

Chapter 6

Elements of parameter estimation

6.1 Bayesian parameter estimation

Throughout this chapter we assume that the data are samples of a parametrically known process $\{\mathcal{P}_\theta; \theta \in \tau\}$, where \mathcal{P}_θ denotes a distribution on the observation space (Γ, \mathcal{G}) :

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{P}_\theta(\mathbf{x}) \quad (6.1)$$

The goal of the parameter estimation problem is to find a function $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) : \Gamma \mapsto \tau$ such that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})$ is the best guess of the true value of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. Of course, the solution depends on a goodness criterion. As in the hypothesis testing problems, we have to define a cost function $c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}), \boldsymbol{\theta}] : \tau \times \tau \mapsto \mathbf{R}^+$ such that $c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}]$ is the cost of estimating the true value of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ by \mathbf{a} .

Then, as in the hypothesis testing problems, we can define the conditional risk function

$$\begin{aligned} R_\theta(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) &= \mathbf{E}_\theta \{c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}), \boldsymbol{\theta}]\} = \mathbf{E} [c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}), \boldsymbol{\Theta}] | \boldsymbol{\Theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta}] \\ &= \int_\Gamma c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}] f_\theta(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

and the Bayes risk

$$\begin{aligned} r(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) &= \mathbf{E} [R_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}))] \\ &= \int_\tau \int_\Gamma c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}] f_\theta(\mathbf{x}) \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\mathbf{x} d\boldsymbol{\theta} \\ &= \int_\Gamma \int_\tau c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}] \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \mathbf{E} [\mathbf{E} [c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}), \boldsymbol{\Theta}] | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]] \end{aligned} \quad (6.3)$$

From this relation, and the fact that in general the cost function is positive, we see that $r(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ is minimized over $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$, when for any $\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma$, the mean posterior cost

$$\bar{c}[\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{E} [c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}), \boldsymbol{\Theta}] | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = \int_\tau c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}] \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \quad (6.4)$$

is minimized.

It is clear that the resulting estimate depends on the choice of the cost function. In the following section we first consider the case of a scalar parameter and then extend it to the vector parameter case.

6.1.1 Minimum-Mean-Squared-Error

In case where $\tau = \mathbf{R}$, a commonly used cost function is

$$c[a, \theta] = c(a - \theta) = (a - \theta)^2, \quad (a, \theta) \in \mathbf{R}^2 \quad (6.5)$$

The corresponding Bayes risk is $E[(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \Theta)^2]$, a quantity which is known as the *Mean-Squared-Error* (MSE). The corresponding Bayes estimate is called the *Minimum-Mean-Squared-Error* (MMSE) *estimator*.

The posterior cost is given by

$$\begin{aligned} E[(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \Theta)^2 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] &= E[\hat{\theta}^2(\mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] - 2E[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})\Theta | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] + E[\Theta^2 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \\ &= [\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})]^2 - 2\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})E[\Theta | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] + E[\Theta^2 | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \end{aligned} \quad (6.6)$$

This expression is a quadratic function of $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})$ and its minimum is obtained for

$$\hat{\theta}_{MMSE}(\mathbf{X}) = E[\Theta | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \quad (6.7)$$

Thus the MMSE estimate is the mean of the posterior probability density function. This estimate is also called *posterior mean* (PM) estimate.

6.1.2 Minimum-Mean-Absolute-Error

In case where $\tau = \mathbf{R}$, another commonly used cost function is

$$c[a, \theta] = c(a - \theta) = |a - \theta|, \quad (a, \theta) \in \mathbf{R}^2 \quad (6.8)$$

The corresponding Bayes risk is $E[|\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \Theta|]$, a quantity which is known as the *Mean-Absolute-Error* (MAE). The corresponding Bayes estimate is called the *Minimum-Mean-Absolute-Error* (MMAE) *estimator*.

The posterior cost is given by

$$\begin{aligned} E[|\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \Theta| | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] &= \int_0^\infty \Pr\{|\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) - \Theta| > z | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\} dz \\ &= \int_0^\infty \Pr\{\Theta > z + \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\} dz \\ &\quad + \int_0^\infty \Pr\{\Theta < -z + \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\} dz \end{aligned} \quad (6.9)$$

Doing the variable change $t = z + \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ in the first integral and $t = -z + \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ in the second one we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} E[|\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) - \Theta| | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] &= \int_{\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})}^\infty \Pr\{\Theta > t | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\} dt \\ &\quad + \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})} \Pr\{\Theta < t | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\} dt \end{aligned} \quad (6.10)$$

This expression is differentiable with respect to $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathbb{E} \left[|\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \Theta| \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right]}{\partial \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})} &= \Pr \left\{ \Theta < \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} \\ &\quad - \Pr \left\{ \Theta > \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (6.11)$$

This derivative is a nondecreasing function of $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ which approaches -1 as $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow -\infty$ and $+1$ as $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow +\infty$. The minimum of (6.11) is achieved at the point $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ where the derivative vanishes. Consequently, the Bayes estimate satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left\{ \Theta < t \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} &\leq \Pr \left\{ \Theta > t \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\}, \quad t < \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \\ &\text{and} \\ \Pr \left\{ \Theta < t \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} &\geq \Pr \left\{ \Theta > t \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\}, \quad t > \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\Pr \left\{ \Theta < \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} = \Pr \left\{ \Theta > \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\}. \quad (6.12)$$

$\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ is the *median* of the posterior distribution of Θ given $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$:

$$\hat{\theta}_{MMAE}(\mathbf{X}) = \text{median of } \pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) \quad (6.13)$$

6.1.3 Maximum *A Posteriori* (MAP) estimation

Another commonly used cost function in the cases where $\tau = \mathbb{R}$ is

$$c[a, \theta] = c(a - \theta) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |a - \theta| \leq \Delta \\ 1 & \text{if } |a - \theta| > \Delta \end{cases} \quad (6.14)$$

where Δ is a positive real number. The corresponding Bayes risk is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[c[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}), \Theta] \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right] &= \Pr \left\{ |\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) - \Theta| > \Delta \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Pr \left\{ |\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) - \Theta| \leq \Delta \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (6.15)$$

To minimize this expression we consider two cases:

- Θ is a discrete random variable taking its values in a finite set $\tau = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_M\}$ such that $|\theta_i - \theta_j| > \Delta$ for any $i \neq j$. Then we have

$$\mathbb{E} \left[c[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}), \Theta] \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right] = 1 - \Pr \left\{ \Theta = \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \right\} = 1 - \pi(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{x}) \quad (6.16)$$

where $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x})$ is the posterior distribution of Θ given $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$. The estimate is the value of Θ which has the maximum *a posteriori* probability:

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \mathcal{T}} \{\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x})\} \quad (6.17)$$

- Θ is a continuous random variable. In this case, we have

$$\mathbb{E} [c[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}), \Theta] | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = 1 - \int_{\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})-\Delta}^{\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})+\Delta} \pi(\theta | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) d\theta \quad (6.18)$$

If we assume that the posterior probability distribution $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ is a continuous and smooth function and Δ is sufficiently small, then we can write

$$\mathbb{E} [c[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}), \Theta] | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = 1 - 2\Delta \pi(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) \quad (6.19)$$

and again we have

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \mathcal{T}} \{\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})\} \quad (6.20)$$

Example 1: Estimation of the parameter of an exponential distribution.

Suppose both distributions $f_\theta(x)$ and $\pi(\theta)$ are exponential:

$$f_\theta(x) = \begin{cases} \theta \exp[-\theta x] & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6.21)$$

and

$$\pi(\theta) = \begin{cases} \alpha \exp[-\alpha\theta] & \text{if } \theta > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6.22)$$

Note that

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{E}[X] = \theta \\ \text{Var}\{X\} = \mathbb{E}[(X - \theta)^2] = \theta^2 \end{cases} \quad (6.23)$$

and

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{E}[\Theta] = \alpha \\ \text{Var}\{\Theta\} = \mathbb{E}[(\Theta - \alpha)^2] = \alpha^2 \end{cases} \quad (6.24)$$

Then, we can calculate the joint distribution $\phi(x, \theta)$

$$\phi(x, \theta) = \begin{cases} \alpha \theta \exp[-\theta x - \alpha\theta] & \text{if } \theta > 0, x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (6.25)$$

The marginal distribution $m(x)$ is given by

$$m(x) = \begin{cases} \int_0^\infty \alpha \theta \exp[-(\alpha + x)\theta] d\theta = \frac{\alpha}{(\alpha+x)^2} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (6.26)$$

and the posterior distribution $\pi(\theta|x)$ is given by

$$\pi(\theta|x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha \theta \exp[-(\alpha+x)\theta]}{m(x)} = (\alpha + x)^2 \theta \exp[-(\alpha + x)\theta] & \text{if } \theta > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (6.27)$$

Note that we have

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{E}[\Theta | X = x] = \frac{2}{\alpha+x} \\ \text{Var}\{\Theta | X = x\} = \frac{2}{(\alpha+x)^2} \end{cases} \quad (6.28)$$

The MMSE estimator is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\theta}_{MMSE}(x) &= \mathbf{E}[\Theta | X = x] \\
&= \int_0^\infty \theta \pi(\theta|x) \, d\theta \\
&= \int_0^\infty (\alpha + x)^2 \theta^2 \exp[-(\alpha + x)\theta] \, d\theta \\
&= \frac{2}{\alpha + x}
\end{aligned} \tag{6.29}$$

and the corresponding MMSE is:

$$\begin{aligned}
MMSE &= r(\hat{\theta}_{MMSE}) = \mathbf{E}[\text{Var}\{\Theta | X\}] \\
&= \int_0^\infty \frac{2}{(\alpha + x)^2} m(x) \, dx \\
&= \int_0^\infty \frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha + x)^4} \, dx \\
&= \frac{2}{3\alpha^2}
\end{aligned} \tag{6.30}$$

The MMAE estimate $\hat{\theta}_{ABS}(x)$ is such that

$$\int_{\hat{\theta}_{ABS}}^\infty \pi(\theta|x) \, d\theta = [1 + (\alpha + x)\hat{\theta}_{ABS}] \exp[-(\alpha + x)\hat{\theta}_{ABS}] = \frac{1}{2} \tag{6.31}$$

It is easily shown that

$$\hat{\theta}_{ABS}(x) = \frac{T_0}{\alpha + x} \tag{6.32}$$

where T_0 is the solution of

$$(1 + T_0) \exp[-T_0] = \frac{1}{2} \longrightarrow T_0 \simeq 1.68$$

To calculate $\hat{\theta}_{MAP}(x)$, we can remark that

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \log \pi(\theta | x)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{\theta} - (\alpha + x) \\ \frac{\partial^2 \log \pi(\theta | x)}{\partial \theta^2} = -\frac{1}{\theta^2} < 0 \end{cases} \tag{6.33}$$

So, we have

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP}(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha + x} \tag{6.34}$$

The following table summarizes these estimates:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\theta}_{MMSE}(x) = \frac{2}{\alpha + x} \\ \hat{\theta}_{ABS}(x) = \frac{T_0}{\alpha + x} \\ \hat{\theta}_{MAP}(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha + x} \end{cases} \tag{6.35}$$

Example 2: Estimation of the location parameter of a Gaussian distribution.

Assume $X|\Theta$ and Θ have both Gaussian distributions:

$$\begin{aligned} X|\Theta &\sim f_\theta(x) = \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma^2) \\ \Theta &\sim \pi(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\theta_0, \sigma_\theta^2) \end{aligned}$$

Then, the joint distribution $\phi(x, \theta)$, the marginal distribution $m(x)$ and the posterior distribution $\pi(\theta|x)$ are

$$\begin{aligned} X, \Theta &\sim \phi(x, \theta) = \mathcal{N}\left((\theta, \theta_0), \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_\theta^2 \end{pmatrix}\right) \\ X &\sim m(x) = \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma_x^2 = \sigma^2 + \sigma_\theta^2) \\ \Theta|X &\sim \pi(\theta|x) = \mathcal{N}(\widehat{\theta}, \widehat{\sigma}^2) \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{cases} \widehat{\theta} &= \frac{\sigma_\theta^2}{\sigma_x^2} \theta_0 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_x^2} x \\ \widehat{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{\sigma \sigma_\theta}{\sigma_x^2} \end{cases}$$

In this case all the estimators are equal and we have

$$\widehat{\theta}_{MMSE}(x) = \widehat{\theta}_{ABS}(x) = \widehat{\theta}_{MAP}(x) = \widehat{\theta} = \frac{\sigma_\theta^2}{\sigma_x^2} \theta_0 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_x^2} x \quad (6.36)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_\theta^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_\theta^2} \theta_0 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_\theta^2} x \quad (6.37)$$

$$(6.38)$$

They also have the same posterior variance

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sigma \sigma_\theta}{\sigma_x^2} = \frac{\sigma \sigma_\theta}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_\theta^2} \quad (6.39)$$

Note also the following limit cases:

$$\text{When } \sigma^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ then } \widehat{\theta} \rightarrow \theta_0$$

$$\text{When } \sigma_\theta^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ then } \widehat{\theta} \rightarrow x$$

Example 3: Estimation of the parameter of a Binomial distribution.

Assume that

$$\begin{aligned} X | \theta &\sim f(x | \theta) = \mathbf{Bin}(x | \theta, n) = C_n^x \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x} \\ \Theta &\sim \pi(\theta) = \mathbf{Beta}(\theta | \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} \end{aligned}$$

Then, the joint distribution $\phi(x, \theta)$, the marginal distribution $m(x)$ and the posterior distribution $\pi(\theta | x)$ are

$$\begin{aligned} (X, \Theta) &\sim \phi(x, \theta) = \frac{C_n^x}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \theta^{\alpha+x-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta+n-x-1} \\ X &\sim m(x) = \frac{C_n^x}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \mathcal{B}(\alpha + x, n + \beta - x) \\ &= C_n^x \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + x)\Gamma(n + \beta - x)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n)} \\ \Theta | X &\sim \pi(\theta | x) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha + x, \beta + n - x)} \theta^{\alpha+x-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta+n-x-1} \\ &= \mathbf{Beta}(\alpha + x, n + \beta - x) \end{aligned}$$

6.2 Other cost functions and related estimators

Here are some other cost functions and corresponding Bayesian estimator expressions.

Name	$C[a, \theta]$	$\hat{\theta}$
Quadratic	$q(a - \theta)^2$	$E[\Theta \mathbf{x}] = \int \theta \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta$
Weighted Quadratic	$\omega(\theta)(a - \theta)^2$	$\frac{E[\omega(\Theta)\Theta \mathbf{x}]}{E[\omega(\Theta) \mathbf{x}]} = \frac{\int \omega(\theta) \theta \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta}{\int \omega(\theta) \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta}$
Absolute	$ a - \theta $	$\int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}} \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta = \int_{\hat{\theta}}^{+\infty} \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta = \frac{1}{2}$
Nonsymmetric Absolute	$\begin{cases} k_2(\theta - a) & \text{si } \theta \leq a, \\ k_1(a - \theta) & \text{si } \theta \geq a. \end{cases}$	$k_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}} \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta = k_2 \int_{\hat{\theta}}^{+\infty} \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta$
Linex	$\beta [\exp[-\alpha(a - \theta)] - \alpha(a - \theta) - 1],$ $\alpha \neq 0, \beta > 0$	$-\frac{1}{\alpha} \log(E[\exp[-\alpha\Theta] \mathbf{x}])$ $= -\frac{1}{\alpha} \log[\int \exp[-\alpha\theta] p(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta]$
	$\frac{(a-\theta)^2}{\theta}$	$E[\frac{1}{\Theta} \mathbf{x}] = \frac{1}{\int \frac{1}{\theta} \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta}$
	$\frac{(a-\theta)^2}{a}$	$\sqrt{E[\Theta^2 \mathbf{x}]} = \sqrt{\int \theta^2 \pi(\theta \mathbf{x}) d\theta}$
	$-\ln[a(\theta)]$	$\pi(\theta \mathbf{x})$

Table 6.1: Relations between the data, *a priori*, marginal and *a posteriori* distributions.

6.3 Examples of posterior calculation

In previous sections, we saw that the computation of Bayesian estimates requires the posterior probability distribution. The following table gives a summary of the expressions of the posterior probability distributions in some classical cases.

Observation law $f(x \theta)$	Prior law $\pi(\theta)$	Marginal law $m(x) = \int f(x \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta$	Posterior law $\pi(\theta x) = \frac{f(x \theta) \pi(\theta)}{m(x)}$
Discrete variables			
Binomial Bin ($x n, \theta$)	Beta Bet ($\theta \alpha, \beta$)	Binomial-Beta BinBet ($x \alpha, \beta, n$)	Beta Bet ($\theta \alpha + x, \beta + n - x$)
Negative Binomial NegBin ($x n, \theta$)	Beta Bet ($\theta \alpha, \beta$)	Negative Binomial-Beta NegBinBet ($x \alpha, \beta, \theta$)	Beta Bet ($\theta \alpha + n, \beta + x$)
Poisson Pn ($x \theta$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \alpha, \beta$)	Poisson-Gamma PnGam ($x \alpha, \beta, 1$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \alpha + x, \beta + 1$)
Continuous variables			
Gamma Gam ($x \nu, \theta$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \alpha, \beta$)	Gamma-Gamma GamGam ($x \alpha, \beta, \nu$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \alpha + \nu, \beta + x$)
Exponential Ex ($x \theta$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \alpha, \beta$)	Pareto Par ($x \alpha, \beta$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \alpha + 1, \beta + x$)
Normal N ($x \theta, \sigma^2$)	Normal N ($\theta \mu, \tau^2$)	Normal N ($x \mu + \theta, \tau^2$)?	Normal N ($\mu \frac{\mu\sigma^2 + \tau^2 x}{\sigma^2 + \tau^2}, \frac{\sigma^2 \tau^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau^2}$)
Normal N ($x \mu, \lambda\theta$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \frac{\alpha}{2}, \frac{\alpha}{2}$)	Student (t) St ($x \mu, \lambda, \alpha$)	Gamma Gam ($\theta \frac{\alpha+1}{2}, \frac{\alpha}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(\mu - x)^2$)

Table 6.2: Relation between the data, *a priori*, marginal and *a posteriori* distributions.

6.4 Estimation of vector parameters

In the case where we have a vector parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m]^t$ we have to define a cost function $c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] : \mathbf{R}^m \times \mathbf{R}^m \mapsto \mathbf{R}^+$. Then it is again possible to define the Bayes risk. In many cases the cost function is of the form

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i[a_i, \theta_i] \quad (6.40)$$

We then have

$$\mathbb{E} [c[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}), \boldsymbol{\theta}] | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E} [c_i[\hat{\theta}_i(\mathbf{x}), \theta_i] | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \quad (6.41)$$

Here after, we consider some common cost functions:

6.4.1 Minimum-Mean-Squared-Error

In case where $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{R}^m$, a commonly used cost function is

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \|\mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m (a_i - \theta_i)^2 \quad (6.42)$$

The corresponding Bayes risk is $\mathbb{E} [\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}) - \boldsymbol{\Theta}\|^2]$ and the corresponding Bayes estimate is the *Minimum-Mean-Squared-Error* (MMSE) *estimator* or the Bayes estimate:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MMSE}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E} [\boldsymbol{\Theta} | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] \quad (6.43)$$

Thus the MMSE estimate is the mean of the posterior probability density function. It is also called *posterior mean* (PM) estimate.

Note that, as in the scalar case, the following weighted quadratic cost function

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \|\mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|_{\mathbf{Q}}^2 = [\mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\theta}]^t \mathbf{Q} [\mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\theta}] \quad (6.44)$$

gives the same estimate as in (6.43), *i.e.* the MMSE estimate does not depend on the weighting matrix \mathbf{Q} . However, the corresponding minimum Bayes risks are different and we have

$$\mathbb{E} [\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}) - \boldsymbol{\Theta}\|_{\mathbf{Q}}^2] = \text{tr} \{ \mathbf{Q} \mathbb{E} [\text{Cov} \{ \boldsymbol{\Theta} | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \}] \} \quad (6.45)$$

6.4.2 Minimum-Mean-Absolute-Error

In case where $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{R}$, another commonly used cost function is

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \sum_{i=1}^m |a_i - \theta_i|, \quad (6.46)$$

The corresponding estimate is such that

$$\Pr \{ \Theta_i < \hat{\theta}_i(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \} = \Pr \{ \Theta_i > \hat{\theta}_i(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \}, \quad (6.47)$$

which means that $\hat{\theta}_i(\mathbf{x})$ is the *median* of the marginal posterior distribution of Θ_i given $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$, *i.e.* $\pi(\theta_i | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$

6.4.3 Marginal Maximum *A Posteriori* (MAP) estimation

Another commonly used cost function in the cases where $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbb{R}^m$ is

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \sum_{i=1}^m c[a_i - \theta_i] \quad \text{with} \quad c[a_i - \theta_i] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |a_i - \theta_i| \leq \Delta \\ 1 & \text{if } |a_i - \theta_i| > \Delta \end{cases} \quad (6.48)$$

where Δ is a positive real number. The corresponding estimate is given by :

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_i = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_i \in \mathcal{T}} \{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i | \mathbf{x})\} \quad (6.49)$$

if Δ is sufficiently small.

6.4.4 Maximum *A Posteriori* (MAP) estimation

Two other cost functions which give the same estimates are :

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \max_i |a_i - \theta_i| \leq \Delta \\ 1 & \text{if } \max_i |a_i - \theta_i| > \Delta \end{cases} \quad (6.50)$$

and

$$c[\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \|\mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 \leq \Delta \\ 1 & \text{if } \|\mathbf{a} - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 > \Delta \end{cases} \quad (6.51)$$

where Δ is a positive real number.

In both cases, if the posterior distribution $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})$ is continuous and smooth enough, we obtain the MAP estimate.

The corresponding estimate is given by :

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \boldsymbol{\tau}} \{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})\} \quad (6.52)$$

Note that the MMAP estimate in (6.49) and the estimate (6.52) may be very different.

6.4.5 Estimation of a Gaussian vector parameter from jointly Gaussian observation

The case of the estimation of a Gaussian vector parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbf{R}^m$ from a jointly Gaussian observation $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is a very useful example and is used in many applications.

Suppose Θ and \mathbf{X} have the following *a priori* distributions:

$$\Theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \mathbf{R}_\Theta)$$

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{R}_X)$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} \Theta \\ \mathbf{X}_0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 \\ \mathbf{x}_0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}_\Theta & \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} \\ \mathbf{R}_{X\Theta} & \mathbf{R}_X \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

with $\mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} = \mathbf{R}_{X\Theta}^t$.

It is easy to show that the posterior law is also Gaussian and is given by

$$\Theta | \mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \hat{\mathbf{R}}) \quad (6.53)$$

with

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} \mathbf{R}_X^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) \quad (6.54)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{R}} = \mathbf{R}_\Theta - \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} \mathbf{R}_X^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{X\Theta} \quad (6.55)$$

We also have

$$\mathbb{E}[\Theta | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}] = \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \quad (6.56)$$

$$\text{Cov}\{\Theta | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\} = \hat{\mathbf{R}} \quad (6.57)$$

The corresponding minimum Bayes risk is

$$r(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \text{tr}\{\mathbf{Q}\hat{\mathbf{R}}\} = \text{tr}\{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}_\Theta\} - \text{tr}\{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} \mathbf{R}_X^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{X\Theta}\} \quad (6.58)$$

6.4.6 Case of linear models

When the observation vector is related to the vector parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ by a linear model we have

$$X_i = \sum_{j=1}^m h_{i,j} \Theta_j + N_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.59)$$

or in a matrix form

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\Theta} + \mathbf{N} \quad (6.60)$$

with

$$\boldsymbol{\Theta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \mathbf{R}_\Theta)$$

$$\mathbf{N} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_N)$$

Then we have

$$\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\Theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{R}_N)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_X = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta\mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_{\Theta N} + \mathbf{R}_{N\Theta}\mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{R}_N$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{X\Theta} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta + \mathbf{R}_{\Theta N}, \quad \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} = \mathbf{R}_{X\Theta}^t$$

If we assume that the noise \mathbf{N} and the vector parameter $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ are independant, we have

$$\mathbf{R}_X = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta\mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{R}_N \quad (6.61)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{X\Theta} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta, \quad \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X} = \mathbf{R}_\Theta^t\mathbf{H}^t \quad (6.62)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_X^{-1} = \mathbf{R}_N^{-1} - \mathbf{R}_N^{-1}\mathbf{H} \left(\mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{R}_N^{-1}\mathbf{H} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} \quad (6.63)$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{\Theta} | \mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \hat{\mathbf{R}}) \quad (6.64)$$

with

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} &= \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{\Theta} | \mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X}\mathbf{R}_X^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\ \hat{\mathbf{R}} &= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta})^t(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}) | \mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{R}_\Theta - \mathbf{R}_{\Theta X}\mathbf{R}_X^{-1}\mathbf{R}_{X\Theta} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} &= \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + \mathbf{R}_\Theta\mathbf{H}^t [\mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta\mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{R}_N]^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\ &= \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + [\mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{R}_N^{-1}\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{R}_N^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\ \hat{\mathbf{R}} &= \mathbf{R}_\Theta - \mathbf{R}_\Theta\mathbf{H}^t [\mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta\mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{R}_N]^{-1} \mathbf{H}\mathbf{R}_\Theta \\ &= [\mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{R}_N^{-1}\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1}]^{-1} \end{cases} \quad (6.65)$$

Consider now the particular case of $\mathbf{R}_N = \sigma_b^2\mathbf{I}$, $\mathbf{R}_\Theta = \sigma_x^2(\mathbf{D}^t\mathbf{D})^{-1}$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 = \mathbf{0}$. We then have

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} &= (\mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{H} + \lambda\mathbf{D}^t\mathbf{D})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{x}, \\ \hat{\mathbf{R}} &= \sigma_b^2 (\mathbf{H}^t\mathbf{H} + \lambda\mathbf{D}^t\mathbf{D})^{-1}, \quad \text{with } \lambda = \sigma_b^2/\sigma_x^2 \end{cases} \quad (6.66)$$

6.5 Examples

6.5.1 curve fitting

We consider here a classical problem of curve fitting that any engineer is almost anytime faced to. We analyse this problem as a parameter estimation : Given a set of data $\{(x_i, t_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$ estimate the parameters of an algebraic curve to fit the best these data. Among different curves, the polynomials are used very commonly.

A polynomial model of degree p relating $x_i = x(t_i)$ to t_i is

$$x_i = x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i + \theta_2 t_i^2 + \dots + \theta_p t_i^p, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.67)$$

Noting that this relation is linear in θ_i , we can rewrite it in the following

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 & \dots & \dots & t_1^p \\ 1 & t_2 & t_2^2 & \dots & \dots & t_2^p \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n & t_n^2 & \dots & \dots & t_n^p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_p \end{pmatrix} \quad (6.68)$$

or

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta} \quad (6.69)$$

The matrix \mathbf{H} is called the *Vandermond* matrix. It is entirely determined by the vector $\mathbf{t} = [t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n]^t$.

In the case where $n = p + 1$, this matrix is invertible iff $t_i \neq t_j, \forall i \neq j$. In general, however we have more data than unknowns, *i.e.* $n > p + 1$.

Note that the matrix $\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H}$ is a *Hankel* matrix:

$$[\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H}]_{kl} = \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^{k-1} t_i^{l-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^{k+l-2}, \quad k, l = 1, \dots, p + 1 \quad (6.70)$$

and the vector $\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{x}$ is such that

$$[\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{x}]_k = \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^{k-1} x_i, \quad k = 1, \dots, p + 1 \quad (6.71)$$

Line fitting is the following particular case

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 \\ 1 & t_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (6.72)$$

In this case we have

$$\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} n & \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n t_i & \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (6.73)$$

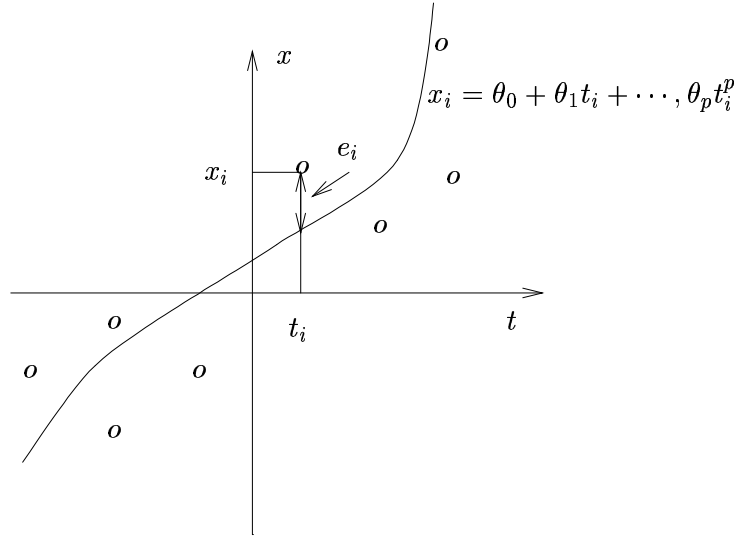


Figure 6.1: Curve fitting.

and

$$\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n t_i x_i \end{pmatrix} \quad (6.74)$$

In the following we consider the line fitting case and will see how different assumptions about the problem can give different solutions.

Model 1:

The easiest model is to assume that t_i are perfectly known, and we only have uncertainties on x_i , *i.e.*

$$x_i = x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i + e_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.75)$$

where e_i represents the error on x_i . In a geometric language, e_i is the signed distance between the point (t_i, x_i) and the point $(t_i, \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i)$ (see figure 6.5.1).

Here, we have $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{e}$ with $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\theta_0, \theta_1]^t$. The matrix \mathbf{H} is perfectly known. Note that in this model, if we assume that e_i are zero mean, white and Gaussian

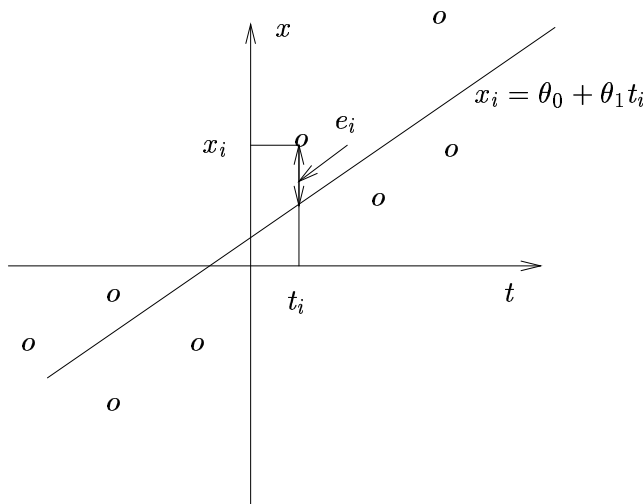
$$e_i = x_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 t_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_e^2) \quad (6.76)$$

then the likelihood function becomes

$$f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}) \propto \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_e^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 \right] \quad (6.77)$$

and the maximum likelihood estimate is

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left\{ \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 \right\} \quad (6.78)$$

Figure 6.2: Line fitting: model 1: $e_i = x_i - (\theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i)$

If the $\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H}$ is invertible, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is given by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = [\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{x} \quad (6.79)$$

To define any Bayesian estimate, we have to assign a prior probability law to $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. Let assume that θ_0 and θ_1 are independent and

$$\theta_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_0^2), \quad \theta_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(1, \sigma_1^2) \quad (6.80)$$

or

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_0 \\ \theta_1 \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_0^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_1^2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\theta) \quad (6.81)$$

Exercise 1:

- Write the complete expressions of $f(x_i | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})$
- Show that the posterior law $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})$ is Gaussian, *i.e.*

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) \quad (6.82)$$

and give the expressions of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$.

- Show that the MAP estimate is obtained by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \{J(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} \quad (6.83)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \frac{1}{\sigma_e^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma_e^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 t_i)^2 + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \end{aligned}$$

- Show that, in this case an explicit expression of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is available and is given by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \left[\frac{1}{\sigma_e^2} \mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\theta^{-1} \right]^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{\sigma_e^2} \mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\theta^{-1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 \right] \quad (6.84)$$

- Compare this solution to the ML solution (6.79) which is equal to least square (LS) solution.

Model 2:

A little more complex model is

$$x_i = x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i + e_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.85)$$

with the assumption that

$$r_i = e_i \cos \phi = \frac{e_i}{\sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2}} = \frac{x_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 t_i}{\sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2}}$$

the distance of the point (t_i, x_i) to the line $x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i$ is zero mean, white and Gaussian with known variance σ_r^2 (See figure 6.5.1.)

Note that r_i is no more a linear function of θ_1 .

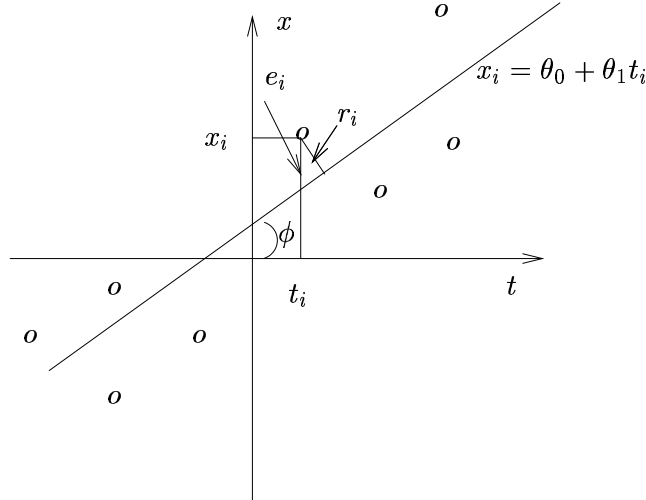


Figure 6.3: Line fitting: model 2: $r_i = e_i \cos \phi = \frac{e_i}{\sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2}} = \frac{x_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 t_i}{\sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2}}$

Exercise 2: With this model and assuming that r_i are zero mean, white and Gaussian with known variance $\sigma^2 = 1$:

- Write the expressions of $f(x_i | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})$
- Show that the MAP estimate is obtained by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \{J(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} \quad (6.86)$$

with

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = n \ln \left(2\pi(1 + \theta_1^2)\sigma_r^2 \right) + \frac{1}{(1 + \theta_1^2)\sigma_r^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 t_i)^2 + (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \quad (6.87)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\theta_0, \theta_1]^t$.

- Is it possible to obtain explicit expressions for $\hat{\theta}_0$ and $\hat{\theta}_1$?

Model 3:

A little different model assumes that t_i are also uncertain, *i.e.*

$$x_i = x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1(t_i + \epsilon_i) + e_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.88)$$

where ϵ_i represents the error on t_i . Here also, we have $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{e}$ with $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\theta_0, \theta_1]^t$, but the matrix \mathbf{H} is now uncertain.

Note that we have

$$x_i = x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i + \theta_1 \epsilon_i + e_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.89)$$

which can also be written as

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{H}_0 \boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{H}_{\epsilon} \boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{e}$$

with

$$\mathbf{H}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{H}_{\epsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \epsilon_n \end{pmatrix},$$

Exercise 3: With this model and assuming that ϵ_i are zero mean, white and Gaussian with known variance σ_{ϵ}^2 and that e_i are also zero mean, white and Gaussian with known variance σ_e^2 :

- Write the expressions of $f(x_i | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})$
- Give the expressions of the ML and the MAP estimators.
- Compare them to the solutions of the previous cases.

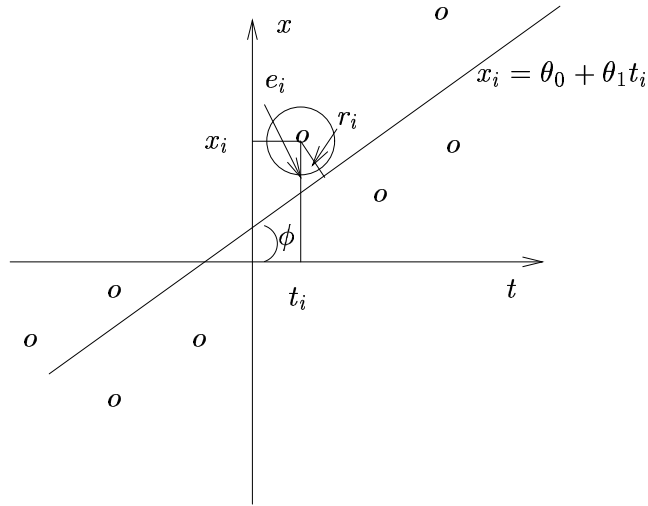


Figure 6.4: Line fitting: model 3

Model 4:

This is the combination of cases 2 and 3, *i.e.*

$$x_i = x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1(t_i + \epsilon_i) + e_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (6.90)$$

where

$$r_i = e_i \cos \phi = \frac{e_i}{\sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2}} = \frac{x_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 t_i}{\sqrt{1 + \theta_1^2}}$$

the distance of the point (t_i, x_i) to the line $x(t_i) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i$ are assumed zero mean, white and Gaussian.

Exercise 4: With this model and assuming that ϵ_i are zero mean, white and Gaussian with known variance σ_ϵ^2 and that r_i are also zero mean, white and Gaussian with known variance σ_r^2 :

- Write the expressions of $f(x_i | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{x})$
- Give the expressions of the ML and the MAP estimators.
- Compare them to the solutions in previous examples.

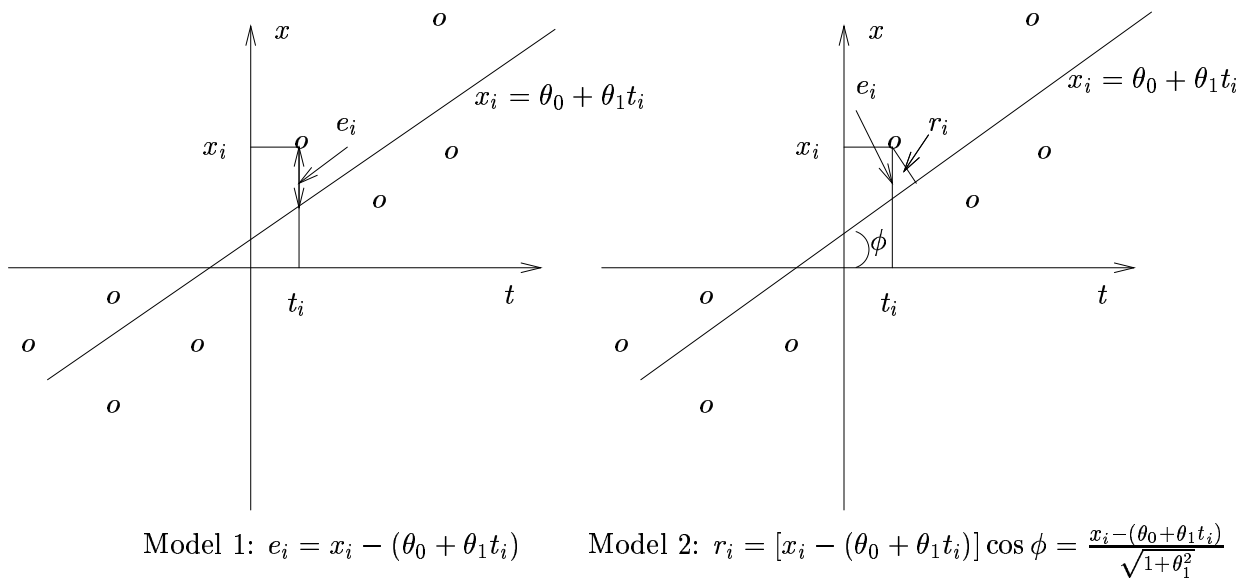


Figure 6.5: Line fitting: models 1 and 2.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{R}_N) \\
\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \mathbf{R}_\Theta) \\
\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \hat{\mathbf{R}}) \\
\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} &= \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + \mathbf{R}_\Theta \mathbf{H}^t [\mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}_\Theta \mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{R}_N]^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\
&= \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + [\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{R}_N^{-1} \mathbf{H} + \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{R}_N^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\
\hat{\mathbf{R}} &= \mathbf{R}_\Theta - \mathbf{R}_\Theta \mathbf{H}^t [\mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}_\Theta \mathbf{H}^t + \mathbf{R}_N]^{-1} \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}_\Theta \\
&= [\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{R}_N^{-1} \mathbf{H} + \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1}]^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

Model 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
e_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_e^2) \\
x_i|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i, \sigma_e^2) \\
\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}, \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}) \\
\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} &= \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 + [\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H} + \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{H}^t (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \\
\hat{\mathbf{R}} &= \sigma_e^2 [\mathbf{H}^t \mathbf{H} + \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1}]^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

Model 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
r_i &= \frac{e_i}{\sqrt{1+\theta_1^2}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_r^2) \\
e_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, (1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_r^2) \\
x_i|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i, (1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_r^2) \\
\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}, (1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_r^2 \mathbf{I}) \\
\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{m(\mathbf{x})} [2\pi(1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_e^2]^{-n/2} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2(1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_e^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \right] \\
\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MAP} &= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \{J(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} \\
J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= -\frac{n}{2} \ln [2\pi(1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_e^2] - \frac{1}{2(1+\theta_1^2)\sigma_e^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)
\end{aligned}$$

Model 3:

$$\begin{aligned}
\epsilon_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_e^2) \\
e_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_e^2) \\
x_i|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i, \theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) \\
\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}, (\theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) \mathbf{I}) \\
\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{m(\mathbf{x})} [2\pi(\theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2)]^{-n/2} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2(\theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2)} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \right] \\
\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MAP} &= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \{J(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} \\
J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= -\frac{n}{2} \ln [2\pi(\theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2)] - \frac{1}{2(\theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2)} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)
\end{aligned}$$

Model 4:

$$\begin{aligned}
\epsilon_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_e^2) \\
e_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, (1+\theta_1)^2 \sigma_e^2) \\
x_i|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i, \theta_1^2 \sigma_e^2 + (1+\theta_1)^2 \sigma_e^2) \\
&= \mathcal{N}(\theta_0 + \theta_1 t_i, \theta_1^2 (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) + \sigma_e^2) \\
\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}, (\theta_1^2 (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) + \sigma_e^2) \mathbf{I}) \\
\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{m(\mathbf{x})} [2\pi(\theta_1^2 (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) + \sigma_e^2)]^{-n/2} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2(\theta_1^2 (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) + \sigma_e^2)} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \right] \\
\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{MAP} &= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \{J(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} \\
J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= -\frac{n}{2} \ln [(\theta_1^2 (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) + \sigma_e^2)] - \frac{1}{2(\theta_1^2 (\sigma_e^2 + \sigma_e^2) + \sigma_e^2)} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^t \mathbf{R}_\Theta^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)
\end{aligned}$$

Remark: To do these calculations easily we need the following relations:

- If \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} and $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$ are invertible, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{B}^{-1}]^{-1} &= \mathbf{A} [\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}]^{-1} \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} [\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}]^{-1} \mathbf{A} \\ [\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}]^{-1} &= \mathbf{A}^{-1} [\mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{B}^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} [\mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{B}^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \end{aligned} \quad (6.91)$$

- If \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{C} are invertible matrices, then we have

$$[\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{BCD}]^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{B} [\mathbf{DA}^{-1} \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{DA}^{-1} \quad (6.92)$$

- A special case very useful in system theory

$$[\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{B}(s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{C})^{-1} \mathbf{D}]^{-1} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B} [s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{C} + \mathbf{DB}]^{-1} \mathbf{D} \quad (6.93)$$

- If \mathbf{A} is invertible then,

$$[\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{uv}^t]^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \frac{(\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{u})(\mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{A}^{-1})}{1 + \mathbf{v}^t \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{u}} \quad (6.94)$$

- If \mathbf{A} is a bloc matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

then $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ is also a bloc matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{11} & \mathbf{B}_{12} \\ \mathbf{B}_{21} & \mathbf{B}_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

and

- If \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} exists, then

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ 0 & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & 0 \\ \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix}$$

and we have

$$\text{rank} \{\mathbf{A}\} = \text{rank} \{\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21}\} + \text{rank} \{\mathbf{A}_{22}\}$$

\mathbf{A}^{-1} exists iff the matrix $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21}$ is invertible. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}_{11} = \mathbf{T}^{-1} &= (\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21})^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{22} &= \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{B}_{11} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{12} &= -\mathbf{B}_{11} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{21} &= -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{B}_{11} \end{aligned}$$

Written differently, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} (\mathbf{A}_{11} - \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21})^{-1} & -\mathbf{B}_{11} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{B}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{B}_{11} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

– If \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} exists, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B}_{11} &= \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{22} = \mathbf{D}^{-1} &= (\mathbf{A}_{22} - \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12})^{-1} \\ \mathbf{B}_{12} &= -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{B}_{22} \\ \mathbf{B}_{21} &= -\mathbf{B}_{22} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

The matrices \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{D} are called the *Shur's complement* of the matrix \mathbf{A} .

• **Particular case 1 :**

If \mathbf{A} is a superior bloc-triangular, *i.e.* $\mathbf{A}_{21} = \mathbf{0}$, then \mathbf{B} is also superior bloc-triangular, *i.e.*

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12} \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

• **Particular case 2 :**

If \mathbf{A} is an inferior bloc-triangular matrix, *i.e.* $\mathbf{A}_{12} = \mathbf{0}$, then \mathbf{B} is also an inferior bloc-triangular matrix, *i.e.*

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ -\mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{21} \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} & \mathbf{A}_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

• **Particular case 3 :**

If \mathbf{A}_{22} is a scalar and \mathbf{A}_{21} and \mathbf{A}_{12} are vectors, we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{z}^t & y \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} + \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}^t & \mathbf{w} \\ \mathbf{v}^t & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where α , \mathbf{w} , and \mathbf{v} are given by:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{(y - \mathbf{z}^t \mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{x})} = \frac{|\mathbf{A}|}{|\mathbf{A}_{11}|}, \quad \mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-t} \mathbf{z}$$

• If \mathbf{A} is a $[N, P]$ matrix

$$\mathbf{I}_N \pm \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^t = [\mathbf{I}_N \pm \mathbf{A} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^t] \cdot [\mathbf{I}_N \pm \mathbf{A} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^t]^t$$

where $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}_P + [\mathbf{I}_P \pm \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{A}]^{1/2}$.

• If \mathbf{x} is a vector and $u(\mathbf{x})$ a scalar function of \mathbf{x} and if we define the gradient vector

$\nabla u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} \right]$, then we have the following relations

- If $u = \boldsymbol{\theta}^t \mathbf{x}$ then $\nabla u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}$
- If $u = \mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ then $\nabla u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = 2 \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$

Generalized Gaussian

$$p(x) = \frac{p^{1-1/p}}{2\sigma\Gamma(1/p)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{p} \frac{|x-x_0|^p}{\sigma^p}\right]$$

$$p=1 \longrightarrow p(x) = \frac{1}{2\sigma} \exp\left[-\frac{|x-x_0|}{\sigma}\right]$$

$$p=2 \longrightarrow p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{|x-x_0|^2}{\sigma^2}\right]$$

$$p=\infty \longrightarrow p(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2\sigma & \text{if } |x-x_0| < \sigma \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Centered case $x_0 = 0$.

$$p(x) = \frac{p^{1-1/p}}{2\sigma\Gamma(1/p)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{p} \frac{|x|^p}{\sigma^p}\right]$$

$$p=1 \longrightarrow p(x) = \frac{1}{2\sigma} \exp\left[-\frac{|x|}{\sigma}\right]$$

$$p=2 \longrightarrow p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{|x|^2}{\sigma^2}\right]$$

$$p=\infty \longrightarrow p(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2\sigma & \text{if } |x| < \sigma \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Multivariable case:

Separable:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p^{n-n/p}}{2^n\sigma^n\Gamma^n(1/p)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{p\sigma^p} \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right]$$

Correlated: Markov models

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = Z(\alpha) \exp\left[-\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_j \phi(x_i - x_j)\right]$$

$$Z(\alpha) = \int \exp\left[-\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_j \phi(x_i - x_j)\right] d\mathbf{x}$$

Example: $\phi(x) = x^2$, $j \ i = i - 1$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = Z(\alpha) \exp\left[-\alpha x_1^2 - \alpha \sum_{i=2}^n (x_i - x_{i-1})^2\right]$$

This can be written as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = Z(\alpha) \exp\left[-\alpha \mathbf{x}^t \mathbf{D}^t \mathbf{D} \mathbf{x}\right]$$

with

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & & & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & & \\ \vdots & & & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & \dots & & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Z(\alpha) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} (2\alpha)^{n/2} |\mathbf{D}^t \mathbf{D}|$$

Extension :

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = Z(\alpha) \exp \left[-\alpha \phi(x_1) - \alpha \sum_{i=2}^n \phi(x_i - x_{i-1}) \right] = Z(\alpha) \exp \left[-\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \phi([\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x}]_i) \right]$$

with $\phi(x) = |x|^p$

The questions are:

$Z(\alpha)$ exists ?

Can we obtain an analytical expression for it ?

