Abstract. We give a review on the properties and applications of M-estimators with redescending score function. For regression analysis, some of these redescending M-estimators can attain the maximum breakdown point which is possible in this setup. Moreover, some of them are the solutions of the problem of maximizing the efficiency under bounded influence function when the regression coefficient and the scale parameter are estimated simultaneously. Hence redescending M-estimators satisfy several outlier robustness properties. However, there is a problem in calculating the redescending M-estimators in regression. While in the location-scale case, for example, the Cauchy estimator has only one local extremum this is not the case in regression. In regression there are several local minima reflecting several substructures in the data. This is the reason that the redescending M-estimators can be used to detect substructures in data, i.e. they can be used in cluster analysis. If the starting point of the iteration to calculate the estimator is coming from the substructure then the closest minimum corresponds to this substructure. This property can be used to construct an edge and corner preserving smoother for noisy images so that there are applications in image analysis as well.

Keywords: redescending M-estimator, regression, breakdown point, optimality, cluster analysis, image analysis, kernel estimator.


1 Redescending M-estimators

Regard a general linear model $y_n = x_n^T \beta + z_n$, $n = 1, \ldots, N$, where $y_n \in \mathbb{R}$ is the observation, $z_n \in \mathbb{R}$ the error, $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^p$ the known regressor and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ the unknown parameter vector. For distributional assertions, it is assumed that the errors $z_n$ are
realizations of i.i.d. random variables. Set \( y = (y_1, \ldots, y_N)^T \) and \( X = (x_1, \ldots, x_N)^T \). An M-estimator \( \hat{\beta} = \hat{\beta}(y, X) \) for \( \beta \) is defined by

\[
\hat{\beta} \in \arg \min_{\beta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \rho(y_n - x_n^T \beta).
\]

Special cases of an M-estimator are the least squares estimator for \( \rho(z) = z^2 \) and the \( L_1 \)-estimator for \( \rho(z) = |z| \). If the derivative \( \psi = \rho' \) of \( \rho \) is redescending, i.e. satisfies \( \lim_{z \to \pm \infty} \rho'(z) = 0 \), then the M-estimator is called a redescending M-estimator. Table 1 shows \( \rho \) and \( \psi = \rho' \) of two redescending M-estimators.

### 2 Redescending M-estimators in regression analysis

Redescending M-estimators for \( \beta \) have special robustness properties. Some of them have the highest possible breakdown point. For regression estimators, there are two types of breakdown point definitions. The original definition due to Donoho and Huber (1983) allows outliers in the observations as well as in the regressors. Maronna, Bustos and Yohai (1979) found that under this definition, all M-estimators with nondecreasing \( \psi \) as
the L1-estimator behave as bad as the least squares estimator. All these M-estimators have a breakdown point of $\frac{1}{N}$ which means that they can be biased arbitrarily by one outlier. He et al. (1990) and Ellis and Morgenthaler (1992) found that the situation changes completely if outliers appear only in the observations and not in the regressors, a situation which in particular appears in designed experiments where the regressors are given by the experimenter. In this situation the breakdown point is defined as

$$
\epsilon^*(\hat{\beta}, y, X) = \min \frac{1}{N} \left\{ M; \sup_{\bar{y} \in \mathcal{Y}_M(y)} \| \hat{\beta}(y, X) - \bar{\beta}(\bar{y}, X) \| = \infty \right\},
$$

where

$$
\mathcal{Y}_M(y) = \left\{ \bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N; \#\{n; y_n \neq \bar{y}_n\} \leq M \right\}.
$$

Using this definition, an upper bound for the breakdown point of regression equivariant estimators is according to Müller (1995, 1997)

$$
\epsilon^*(\hat{\beta}, y, X) \leq \frac{1}{N} \left\lfloor \frac{N - \mathcal{N}(X) - 1}{2} \right\rfloor,
$$

where $\mathcal{N}(X)$ is the maximum number of $x_n$ lying in a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^p$, i.e.

$$
\mathcal{N}(X) = \sup_{\beta \neq 0} \#\{n; x_n^T \beta = 0\}.
$$

The upper bound is attained by some least trimmed squares estimators (Müller 1995, 1997) and by redescending M-estimators whose score function $\rho$ has slow variation, i.e. satisfies

$$
\lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{\rho(tu)}{\rho(t)} = 1 \text{ for all } u > 0 \quad (2)
$$

(Mizera and Müller 1999). In particular the score function of the Cauchy M-estimator satisfies (2). This score function is shown in the first row of Table 1. Up to now it is unclear whether the M-estimators with slowly varying score function are the only M-estimators whose breakdown point attains the upper bound for any configuration (design) of the regressors. For special designs also the breakdown point of other M-estimators as of the L1-estimators can attain the upper bound (Müller 1996).

The results of Mizera and Müller (1999) were shown for known scale. However redescending M-estimators are very sensitive with respect to the scale parameter so that in practice the scale parameter must be estimated simultaneously. Mizera and Müller (2002) showed that also the breakdown point of some tuned Cauchy estimators which simultaneously estimate the regression and the scale parameter attains the upper bound
A M-estimator for simultaneous estimation of the regression and scale parameter is given by

\[
(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma}) \in \arg \min_{\beta, \sigma} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \rho \left( \frac{y_n - x_n^T \beta}{\sigma} \right) + K \ln \sigma,
\]

where \( K \) is the tuning constant. The estimator is called untuned if \( K = N \). Mizera and Müller showed their result only for the Cauchy M-estimator although it seems plausible that it holds also for other M-estimators. The high breakdown point behavior of the Cauchy M-estimator was also found by He et al. (2000) who compared the behaviour of \( t \)-type M-estimators with respect to the original definition of the breakdown point of Donoho and Huber (1983). However the situation changes completely when orthogonal regression in an errors-in-variables model is considered. Then according to Zamar (1989), any M-estimator with unbounded score function \( \rho \) has asymptotically a breakdown point of zero. In particular the Cauchy M-estimator for orthogonal regression has an asymptotic breakdown point of zero.

But redescending M-estimators are not only good with respect to the breakdown point but have also some optimality properties with respect to efficiency under bounded influence function. This can be shown by extending the class of M-estimators to estimators given by

\[
(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma}) \in \arg \min_{\beta, \sigma} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \rho \left( \frac{y_n - x_n^T \beta}{\sigma} \right) + N \ln \sigma
\]

or more general to estimators \((\hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma})\) which are given as solutions of

\[
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \psi \left( \frac{y_n - x_n^T \beta}{\sigma}, x_n \right) x_n^T = 0
\]  
\[
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( 1 - \psi \left( \frac{y_n - x_n^T \beta}{\sigma}, x_n \right) \frac{y_n - x_n^T \beta}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
\]

Under suitable regularity conditions, the asymptotic covariance matrix of these estimators is (see Hampel et al. 1986)

\[
\sigma^2 \begin{pmatrix}
V_{\beta}(\psi, \delta) & 0 \\
0 & V_{\sigma}(\psi, \delta)
\end{pmatrix},
\]

where

\[
V_{\beta}(\psi, \delta) = \mathcal{I}(\delta)^{-1} Q_{\beta}(\psi, \delta) \mathcal{I}(\delta)^{-1}
\]

4
and

\[ V_\sigma(\psi, \delta) = Q_\sigma(\psi, \delta)/M_\sigma(\psi, \delta)^2 \]

with

\[ I(\delta) = \int x x^\top \delta(dx), \]
\[ M_\sigma(\psi, \delta) = \int (z \psi(z, x) - 1) (z^2 - 1) P(dz) \delta(dx), \]
\[ Q_\beta(\psi, \delta) = \int \psi(z, x)^2 x x^\top P(dz) \delta(dx), \]
\[ Q_\sigma(\psi, \delta) = \int (z \psi(z, x) - 1)^2 P(dz) \delta(dx). \]

Thereby \( \delta \) denotes the asymptotic design measure. The influence function of the M estimator is (see Hampel et al. 1986)

\[ \begin{pmatrix} IF_\beta(z, x, \psi, \delta) \\ IF_\sigma(z, x, \psi, \delta) \end{pmatrix}, \]

where

\[ IF_\beta(z, x, \psi, \delta) = I(\delta)^{-1} x \psi(z, x) \]

and

\[ IF_\sigma(z, x, \psi, \delta) := (z \psi(z, x) - 1)/M_\sigma(\psi, \delta). \]

For estimation of only the regression parameter the most efficient M-estimators with bounded influence function are solutions of minimizing \( \text{tr} V_\beta(\psi, \delta) \) under the side condition \( \sup_{z,x} |IF_\beta(z, x, \psi, \delta)| \leq b_\beta \). These solutions were characterized by Hampel (1978), Krasker (1980), Bickel (1981, 1984), Huber (1983), Rieder (1987, 1994), Kurotschka and Müller (1992) and Müller (1994, 1997) and are given by nondecreasing score functions \( \psi \). For simultaneous estimation of the regression and scale parameter, the most efficient estimators with bounded influence function have score functions \( \psi \) which simultaneously minimize

\[ \text{tr} V_\beta(\psi, \delta) \text{ and } V_\sigma(\psi, \delta) \]

under the side conditions that

\[ \sup_{z,x} |IF_\beta(z, x, \psi, \delta)| \leq b_\beta \text{ and } \sup_{z,x} |IF_\sigma(z, x, \psi, \delta)| \leq b_\sigma. \]
It is not easy to give a complete characterization of these score functions. But the results of Bednarski and Müller (2001) for the location-scale case indicate that the optimal score functions are given by

$$\psi(z, x_n) = a(x_n)/z \text{ for } |z| > c(x_n),$$

where $a(x_n)$ and $c(x_n)$ are quantities depending on the regressors. This means that the optimal M-estimators are redescending M-estimators. The corresponding score function $\rho$ of the form $\rho(z, x) = a(x) \log(z)$ is slowly varying in the sense of (2). Although the score functions $\rho$ differ by its dependence on the regressors $x$ from the score functions considered in Mizera and Müller (1999), the result of Mizera and Müller is still valid. This can be seen by simply extending their proof to the general type of score functions which is possible since the regressors are fixed without outliers. Hence the most efficient M-estimators with bounded influence function have also a breakdown point which attains the upper bound (1) for breakdown points.

The main problem with the most efficient M-estimators with bounded influence function and highest breakdown point is their computation. Because of the redescending form of the score function, the objective function has several local minima in the general case and thus there are several simultaneous solutions of (3) and (4). One exception is the Cauchy estimator for location and scale where only one local extremum exists if the distribution is not concentrated with equal probabilities at two points (see Copas 1975). However, Cauchy estimators for regression already have the general problem of several local extrema as Gabrielsen (1982) pointed out. But highest breakdown point and even consistency can be only achieved if the global minimum of the objective function is used. In the location case, the global minimum is often the symmetry center of the underlying distribution so that the global minimum can be found with Newton-Raphson method starting at a consistent estimator for the symmetry center (Andrews et al. 1972, Collins 1976, Clarke 1983, 1986). However for asymmetric distributions or regression the situation is more complicated (see Freedman and Diaconis 1982, Jurečková and Sen 1996, Mizera 1994, 1996). One possibility of finding the global minimum is to calculate each local minimum. For smooth score functions like that of the Cauchy M-estimator for regression this can be done by Newton-Raphson method starting at any hyperplane through $p$ points of the data set. An alternative method is the EM-algorithm proposed by Lange et al. (1989) for computing regression estimators with $t$-distributed errors.
The disadvantage of redescending M-estimators that their objective function has several local minima becomes an advantage in cluster analysis. Morgenthaler (1990) already pointed out that each local minimum corresponds to a substructure of the data and Hennig (2000, 2003) used a fixed point approach based on redescending M-estimators for clustering. However the use of redescending M-estimators in cluster analysis has the problem that local minima do not correspond only to hyperplanes (lines in simple regression) which can be viewed as cluster centers. Local minima can also correspond to hyperplanes orthogonal to hyperplanes given by clusters or, more general, to hyperplanes fitting several clusters or even all clusters. Arslan (2003) even found that the smallest local minimum often correspond to the overall fit. She therefore developed a test for detecting the "right" local minima, i.e. those minima which correspond to regression clusters.

The problem of finding the "right" local minima can be facilitated by using more extreme redescending M-estimators and small scale parameters. For example the score function of the second line of Table 1, i.e.

\[ \rho(z) = -\exp(-z^2) \]  

(5)
can be used which is up to a constant the density of the normal distribution. M-estimators based on such a score function cannot be interpreted anymore as maximum likelihood estimators as it is the case for the Cauchy M-estimator. The score function is also not anymore slowly varying in the sense of (2). But the integral of the score function is finite which is not the case for the other M-estimators which can be interpreted as maximum likelihood estimators. The property of a finite integral leads to a relation of M-estimators to kernel density estimators, an observation recently used also by Chen and Meer (2002). For that note that minimization of

\[ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \rho \left( \frac{y_n - x_n^\top \beta}{s_N} \right) \]

is equivalent to maximization of

\[ \hat{h}_N(\beta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{s_N} \rho \left( \frac{y_n - x_n^\top \beta}{s_N} \right). \]  

(6)

Here \( s_N \) denotes a given scale parameter depending on the sample size \( N \). In the context of kernel density estimation, the parameter \( s_N \) plays the role of the bandwidth. In particular
for the location case, where \( x_n = 1 \) for all \( n = 1, \ldots, N \), we have the well known kernel density estimator

\[
\hat{f}_N(\mu) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{s_N} \rho \left( \frac{y_n - \mu}{s_N} \right).
\]

It is also known (see e.g. Silverman 1986) that the kernel density estimator \( \hat{f}(\mu) \) satisfies

\[
\lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{f}_N(\mu) = f(\mu)
\]

with probability 1 if \( \int -\rho(z) \, dz = 1 \), \( s_N \) converges to zero and some additional regularity conditions are satisfied. If the observations are coming from different location clusters, their common distribution has a density with several local maxima. The points of the local maxima can be interpreted as the true cluster centers. Hence the convergence (7) implies the convergence of the local maximum points of \( \hat{f}_N \) to the local maximum points of \( f \) and thus to the true cluster centers. This holds of course under some regularity conditions.

This reasoning can be used also for regression clusters as Müller and Garlipp (2002) pointed out. Müller and Garlipp proved that, like \( \hat{f}_N \), also \( \hat{h}_N \) of (6) converges to a limit function \( h \) if \( \int -\rho(z) \, dz = 1 \), \( s_N \) converges to zero and some regularity conditions are satisfied. Examples showed that the highest local maxima of this limit function \( h \) correspond to real regression clusters. However there are also other local maxima with no relation to a real regression cluster, but these are much smaller so that they can be distinguished from the other. Because of the convergence of \( \hat{h}_N \) to \( h \) it can be expected that the highest local maxima of \( \hat{h}_N \) correspond to real clusters and that they can be found by studying the height of the local maxima. Müller and Garlipp showed also that the same reasoning holds for orthogonal regression in an errors-in-variables model by maximizing

\[
\hat{h}_N(a, b) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{s_N} \rho \left( \frac{(y_n, x_n^\top) a - b}{s_N} \right)
\]

with respect to \( a \in \mathbb{R}^{p+1} \) with \( \|a\| = 1 \) and \( b \in \mathbb{R} \). Besides the rotation invariance, the orthogonal regression has the advantage that the limit function \( h \) has an interpretation as density. How regression clusters can be found by this method is demonstrated by Figures 2 and 3. For more explanations of this application, see the next section.

### 4 Redescending M-estimators in image analysis

We will consider here two problems of image analysis. One problem is to detect objects and structures in the image. The other problem is to reconstruct a noisy image.
For detecting objects and structures a widely used method in computer vision are the Hough transform and the RANSAC method. Both methods can be interpreted as an M-estimator based on the zero-one score function

$$\rho(z) = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } |z| \leq 1 \\
1 & \text{if } |z| > 1.
\end{cases}$$

Recent development used also a smoothed version of the zero-one function or the biweight function

$$\rho(z) = \begin{cases} 
1 - (1 - z^2)^3 & \text{if } |z| \leq 1 \\
1 & \text{if } |z| > 1.
\end{cases}$$

See e.g. Chen et al. (2001) for an overview. The methods mainly differ in the choice of the scale parameter and how the local maxima/minima are found which correspond to substructures/clusters. The methods of finding the right maxima/minima are always as that of Chen et al. (2001) rather complicated. However Müller and Garlipp (2002)
demonstrated for the problem of finding the edges of a triangle that the local maxima corresponding to the edge lines can be easily found by the height of the local maxima. They used the negative of the score function given by (5) which is differentiable so that the Newton-Raphson method can be easily applied for determining the local maxima. It turned out that the result does not depend very much on the scale parameter. Moreover, there is a natural choice of the scale parameter since, in a first step, points are determined which should lie close to the edges. These points can be found by using a rotational density kernel estimator, a method proposed by Qiu, P. (1997). The bandwidth of the rotational density kernel estimator is the natural choice of the scale parameter. In the Figures 1 to 4 this method is demonstrated. Thereby, Figure 2 shows the points close to edges found by the method of Qiu and Figure 3 provides the regression lines found by the cluster method. Figure 4 shows that the three right regression lines 1, 2, 3 have significantly larger heights of the local maxima.

For finding all local maxima/minima, the Newton-Raphson method starts at all hyperplanes given by \( p \) data points, in the two-dimensional case at all lines given by two points. Often the found local maximum corresponds to a cluster to which the starting hyperplane belongs to. This is even always the case for the location case (\( p = 1, x_n = 1 \)). This observation can be used for image denoising as Chu et al. (1998) proposed. If \( y_n = y(v_n) \) \( n = 1, \ldots, N \) are the pixel values of the noisy image at pixel positions \( v_n = (u_n, t_n) \) lying in \([0,1]^2\) then a reconstructed pixel value \( \hat{y}(v_0) \) at position \( v_0 \) can be determined by M-kernel estimators for nonparametric regression introduced by Härdle and Gasser (1984), i.e. by

\[
\hat{y}(v_0) = \hat{\mu}_{v_0} = \arg \min_{\mu} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\lambda_N^2} K \left( \frac{v_n - v_0}{\lambda_N} \right) \frac{1}{s_N} \rho \left( \frac{y_n - \mu}{s_N} \right),
\]

where \( K \) is the kernel function and \( \lambda_N \) the bandwidth. As long as \( \rho \) is convex and thus \( \rho' \) not redescending, edges are smoothed. For edge preserving image denoising, Müller (1999, 2002b) proposed kernel estimators based on high breakdown point regression estimators. Chu et al. (1998) proposed M-kernel estimators with score function given by (5). But the most important feature of the proposal of Chu et al. was to use as starting point for the Newton-Raphson method the value \( y(v_0) \), i.e. the pixel value in the center of the window. This starting point ensures the edge preserving property of the estimator. This estimator is even corner preserving as Hillebrand (2002) showed. He also showed consistency not only for smooth areas but also for corners. A consistency proof for jump points in the one-dimensional case can be found in Hillebrand and Müller (2002) as well and for more general situations in Müller (2002a). Figure 7 shows how the corners and edges are preserved by applying the method of Chu et al. on the noisy image in Figure 6.
Thereby, the image in Figure 6 was generated from Figure 5 - an image created by Smith and Brady (1997) - by adding normal distributed noise.

![Figure 5: Original Image](image1)

![Figure 6: Noisy Image](image2)

![Figure 7: Method of Chu et al.](image3)

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