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Hilbert spaces

Let ${\mathcal V}$ be a vector space equipped with an inner product $\langle\cdot,\cdot\rangle$

1.
$$\langle u + v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle$$

2. $\langle \lambda u, v \rangle = \lambda \langle u, v \rangle$
3. $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle^*$
4. $\langle v, v \rangle \ge 0$ with equality iff $v = 0$
Norm: $||v|| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$
Hilbert space \mathcal{H} : Complete inner product space (Cauchy sequences converge)

Extend definition to column vectors u and v of elements of \mathcal{H} :

$$\lfloor u, v \rfloor = M, \quad M_{i,j} = \langle u_i, v_j \rangle$$

Example 1: Consider the columns of $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n_x}$ and $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n_y}$ as elements of \mathbb{R}^N , then

$$[X,Y] = X^T Y$$

Example 2: Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_y}$ be random vectors with finite second moments. Then

$$[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^{T}\right]$$

Orthogonal projections

Orthogonality

An element $u \in \mathcal{H}$ is orthogonal to the subspace $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ if

 $\langle u, v \rangle = 0 \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{S}.$

We write $u \perp \mathcal{S}$

Projection theorem

Let $u \in \mathcal{H}$ be given and let $S \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ be a closed subspace to \mathcal{H} . Then there exists a unique $v \in S$ such that $u - v \perp S$. The element v is the unique solution to

$$\min_{v\in\mathcal{S}}\|u-v\|$$

v is called the orthogonal projection of u onto ${\cal S}$ and is denoted $u_{{\cal S}}$

It follows that $u \in \mathcal{H}$ has a unique decomposition

 $u = u_{\mathcal{S}} + u_{\mathcal{S}^{\perp}}$, where $u_{\mathcal{S}^{\perp}} = u - u_{\mathcal{S}} \in \mathcal{S}^{\perp}$ (subspace orthogonal to \mathcal{S})

Orthogonal projections: Pythagoras relation

$$u = u_{S} + u_{S^{\perp}} \Rightarrow ||u||^{2} = ||u_{S}||^{2} + ||u_{S^{\perp}}||^{2}$$

In our context often written as

$$||u||^2 - ||u_{\mathcal{S}}||^2 = ||u_{\mathcal{S}^{\perp}}||^2 = ||u - u_{\mathcal{S}}||^2$$

The projection theorem:

$$\|u - v\|^2 \ge \|u - u_{\mathcal{S}}\|^2 = \|u_{\mathcal{S}^{\perp}}\|^2 = \|u\|^2 - \|u_{\mathcal{S}}\|^2 \ge 0 \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{S}$$

Vector version:

 $\lfloor u - v, u - v \rfloor \geq \lfloor u - u_{\mathcal{S}}, u - u_{\mathcal{S}} \rfloor = \lfloor u, u \rfloor - \lfloor u_{\mathcal{S}}, u_{\mathcal{S}} \rfloor \geq 0 \quad \forall v \in \mathcal{S}$

Matrix inequality

Note: Projection u_S has smaller "norm" than $u: \langle u, u \rangle - \langle u_S, u_S \rangle \ge 0$

Orthogonal projections: Finite dimensional subspaces

Problem: Project all elements of the n_u -dimensional vector **u** on the linear span of the elements of the vector **y** (solve n_u projections simultaneously)

$$\mathcal{S} = \{ \mathbf{L}\mathbf{y} : \mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_u \times n_y} \}$$

Optimality condition:

$$0 = \lfloor \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor = \lfloor \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor - \mathbf{L} \lfloor \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{L}^* = \lfloor \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor \lfloor \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor^{-1}$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{u}_{\mathcal{S}} = \mathbf{L}^* \mathbf{y} = \lfloor \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor \lfloor \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

Projection theorem and Pythagoras: $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{y} \Rightarrow$

 $\lfloor \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rfloor \ge \lfloor \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{L}^* \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{L}^* \mathbf{y} \rfloor = \lfloor \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rfloor - \lfloor \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor \lfloor \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rfloor^{-1} \lfloor \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u} \rfloor$ Example: Rows of $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_u \times N}$ to be projected on the rows of $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_y \times N}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{U}_{\mathcal{S}} &= \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Y} (\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Y})^{-1} \mathbf{Y} \\ 0 &\leq (\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{U}_{\mathcal{S}})^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{U} - \mathbf{U}_{\mathcal{S}}) = \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{U} - \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Y} (\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Y})^{-1} \mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{U} \end{aligned}$$

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Models and model structures Notation:

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\xi}^{T}(0) & \dots & \boldsymbol{\xi}^{T}(t) \end{bmatrix}^{T} \in \Xi^{t} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_{\boldsymbol{\xi}^{t}}}, \ n_{\boldsymbol{\xi}^{t}} := \sum_{k=0}^{t} n_{\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}}$$

Definition

Model parameter: $\boldsymbol{\xi} = \{ \boldsymbol{\xi}(t) \}_{t=0}^{\infty}$, where $\boldsymbol{\xi}(t) \in \boldsymbol{\Xi}(t) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_{\xi_t}}$.

Model structure $\mathcal{M}(\mathsf{M}_{\cdot}, \Xi) = \{\mathsf{M}_t : \Xi^t \to \mathbb{R}^{n_z}\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$.

Model of observations: $\mathbf{z}(t) = M_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t), \ t = 1, 2, ...$

Model set: $\{\{M_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t)\}_{t=1}^{\infty}: \ \boldsymbol{\xi}(t) \in \boldsymbol{\Xi}(t)\}$

Pdf:
$$\{p_t: \Xi^t \to [0,\infty)\}$$
 for $\{\xi^t\}$

 $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ realization of $\{p_t\}_{t=1}^{\infty} \Rightarrow \mathbf{z}(t) = M_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t), t = 1, 2, \dots$ realization of observed signals.

Probabilistic model structure: $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}(M_{\cdot}, \Xi_{\cdot}, p_{\cdot})$

Models and model structures



Models and model structures

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}(t) \\ \mathbf{y}(t) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\boldsymbol{\xi}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\theta} \\ \mathbf{x}(0) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\xi}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{\mathbf{u}}(t) \\ \mathbf{e}(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x}(0) \text{ initial conditions}$$
$$\overline{y}(t) = \frac{B(q, \theta)}{F(q, \theta)} \overline{\mathbf{u}}(t) + \frac{C(q, \theta)}{D(q, \theta)} \mathbf{e}(t)$$
$$\mathcal{M}_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t) = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{\mathbf{u}}^t \\ \overline{\mathbf{y}}^t \end{bmatrix}$$
$$p_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{e}^t; 0, \lambda_e I) \delta(\theta - \tilde{\theta}) \delta(\overline{\mathbf{u}}^t - \tilde{\mathbf{u}}^t) \delta(\mathbf{x}(0) - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(0))$$

 θ , $\mathbf{x}(0)$ and $\mathbf{\bar{u}}$ deterministic. Estimated by corresponding hyperparameters $\tilde{\theta}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(0)$ and $\mathbf{\tilde{u}}$. Measurement equation gives $\mathbf{\bar{u}}(t) = \mathbf{u}(t)$

Models and model structures

$$p_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{e}^t; \mathbf{0}, \lambda_e I) \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \delta(\overline{\mathbf{u}}^t - \tilde{\mathbf{u}}^t) \delta(\mathbf{x}(0) - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(0))$$

θ , $\mathbf{x}(0)$ and $\mathbf{\bar{u}}$ deterministic. Estimated by corresponding hyperparameters $\tilde{\theta}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(0)$ and $\mathbf{\tilde{u}}$. Consider now $\mathbf{x}(0)$ to be random \Rightarrow

$$p_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{e}^t; 0, \lambda_e I) \delta(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \delta(\overline{\mathbf{u}}^t - \tilde{\mathbf{u}}^t) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}(0), 0, \mathbf{P})$$



The set of unfalsified models

Definition

Given data \mathbf{z}^N , the set of unfalsified models for the model structure $\mathcal{M}(M, p)$ is defined as

$$\mathcal{U}(\mathbf{z}^N) = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\xi} : M^N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N) = \mathbf{z}^N \right\}$$

Ranking functions and pdfs

Use pdf as ranking function:

$$p_N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N, \mathbf{z}^N) := p_N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N) \prod_{t=1}^N \delta(\mathbf{z}(t) - M_t(\boldsymbol{\xi}(t)))$$

Recall that computing the average of rankings model used

$$p_N(\xi^N|\mathbf{z}^N) := rac{p_N(\xi^N,\mathbf{z}^N)}{p_N(\mathbf{z}^N)}$$

This is nothing but the conditional pdf for ξ^N given observations \mathbf{z}^N

Marginalization: $\gamma = \gamma(\boldsymbol{\xi}^{N})$

$$p_N(\gamma,\mathsf{z}^N) := \int_{\Xi^N} p_N(\xi^N,\mathsf{z}) \delta(\gamma-\gamma(\xi^N)) d\xi^N$$

Joint probability for γ and \mathbf{z}^N

Ranking functions and pdfs

Marginalising hyperparameter dependence

$$p_N(\mathsf{z}^N) = \int p_N(\mathsf{z}^N;\eta) d\eta$$

and when this quantity is finite:

$$egin{aligned} p_{\mathcal{N}}(oldsymbol{\xi}^{\mathcal{N}},oldsymbol{\eta}|\mathbf{z}^{\mathcal{N}}) &:= rac{p_{\mathcal{N}}(oldsymbol{\xi}^{\mathcal{N}},oldsymbol{z}^{\mathcal{N}};oldsymbol{\eta})}{p_{\mathcal{N}}(oldsymbol{z}^{\mathcal{N}})} \ p_{\mathcal{N}}(oldsymbol{\eta}|\mathbf{z}^{\mathcal{N}}) &:= rac{p_{\mathcal{N}}(oldsymbol{z}^{\mathcal{N}};oldsymbol{\eta})}{p_{\mathcal{N}}(oldsymbol{z}^{\mathcal{N}})} \end{aligned}$$

Does not mean that $p_N(\xi^N, \eta | \mathbf{z}^N)$ and $p_N(\eta | \mathbf{z}^N)$ should be interpreted as random

Estimators

Definition

Given a model structure $\mathcal{M}(M, p, \Xi)$, an estimator is a sequence of functions $\{\hat{\xi}^t\}_{t=1}^{\infty}$

$$\hat{oldsymbol{\xi}}^t:\ \mathbb{R}^{n_{z_t}}
ightarrow oldsymbol{\Xi}^t\subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_{\xi_t}}$$

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Ranking based estimators

Recall maximum ranking estimator:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}^N(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^N) = rg\max_{\boldsymbol{\xi}^N\in \boldsymbol{\Xi}^N} p_N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N, \boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^N)$$

$$p_N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N, \mathbf{z}^N) = p_N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N | \mathbf{z}^N) p_N(\mathbf{z}^N) \Rightarrow \hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}^N(\mathbf{z}^N) = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}^N \in \Xi^N} p_N(\boldsymbol{\xi}^N | \mathbf{z}^N)$$

Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{MAP}^{N}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N})$

Ranking based estimators

The average ranking model

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{A}^{N}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N}) = \int_{\mathcal{U}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N})} \boldsymbol{\xi}^{N} p_{N}(\boldsymbol{\xi}^{N}|\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N}) d\boldsymbol{\xi}^{N} = \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\xi}^{N}|\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N}
ight]$$

Posterior mean (PM) estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{PM}^{N}(\boldsymbol{z}^{N})$

Ranking based estimators

Recall maximum of total ranking estimator:

$$\hat{\eta}(\mathsf{z}^{\mathcal{N}}) := rg\max_{\eta} p_{\mathcal{N}}(\mathsf{z}^{\mathcal{N}};\eta)$$

Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimator $\hat{\eta}_{ML}(\mathbf{z}^N)$

Actual observations have largest probability to be observed among all possible observations

PM estimator may also be used for deterministic quantities:

$$\hat{\eta}_{PM}(\mathsf{z}^{N}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\eta|\mathsf{z}^{N}
ight] = \int \eta p(\eta|\mathsf{z}^{N}) d\eta$$

Both model- and hyperparameters:

$$\left(\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}^{N}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N}),\hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N})
ight) \coloneqq rg\max_{\boldsymbol{\xi}^{N}\in \Xi^{N},\, \boldsymbol{\eta}} p_{N}(\boldsymbol{\xi}^{N},\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}^{N};\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

Joint MAP/ML estimator

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Predictive estimators

- Background: Probability theory ⇒ Theory for optimal prediction of one random variable given others
- Idea: Choose model which gives best predictions
- Builds confidence in the model not only rankings!
- Prediction essential in many applications , e.g. control, predictive maintenance and finance
- Basics:
 - Statistic: s = f(z^N) random under model assumption s = f(M^N(ξ^N)).
 - Predict: $\hat{\mathbf{s}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = g(\mathbf{z}^N, \boldsymbol{\eta})$
 - Minimize: $\hat{\eta}(\mathbf{z}^N, d, f) = \arg \min_{\eta} d(\mathbf{s}, \hat{\mathbf{s}}(\eta))$
- Questions: What to predict (f(z^N)) and which "distance measure" to use?
- What to predict?
 - The whole data set? Set of unfalsified models
 - ▶ ???

Predictive estimators

- What to predict and which distance measure to use?
 - $\hat{\eta}(\mathbf{z}^N, d, f)$ random variable
 - Analyze its distribution

 - What "good" is depends on the intended model use!
 - Design variable ho
 - Optimal design $\rho^* ? \rho^*(\xi_o)$ (ξ_o "true" system)
 - Reward: $R(\rho, \xi_o)$
 - ► Regret: $L(\rho, \xi_o) = R(\rho^*(\xi_o), \xi_o) R(\rho, \xi_o) \ge 0$

Expected regret:

$$\bar{L}(\rho^*(\hat{\xi})) := \mathbb{E}\left[L(\rho^*(\hat{\xi}(\mathsf{z}),\xi)\right] = \int L(\rho^*(\hat{\xi}(\mathsf{M}(\xi)),\xi)\rho(\xi)d\xi)$$

- With hyperparameters: $\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\mathbf{z}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(\mathbf{z}))$. Include in expectation
- May not be optimal to use design ρ*. Robustness considerations
- General purpose criterion: The Mean-Square Error (MSE):

$$\operatorname{MSE}\left[\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}})\right] := \mathbb{E}\left[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}) - \boldsymbol{\xi})(\hat{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}) - \boldsymbol{\xi})^{\mathsf{T}}\right]$$

What is the optimal estimator of a random variable \mathbf{z} if no data is available?

With \hat{z} a constant

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{MSE}\left[\hat{\mathbf{z}}\right] &= \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{z} - \hat{\mathbf{z}})(\mathbf{z} - \hat{\mathbf{z}})^{T}\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}}\right)^{T}\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])^{T}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})(\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})^{T}\right] \\ &+ \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])(\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})^{T}\right]}_{0} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])^{T}\right]}_{0} \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])^{T}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})(\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right] - \hat{\mathbf{z}})^{T}\right] \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])(\mathbf{z} - \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right])^{T}\right] = \operatorname{MSE}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}\right]\right] \end{split}$$

The mean $\mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}\right]$ is the optimal estimator

Moment estimators

Sample moments:
$$m_k(\mathbf{z}^N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \mathbf{z}^k(t), \ k = 1, 2, ...$$

Optimal estimator: $m_k(\eta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \mathbb{E} \left[M_t^k(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t(\eta)) \right]$

Take as many moments as dimension of η and solve

$$m_k(oldsymbol{\eta}) = m_k(\mathsf{z}^{N})$$

Method of moments

$$V(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \begin{bmatrix} m_1(\mathbf{z}^N) - m_1(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \\ \vdots \\ m_K(\mathbf{z}^N) - m_K(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{W} \begin{bmatrix} m_1(\mathbf{z}^N) - m_1(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \\ \vdots \\ m_K(\mathbf{z}^N) - m_K(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\hat{\eta} = {
m arg\,min}_{m \eta} \, V(m \eta), \; W \; {
m corrects} \; {
m for} \; {
m different} \; {
m sizes} \; {
m of} \; {
m moments}, \; {
m e.g.}$

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Super-simple model:

 $\mathbf{z}(t) = \mathbf{v}(t)$ (independent identically distributed (i.i.d.))

First K moments hyperparameters: $\tilde{\eta}_k, \ k = 1, \dots, K$. Estimates:

$$\hat{ ilde{oldsymbol{\eta}}}_k(\mathsf{z}^{oldsymbol{N}})=m_k(\mathsf{z})$$

Idea: If model $M(\xi(\eta))$ correct, data from this model should result in similar estimates for the simple model as when real data is used: For a realization of $\xi(\eta)$

$$\hat{\tilde{\eta}}_k(\mathsf{z}) pprox \hat{\tilde{\eta}}_k(M(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{\eta}))))$$

i.e.

$$m_k(\mathbf{z}) \approx m_k(M(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{\eta}))), \ k = 1, \ldots, K$$

$$m_k(\mathsf{z}) pprox m_k(M(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{\eta}))), \; k=1,\ldots,K$$

But $\xi(\eta)$ independent of data (generated by the random number generator in our computer). Remove these by averaging:

$$m_k(\mathbf{z}) pprox \mathbb{E}\left[m_k(M(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{\eta})))
ight] = rac{1}{N}\sum_{t=1}^N \mathbb{E}\left[M_t^k(\boldsymbol{\xi}^t(\boldsymbol{\eta}))
ight] = m_k(\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

Method of moments!

What did we do?

- Intermediate model
- Estimated quantities in this model ⇒ Functions of data (m_k(z) (statistics)
- Expected value of corresponding statistics from model matched to statistics
- Intermediate model serves to guide the choice of which statistics to use

Indirect inference

Summary:

- $ilde{\eta}$ hyperparameters of intermediate model
- $\hat{ ilde{\eta}}(\mathsf{z})$ estimate
- η hyperparameters of model M

•
$$\hat{\eta}(\mathsf{z}^{\mathsf{N}}) := {\sf arg\,min}_{\eta}\,V_{\!\scriptscriptstyle w\!s\!e}(\eta,\mathsf{z}^{\mathsf{N}})$$
 where

$$egin{aligned} &\mathcal{V}_{\mathsf{wse}}(\eta,\mathsf{z}) \coloneqq \ & \left(\hat{\hat{\eta}}(\mathsf{z}) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\hat{\eta}}(\mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\eta)))
ight]
ight)^{\mathsf{T}}\mathcal{W}\left(\hat{\hat{\eta}}(\mathsf{z}) - \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{\hat{\eta}}(\mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\eta)))
ight]
ight) \end{aligned}$$

• Different cost functions can be used, see Lecture Notes.

Prediction error methods

Idea: Predict parts of data using other parts of data Suppose $\mathbf{z}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}^{T}(t) & \mathbf{u}^{T}(t) \end{bmatrix}^{T}$

Model: $\mathbf{y}(t) = f_t(\mathbf{u}^t, \mathbf{v}^t; \theta), t = 1, 2, ...$ *k*-step ahead predictor: $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(t + k|t; \theta) = \hat{f}_{t+k|t}(\mathbf{u}^{t+k}, \mathbf{y}^t; \theta)$ Prediction errors

 $\varepsilon(t+k|t;\theta) = \mathbf{y}(t+k) - \hat{\mathbf{y}}(t+k|t;\theta), t = 1,...,N-k$ Criterion (e.g.):

$$V_{pe,k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{z}^{N}) := \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon(1+k|1;\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon(N|N-k;\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{bmatrix}^{T} W \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon(1+k|1;\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon(N|N-k;\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Which \hat{f} to use?
- Which criterion to use?
- \Rightarrow Estimation theory (next lecture)

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Basic concepts



Basic concepts

- Sample space: Ω
- Probability measure: $\mathbf{P}(A)$ assigns probabilites to events A.

i)
$$\mathbf{P}(\Omega) = 1$$

ii) $\mathbf{P}(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{P}(A_k)$ for disjoint events

Not possible to assign probabilities to all sets (see ex. in LN) ${\cal F}$ set of sets for which ${\bf P}$ defined. Called $\sigma\text{-algebra}$

i)
$$\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$$

ii) $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ (complement)
iii) $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{F}$
iv) $F_k \in \mathcal{F}, \ k = 1, 2, \dots \Rightarrow \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} F_k \in \mathcal{F}$

iv) required to be able to compute probabilities of limits (see ex. in LN)

- Random variable: Measurable function. P({ω : X(ω) ∈ B) exists for Borel sets B
- Probability space: $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbf{P})$

- Borel set, set in B, the Borel σ-algebra, = minimal σ-algebra containing the open sets in R.
- Probability distribution function: $\mathbf{P}_X(B) = \mathbf{P}(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in B\})$
- Distribution function: $F_X(\bar{x}) = \mathbf{P}_X(\{x : x \leq \bar{x}\})$

Basic concepts

Theorem

Every distribution function can be uniquely decomposed into a convex combination of a discrete, an absolutely continuous, and a continuous singular distribution function.

- Absolutely continuous: $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p_X(\gamma) d\gamma p_X$ probability density function (pdf)
- Discrete: Piecewise constant. Right-continuous. At most countable number of discontinuities.
- Singular: Derivative exists almost everywhere and is zero. Continuous and can only increase on a set of measure zero.
- The distribution function can be used to compute probabilities for any Borel set.
- \Rightarrow We can pretend that a r.v. is defined on \mathbb{R} with probability measure F_X .

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Stochastic processes



Stochastic processes

Theorem (Kolmogorov)

For every set of consistent finite dimensional distributions

$$F_{t_1,...,t_n}(x_1,...,x_n) := \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{X}}(X(t_1) \le x_1,...,X(t_n) \le x_n), \ t_1 < \ldots < t_n$$

there exists a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbf{P})$, where \mathbf{P} is unique, and a stochastic process $\{X(t)\}$ such that F is consistent with X and \mathbf{P} .

Different stochastic processes can have the same distributions but different realizations

Stochastic processes

Example: (δ Kronecker's delta) η uniformly distributed on [0,1]. $X(t) = \delta(t - \eta)$, $t \in [0, 1]$. \Rightarrow

$${f P}_{f X}(X(t)\in B)=\left\{egin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\in B\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

since $\eta = t$ with probability 0, and for the same reason

$$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{X}}(X(t_1) \in B_1, \dots, X(t_n) \in B_n) = \left\{egin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \in \cap_{k=1}^n B_k \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

Let $Y(t) = 0 \cdot \eta$ for $t \in [0, 1]$. \Rightarrow X, Y have same finite dim. prob. dist. However,

$$\mathsf{P}(\sup_{t\in[0,1]}Y(t)=0)=\mathsf{P}(\sup_{t\in[0,1]}X(t)=1)=1$$

 \Rightarrow Sample paths X and Y do not coincide w.p. 1

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Partial specifications

First and second order moments

Mean function:

 $m_{\mathbf{X}}(t) := \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{X}(t)\right]$

Cross-correlation function:

$$R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(t,s) := \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{X}(t)\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}(s)\right]$$

Cross-covariance function:

$$C_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(t,s) := \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{X}(t) - m_{\mathbf{X}}(t))(\mathbf{Y}(s) - m_{\mathbf{Y}}(s))^T \right]$$

- Auto-correlation function (akf): $R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}}(t,s)$
- Covariance function: $C_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}}(t,s)$

Partial specifications

 ${f X}(t)$ stochastic process with $R_{{f X},{f X}}$ as akf \Rightarrow

$$0 \leq \mathbb{E}\left[|\sum_{i} a_i^* \mathbf{X}(t_i)|^2\right] = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m a^*(i) R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}}(t_i,t_j) a(j)$$

The opposite is true as well!

Theorem

K is a positive definite function, i.e.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m}\sum_{j=1}^{m}a^{*}(i)K(t_{i},t_{j})a(j)\geq0,\quad\forall a(i)\in\mathbb{C}^{n},\ t_{i}\in\mathcal{T},\ m\in\mathbb{N}$$

if and only if K is the akf of a stochastic process.

Modeling considerations

How do we model a family of akf's?

Obvious parametrization

$$R(t,s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \varphi_k(t) \varphi_k^{\mathsf{T}}(s), \quad \infty > \lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \ldots \ge 0,$$

 φ_k pre-specified basis functions, $\{\lambda_k\}$ hyperparameters

Generalization: Let $\Phi : T \to \mathcal{H}^n$, i.e. $\Phi_i(t) \in \mathcal{H}$, \mathcal{H} Hilbert space

$$R(t,s) = \lfloor \Phi(t), \Phi(s) \rfloor$$

Modeling considerations

The parametrization

$$R(t,s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \varphi_k(t) \varphi_k^{\mathsf{T}}(s), \quad \infty > \lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \ldots \ge 0,$$

seems like a great idea, but maybe it does not fit the requirements for a particular application?

To study this we need to take a deviation over positive definite kernels

Positive definite kernels

T a compact domain (e.g. closed interval in \mathbb{R})

Integral operators with kernel R:

$$I_R(f)(t) = \int_T R(t,s)f(s)ds$$

Maps a function f into another function. If $R \in L_{\infty}(T^2)$, then

$$I_R(f): L_2(T) \rightarrow L_2(T)$$

Positive definite kernel:

$$\int_{\mathcal{T}}\int_{\mathcal{T}}f^{*}(t)R(t,s)f(s)dtds\geq 0,\quad orall f\in L_{2}(\mathcal{T})$$

Very similar to definition of positive definite function, but not quite. $L_2(T)$ Hilbert space \Rightarrow Exists orthonormal basis { φ_k }. This basis can be chosen such that { φ_k } is bounded: $\sup_k \sup_t |\varphi_k(t)| < \infty$

Positive definite kernels

Theorem (Mercer's theorem)

R is a bounded positive definite kernel if and only if

$$R(t,s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \varphi_k(t) \varphi_k^*(s),$$

where the series converges absolutely and uniformly almost everywhere, where $\lambda_k > 0$ are absolutely summable and where $\{\varphi_k\}$ is a bounded orthonormal basis for $L_2(T)$.

Positive definite functions vs kernels

There are other positive definite functions than those in Mercer's theorem. But

Theorem

Let T = [a, b] be a compact interval and let $R : T \times T \to \mathbb{C}$ be continuous. Then R is a positive definite function if and only if

$$\int_{\mathcal{T}}\int_{\mathcal{T}}f(t)R(t,s)f(s)dtds\geq 0$$

for all complex-valued continuous functions f with domain of definition including T.

Now

- All continuous functions on $T \in L_2(T)$
- In fact they are dense in $L_2(T)$ (any function in $L_2(T)$ can be approximated arbitrarily well using a continuous function)
- ⇒ Above can be taken as criterion for R being a positive definite kernel

Positive definite functions vs kernels

⇒ If we restrict $\{\varphi_k\}$ so that *R* is continuous, i.e. take φ_k , k = 1, 2, ... to be continuous, then Mercer's theorem gives:

Theorem

All continuous positive definite functions can be expressed as

$$R(t,s) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \varphi_k(t) \varphi_k^*(s),$$

where $\{\varphi_{\}}$ is a bounded continuous orthonormal basis for $L_2(T)$

• Complete parametrization of all continuous auto-correlation functions of a stochastic process

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Gaussian processes (GP)

Pdf of a Gaussian vector:

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{\Sigma}) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det 2\pi \mathbf{\Sigma}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{m})}$$

All finite dimensional distributions Gaussian

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}(t_1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{X}(t_n) \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{m}(t_1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{m}(t_n) \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} C(t_1, t_1) & \dots & C(t_1, t_n) \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ C(t_n, t_1) & \dots & C(t_n, t_n) \end{bmatrix} \right), \quad \forall t_i$$

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Stationary stochastic processes

Properties invariant to translation in time \Leftrightarrow

$$F_{t_1+\Delta,\ldots,t_n+\Delta}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=F_{t_1,\ldots,t_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n),$$

Consequence for first and second order statistics

$$\mathbf{m} := \mathbf{m}(0) = \mathbf{m}(t)$$
$$R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(\tau) := R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(\tau,0) = R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(t,t-\tau)$$
$$C_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(\tau) := C_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(\tau,0) = C_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}}(t,t-\tau)$$

Wide-sense stationarity if only the above holds

GP: Wide-sense stationarity \Leftrightarrow (*strict*)*stationarity*

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Wide-sense stationarity

Positivity condition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{i}^{*} R(t_{i} - t_{j}) a_{j} \ge 0, \quad \forall a_{i} \in \mathbb{C}^{n}, \ t_{i} \in T, \ m \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} R(t_{1} - t_{1}) & R(t_{1} - t_{2}) & \dots & R(t_{1} - t_{m}) \\ R^{T}(t_{1} - t_{2}) & R(t_{2} - t_{2}) & \dots & R(t_{2} - t_{m}) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R^{T}(t_{1} - t_{m}) & R^{T}(t_{2} - t_{m}) & \dots & R(t_{m} - t_{m}) \end{bmatrix} \ge 0$$

for all Toeplitz matrices of the above type.

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Quasi-stationarity

Frequency-domain characterization

Quasi-stationarity

$$\overline{\mathbb{E}}\left\{f(t)\right\} = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}\left[f(t)\right]$$

Definition

 $\mathbf{X}(t)$ is said to be a quasi-stationary signal if

$$\begin{split} &|m_{\mathbf{X}}(t)| \leq C \quad \forall t \\ &R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}}(t,s)| \leq C \quad \forall t,s \\ &R_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}}(\tau) := \overline{\mathbb{E}} \left\{ \mathbf{X}(t) \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}(t-\tau) \right\}, \quad \text{exists } \forall \tau \end{split}$$

Two signals $\mathbf{X}(t)$ and $\mathbf{Y}(t)$ are said to be jointly quasi-stationary if $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}^{T}(t) & \mathbf{Y}^{T}(t) \end{bmatrix}^{T}$ is quasi-stationary.

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Frequency-domain characterization

- Recall $f(t)\overline{f(s)}$ positive definite function \Rightarrow
- $e^{i\omega t}e^{-i\omega s} = e^{i\omega(t-s)}$ is a positive definite function \Rightarrow
- $R(t) = e^{i\omega t}$ is a positive definite function \Rightarrow
- $R(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_k e^{i\omega_k t}$ is a positive definite function
- Herglotz theorem: All positive definite functions can be generated in this way

Definition

F is a matrix valued distribution function on [a, b] (or \mathbb{R}), if F(a) = 0 (or $\lim_{\omega \to -\infty} F(\omega) = 0$), F is right-continuous, $F(\omega) - F(\mu)$ is non-negative definite for all $\omega \ge \mu$.

Frequency-domain characterization

Theorem (Herglotz theorem)

 $R: T \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, with $T = \mathbb{Z}$, is a positive definite function if and only if

$$R(au) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\omega au} dF(\omega)$$

where F is an $m \times m$ matrix valued distribution function on $[-\pi, \pi]$, called the spectral distribution function

Bochner's theorem in continuous time, see LN

Frequency-domain characterization

Corollary

Suppose that $R: T \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, with $T = \mathbb{Z}$, is absolutely summable $\sum_{\tau=-\infty}^{\infty} \|R(\tau)\|_{F} < \infty$. Then R is a positive definite function if and only if

$$R(au) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i\omega au} Q(\omega) d\omega$$

for some continuous function $Q \in L_1(\mathbb{R})$, satisfying $Q(\omega) \ge 0, \omega \in [-\pi, \pi]$, called the spectrum.

Notation $\Phi(e^{i\omega}) = Q(\omega)$

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{X}(t)\mathbf{X}^{\mathcal{T}}(t)\right] = R_{\mathbf{X}}(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \Phi_{\mathbf{x}}(e^{i\omega}) d\omega$$

 $\Phi_{\boldsymbol{X}}$ distribution of signal power over frequencies

Modeling considerations

Some parametrizations of spectra:

• pdf's (i.e. use characteristic functions as akf's)

•
$$\Phi(\omega) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \mathcal{B}_k(e^{i\omega}), \ \mathcal{B}_k(e^{i\omega}) \ge 0, \ \alpha_k \ge 0, \ k = 1, 2, \dots$$

• $\Phi(e^{i\omega}) = \tilde{H}(e^{i\omega})\tilde{H}^*(e^{i\omega})$

The last can be given a filtering interpretation:

G BIBO stable

$$y(t) = G(q)u(t) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Phi_{yy}(e^{i\omega}) = G(e^{i\omega})\Phi_{uu}(e^{i\omega})G^*(e^{i\omega})$$

More on this in the next lecture

Let us study a GP

 $f(\cdot) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, K(\cdot, \cdot))$

for different choices of kernel K

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Disturbances and noise: Behaviour often does not change over time

$$K(v(t), v(s)) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |H(e^{i\omega}|^2 e^{i\omega(t-s)} d\omega)$$

Impulse responses of stable linear systems: Decays exponentially



Gaussian kernel: Often used when modeling a non-linear function



Summary

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