# Approximation Beyond Simple Linear Least-Squares

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▶ In linear least squares, we are given n+1 data-points

$$(x_0, f_0), (x_1, f_1), \cdots, (x_i, f_i), \cdots (x_n, f_n).$$

- We seek a function g(x), which approximately fits the data.
- ▶ In general, this g(x) has the form:

$$g(x) = a_0 \phi_0(x) + a_1 \phi_1(x) + \dots + a_m \phi_m(x).$$

For polynomial interpolation,

$$\{\phi_0, \phi_1, ..., \phi_m\} = \{1, x, ..., x^m\}.$$

▶ For the Lorenz function (m = 0),

$$\{\phi_0\} = \left\{\frac{1}{1+x^2}\right\}$$

Setting  $g(x_i) = f_i$  gives us n+1 linear equations of the form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \phi_0(x_0) & \phi_1(x_0) & \phi_2(x_0) & \dots & \phi_m(x_0) \\ \phi_0(x_1) & \phi_1(x_1) & \phi_2(x_1) & \dots & \phi_m(x_1) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \phi_0(x_n) & \phi_1(x_n) & \phi_2(x_n) & \dots & \phi_m(x_n) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \dots \\ a_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_0 \\ f_1 \\ \dots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$$

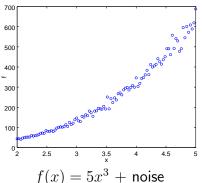
This can be written as Aa = f, where  $A = A(\{x_i\})$ .

The least-squares solution is obtained by solving the m+1 normal equations:

$$A^{T}A\hat{a} = A^{T}f$$

Sometimes, we can rephrase a problem and use linear least squares in situations where it may not necessarily be the obvious choice.

► Consider fitting a function  $g(x) = a_0 x^{a_1}$  to datapoints  $\{x_i, f_i\}$  as shown in the figure below.



- ▶ Note that I cannot write  $g(x) = a_0\phi_0(x) + a_1\phi_1(x)$ .
- ► I cannot formulate it as a LLS (linear least squares) problem.

However, consider a simple logarithmic transformation applied to the data:

$$X_i = \log x_i, \quad F_i = \log f_i,$$

and the function

$$G(X) = \log g(x)$$

$$= \log(a_0 x^{a_1})$$

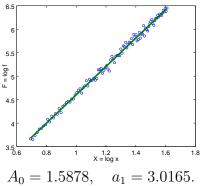
$$= \log(a_0) + a_1 \log x$$

$$= A_0 + a_1 X$$

where  $A_0 = \log(a_0)$ .

▶ In this rephrased problem, we have data  $\{X_i, F_i\}$ , and fitting function G(X) which is linear in the parameters  $A_0$  and  $a_1$ .

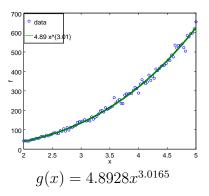
We can solve the LLS problem and get:



 $A_0 = 1.3676, \quad a_1 = 3.0103.$ 

Therefore  $a_0 = \exp(A_0) = 4.8928$ .

Finally, plotting, the original data and the fitting equation



#### Nonlinear Least Squares

Many fitting functions are nonlinear, and they cannot be transformed to construct a LLS problem

Some simple examples:

(i) 
$$g(x) = a_0 x^{a_1} + a_2$$
  
(ii)  $g(x) = a_0 x^{a_1} + a_2 x^{a_3}$   
(iii)  $g(x) = a_0 \sin(a_1 x + a_2)$   
(iv)  $g(x) = a_0 \exp(a_1 x) + a_2 \exp(a_3 x)$ 

In such cases, we have to solve the full nonlinear LS problem.

#### Nonlinear Least Squares

We go back to basics; recall that the "residual" corresponding to the  $i^{\rm th}$  data-point/equation is

$$r_i(x_i, \mathbf{a}) = g(x_i, \mathbf{a}) - f_i$$

The squared error is the sum of the squares of all the n+1 residuals:

$$\epsilon^{2}(\mathbf{a}) = ||\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{a})||_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n} r_{i}^{2}(x_{i}, \mathbf{a})$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n} (g(x_{i}, \mathbf{a}) - f_{i})^{2}$$

#### Nonlinear Least Squares

In principle, since we can pose the problem of minimizing  $\epsilon^2(\mathbf{a})$  as a multidimensional optimization problem.

The "multiple" dimensions come from the m+1 components of a.

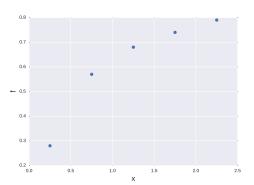
We may then be able to use Newton's method, BFGS, conjugate gradient, or any such method.

In general, nonlinear LS (NLLS) problems are "harder" than LLS; multiple optima exist, and iterative solutions are required.

Let us consider a concrete example:

Consider fitting a function  $g(x; a_0, a_1) = a_0(1 - e^{-a_1 x})$  to the data:

X	0.25	0.75	1.25	1.75	2.25
f	0.28	0.57	0.68	0.74	0.79



Note that  $g(x, \mathbf{a})$  is nonlinear in  $\mathbf{a}$ ; we cannot write it out as  $g(x, \mathbf{a}) = a_0 \phi_0(x) + a_1 \phi_1(x)$ .

In this problem, we have  $n+1=5\ {\rm data\text{-}points/equations},$  and  $m+1=2\ {\rm fitting\ parameters}$ 

The residuals are:

$$r_i(x_i, \mathbf{a}) = g(x_i, \mathbf{a}) - f_i$$
  
 $r_i(a_0, a_1) = a_0(1 - e^{-a_1 x_i}) - f_i, \quad i = 0, ..., 4$ 

The squared error is:

$$\epsilon^2(a_0, a_1) = \sum_{i=0}^4 r_i^2(a_0, a_1).$$

Let us use BFGS to minimize  $\epsilon^2(a_0, a_1)$ , with an initial guess of  $a_0 = a_1 = 1$ .

We need to derive an expression for the gradient of  $\epsilon^2(a_0, a_1)$ :

$$\nabla \epsilon^2(a_0, a_1) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \epsilon^2}{\partial a_0} \\ \frac{\partial \epsilon^2}{\partial a_1} \end{bmatrix}$$

For k = 0 and k = 1, we have

$$\frac{\partial \epsilon^2}{\partial a_k} = \sum_{i=0}^4 \frac{\partial r_i^2}{\partial a_k}$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^4 2r_i \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial g} \frac{\partial g}{\partial a_k}$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^4 2r_i \frac{\partial g(x_i, \mathbf{a})}{\partial a_k}$$

Thus, we need the derivatives of  $g(x_i, \mathbf{a})$  with respect to  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ .

$$\frac{\partial g(x_i, \mathbf{a})}{\partial a_0} = 1 - e^{-a_1 x_i},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial g(x_i, \mathbf{a})}{\partial a_1} = a_0 x e^{-a_1 x_i}$$

We can now assemble all of these parts into our BFGS program.

#### Matlab Code:

end

The function  $\epsilon^2(\mathbf{a})$  is the sum of the squared residuals

```
% epsilon2 = sum of residual squares
function Z = f(a)
  x = [0.25 \ 0.75 \ 1.25 \ 1.75 \ 2.25];
  f = [0.28 \ 0.57 \ 0.68 \ 0.74 \ 0.79];
  Z = 0.;
  for i = 1:numel(x)
    gi = a(1) * (1 - exp(-a(2)*x(i)));
    ri = gi - f(i);
    Z = Z + ri * ri;
  end
```

#### Matlab Code:

The gradient of the function  $\epsilon^2(\mathbf{a})$ .

```
% gradient(epsilon2)
function Z = gradf(a)
  x = [0.25 \ 0.75 \ 1.25 \ 1.75 \ 2.25]:
  f = [0.28 \ 0.57 \ 0.68 \ 0.74 \ 0.79]:
  Z = [0.:0.]:
  for i = 1:numel(x)
    gi = a(1) * (1 - exp(-a(2)*x(i)));
    ri = gi - f(i);
    dgida1 = 1 - exp(-a(2)*x(i));
    dgida2 = a(1)*x(i)*exp(-a(2)*x(i));
    Z = Z + 2 * ri * [dgida1; dgida2];
  end
```

### Matlab Code: Calling Routine

Using the old BFGS function, without any changes.

```
% BFGS: use as [x f n] = bfqs_nlls([1;1], 1e-3);
function [xopt fopt nopt] = bfgs_nlls(x0, tol)
 x = x0; n = length(x);
 B = eve(n); k = 0;
 while(norm(gradf(x)) > tol) % Need to make gradf ~ 0
   df
        = gradf(x);
   s = B \setminus (-df);
   x = x + s;
   y = gradf(x) - df;
       = B + (y*y')/(y'*s) - (B*s*s'*B)/(s'*B*s);
   k = k + 1;
 end
 xopt = x; fopt = f(x); nopt = k;
end
```

With an initial guess of [1; 1] tolerance of  $10^{-3}$ :

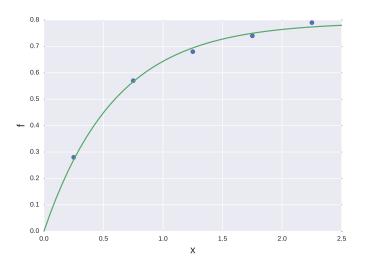
We get the final solution as:

$$\mathbf{a}^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7919 \\ 1.6751 \end{bmatrix}$$

after 10 iterations.

The least squared error is  $\epsilon^2(\mathbf{a}^*) = 6.62 \times 10^{-4}$ 

# **Example Solution**



## Perspective

- For nonlinear least squares, there are specialized algorithms like Gauss-Newton and Levenberg-Marquardt
- lacktriangle These algorithms exploit the form of the function  $\epsilon^2({f a})$
- ▶ They linearize  $r_i(\mathbf{a})$ , which leads to a linear LS problem during each iteration
- ► For linear LS, we said, solve the normal equations,

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{f}.$$

- ► If A is ill-conditioned to begin with, multiplying by A<sup>T</sup> can make the problem worse off
- Such problems are typically solved by QR factorization, or some variant thereof.