

## 3

## Least Squares

Example 3.0.1 (linear regression).

Given: measured data  $y_i, \mathbf{x}_i$ ,  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $m \geq n + 1$   
 ( $y_i, \mathbf{x}_i$  have measurement errors).

Known: without measurement errors data would satisfy  
 affine linear relationship  $y = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} + c$ ,  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Goal: estimate parameters  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $c$ .

least squares estimate

$$(\mathbf{a}, c) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n, q \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^m |y_i - \mathbf{p} \mathbf{x}_i - q|^2 \quad (3.0.1)$$

linear regression for  $n = 2, m = 8$

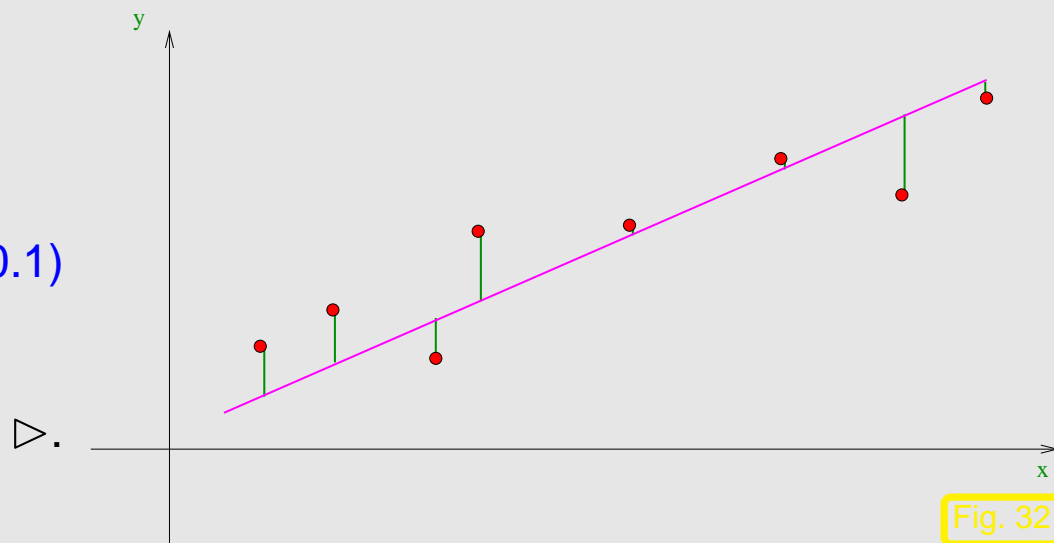


Fig. 32

Remark: In statistics we learn that the least squares estimate provides a maximum likelihood estimate, if the measurement errors are uniformly and independently normally distributed.

*Example 3.0.2* (Linear data fitting). ( $\rightarrow$  Ex. 3.3.1 for a related problem)

Given: “nodes”  $(t_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{K}^2$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $t_i \in I \subset \mathbb{K}$ ,  
basis functions  $b_j : I \mapsto \mathbb{K}$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, n$ .

Find: coefficients  $x_j \in \mathbb{K}$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, n$ , such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^m |f(t_i) - y_i|^2 \rightarrow \min \quad , \quad f(t) := \sum_{j=1}^n x_j b_j(t) . \quad (3.0.2)$$

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Special case: polynomial fit:  $b_j(t) = t^{j-1}$ .

MATLAB-function: `p = polyfit(t,y,n);`  $n$  = polynomial degree.



*Remark 3.0.3* (Overdetermined linear systems).

In Ex. 3.0.1 we could try to find  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $c$  by solving the linear system of equations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_m^T & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix},$$

but in case  $m > n + 1$  we encounter more equations than unknowns.

In Ex. 3.0.2 the same idea leads to the linear system

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_1(t_1) & \dots & b_n(t_1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_1(t_m) & \dots & b_n(t_m) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix},$$

with the same problem in case  $m > n$ .



(Linear) **least squares problem**:

given:  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$ ,  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{K}^m$ ,

find:  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{K}^n$  such that

$$(i) \quad \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 = \inf\{\|\mathbf{Ay} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 : \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{K}^n\}, \quad (3.0.3)$$

(ii)  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2$  is minimal under the condition (i).

Recast as linear least squares problem, cf. Rem. 3.0.3:

$$\text{Ex. 3.0.1: } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_m^T & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n+1}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ c \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}.$$

$$\text{Ex. 3.0.2: } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1(t_1) & \dots & b_n(t_1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_1(t_m) & \dots & b_n(t_m) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

In both cases the **residual norm**  $\|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Ax}\|_2$  allows to gauge the quality of the model.

**Lemma 3.0.1** (Existence & uniqueness of solutions of the least squares problem).

*The least squares problem for  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$ ,  $\mathbf{A} \neq 0$ , has a unique solution for every  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{K}^m$ .*

*Proof.* The proof is given by formula (3.2.4) and its derivation, see Sect. 3.2. □

`scipy.linalg.lstsq(A,b)` Reassuring: stable ( $\rightarrow$  Def.??) implementation (for dense matrices).

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*Theorem 3.0.4. For  $m \geq n$ ,  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$ ,  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$ , let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{K}^n$  be the solution of the least squares problem  $\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\| \rightarrow \min$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  the solution of the perturbed least squares problem  $\|(\mathbf{A} + \Delta\mathbf{A})\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{b}\| \rightarrow \min$ . Then*

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2} \leq \left( 2 \text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A}) + \text{cond}_2^2(\mathbf{A}) \frac{\|\mathbf{r}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 \|\mathbf{x}\|_2} \right) \frac{\|\Delta\mathbf{A}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{A}\|_2}$$

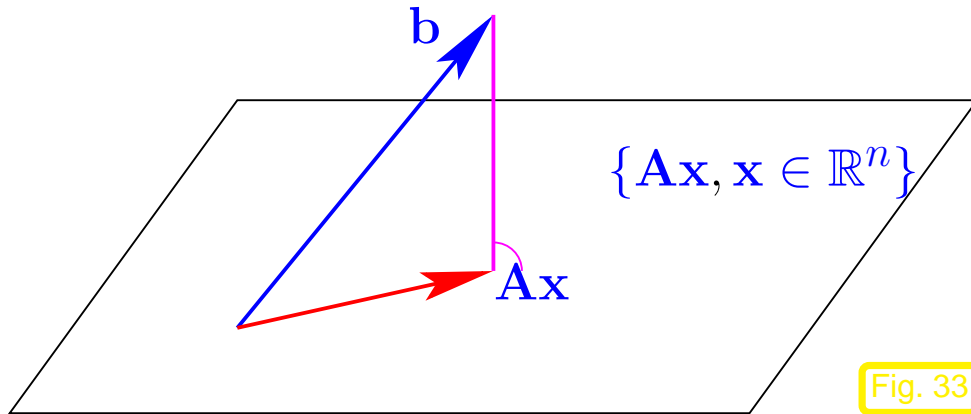
*holds, where  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}$  is the residual.*

This means: if  $\|\mathbf{r}\|_2 \ll 1$  ➤ condition of the least squares problem  $\approx \text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A})$   
 if  $\|\mathbf{r}\|_2$  “large” ➤ condition of the least squares problem  $\approx \text{cond}_2^2(\mathbf{A})$



# 3.1 Normal Equations

Setting:  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ ,  $m \geq n$ , with **full rank**  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$ .



Geometric interpretation of linear least squares problem (3.0.3):

$\hat{\mathbf{x}} \triangleq$  orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{b}$  on the subspace  $\text{Im}(\mathbf{A}) := \text{Span} \{ (\mathbf{A})_{:,1}, \dots, (\mathbf{A})_{:,n} \}$ .

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Geometric interpretation: the least squares problem (3.0.3) amounts to searching the point  $\mathbf{p} \in \text{Im}(\mathbf{A})$  nearest (w.r.t. Euclidean distance) to  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

Geometric intuition, see Fig. 33:  $\mathbf{p}$  is the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{b}$  onto  $\text{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ , that is  $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p} \perp \text{Im}(\mathbf{A})$ . Note the equivalence

$$\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p} \perp \text{Im}(\mathbf{A}) \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p} \perp (\mathbf{A})_{:,j}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}^H(\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p}) = 0,$$

Representation  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{Ax}$  leads to normal equations (3.1.2).

Solve (3.0.3) for  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n: \quad \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 \rightarrow \min \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f(\mathbf{x}) := \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 \rightarrow \min . \quad (3.1.1)$$

A quadratic functional, cf. (??)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 = \mathbf{x}^H (\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{b}^H \mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{b}^H \mathbf{b} .$$

Minimization problem for  $f \quad \triangleright \quad$  study gradient, cf. (??)

$$\text{grad } f(\mathbf{x}) = 2(\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A})\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{b} .$$

$$\text{grad } f(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{!}{=} 0: \quad \boxed{\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{b}} \quad = \text{normal equation of (3.1.1)} \quad (3.1.2)$$

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Notice:  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n} \text{ s.p.d. } (\rightarrow \text{Def. ??})$

*Remark 3.1.1* (Conditioning of normal equations).

Cauton: danger of instability, with SVD  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^H$


$$\text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}) = \text{cond}_2(\mathbf{V}\Sigma^H \mathbf{U}^H \mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^H) = \text{cond}_2(\Sigma^H \Sigma) = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_n^2} = \text{cond}_2(\mathbf{A})^2 .$$



- For fairly ill-conditioned  $\mathbf{A}$  using the normal equations (3.1.2) to solve the linear least squares problem (3.1.1) numerically may run the risk of huge amplification of roundoff errors incurred during the computation of the right hand side  $\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{b}$ : **potential instability** ( $\rightarrow$  Def. ??) of normal equation approach.

*Example 3.1.2 (Instability of normal equations).*

Caution: loss of information in the computation of  $\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}$ , e.g.



$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \delta & 0 \\ 0 & \delta \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \delta^2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 + \delta^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

```

1 >> A = [1          1;...
2         sqrt(eps)  0;...
3         0          sqrt(eps)];
4 >> rank(A)
5         ans = 2
6 >> rank(A'*A)
7         ans = 1

```

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If  $\delta < \sqrt{\text{eps}}$   $\Rightarrow 1 + \delta^2 = 1$  in  $\mathbb{M}$ , i.e.  $\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}$  “numeric singular”, though  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = 2$ , see Sect. ??, in particular Rem. ??.



Another *reason not to compute*  $\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}$ , when both  $m, n$  large:

$$\mathbf{A} \text{ sparse} \not\Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \text{ sparse}$$

- Potential memory overflow, when computing  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$
- Squanders possibility to use efficient sparse direct elimination techniques, see Sect. ??

A way to avoid the computation of  $\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{A}$ :

Expand normal equations (3.1.2): introduce **residual**  $\mathbf{r} := \mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}$  as new unknown:

$$\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{b} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{B} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{pmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} -\mathbf{I} & \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{A}^H & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.1.3)$$

More general substitution  $\mathbf{r} := \alpha^{-1}(\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b})$ ,  $\alpha > 0$  to improve the condition:

$$\mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}^H \mathbf{b} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{B}_\alpha \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{pmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} -\alpha \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{A}^H & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.1.4)$$

For  $m, n \gg 1$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  sparse, both (3.1.3) and (3.1.4) lead to large sparse linear systems of equations, amenable to sparse direct elimination techniques, see Sect. ??

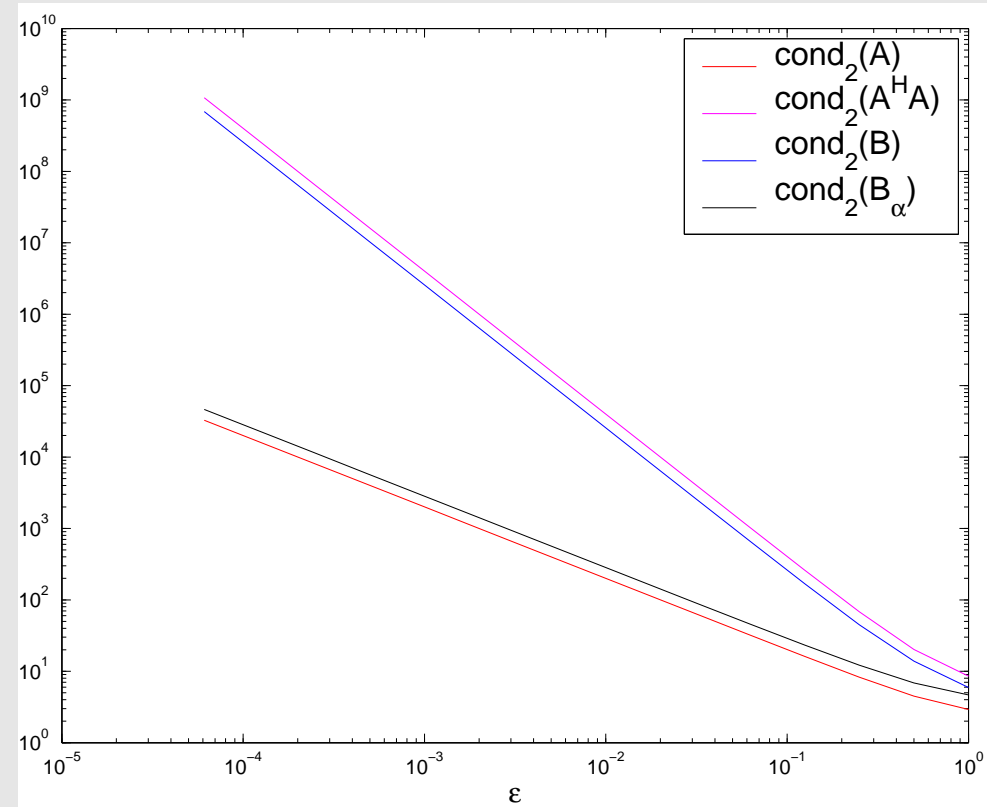
*Example 3.1.3* (Condition of the extended system).

Consider (3.1.3), (3.1.4) for

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \epsilon & 1 \\ 1 - \epsilon & 1 \\ \epsilon & \epsilon \end{pmatrix}.$$

Plot of different condition numbers  
in dependence on  $\epsilon$

( $\alpha = \|\mathbf{A}\|_2 / \sqrt{2}$ )



## 3.2 Orthogonal Transformation Methods

Consider the linear least squares problem (3.0.3)

given  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  find  $\mathbf{x} = \underset{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}\|_2$ .

Assumption:  $m \geq n$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  has full (maximum) rank:  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$ .

Recall Thm. 2.1.2: orthogonal (unitary) transformations ( $\rightarrow$  Def. 2.1.1) leave 2-norm invariant.

Idea: Transformation of  $\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}$  to simpler form by *orthogonal* row transformations:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|\mathbf{Ay} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|\tilde{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{y} - \tilde{\mathbf{b}}\|_2,$$

where  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{QA}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{Qb}$  with orthogonal  $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,m}$ .

As in the case of LSE ( $\rightarrow$  Sect. 2.1): “simpler form” = triangular form.

QR-decomposition

2.1

QR-decomposition:  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$ ,  $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,m}$  unitary,  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$  (regular) upper triangular matrix.

$$\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{Rx} - \mathbf{Q}^H \mathbf{b})\|_2 = \|\mathbf{Rx} - \tilde{\mathbf{b}}\|_2, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{b}} := \mathbf{Q}^H \mathbf{b}.$$

$$\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 \rightarrow \min \Leftrightarrow \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{b}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{b}_m \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 \rightarrow \min .$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{b}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{b}_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{residuum } \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{Q} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \tilde{b}_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{b}_m \end{pmatrix} .$$

Note: residual norm readily available  $\|\mathbf{r}\|_2 = \sqrt{\tilde{b}_{n+1}^2 + \cdots + \tilde{b}_m^2}.$

Implementation: successive orthogonal row transformations (by means of Householder reflections (2.1.1) for general matrices, and Givens rotations (2.1.2) for banded matrices, see Sect. 2.1 for details) of augmented matrix  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{b}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n+1}$ , which is transformed into  $(\mathbf{R}, \tilde{\mathbf{b}})$

$\mathbf{Q}$  need not be stored !

Alternative: Solving linear least squares problem by SVD

Most general setting:  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$ ,  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = r \leq \min\{m, n\}$ :

SVD:  $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{U}_1 \quad \mathbf{U}_2] \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{V}_1^H \\ \mathbf{V}_2^H \end{pmatrix}$

(3.2.1)

$\mathbf{U}_1 \in \mathbb{K}^{m,r}$ ,  $\mathbf{U}_2 \in \mathbb{K}^{m,m-r}$ ,  $\Sigma_r = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{r,r}$ ,  $\mathbf{V}_1 \in \mathbb{K}^{n,r}$ ,  $\mathbf{V}_2 \in \mathbb{K}^{n,n-r}$ ,  
the columns of  $\mathbf{U}_1, \mathbf{U}_2, \mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2$  are orthonormal.

$$\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2 = \left\| [\mathbf{U}_1 \ \mathbf{U}_2] \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{V}_1^H \\ \mathbf{V}_2^H \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} - \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{b}_2 \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_r \mathbf{V}_1^H \mathbf{x} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1^H \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{U}_2^H \mathbf{b}_2 \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2 \quad (3.2.2)$$

Logical strategy: choose  $\mathbf{x}$  such that the first  $r$  components of  $\begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_r \mathbf{V}_1^H \mathbf{x} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{U}_1^H \mathbf{b}_1 \\ \mathbf{U}_2^H \mathbf{b}_2 \end{pmatrix}$  vanish:

$$\text{➤ underdetermined linear system} \quad \Sigma_r \mathbf{V}_1^H \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U}_1^H \mathbf{b}_1. \quad (3.2.3)$$

To fix a unique solution we appeal to the **minimal norm condition** in (3.0.3): solution  $\mathbf{x}$  of (3.2.3) is unique up to contributions from  $\text{Ker}(\mathbf{V}_1) = \text{Im}(\mathbf{V}_2)$ . Since  $\mathbf{V}$  is orthogonal, the minimal norm solution is obtained by setting contributions from  $\text{Im}(\mathbf{V}_2)$  to zero, which amounts to choosing  $\mathbf{x} \in \text{Im}(\mathbf{V}_1)$ .

$$\blacktriangleright \text{solution} \quad \boxed{\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{V}_1 \Sigma_r^{-1} \mathbf{U}_1^H) \mathbf{b}_1}, \quad \|\mathbf{r}\|_2 = \left\| \mathbf{U}_2^H \mathbf{b}_2 \right\|_2. \quad (3.2.4)$$

## Code 3.2.1: Solving LSQ problem via SVD

```

1 def lsqsvd(A,b,eps=1e-6):
2     U,s,Vh = svd(A)
3     r = 1+where(s/s[0]>eps)[0].max() #
        numerical rank
4     y = dot(Vh[:, :r].T,
        dot(U[:, :r].T,b)/s[:r] )
5     return y

```

Practical implementation:

“numerical rank” test:

$$r = \max\{i: \sigma_i/\sigma_1 > \text{tol}\}$$

*Remark 3.2.2* (Pseudoinverse and SVD).  $\rightarrow$  Rem. 3.0.4

The solution formula (3.2.4) directly yields a representation of the pseudoinverse  $\mathbf{A}^+$  ( $\rightarrow$  Def. 3.0.2) of any matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ :

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*Theorem 3.2.1* (Pseudoinverse and SVD).

If  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{K}^{m,n}$  has the SVD decomposition (3.2.1), then  $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{V}_1 \Sigma_r^{-1} \mathbf{U}_1^H$  holds.

`scipy.linalg.pinv2(A)`

`numpy.linalg.pinv(A)`





*Remark 3.2.3* (Normal equations vs. orthogonal transformations method).

Superior numerical stability ( $\rightarrow$  Def. ??) of orthogonal transformations methods:

- Use orthogonal transformations methods for least squares problems (3.0.3), whenever  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$  dense and  $n$  small.

SVD/QR-factorization cannot exploit sparsity:

- Use normal equations in the expanded form (3.1.3)/(3.1.4), when  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$  sparse ( $\rightarrow$  Def. ??) and  $m, n$  big.



## 3.3 Non-linear Least Squares

### Example 3.3.1 (Non-linear data fitting (parametric statistics)).

Given: data points  $(t_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$  with measurements errors.

Known:  $y = f(t, \mathbf{x})$  through a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  depending non-linearly and smoothly on parameters  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Example:  $f(t) = x_1 + x_2 \exp(-x_3 t)$ ,  $n = 3$ .

Determine parameters by non-linear **least squares data fitting**:

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^m |f(t_i, \mathbf{x}) - y_i|^2 = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|F(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2, \quad (3.3.1)$$

$$\text{with } F(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} f(t_1, \mathbf{x}) - y_1 \\ \vdots \\ f(t_m, \mathbf{x}) - y_m \end{pmatrix}.$$



## Non-linear least squares problem

Given:  $F : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $m > n$ .

Find:  $\mathbf{x}^* \in D$ :  $\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in D} \Phi(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $\Phi(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{2} \|F(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2$ . (3.3.2)

Terminology:  $D \hat{=}$  parameter space,  $x_1, \dots, x_n \hat{=}$  parameter.

As in the case of linear least squares problems ( $\rightarrow$  Rem. 3.0.3): a non-linear least squares problem is related to an overdetermined non-linear system of equations  $F(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ .

As for non-linear systems of equations ( $\rightarrow$  Chapter 1): existence and uniqueness of  $\mathbf{x}^*$  in (3.3.2) has to be established in each concrete case!

We require “independence for each parameter”:

$\exists$  neighbourhood  $\mathcal{U}(\mathbf{x}^*)$  such that  $DF(\mathbf{x})$  has full rank  $n \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ . (3.3.3)

(It means: the columns of the Jacobi matrix  $DF(\mathbf{x})$  are linearly independent.)

If (3.3.3) is not satisfied, then the parameters are redundant in the sense that fewer parameters would be enough to model the same dependence (locally at  $\mathbf{x}^*$ ).

### 3.3.1 (Damped) Newton method

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}^*) = \min \Rightarrow \mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \quad \mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) := \left( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \right)^T \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Simple idea: use Newton's method ( $\rightarrow$  Sect. 1.4) to determine a zero of  $\mathbf{grad} \Phi : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ .

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Newton iteration (1.4.1) for non-linear system of equations  $\mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = 0$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - H\Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1} \mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}), \quad (H\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \text{Hessian matrix}). \quad (3.3.4)$$

Expressed in terms of  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$  from (3.3.2):

chain rule (1.4.2)  $\blacktriangleright \mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = DF(\mathbf{x})^T F(\mathbf{x}),$

product rule (1.4.3)  $\blacktriangleright H\Phi(\mathbf{x}) := D(\mathbf{grad} \Phi)(\mathbf{x}) = DF(\mathbf{x})^T DF(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^m F_j(\mathbf{x}) D^2 F_j(\mathbf{x}),$



$$(H\Phi(\mathbf{x}))_{i,k} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 F_j}{\partial x_i \partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) F_j(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_k}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial F_j}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}) .$$

► For Newton iterate  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ : Newton correction  $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  from LSE

$$\left( DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \sum_{j=1}^m F_j(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) D^2 F_j(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \right) \mathbf{s} = -DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) . \quad (3.3.5)$$

*Remark 3.3.2* (Newton method and minimization of quadratic functional).

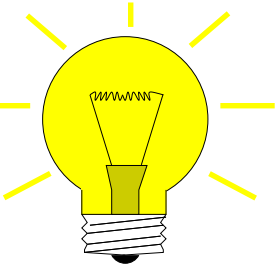
Newton's method (3.3.4) for (3.3.2) can be read as *successive minimization* of a local **quadratic approximation** of  $\Phi$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(\mathbf{x}) &\approx Q(\mathbf{s}) := \Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{s} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{s}^T H\Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{s} , \\ \mathbf{grad} Q(\mathbf{s}) = 0 &\Leftrightarrow H\Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{grad} \Phi(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (3.3.5) . \end{aligned} \quad (3.3.6)$$

➤ Another model function method ( $\rightarrow$  Sect. 1.3.2) with quadratic model function for  $Q$ .



### 3.3.2 Gauss-Newton method



Idea:

**local linearization** of  $F$ :  $F(x) \approx F(y) + DF(y)(x - y)$

➤ sequence of *linear* least squares problems

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|F(\mathbf{x})\|_2 \text{ approximated by } \underbrace{\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|F(\mathbf{x}_0) + DF(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)\|_2}_{(\spadesuit)},$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is an approximation of the solution  $\mathbf{x}^*$  of (3.3.2).

$$(\spadesuit) \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\| \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{A} := DF(\mathbf{x}_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}, \quad \mathbf{b} := F(\mathbf{x}_0) - DF(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

This is a linear least squares problem of the form (3.0.3).

Note: (3.3.3)  $\Rightarrow$   $\mathbf{A}$  has full rank, if  $\mathbf{x}_0$  sufficiently close to  $\mathbf{x}^*$ .

Note: Approach different from local quadratic approximation of  $\Phi$  underlying Newton's method for (3.3.2), see Sect. 3.3.1, Rem. 3.3.2.

Initial guess  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in D$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} := \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{s}, \quad \mathbf{s} := \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) - DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\mathbf{s} \right\|_2. \quad (3.3.7)$$

linear least squares  problem

MATLAB- \ used to solve linear least squares problem in each step:

for  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A} \backslash \mathbf{b}$$



$\mathbf{x}$  minimizer of  $\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|_2$   
with minimal 2-norm

Code 3.3.4: template for Gauss-Newton method

```
1 def gn(x,F,J,tol):
2     s = solve(J(x),F(X)) #
3     x = x-s
4     while norm(s) > tol*norm(x): #
5         s = solve(J(x),F(X)) #
6         x = x-s
7     return x
```

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Comments on Code 3.3.2:

☞ Argument  $\mathbf{x}$  passes initial guess  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , argument  $F$  must be a *handle* to a function  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m$ , argument  $J$  provides the Jacobian of  $F$ , namely  $DF : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ , argument  $\text{tol}$  specifies the tolerance for termination

☞ Line 4: iteration terminates if relative norm of correction is below threshold specified in `tol`.

## Summary:

Advantage of the Gauss-Newton method : second derivative of  $F$  not needed.

Drawback of the Gauss-Newton method : no local quadratic convergence.

*Example 3.3.5* (Non-linear data fitting (II)). → Ex. 3.3.1

Non-linear data fitting problem (3.3.1) for  $f(t) = x_1 + x_2 \exp(-x_3 t)$ .

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_2 \exp(-x_3 t_1) - y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_1 + x_2 \exp(-x_3 t_m) - y_m \end{pmatrix} : \mathbb{R}^3 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^m, \quad DF(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & e^{-x_3 t_1} & -x_2 t_1 e^{-x_3 t_1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & e^{-x_3 t_m} & -x_2 t_m e^{-x_3 t_m} \end{pmatrix}$$

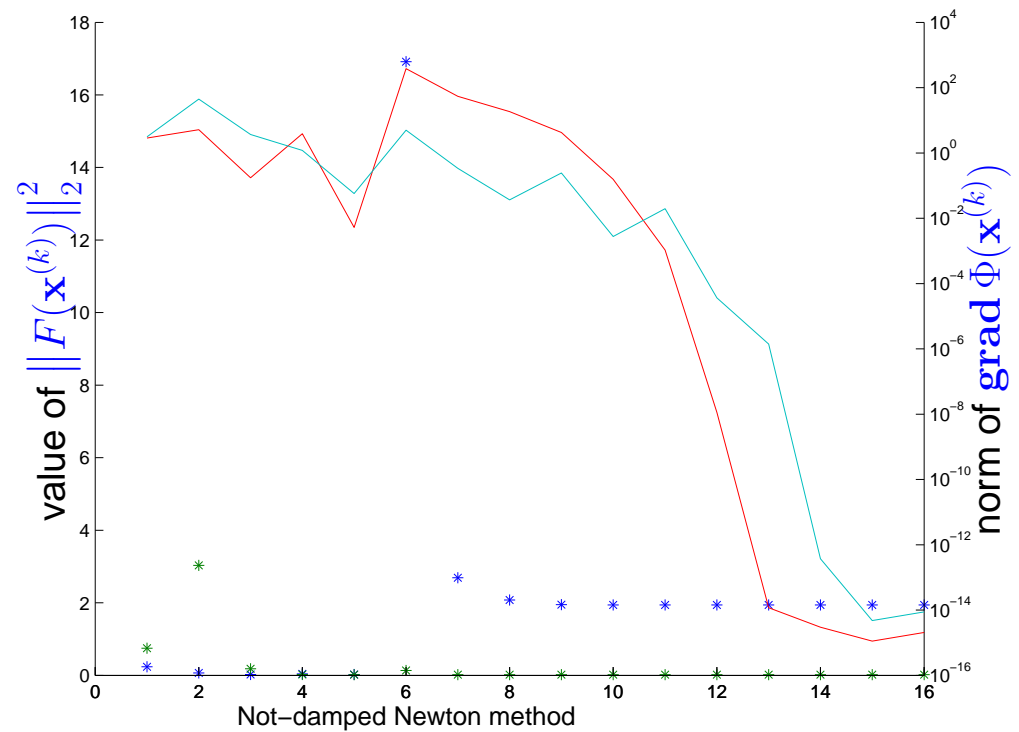
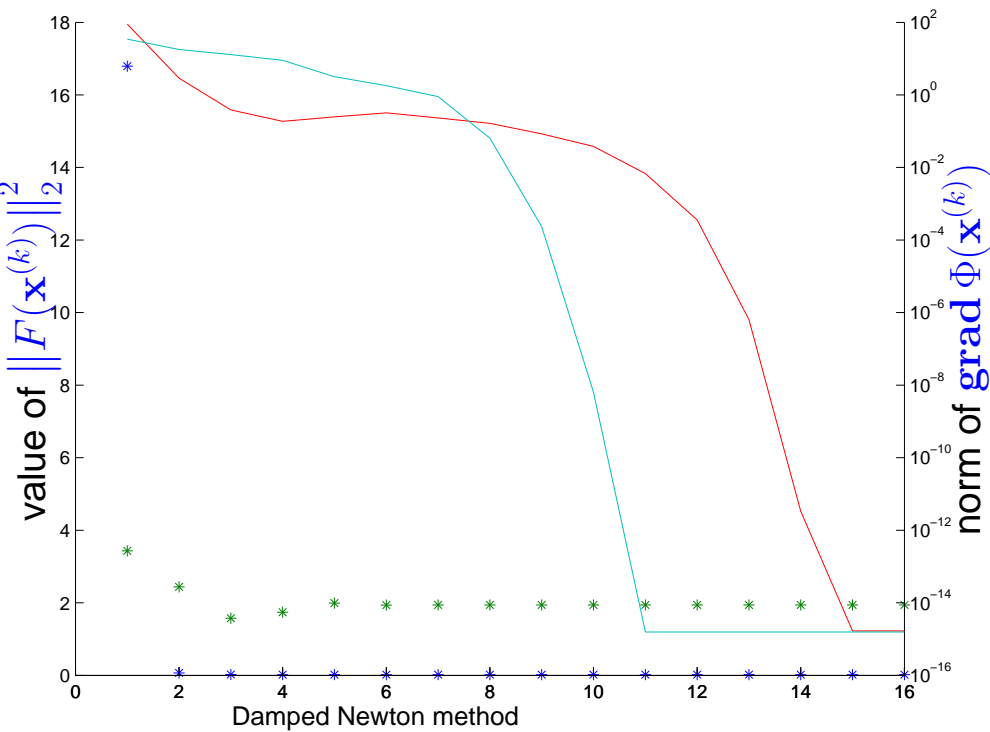
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Numerical experiment:

convergence of the Newton method,  
damped Newton method (→ Section  
1.4.4) and Gauss-Newton method for  
different initial values

```
t = r_[1:7:0.3]
y = x[0] + x[1]*exp(-x[2]*t)
y = y+0.1*(rand(len(y))-0.5)
```





Convergence behaviour of the Newton method:

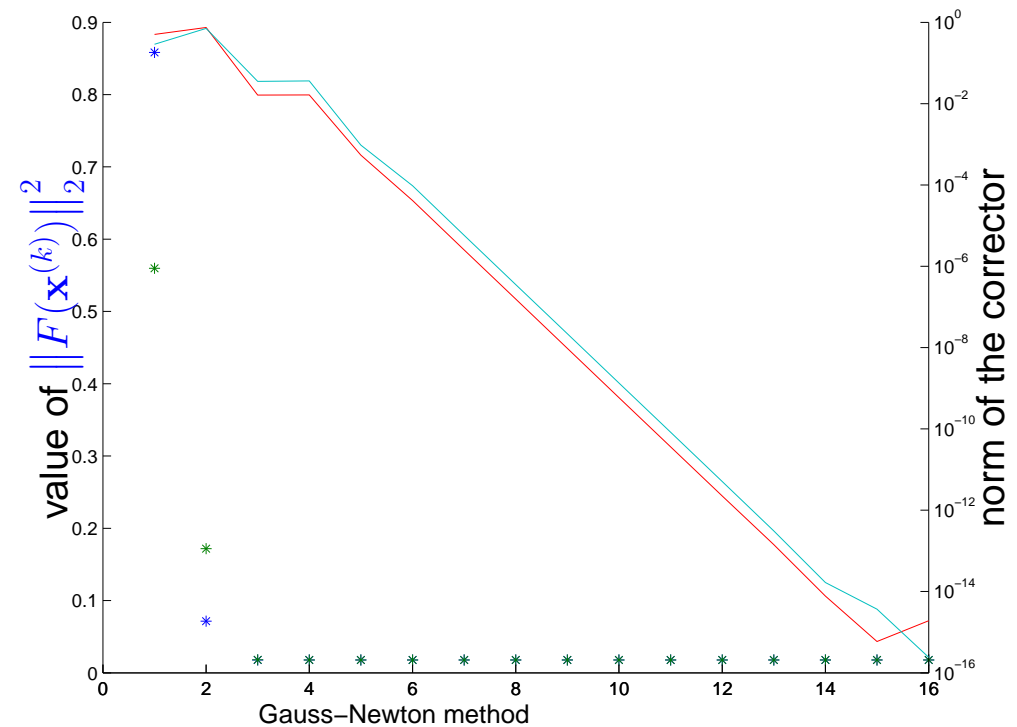
initial value  $(1.8, 1.8, 0.1)^T$  (red curve) ➤ Newton method caught in **local minimum**,  
 initial value  $(1.5, 1.5, 0.1)^T$  (cyan curve) ➤ fast (locally quadratic) convergence.

Gauss-Newton method:

initial value  $(1.8, 1.8, 0.1)^T$  (red curve),  
initial value  $(1.5, 1.5, 0.1)^T$  (cyan curve),

convergence in both cases.

Notice: **linear convergence**.



### 3.3.3 Trust region method (Levenberg-Marquardt method)

As in the case of Newton's method for non-linear systems of equations, see Sect. 1.4.4: often overshooting of Gauss-Newton corrections occurs.

Remedy as in the case of Newton's method: **damping**.

Idea: damping of the Gauss-Newton correction in (3.3.7) using a **penalty term**

instead of  $\left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\mathbf{s} \right\|^2$  minimize  $\left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\mathbf{s} \right\|^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{s}\|_2^2$  .

$\lambda > 0 \hat{=}$  penalty parameter (how to choose it ?  $\rightarrow$  heuristic)

$$\lambda = \gamma \left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \right\|_2 \quad , \quad \gamma := \begin{cases} 10 & , \text{ if } \left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \right\|_2 \geq 10 , \\ 1 & , \text{ if } 1 < \left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \right\|_2 < 10 , \\ 0.01 & , \text{ if } \left\| F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \right\|_2 \leq 1 . \end{cases}$$

► Modified (regularized) equation for the corrector  $\mathbf{s}$ :

$$\left( DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \lambda \mathbf{I} \right) \mathbf{s} = -DF(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) . \quad (3.3.8)$$

`scipy.optimize.leastsq`

## 3.4 Essential Skills Learned in Chapter 3

You should know:

- several possibilities to solve linear least squares problems
- how to solve non-linear least squares problems