$$\Delta R = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\frac{1}{0.058^2} + \frac{1}{0.031^2} + \frac{1}{0.016^2}}} = 0.014 \text{ k}\Omega$$

- why the result is shifted towards the last measurement?
- why the error is much smaller $\langle \sigma \rangle = 0.035 \ \mathrm{k}\Omega?$

3 🕨 🖌 3