Systems Dynamics

Course ID: 267MI - Fall 2018

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Lecture 6

267MI -Fall 2018

problems

Definitions and properties of the estimation and prediction

The estimation problem

The estimation problem

 The estimation problem arises when there is a need of determining one or more unknown quantities using experimentally observed data

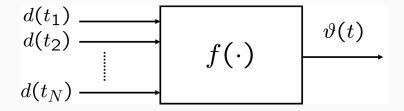


In most cases the unknown parameters are constant

$$\vartheta(t) \equiv \vartheta$$

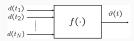
- $T = \{t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_N\}$ set of the observation time-instants
 - In general, there is no need of equally-spaced t_i
 - If there is the possibility of choosing the instants t_i when to get experimental data, it is convenient to have more observations where the experiment is more significant.

Estimator



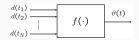
The estimator is a **deterministic function** yielding as output the unknown parameters on the basis of the observed data as inputs

Estimation of constant parameters

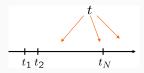


- If $\vartheta(t) \equiv \bar{\vartheta} = \text{const}$ we have a parametric estimation or identification problem.
- The estimate given by the estimator is denoted as $\hat{\vartheta}$ or $\hat{\vartheta}_T$ to enhance the set of observation time-instants.
- The "true" value of the parameter is denoted as ϑ° .

Estimation of time-varying parameters



- The estimate generated by the estimator is denoted as $\hat{\vartheta}\left(t|\,T\right)$ or simply as $\hat{\vartheta}\left(t|\,N\right)$ if we can set $T=\{1\,,\,2\,,\,\ldots\,,\,N\}$.
- Typically we have three cases:
 - $t > t_N$: problem of prediction
 - $t = t_N$: problem of filtering
 - $t < t_N$: problem of smoothing



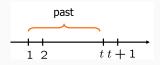
The prediction problem

It is a fundamental problem in the context of **dynamical systems** identification

- To set the basics, let us focus on the case of time-series
- A sequence of observations $y(1)\,,\ y(2)\,,\ \dots\,,\ y(t)$ of a variable $y\left(\cdot\right)$ is available.
- We want to estimate y(t+1)
- Therefore, we want to design a predictor

$$\hat{y}(t+1|t) = f[y(t), y(t-1), \dots, y(1)]$$

• The predictor expresses an estimate $\hat{y}(t+1|t)$ of y(t+1) as a function of t past values of $y(\cdot)$



· A predictor is linear if

$$\hat{y}(t+1|t) = a_1(t) \cdot y(t) + \dots + a_t(t) \cdot y(1)$$

 A predictor is finite-memory (hence uses a limited memory of the past) if

$$\hat{y}(t+1|t) = a_1(t) \cdot y(t) + \dots + a_n(t) \cdot y(t-n+1)$$

· A predictor is linear time-invariant if

$$\hat{y}(t+1|t) = a_1 y(t) + \dots + a_n y(t-n+1)$$

where the parameters a_1, \ldots, a_n are constant

• We define the vector of parameters $\vartheta^T = [a_1 \, , \, \ldots \, , \, a_n]$

Determining a "good" predictor means determining a suitable vector ϑ such that the prediction $\hat{y}\left(t+1\left|t\right.\right)$ is the more accurate possible

More precisely:

· Consider a finite-memory linear time-invariant predictor

$$\hat{y}(t+1|t) = a_1 y(t) + \dots + a_n y(t-n+1)$$

where n is "small" with respect to the number of data observed till time-instant t

- The performances of the predictor can be evaluated on the already-available data: y(i) $i=1,\ldots,t$
 - · we compute

$$\hat{y}(i+1|i) = a_1 y(i) + \dots + a_n y(i-n+1), \quad \forall i > n$$

· We evaluate the prediction error

$$\varepsilon(i+1) = y(i+1) - \hat{y}(i+1|i), \quad \forall i > n$$

The vector $\vartheta^T = [a_1, \ldots, a_n]$ is "good" if ε is "small" over the available data.

Introduce the criterion:

$$J(\vartheta) = \sum_{i=n+1}^{t} (\varepsilon(i))^{2}$$

Hence

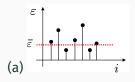
$$\vartheta^{\circ} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\vartheta} J\left(\vartheta\right)$$

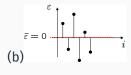
The determination of ϑ° is thus reduced to the solution of an optimization problem.

Remarks

It is very important to clarify the meaning of ε "small"

The minimization of $J\left(\vartheta\right)$ is not per se a fully satisfactory criterion

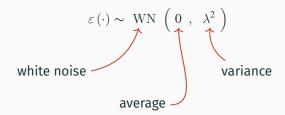




- Case (a): not satisfactory because the average error $\bar{\varepsilon}$ is not zero \Rightarrow systematic error
- CASE (B): despite the fact that the average error ē is zero, it is not satisfactory because the sequence is alternatively positive and negative; hence, at any time-instant the sign of the next error is known in advance ⇒ The predictor does not embed all the information

The ideal situation

Prediction error ε with smallest possible average and "as much as unpredictable as possible"



Predictor as a dynamic system

$$\begin{split} \hat{y}\left(t\left|t-1\right.\right) &= a_1 y(t-1) + \dots + a_n y(t-n) \\ \varepsilon(t) &= y(t) - \hat{y}\left(t\left|t-1\right.\right) \quad \Rightarrow \quad y(t) = \varepsilon(t) + \hat{y}\left(t\left|t-1\right.\right) \\ y(t) &= a_1 y(t-1) + \dots + a_n y(t-n) + \varepsilon(t) \\ y(t) &= \left(a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_n z^{-n}\right) y(t) + \varepsilon(t) \\ A(z) y(t) &= \varepsilon(t) \text{ with } A(z) = 1 - a_1 z^{-1} - a_2 z^{-2} - \dots - a_n z^{-n} \end{split}$$

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{A(z)} \varepsilon(t)$$
 $\varepsilon(t)$ $\frac{1}{A(z)}$ $y(t)$

A Glimpse on

&

Estimation theory

Estimators' characteristics

General concepts and definitions

In general we have:

$$d = d\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^{\circ}\right)$$

where

- $d \iff$ observed (measured) data
- $\vartheta^{\circ} \iff$ unknown quantity to be estimated
- $s \iff$ result of the random experiment
- · The estimator is a function:

$$\hat{\vartheta} = f \left[d \left(s \,,\, \vartheta^{\circ} \right) \right]$$

The estimator is a random variable because its value depens on the result $\,s\,$ of the random experiment

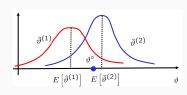
Bias

• In general, the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}=f\left[d\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^{\circ}\right)\right]$ is unbiased if

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\hat{\vartheta}\right) = \vartheta^{\circ}$$

 Clearly, it is important to try to ensure that the estimator is unbiased.

In this example, the estimators are both biased but the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}$ is characterized by a lower bias



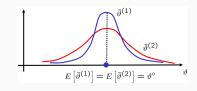
Minimum variance

• The "unbiasedness" (correctness) is not the only criterion to be used to evaluate the quality of an estimator.

In this case, both estimators are unbiased.

However:

$$\operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(1)}\right] \ll \operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}\right]$$



- Hence, the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}^{(1)}$ has a higher probability of yielding estimates closer to the true value ϑ° as compared with the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}$
- Therefore, the goal is to reduce the variance of the estimator as much as possible.

Minimum variance (cont.)

• In general, under the same bias characteristics, we say that the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}^{(1)}$ is better than the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}$ if

$$\mathrm{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(1)}\right] \leq \mathrm{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}\right]$$

that is, if the matrix (ϑ may be a vector)

$$\mathrm{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}\right] - \mathrm{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(1)}\right] \geq 0$$

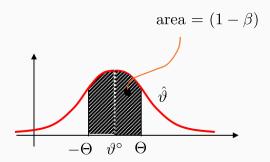
• Recalling that $A \geq 0 \implies \det A \geq 0$, $\lambda_i \geq 0$, $a_{ii} \geq 0$, we have

$$\operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}\right] - \operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}^{(1)}\right] \geq 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}_{i}^{(2)}\right] \geq \operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}_{i}^{(1)}\right]$$

where $\hat{\vartheta}_i^{(1}$, $\hat{\vartheta}_i^{(2)}$ denote the i-th components of the vectors $\hat{\vartheta}^{(1}$, $\hat{\vartheta}^{(2)}$.

Estimate's confidence

Consider an estimator $\hat{\vartheta}$:

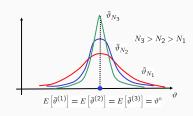


The estimate $\hat{\vartheta}$ belongs to the interval $(-\Theta\,,\,\Theta)$ around ϑ° with confidence $(1-\beta)\cdot 100\%$.

Asymptotic characteristics

- If the number N of available data increases over time
 - the available information to compute the estimate increases
 - · the uncertainty decreases
- From this perspective the estimator $\hat{\vartheta}_N$ is "good" if

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \operatorname{var}\left[\hat{\vartheta}_N\right] = 0$$



Convergence in "quadratic mean"

• When the estimate $\,\hat{\vartheta}_N\,$ is computed on the basis of a time-increasing amount of data $\,N$, another estimate's quality criterion is

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \left. \operatorname{E} \left[\left\| \hat{\vartheta}_N - \vartheta^{\circ} \right\|^2 \right] = 0 \qquad (*)$$

If (*) holds we say that the estimate $\hat{\vartheta}_N$ converges to ϑ° in "quadratic mean"

• Notice that $\hat{\vartheta}_N$ is a random vector, ϑ° is a constant vector and $\left\|\hat{\vartheta}_N - \vartheta^\circ\right\|$ is a scalar random variable with a well-defined expected value.

Almost-sure convergence

• Recall that the estimator based on N data is

$$\hat{\vartheta}_N\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^\circ\right) = f\left[d\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^\circ\right)\right]$$

• For a given $\bar{s} \in S$, we have a sequence

$$\hat{\vartheta}_{1}\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^{\circ}\right)\,,\,\,\hat{\vartheta}_{2}\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^{\circ}\right)\,,\,\,\ldots\,,\,\,\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\left(s\,,\,\vartheta^{\circ}\right)\,,\,\,\ldots$$

· It may happen that:

$$\bar{s} \in S \longrightarrow \lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{\vartheta}_N \left(\bar{s} , \, \vartheta^{\circ} \right) = \vartheta^{\circ}$$

$$\tilde{s} \in S \longrightarrow \lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{\vartheta}_N \left(\bar{s} , \, \vartheta^{\circ} \right) \neq \vartheta^{\circ}$$

Almost-sure convergence (cont.)

Introduce the set of random experiment results

$$A \subset S, \ A = \left\{ s \in S : \lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{\vartheta}_N \left(s, \ \vartheta^{\circ} \right) = \vartheta^{\circ} \right\}$$

- If A = S Sure convergence
- If $A \subset S$ and P(A) = 1 Almost-sure convergence Note that, if the measure of the set $S \setminus A$ is zero, this implies P(A) = 1 and hence almost-sure convergence.
- Clearly $A = S \implies P(A) = 1$ Sure convergence \longrightarrow Almost-sure convergence
- An estimator characterized by almost-sure convergence properties is called consistent.

Example 1

• Consider N scalar data $d(1)\,,\;d(2)\,,\;\dots\,,\;d(N)$ such that

$$\operatorname{E}\left[d(i)\right] = \vartheta^{\circ}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

· Assume that data are mutually un-correlated, that is

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{\left[d(i)-\vartheta^{\circ}\right]\left[d(j)-\vartheta^{\circ}\right]\right\}=0\;,\quad\forall i\neq j$$

· Consider the estimator

$$\hat{\vartheta_N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N d(i)$$

Sampled-average estimator

· Bias:

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left[d(i)\right]\right\} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathbf{E}\left[d(i)\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\vartheta^{\circ} = \vartheta^{\circ}$$

the estimator is unbiased

· Variance:

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{var}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\right) &= \operatorname{E}\left\{\left[\hat{\vartheta}_{N} - \operatorname{E}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\right)\right]^{2}\right\} = \operatorname{E}\left\{\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}d(i) - \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\vartheta^{\circ}\right]^{2}\right\} \\ &= \operatorname{E}\left\{\frac{1}{N^{2}}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N}d(i) - \sum_{i=1}^{N}\vartheta^{\circ}\right]^{2}\right\} = \frac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\operatorname{E}\left\{\left[d(i) - \vartheta^{\circ}\right]^{2}\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right] & \text{the "cross-terms" are zero because of the assumption on un-correlated data} \end{split}$$

• If
$$\operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right] \leq \bar{\sigma}$$
, $i=1$, 2 , \ldots , N
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \operatorname{var}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_N\right) \leq \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{\bar{\sigma}}{N} = 0$$

the estimator converges in quadratic mean

Example 2

• Consider N scalar data d(1), d(2), ..., d(N) such that

$$E[d(i)] = \vartheta^{\circ}, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N$$

Assume that the data are mutually un-correlated, that is

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{\left[d(i) - \vartheta^{\circ}\right] \left[d(j) - \vartheta^{\circ}\right]\right\} = 0, \quad \forall i \neq j$$

· Consider the estimator

$$\hat{\vartheta}_N = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha(i) \, d(i)$$

· Bias:

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha(i) \, d(i)\right\} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha(i) \, \mathbf{E}\left[d(i)\right] = \vartheta^{\circ} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha(i)$$

The estimator is unbiased
$$\longrightarrow$$
 $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha(i) = 1 \quad (\star)$

N.B. in the previous case $\alpha(i) = \frac{1}{N}$ and hence (\star) holds

Condition (\star) is a constraint to be satisfied so that the estimator is unbiased.

This constraint characterizes a class of unbiased estimators

 Let us now determine the best estimator among the unbiased ones (hence satisfying the constraint (*)) choosing the minimum variance one

$$\begin{cases} & \text{min var}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_N\right) = \min \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\alpha(i)\right]^2 \text{var}\left[d(i)\right] \\ & 1 - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha(i) = 0 \end{cases}$$

By using the Lagrange multipliers technique we have:

$$J\left(\hat{\vartheta}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\alpha(i)\right]^{2} \cdot \operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right] + \lambda \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha(i)\right)$$

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$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \alpha(i)} = 0 \iff 2\alpha(i) \, \mathrm{var} \left[d(i) \right] - \lambda = 0 \iff \alpha(i) = \frac{\lambda}{2 \, \operatorname{var} \left[d(i) \right]}$$

• Now, imposing the constraint (\star) for unbiasedness

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha(i) = 1 \iff \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\text{var}[d(i)]} = 1 \iff \lambda = \frac{2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\text{var}[d(i)]}}$$
$$\alpha(i) = \frac{1}{\text{var}[d(i)]} \alpha \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\text{var}[d(i)]}}$$

Hence, $\alpha(i)$ is chosen to be inversely proportional to the data variance $\mathrm{var}\left[d(i)\right]$: the bigger the data variance, the smaller the associated weight (consistent with intuition).

· Let us compute the estimator's variance:

$$\operatorname{var}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\right) = \operatorname{E}\left\{\left[\hat{\vartheta}_{N} - \operatorname{E}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_{N}\right)\right]^{2}\right\} = \operatorname{E}\left\{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N}\alpha(i)d(i) - \vartheta^{\circ}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\alpha(i)\right]^{2}\right\}$$

$$= \operatorname{E}\left\{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N}\alpha(i)\left[d(i) - \vartheta^{\circ}\right]\right]^{2}\right\} = \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left[\alpha(i)\right]^{2}\operatorname{E}\left\{\left[d(i) - \vartheta^{\circ}\right]^{2}\right\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(\alpha(i)\right)^{2}\operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right] = \alpha^{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{1}{\operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right]} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{1}{\operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right]}}$$

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• If
$$\operatorname{var}\left[d(i)\right] \leq \bar{\sigma}$$
, $i=1$, 2 , ..., N
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \operatorname{var}\left(\hat{\vartheta}_N\right) \leq \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{\bar{\sigma}}{N} = 0$$

the estimator converges in quadratic mean

Generalization

- When the quantities to be estimated are time-varying, it is necessary to modify the estimators' quality indexes.
- Denote with $\hat{\vartheta}\left(t\left|t-1\right.\right)$ the estimate of $\vartheta^{\circ}(t)$ exploiting data collected till time-instant t-1
- Clearly, as $\vartheta^{\circ}(t)$ varies over time, it does not make sense to talk about asymptotic convergence in terms of data in the past that may turn up not to be meaningful any more.
- · A typical criterion is

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\left\|\hat{\vartheta}\left(t\left|t-1\right.\right)-\vartheta^{\circ}(t)\right\|^{2}\right]\leq c$$

where c is a suitably small positive scalar

 In this time-varying case what matters is not "convergence" but "boundedness"

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Lecture 6
Definitions and properties of the estimation and prediction problems

END