Lecture 21, Nov 29, 2023

Extracting Estimates from PDFs

Maximum Likelihood (ML)

- This method is often used when x is an unknown constant parameter without a known probabilistic description, i.e. we have no prior information about \boldsymbol{x}
 - e.g. in Bayesian estimation, we had a prior (prediction) for x, but here we are assuming no knowledge of that
- For a given observation y and observation model f(y|x), the method seeks a value of x that maximizes the likelihood of observing \boldsymbol{y} , i.e. $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}^{ML} = \operatorname{argmax} f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x})$
 - $-f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x})$ as a function of \boldsymbol{x} is the likelihood function
 - \boldsymbol{x} is a parameter of the observation model; e.g. the model can be a Gaussian, and \boldsymbol{x} may denote its mean or variance, etc
- Example: Consider two measurements of a scalar quantity $x \in \mathbb{R}$: $y_1 = x + w_1, y_2 = x + w_2$ where $w_1, w_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
 - Note $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ denotes a Gaussian with mean μ and variance σ

$$-f(w_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{w_i^2}{2}\right)$$

- We can consider w_1, w_2 as additive noise parameters; this essentially makes $y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(x, 1)$
 - * Note formally we would use a change of variables: $y_i = x + w_i \implies w_i = y_i x$
 - * Now we can just substitute w_i into the Gaussian equation since we have a linear relationship
- y_1, y_2 are conditionally independent on x, so $f(y_1, y_2|x) = f(y_1|x)f(y_2|x) = \frac{1}{2\pi}e^{-\frac{1}{2}((y_1-x)^2+(y_2-x)^2)}$ This is now an unconstrained optimization problem; we can differentiate with respect to x and set this to 0
- We get $(y_1 \hat{x}) + (y_2 \hat{x}) = 0 \implies \hat{x} = \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}$, which is just the average
- Suppose we generalize the last example to a collection of measurements $m{z}=m{H}m{x}+m{w}$ where $m{z},m{w}\in$ $\mathbb{R}^m, \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and m > n; as above $w_i \sim (0, 1)$ are independent

- Let
$$\boldsymbol{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{h}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{h}_m^T \end{bmatrix}$$
 where $\boldsymbol{h}_i^T = \begin{bmatrix} h_{i_1} & \cdots & h_{i_n} \end{bmatrix}$

- Then
$$z_i = \boldsymbol{h}_i^{\scriptscriptstyle I} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{w}_i$$

- As before $f(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left((z_1 \boldsymbol{h}_1^T \boldsymbol{x})^2 + \dots + (z_m \boldsymbol{h}_m^T \boldsymbol{x})^2\right)\right)$ Differentiating with respect to each x_j we have $(z_1 \boldsymbol{h}_1^T \hat{\boldsymbol{x}})h_{1j} + \dots + (z_m \boldsymbol{h}_m^T \hat{\boldsymbol{x}})h_{mj} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2}\left((z_1 \boldsymbol{h}_1^T \boldsymbol{x})^2 + \dots + (z_m \boldsymbol{h}_m^T \hat{\boldsymbol{x}})h_{mj}\right)$
- $\begin{bmatrix} h_{1j} & \cdots & h_{mj} \end{bmatrix} (\boldsymbol{z} \boldsymbol{H} \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}) = 0$
- With all the rows, we get $\boldsymbol{H}^T(\boldsymbol{z} \boldsymbol{H}\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}) = \boldsymbol{0} \implies \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = (\boldsymbol{H}^T\boldsymbol{H})^{-1}\boldsymbol{H}^T\boldsymbol{z}$, which is the least squares solution
 - * Note we can write $\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{z} \boldsymbol{H}\boldsymbol{x}$, so \boldsymbol{w} is some error term; then $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = \operatorname{argmin} \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{w}$
 - * If not all the errors have the same variance, then we have weighted least squares



Figure 1: Undesirable case of maximum likelihood.

- Limitations of ML:
 - In general ML is more sensitive to outliers and modelling error
 - The maximum of the distribution may not always be what we want we may lose robustness
 - * In the example above, ML will give x_1 if there are measurements on it, which is very sensitive to changes in the data or model – small variations in the model might cause x_1 to have a likelihood of zero instead
 - * Choosing x_2 is more robust; since the distribution is wider, we're less sensitive to changes in the data or model
 - * Outliers that happen to line up with a peak can give us an incorrect estimate
 - We might also have prior knowledge about x (i.e. its PDF), which ML cannot incorporate

Maximum a Posteriori (MAP)

- If we have a PDF for \boldsymbol{x} , we can use MAP
- From Bayes's theorem: $f(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x})f(\boldsymbol{x})}{f(\boldsymbol{y})}$ With MAP, we have $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}^{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax} f(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x})f(\boldsymbol{x})$
 - We want to maximize the choice of the parameter that makes both the observations and the parameter itself most likely
- If $f(\boldsymbol{x})$ is constant, then $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}^{MAP} = \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}^{ML}$
- As with ML, we are still maximizing a function over x, so the same sensitivity to outliers and modelling error still applies
- Example: consider the scalar observation y = x + w, where $w \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), x \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{x}, \sigma_x^2)$ and x, windependent

$$- f(x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\bar{x})^2}{\sigma_x^2}\right)$$
$$- f(y|x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(y-x)^2\right)$$
$$- f(y|x)f(x) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(x-\bar{x})^2}{\sigma_x^2} + (y-x)^2\right)\right)$$
Differentiating with respect to x and setting to

Differentiating with respect to x and setting to zero gives the following solution:

$$- \hat{x}^{MAP} = \frac{1}{1 + \sigma_x^2} \bar{x} + \frac{\sigma_x^2}{1 + \sigma_x^2}$$

* Notice that this is a weighted sum between the mean of the prior distribution and the new measurement

- Consider the extreme cases: * $\sigma_x^2 = 0 \implies \hat{x}^{MAP} = \bar{x}$ (if we're certain about x before any measurements, we just get the max of the prior) * $\sigma_x^2 \to \infty \implies \hat{x}^{MAP} = y$ (if we're uncertain about x, we just get the new measurement; note
 - this is the same as maximum likelihood)
- This is most often used in state estimation

Minimum Mean Squared Error (MMSE)

- The MMSE is the a posteriori estimate that minimizes the mean squared error
- $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}^{MMSE} = \operatorname{argmin} E_{\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y}} \left[(\boldsymbol{x} \hat{\boldsymbol{x}})^T (\boldsymbol{x} \hat{\boldsymbol{x}}) |\boldsymbol{y} \right]$
 - Expand and differentiate with respect to \hat{x} : $2\hat{x} 2E[x|y] = 0 \implies \hat{x} = E[x|y]$
 - The MMSE estimate is the expected value of x conditioned on y
- While MAP is the maximum of the posterior, MMSE is the mean of the posterior
- Note we did not constrain \hat{x} in our minimization, but for some applications we might want to introduce constraints
 - e.g. for a discrete random variable with sample space \mathcal{X} , we need to constrain the minimization to $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{X}$



Figure 2: Undesirable case of MMSE.

- MMSE always takes the whole probability mass into consideration, whereas MAP and ML just pick the maximum probability in some cases, this is desirable, while in other cases it is not
 - Consider the bimodal distribution of f(x|y) above; MMSE would give x_1 , but the probability of having x actually being near x_1 is zero
 - * MAP would have picked one of the two peaks
 - On the other hand, the MMSE is typically more robust to modelling errors and outliers, since it is not as sensitive to sharp peaks