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### Adjustment Theory I

Chapter 6 – Introduction to Least Squares Adjustment

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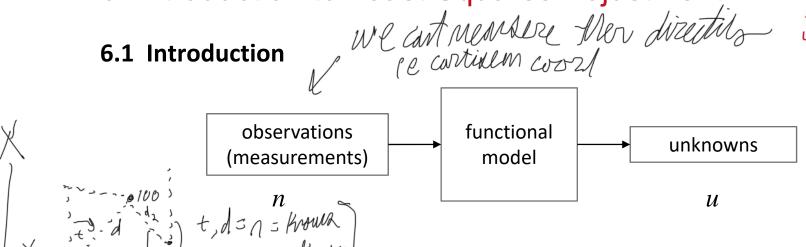


- 1. Definitions
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- 5. The Gaussian or Normal Distribution
- 6. Introduction to least squares adjustment
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- 8. Least squares adjustment with constraints for the unknowns parameters
- 9. Least squares adjustment with constant values in the functional model

## 6. Introduction to Least Squares Adjustment







Until now we have considered minimal configurations

$$n = u$$

⇒ Resulting equation system has a **unique solution**,

but

the reliability of the solution is 0%

⇒ no chance to detect blunders

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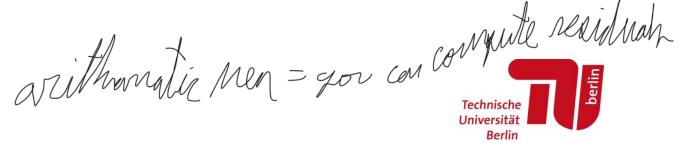


overdetermined configurations

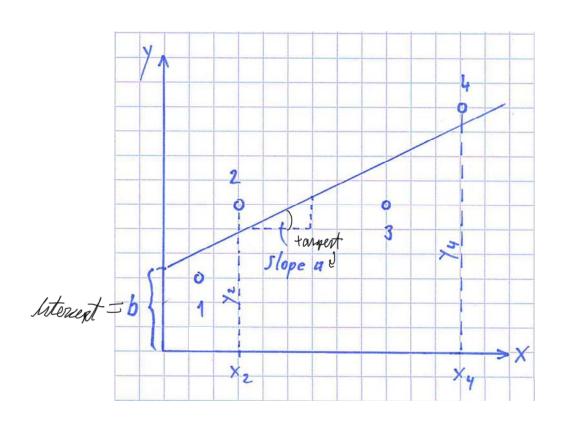
n > u

Fundamental principle in Geodesy!

- ⇒ **Reliable** solution
- $\Rightarrow$  Increase of **precision** of the solution



Example: Computation of slope a and intercept b of a straight line



Functional model

$$y = ax + b$$

$$y_1 = ax_1 + b$$

$$y_2 = ax_2 + b$$

$$y_3 = ax_3 + b$$

$$y_4 = ax_4 + b$$

obervations, unknowns, fixed values

$$n = 4$$
,  $u = 2$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  Overdetermined configuration



#### We know:

Our measurements are affected by random errors

- ightarrow Functional model can **not** be satisfied ightharpoonup
- → To overcome this inconsistency, we introduce residuals  $v_i$  and obtain ...

$$y + vi = ax + b$$

... Observation expression is 
$$y + vi = ax + b$$

$$y_1 + v_1 = ax_1 + b$$

$$y_2 + v_2 = ax_2 + b$$

$$y_3 + v_3 = ax_3 + b$$

$$y_4 + v_4 = ax_4 + b$$

... Observation equations

$$y = ax + b$$

$$y_1 = ax_1 + b$$

$$y_2 = ax_2 + b$$

$$y_3 = ax_3 + b$$

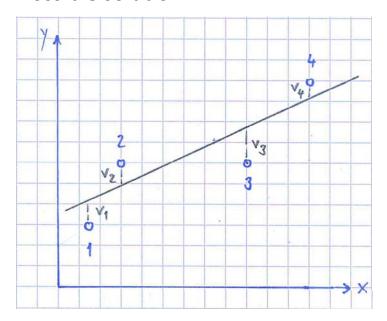
$$y_4 = ax_4 + b$$

Functional model

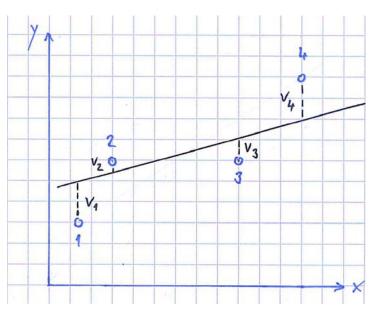
No unique solution, we can chose arbitrary straight lines as solution



#### Possible solution 1

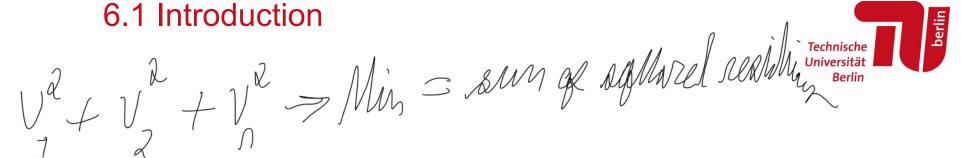


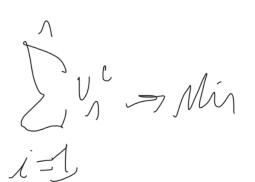
#### Possible solution 2

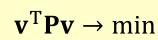


#### <u>How to solve the problem?</u>

- ⇒ We have to introduce a suitable constraint (target function) for the residuals to obtain one specific solution
- ⇒ Solution of overdetermined equation systems under consideration of a target function for the residuals is called **Adjustment Calculation**
- ⇒ Many different target functions for the residuals possible
- ⇒ We want to introduce specific target function that yields **Least Squares Adjustment**







### **Least Squares Adjustment**

or

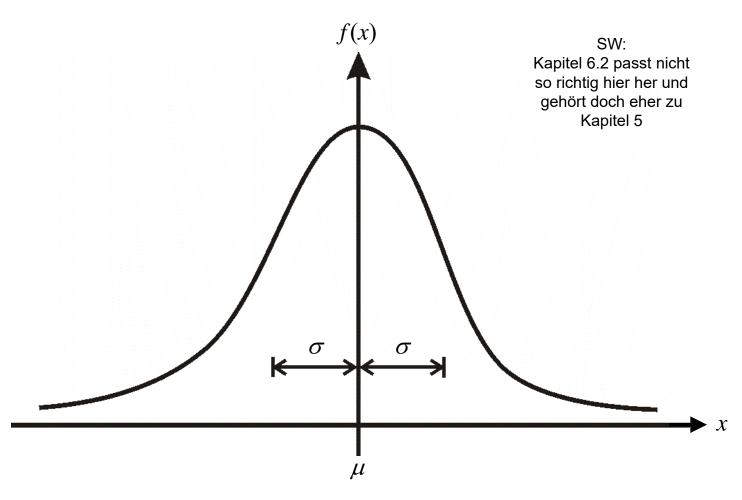
### **Method of Least Squares**



### 6. Introduction to Least Squares Adjustment



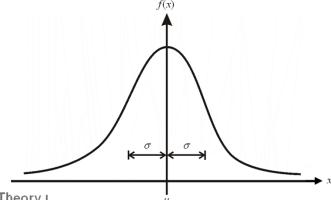
### **6.2 Normal Distribution Density Function**





#### A few remarks describe the essential features of the normal distribution:

- 1. The normal density function f(x) is symmetric about the expectation  $\mu$ . Therefore all odd central moments are zero. Also the median and mode, which are two parameters of location sometimes used in practice, are equal to the expectation  $\mu$ .
- 2. The maximum density value for the standardised variable is 0.399.
- 3. The density function approaches zero asymptotically as x goes to  $\pm \infty$ .
- 4. The density function has two points of inflection at  $x = \mu \pm \sigma$



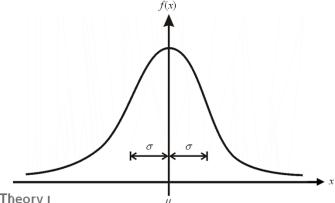


### A few remarks describe the essential features of the normal distribution:

5. The probability from x taking values within  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  is given by the area between the x axis, the density function curve, and the boundaries of the interval  $x = x_1, x = x_2$ .

In particular the probabilities for the deviation from the mean within some multiplies of  $\sigma$  are as follows:

$$P[-\sigma < x - \mu < +\sigma] = 0.6827$$
  
 $P[-2\sigma < x - \mu < +2\sigma] = 0.9545$   
 $P[-3\sigma < x - \mu < +3\sigma] = 0.9973$ 



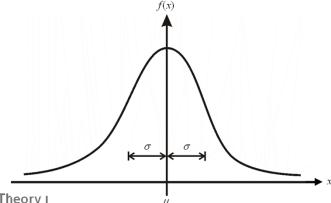


#### A few remarks describe the essential features of the normal distribution:

6. The abscissae associated with intervals covering probabilities of 0.90, 0.95 and 0.99 are

$$P[-1.645\sigma < x - \mu < +1.645\sigma] = 0.90$$
  
 $P[-1.960\sigma < x - \mu < +1.960\sigma] = 0.95$   
 $P[-2.576\sigma < x - \mu < +2.576\sigma] = 0.99$ 

7. The probability that x takes on values on either side of  $\mu$  (that is, either larger or smaller than  $\mu$ ) is equal 0.5.





#### A few remarks describe the essential features of the normal distribution:

The theoretical and practical importance of the normal distribution is due to the "central limit theorem" which states that the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \Delta_i$  of n independent variables  $\Delta_1 + \cdots + \Delta_q$  will be asymptotically normally distributed as  $n \to \infty$ .

In practical applications, normal distributions are encountered very often. In particular, random variables that represent measurements in photogrammetry, geodesy or surveying are often nearly normally distributed.



### Historical development concerning the optimal combination of redundant measurements

### Method of selected points (before 1750)

- Select only as many observations ("points") as there are unknowns
- Remaining unused observations can be used to validate the estimated result

Suppose that we use n observations  $\rightarrow$  we obtain  $\binom{n}{u}$  choices

Minul confidence on n of n

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# Historical development concerning the optimal combination of redundant measurements

### Method of averages (ca. 1750)

- ► In 1714: Longitude Prize for determination of a ships longitude offered by British government
- ► Thomas Mayer (1723-1762, German mathematician): Determination of longitude (rather time) from motion of the moon. He obtained overdetermined equation System:

$$\mathbf{L}_{27\times1} = \mathbf{A}_{27\times3} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{3\times1}$$

27 observations, 3 unknowns



- Mayer's adjustment strategy:
  - Distribute observations in 3 groups
  - Sum up the equations within each group
  - Solve the 3 × 3 system

### Euler's attempt (1749)

- ► Leonhard Euler (1707-1783, Swiss mathematician and physicist)
- Orbital motion of Saturn under influence of Jupiter
- ▶ Prize (1748) of the Academy of Science, Paris
- ▶ 75 observations from the years 1582-1745, 6 unknowns
- → Euler could not solve the problem



#### Laplace's attempt (ca. 1787)

- ▶ Pierre-Simon Laplace (1749-1827, French mathematician and astronomer)
- ► Motion of Saturn
- ▶ Best data: 24 observations, reformulated: 4 unknowns
- ► Approach: Like Mayer but other combinations



### Method of least deviations (1760)

- ► Roger Boscovich (1711-1787, Croatian Jesuit, mathematician and physicist)
- ► Ellipticity of the earth
- ▶ 5 observations (Quito, Cape Town, Rome, Paris, Lapland), 2 unknowns
- First attempt:

• All 
$$\binom{5}{2} = \frac{5!}{2!(5-2)!} = \frac{5\cdot 4\cdot 3\cdot 2\cdot 1}{2\cdot 1\cdot 3\cdot 2\cdot 1} = 10$$
 combinations with 2 observations each



- First attempt [cont.]:
  - 10 systems of equations  $(2 \times 2) \rightarrow 10$  solutions, comparison of results
  - His result shows gross variations of ellipticity  $\rightarrow$  reject ellipsoidal hypothesis
- Second attempt:
  - Mean deviation (or sum of deviations) should be zero

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i = 0$$

and sum of absolute deviations should be minimum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_i| \to \min$$

 $\rightarrow$  This is an objective adjustment criterion, known (today) as  $L_1$ -norm estimation: Detection of outliers (blunders)



#### Method of least squares (ca. 1805)

- ► Adrien-Marie Legendre (1752-1833)
- ► He published his method of least squares (in French "moindres carrés")
- ► Application: Determination of orbits of comets
- ► After Legendre's publication C.F. Gauss (1777-1855, German mathematician, astronomer, geodesist and physicist) states that he has already developed and used the method of least squares in 1794
- ▶ Today: It is acknowledged that Gauss' claim of priority is very likely valid