

Sample complexity of ARX identification and its implications for learning with parameter redundancy

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Autoregressive with External Input (ARX) Model

An ARX model is in form of

$$y_{t} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\alpha}} \alpha_{i} y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\beta}} \beta_{i} u_{t-i} + \eta_{t-1},$$

with output y_t ,

input u_t , noise $\eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\eta}^2)$. Orders: n_{α} , n_{β} **Data:** Trajectories $\{u_t, y_t\}_{t=0}^T$ **Goal:** estimate the model parameters α_i , β_i



A simple model used many places



Price of Bitcoin











Man-made Control Systems

A nonlinear model

$$y_{t+1} = f(y_t, u_t)$$

Collect data $y_0, u_0, y_1, u_1, \dots, u_k, y_k, \dots$ Fit an ARX model

$$y_t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\alpha}} \alpha_i y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\beta}} \beta_i u_{t-i}.$$

Recent progress in Koopman theory shows that many nonlinear systems can be approximated by an ARX-type model very well as long as n_{α} and n_{β} are large enough.

-> delay coordinates are "universal" class of observables [1]

[1] Brunton, Steven L., et al. "Modern Koopman theory for dynamical systems." arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.12086 (2021).

A nonlinear model

$$y_{t+1} = \sin(y_t)$$

Collect data y_0, y_1, \dots, y_T

Fit an ARX model with order n

$$y_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_{t-i} \, .$$

Test with one-step prediction averaged over 5000 samples



Brunton, Steven L., et al. "Modern Koopman theory for dynamical systems." arXiv preprint arXiv:2102.12086 (2021).



A linear model can approximately the 3D curve very well except at the "switching point"!

ARX Identification Setup

• True ARX Model:

$$y_{t} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\alpha}} \alpha_{i} y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\beta}} \beta_{i} u_{t-i} + \eta_{t-1}.$$

Assume that the orders n_{α} and n_{β} are **unknown**.

• Hypothesis class:

$$y_t = \sum_{i=1}^{\bar{n}_{\alpha}} \alpha_i y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{\bar{n}_{\beta}} \beta_i u_{t-i}$$

for some \bar{n}_{α} and \bar{n}_{β} greater than the true orders n_{α} and n_{β}

- -> Overparameterization (learn more parameters than required).
- Goal: Learn $\theta = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{\bar{n}_{\alpha}}, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_{\bar{n}_{\beta}})$ from data.

What are the ground truth parameters?

Goal: Learn $\theta = (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_{\bar{n}_{\alpha}}, \beta_1, ..., \beta_{\bar{n}_{\beta}})$ from data.

Intuitively speaking, the ground truth is the parameters in the true model + zeros. That is,

$$\theta_0 = \left(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n_{\alpha}}, 0, \dots, 0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_{n_{\beta}}, 0, \dots, 0\right).$$

What are the ground truth parameters?

Say the ground-truth ARX model is

$$y_t = 0.5y_{t-1} + u_{t-1} + \eta_{t-1}$$
 (1)

Its order is $n_{\alpha} = n_{\beta} = 1$.

Note that
$$y_{t-1} = 0.5y_{t-2} + u_{t-2} + \eta_{t-2}$$

$$0 = -y_{t-1} + 0.5y_{t-2} + u_{t-2} + \eta_{t-2}$$
(2)

Then, (1) +c(2) for any constant c gives another ground-truth model! $y_t = (0.5 - c)y_{t-1} + 0.5cy_{t-2} + u_{t-1} + cu_{t-2} + \eta_{t-1} + c\eta_{t-2}$ (3) (3) is equivalent to (1) but with orders $n_{\alpha} = n_{\beta} = 2$.

What are the ground truth parameters?

The ground-truth ARX model is

$$y_t = 0.5y_{t-1} + u_{t-1} + \eta_{t-1}$$
 (1)

If we select the hypothesis class with $\bar{n}_{\alpha} = \bar{n}_{\beta} = 2$:

$$y_{t} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\alpha}} \alpha_{i} y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\beta}} \beta_{i} u_{t-i}$$

The unknown parameters are $\theta = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2)$.

The set of ground truth parameters is $\Theta = \{(0.5 - c, 0.5c, 1, c) | c \in R\}.$

 $y_t = (0.5 - c)y_{t-1} + 0.5cy_{t-2} + u_{t-1} + cu_{t-2} + \eta_{t-1} + c\eta_{t-2}$

 θ_0

Question: are those ground truth parameters equally good?

True model is equivalent to:

$$y_t = (0.5 - c)y_{t-1} + 0.5cy_{t-2} + u_{t-1} + cu_{t-2} + \eta_{t-1} + c\eta_{t-2}$$

Suppose an algorithm that learns one of the ground truth for some *c*:

$$\theta_c = (0.5 - c, 0.5c, 1, c).$$

Then, the expected prediction error of the learned model is $\eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\eta^2)$ $\mathbb{E}[(y_t - \hat{y}_t)^2] = \mathbb{E}[(y_t - \hat{y}_t)^2] = \mathbb{E}[(\eta_{t-1} + c\eta_{t-2})^2] = (1 + c^2)\sigma_\eta^2$ So among all the ground truth, $\theta_0 = (0.5, 0, 1, 0)$ minimizes the prediction error!

Properties of θ_0

- True model: $y_t = 0.5y_{t-1} + u_{t-1} + \eta_{t-1}$
- $\theta_0 = (0.5, 0, 1, 0)$ is
 - the parameters of the minimal-order true model;
 - the parameters that minimizes the prediction error;
 - the most sparse parameter in $\Theta = \{(0.5 c, 0.5c, 1, c) | c \in R\}$
- Ideally, we want the system identification algorithm to learn θ_0 in Θ .

Properties of $heta_0$

- True model: $y_t = 0.5y_{t-1} + u_{t-1} + \eta_{t-1}$
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 - the parameters of the minimal-order true model;
 - the parameters that minimizes the prediction error;
 - the most sparse parameter in $\Theta = \{(0.5 c, 0.5c, 1, c) | c \in R\} \rightarrow \text{need a } l_1 \text{ regularization}\}$
- Ideally, we want the system identification algorithm to learn θ_0 in Θ .
- Next, we show that regular least-squares does the job!

Least-squares setup (multiple-trajectory case)

• Suppose that multiple independent trajectories can be sampled

Experiment 1:
$$y_0^{(1)}, u_0^{(1)}, \dots, u_{T-1}^{(1)}, y_T^{(1)}$$

Experiment 2: $y_0^{(2)}, u_0^{(2)}, \dots, u_{T-1}^{(2)}, y_T^{(2)}$
...
Experiment N: $y_0^{(N)}, u_0^{(N)}, \dots, u_{T-1}^{(N)}, y_T^{(N)}$
 $\widehat{\theta} = \min_{\alpha_i, \beta_i} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left(y_T^{(k)} - \hat{y}_T^{(k)} \right)^2$
 $s.t \ \hat{y}_T^{(k)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\bar{n}_{\alpha}} \alpha_i y_{T-i}^{(k)} + \sum_{i=1}^{\bar{n}_{\beta}} \beta_i u_{T-i}^{(k)}$

- Since we have closed-solution of $\hat{\theta}$, it is possible to show that $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] = \theta_0$.
- For the RLS estimate $\hat{\theta}$, we study its sample complexity (how many samples are needed to guarantee $||\hat{\theta} \theta_0|| < \epsilon$ with high probability?)

Sample Complexity Analysis (Multi-Trajectory)

 $ar{n}=ar{n}_{lpha}+ar{n}_{eta}$ Σ_z is covariance matrix of the regressor $Z\hat{ heta}=\mathbf{Y}$

Theorem 1:

Suppose that

- u_t and e_t are i.i.d zero-mean Gaussian variables with $\sigma_u > 0$, $\sigma_\eta > 0$.
- $T \ge \max(\bar{n}_{\alpha}, \bar{n}_{\beta}) + 1$

Then, if the sample size N is large enough, with probability $1 - \delta$,

$$\|\hat{\theta} - \theta_0\|_2 \leq \frac{16\sigma_{\eta}}{\underline{\sigma}(\Sigma_Z)} \sqrt{\frac{(1+\bar{n})\big||\Sigma_Z|\big|\log\left(\frac{18}{\delta}\right)}{N}} = \mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\log\left(\frac{18}{\delta}\right)}{N}}\right)$$

Least-squares setup (single-trajectory case)

• Suppose that only one trajectory is sampled

Experiment:
$$y_0$$
, u_0 , ..., u_{T-1} , $y_T \longrightarrow \hat{\theta} = \min_{\alpha_i, \beta_i} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{\substack{k=\max(\bar{n}_{\alpha}, \bar{n}_{\beta}) \\ k=\max(\bar{n}_{\alpha}, \bar{n}_{\beta})}}^{I} (y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2$
s. $t \ \hat{y}_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\bar{n}_{\alpha}} \alpha_i y_{k-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{\bar{n}_{\beta}} \beta_i u_{k-i}$

 \boldsymbol{T}

• Different from the multiple trajectory case, analyze the RLS estimate $\hat{\theta}$ in the single-trajectory case is difficult due to correlations between regressors.

Correlations in LS $\hat{\theta} = \min_{\theta} ||Z\theta - Y||_2^2 = (Z^T Z)^{-1} Z^T Y$

Proof idea: We want to show how fast the least singular value of the matrix $Z^T Z$ goes to infinity as N increases.



Multiple trajectory setup

The rows of Z are independent to each other; The entries in each row are correlated.

- $\mathbb{E}[\hat{ heta}]$ is easy to compute
- Standard tools in high-dimensional probability can be applied if you know the trick.

Single trajectory setup

The rows of Z are correlated; The entries in each row are correlated too.

- $\mathbb{E}[\hat{ heta}]$ is difficult to compute
- Mixing-time type arguments are needed to bound the correlation between rows.

Sample Complexity Analysis (Single-Trajectory)

- Theorem 2: Suppose that
- the magnitude ρ^* of the largest pole is less than 1;
- u_t and e_t are i.i.d zero-mean Gaussian variables with $\sigma_u > 0$, $\sigma_\eta > 0$. If $\bar{n}_{\alpha} \ge n_{\alpha}$ and $\bar{n}_{\beta} \ge n_{\beta}$, then for T large enough, with probability $1 - \delta$, the OLS estimation error satisfies

•
$$\|\hat{\theta} - \theta_0\| \le O\left(\frac{\tau}{1-\rho^*}\frac{\sigma_\eta}{\sigma_u}\sqrt{\frac{(\bar{n}_{\alpha}+\bar{n}_{\beta})\log T}{T}}\log\left(\frac{T}{\delta}\right)\right).$$

Remark:

- $\tau/(1 \rho^*)$ is an upper bound of the H_{∞} norm of the ARX model, and σ_{η}/σ_u is the noise-to-input ratio.
- The OLS estimator $\hat{\theta}$ converges to the most sparse solution θ_0 in the single-trajectory setup.

More remarks:

- Since AR and FIR models are special cases of ARX model, the theorem above can be applied to those models.
- For multiple-trajectory setup, the ARX model does not need to have all poles inside the unit circle.
- Theorem 1 can be extended to vector ARX models.

A brief literature review

- The overparameterized LS estimate converges to the most sparse solution θ_0 in both single-trajectory and multi-trajectory setup
- \rightarrow self regularization or implicit regularization!



22



 $n_lpha=n_eta=10$, $\sigma_u=\sigma_\eta=1$, $ho^*=0.85$



Summary

- A self-regularization property in RLS-based ARX identification
- Sample complexity bounds for RLS estimates in different setups.

"Sample Complexity Analysis and Self-regularization in Identification of Over-parameterized ARX Models"

Conference version will be presented at CDC 2022.

