

The background of the slide features a complex pattern of blue lines and arrows. Solid blue lines intersect at various angles, while dashed blue lines form loops and curves. Small blue circles and arrows are scattered throughout, some pointing in different directions, creating a sense of movement and technical precision.

Optimal Estimation Methods

(Lecture 4 – Sequential Estimation and Nonlinear Least Squares)

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- For reasons seen later we want to show that the weight W can always be diagonalized in weighted least squares

- Take eigenvalue/eigenvector decomposition (remember W is a symmetric matrix)

$$W = V \Lambda V^T$$

*eigenvector
matrix*

diag(eigenvalues)

*later
constrained
to be + definite*

- Substitute this into the weighted least squares loss function

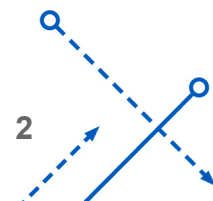
$$J = \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - H \hat{\mathbf{x}})^T V \Lambda V^T (\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - H \hat{\mathbf{x}})$$

- Define new variables

$$\tilde{\mathbf{z}} \equiv V^T \tilde{\mathbf{y}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{H} \equiv V^T H$$

- Loss function becomes

$$J = \frac{1}{2} (\tilde{\mathbf{z}} - \mathcal{H} \hat{\mathbf{x}})^T \Lambda (\tilde{\mathbf{z}} - \mathcal{H} \hat{\mathbf{x}})$$



- Note that the weight is now diagonal
- Minimizing the loss function leads to

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathcal{H}^T \Lambda \mathcal{H})^{-1} \mathcal{H}^T \Lambda \tilde{\mathbf{z}}$$

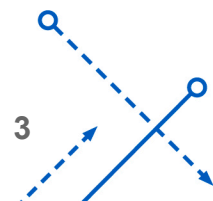
- Solution is identical to original weighted least squares solution
 - Substitute new variables to prove this

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{x}} &= (\mathcal{H}^T \Lambda \mathcal{H})^{-1} \mathcal{H}^T \Lambda \tilde{\mathbf{z}} \\ &= (H^T V \Lambda V^T H)^{-1} H^T V \Lambda V^T \tilde{\mathbf{y}} \end{aligned}$$

- Using $W = V \Lambda V^T$ now gives

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (H^T W H)^{-1} H^T W \tilde{\mathbf{y}}$$

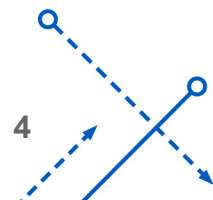
- So in general we can assume that W is always diagonal without loss in generality



- In standard least squares an implicit assumption is present, namely, that all measurements are available for simultaneous (“batch”) processing
 - In numerous real-world applications, the measurements may become available sequentially in subsets and, immediately upon receipt of a new data subset, it may be desirable to determine new estimates based upon all previous measurements (including the current subset)
 - Employ a sequential process instead of previous batch process in least squares solution
 - To simplify the initial discussion, consider two measurement sets

$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 = [\tilde{y}_{11} \quad \tilde{y}_{12} \quad \cdots \quad \tilde{y}_{1m_1}]^T = \text{an } m_1 \times 1 \text{ vector of measurements}$

$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2 = [\tilde{y}_{21} \quad \tilde{y}_{22} \quad \cdots \quad \tilde{y}_{2m_2}]^T = \text{an } m_2 \times 1 \text{ vector of measurements}$



- The associated observation equations are given by

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 = H_1 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_1$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2 = H_2 \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_2$$

where

H_1 = an $m_1 \times n$ known coefficient matrix of maximum rank $n \leq m_1$

H_2 = an $m_2 \times n$ known coefficient matrix

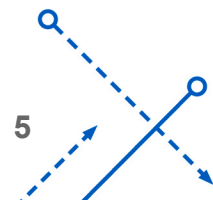
$\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ = vectors of measurement errors

\mathbf{x} = the $n \times 1$ vector of unknown parameters

- Least squares estimate from first measurement set

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 = (H_1^T W_1 H_1)^{-1} H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1$$

where W_1 is an $m_1 \times m_1$ symmetric, positive definite matrix



- It is possible to consider both measurement subsets simultaneously and determine an estimate based upon both measurement subsets
- Consider the following merged form

where

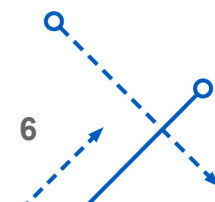
$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = H\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 \\ \dots \\ \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \begin{bmatrix} H_1 \\ \dots \\ H_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Assume a block diagonal structure for weighting matrix

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} W_1 & \vdots & 0 \\ \dots & & \dots \\ 0 & \vdots & W_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- As shown before we can always assume it's diagonal if needed



- Solution based on all measurements is denoted by $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2 = (H^T W H)^{-1} H^T W \tilde{\mathbf{y}} \quad (\text{Based on all measurements})$$

- Note that this is equivalent to $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ in standard squares
 - Does not use only the second measurement set (careful here)
- Goal is to find $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2$ based on $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_1$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2$ only
- Because of block structure in W , we have

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2 = [H_1^T W_1 H_1 + H_2^T W_2 H_2]^{-1} (H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 + H_2^T W_2 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2)$$

- Define the following

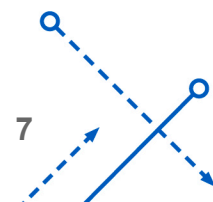
$$P_1 \equiv [H_1^T W_1 H_1]^{-1}$$

$$P_2 \equiv [H_1^T W_1 H_1 + H_2^T W_2 H_2]^{-1}$$

- Then we have (assuming inverses exist)

$$P_2^{-1} = P_1^{-1} + H_2^T W_2 H_2, \quad (1) \quad \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 = P_1 H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 \quad (2)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2 = P_2 (H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 + H_2^T W_2 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2) \quad (3)$$



- Pre-multiply Eq. (2) by the inverse of P_1

$$P_1^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 = H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1$$

- From Eq. (1) we have $P_1^{-1} = P_2^{-1} - H_2^T W_2 H_2$
- Substituting this into the previous equation gives

$$H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 = P_2^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 - H_2^T W_2 H_2 \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1$$

- Substituting this expression into Eq. (3) yields

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_2 = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 + K_2(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_2 - H_2 \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1)$$

where

$$K_2 \equiv P_2 H_2^T W_2$$

↖ Current
measure
↖ Previous
estimate

- Note that we have now achieved our goal of having the estimate at the second “time” be only a function of the previous “time” estimate and current “time” measurement

- We now have a mechanism to sequentially provide an updated estimate based upon the previous estimate and associated side calculations
- We can easily generalize these equations to use the k^{th} estimate to determine the estimate at $k + 1$ from the $k + 1$ subset of measurements
- General form is given by

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k + K_{k+1}(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{k+1} - H_{k+1}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k)$$

$$K_{k+1} = P_{k+1}H_{k+1}^T W_{k+1}$$

$$P_{k+1}^{-1} = P_k^{-1} + H_{k+1}^T W_{k+1} H_{k+1}$$

“Kalman
Gain Matrix”

- Update equation is known as Kalman update equation
 - We will see this update form again later!
- Specific form for P_{k+1}^{-1} is known as the information matrix recursion
 - Must invert an $n \times n$ matrix at each time step

- The current approach for computing P_{k+1} involves computing its inverse, which offers no advantage over inverting the normal equations in their original batch processing
 - This is due to the fact that an $n \times n$ inverse must still be performed
 - Is there a more judicious form? The answer is yes
- Using the matrix inversion lemma

$$[A + B C D]^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1} B (D A^{-1} B + C^{-1})^{-1} D A^{-1}$$

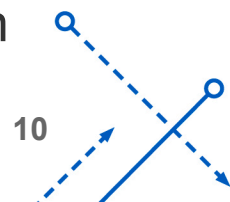
with

$$A = P_k^{-1}, \quad B = H_{k+1}^T, \quad C = W_{k+1}, \quad D = H_{k+1}$$

leads to

$$P_{k+1} = P_k - P_k H_{k+1}^T \underbrace{(H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1})^{-1}}_{\text{Same size of } \tilde{\Sigma}_{k+1}} H_{k+1} P_k \quad (4)$$

- The matrix inverse is now the size of the dimension of the measurement subset, which is often much less than n
 - This usually significantly saves on the computations even though two inverses are required



- The Kalman gain can also be rearranged in several alternate forms
- One of the more common is obtained by substituting Eq. (4) into the Kalman gain equation $K_{k+1} = P_{k+1} H_{k+1}^T W_{k+1}$ to give

$$\begin{aligned} K_{k+1} &= \left[P_k - P_k H_{k+1}^T (H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1})^{-1} H_{k+1} P_k \right] H_{k+1}^T W_{k+1} \\ &= P_k H_{k+1}^T \left[I - (H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1})^{-1} H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T \right] W_{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

- Now, factoring $(H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1})^{-1}$ outside of the square brackets leads directly to

$$K_{k+1} = P_k H_{k+1}^T (H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1})^{-1} [W_{k+1}^{-1} + \cancel{H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T} - \cancel{H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T}] W_{k+1}$$

- Leads simply to

$$K_{k+1} = P_k H_{k+1}^T [H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1}]^{-1}$$

- Now have the covariance recursion form

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k + K_{k+1}(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{k+1} - H_{k+1}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k)$$

$$K_{k+1} = P_k H_{k+1}^T [H_{k+1} P_k H_{k+1}^T + W_{k+1}^{-1}]^{-1}$$

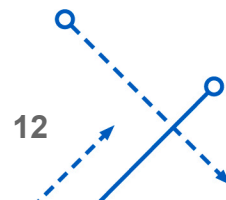
$$P_{k+1} = [I - K_{k+1} H_{k+1}] P_k$$

- Requires inverse of the size of current measurement
 - Usually much smaller than n
- Must initialize both the estimate and P
 - Can use a small batch of n measurements, or can use the following

$$P_1 = \left[\frac{1}{\alpha^2} I + H_1^T W_1 H_1 \right]^{-1}, \quad \hat{\mathbf{x}}_1 = P_1 \left[\frac{1}{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\beta} + H_1^T W_1 \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_1 \right]$$

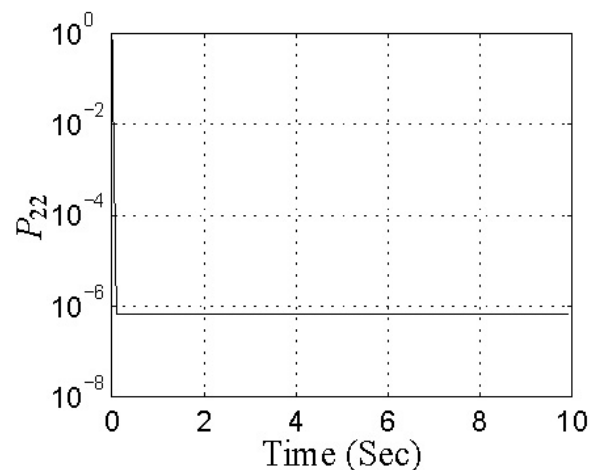
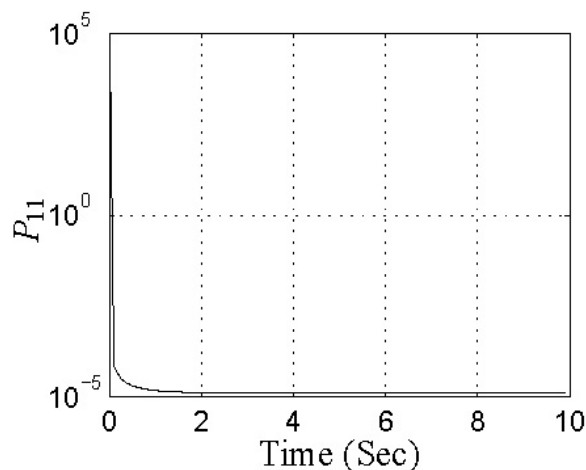
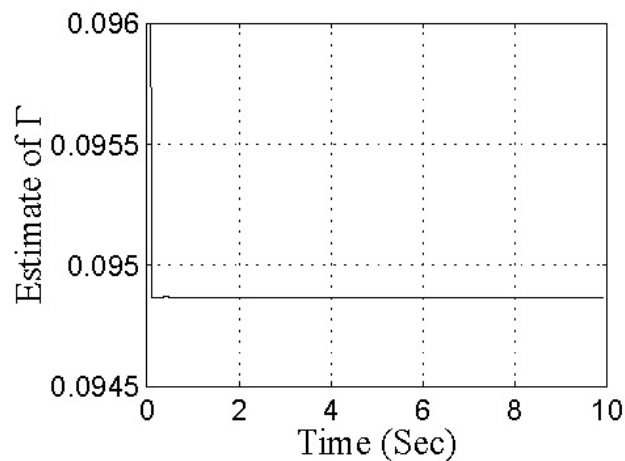
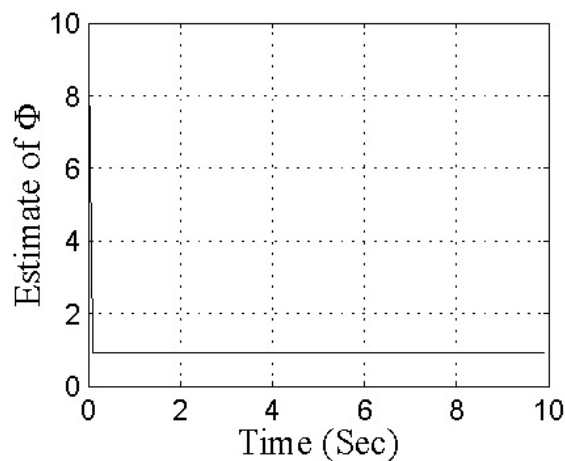
where α is a very “large” number and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is a vector of “small” numbers

- It can be shown that the estimate at the last point of the sequential process is equal to the batch solution



- Use previous state-space model example

Do batch & sequential. Then do same with polynomial example.



- Estimates converge to batch solution at last point



```
% Get Truth and Measurements
dt=0.1;tf=10;
t=[0:dt:tf];
m=length(t);
a=-1;b=1;c=1;d=0;u=[100;zeros(m-1,1)];
[ad,bd]=c2d(a,b,dt);
y=dlsim(ad,bd,c,d,u);
ym=y+0.08*randn(m,1);

% Weight and H Matrix
w=inv(0.08^2);
h=[ym(1:m-1) u(1:m-1)];
```

% Initial Conditions for Sequential Algorithm

alpha=1e3;

beta=[1e-2;1e-2];

p0=inv(1/alpha/alpha*eye(2)+h(1,:)'*w*h(1,:));

x0=p0*(1/alpha*beta+h(1,:)'*w*ym(2));

% Sequential Least Squares

xr=zeros(m-1,2);xr(1,:)=x0';

p=zeros(m-1,2);p(1,:)=diag(p0)';pp=p0;

for i=1:m-2;

k=pp*h(i+1,:)'*inv(h(i+1,:)*pp*h(i+1,:)+inv(w));

pp=(eye(2)-k*h(i+1,:))*pp;

xr(i+1,:)=xr(i,:)+(k*(ym(i+2)-h(i+1,:)*xr(i,:)))'; % need y_{k+2} measurement

p(i+1,:)=diag(pp)';

end

- Many systems involve nonlinearities of the form

$$\tilde{y} = f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{v}$$

- Estimate and residual are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y} &= f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \\ \mathbf{e} &= \tilde{y} - \hat{y} \equiv \Delta y \end{aligned}, \quad \tilde{y} = f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) + \mathbf{e}$$

- Seek to find $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ that minimizes

Linearize $f(\mathbf{x})$

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{e}^T W \mathbf{e} = \frac{1}{2} [\tilde{y} - f(\hat{\mathbf{x}})]^T W [\tilde{y} - f(\hat{\mathbf{x}})]$$

- Simple solution only given in special cases
- Must use an iterative approach in general
 - Nonlinear least squares is such an approach
 - Others too, like gradient method

- Let's say that the estimate is given by some current value plus a correction

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_c + \Delta \mathbf{x}$$

- Say that the correction is small, and now we linearize the nonlinear function about the current value using a first-order Taylor series expansion

$$\mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \approx \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_c) + H \Delta \mathbf{x}, \quad H \equiv \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{x}_c}$$

n x n

- Measurement residual “after the correction” can be linearly approximated now

$$\Delta \mathbf{y} \equiv \tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \approx \tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_c) - H \Delta \mathbf{x} = \Delta \mathbf{y}_c - H \Delta \mathbf{x}$$

where the residual “before the correction” is

$$\Delta \mathbf{y}_c \equiv \tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_c)$$



- Now suppose we wish to determine the correction term, which can be done using linear least squares now
- We now minimize

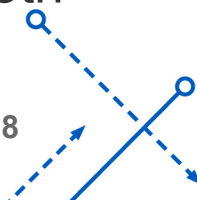
$$J = \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{y}^T W \Delta \mathbf{y} \equiv \frac{1}{2} (\Delta \mathbf{y}_c - H \Delta \mathbf{x})^T W (\Delta \mathbf{y}_c - H \Delta \mathbf{x})$$

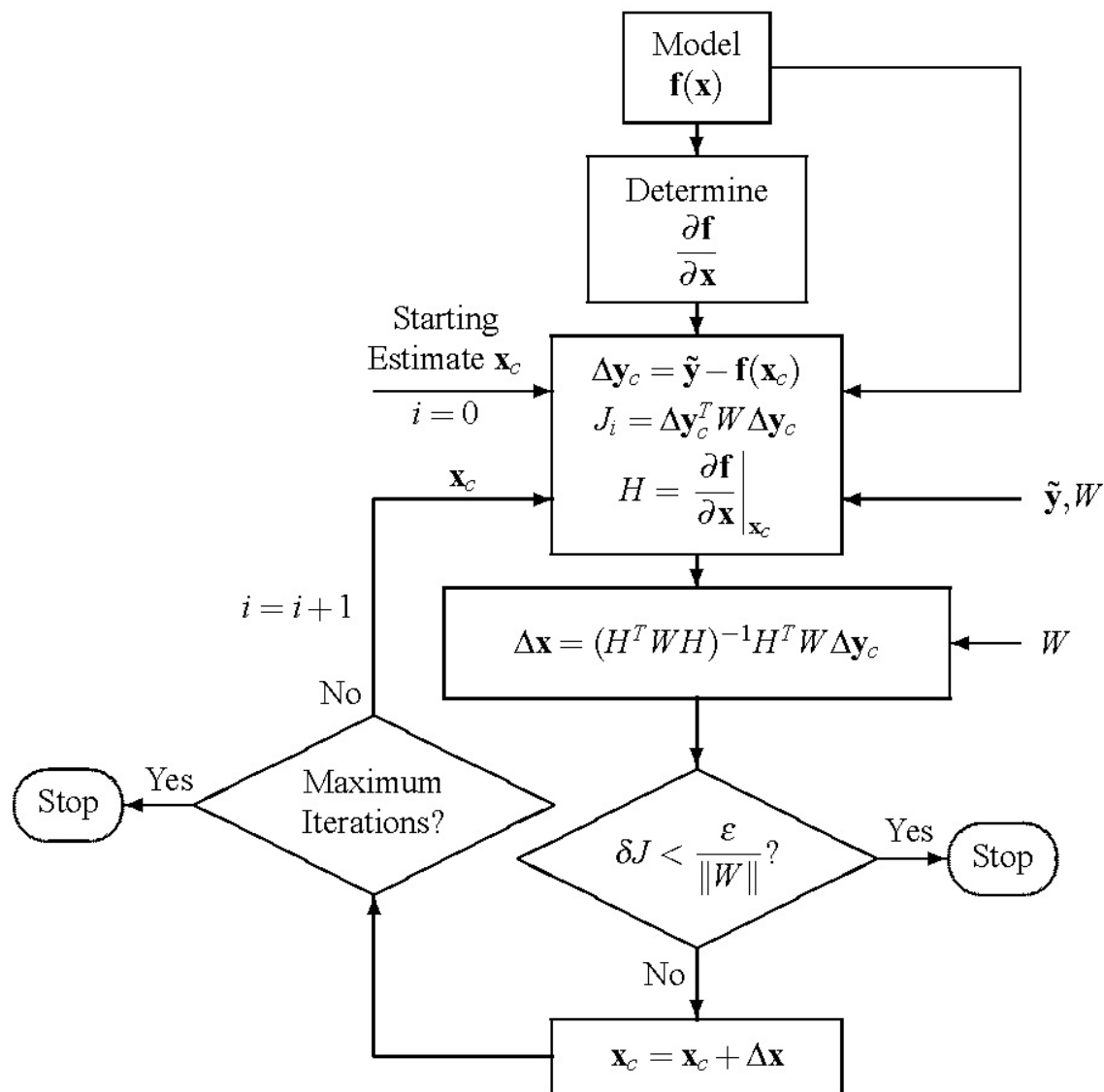
- Solution is given by

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = (H^T W H)^{-1} H^T W \Delta \mathbf{y}_c$$

- Notes

- Same conditions apply for matrix inverse to exist
- Solution converges rapidly if initial guess is good
- May diverge quickly if initial guess is not good
- Gradient solution has “opposite” effect
- Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm combines good features of both
 - Start with LM and transition to NLS as solution converges





$$\delta J \equiv \frac{|J_i - J_{i-1}|}{J_i} < \frac{\varepsilon}{\|W\|}$$



- Simple case

$$y = x^3 + 6x^2 + 11x + 6 = 0, \quad \mathbf{y} = y = 0$$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = f(x) = x^3 + 6x^2 + 11x + 6$$

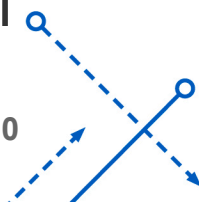
- Correction becomes (Newton root solver)

$$x = x_c - \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{x_c} \right]^{-1} f(x_c)$$

iteration	x	x	x
0	0.0000	-1.6000	-5.0000
1	-0.5455	-2.2462	-4.0769
2	-0.8490	-1.9635	-3.5006
3	-0.9747	-2.0001	-3.1742
4	-0.9991	-2.0000	-3.0324
5	-1.0000	-2.0000	-3.0015
6	-1.0000	-2.0000	-3.0000
7	-1.0000	-2.0000	-3.0000

Started iterations
using three distinct
initial guesses

Converges to the
three roots of
equation



- Consider previous discrete-time state model, but now wish to determine continuous-time parameters

$$y_{k+1} = [e^{a\Delta t}] y_k + \left[\frac{b}{a}(e^{a\Delta t} - 1) \right] u_k$$

- Must use nonlinear least squares approach now

$$\mathbf{x} = [a \quad b]^T$$

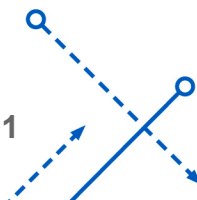
$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}} = [\tilde{y}_2 \quad \tilde{y}_3 \quad \cdots \quad \tilde{y}_{101}]^T$$

$$f_k = [e^{a\Delta t}] y_k + \left[\frac{b}{a}(e^{a\Delta t} - 1) \right] u_k$$

- Partials

$$\frac{\partial f_k}{\partial a} = \Delta t [e^{a\Delta t}] y_k + \left[\frac{b}{a^2}(1 - e^{a\Delta t}) + \frac{b}{a}\Delta t e^{a\Delta t} \right] u_k$$

$$\frac{\partial f_k}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{a}(e^{a\Delta t} - 1)u_k$$



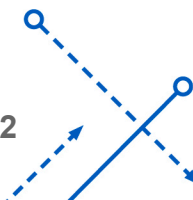
- The matrix H is given by

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta t [e^{a\Delta t}] \tilde{y}_1 + [\frac{b}{a^2}(1 - e^{a\Delta t}) + \frac{b}{a}\Delta t e^{a\Delta t}] u_1 & \frac{1}{a}(e^{a\Delta t} - 1)u_1 \\ \Delta t [e^{a\Delta t}] \tilde{y}_2 + [\frac{b}{a^2}(1 - e^{a\Delta t}) + \frac{b}{a}\Delta t e^{a\Delta t}] u_2 & \frac{1}{a}(e^{a\Delta t} - 1)u_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \Delta t [e^{a\Delta t}] \tilde{y}_{100} + [\frac{b}{a^2}(1 - e^{a\Delta t}) + \frac{b}{a}\Delta t e^{a\Delta t}] u_{100} & \frac{1}{a}(e^{a\Delta t} - 1)u_{100} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Iterations, starting at 5 and 5

iteration	\hat{a}	\hat{b}
0	5.0000	5.0000
1	0.4876	1.9540
2	-0.8954	1.0634
3	-1.0003	0.9988
4	-1.0009	0.9985
5	-1.0009	0.9985
6	-1.0009	0.9985

True values are given by -1 and 1 , so good performance is given

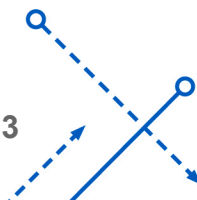


% Get Truth and Measurements

```
dt=0.1;tf=10;
t=[0:dt:tf];
m=length(t);
a=-1;b=1;c=1;d=0;u=[100;zeros(m-1,1)];
[ad,bd]=c2d(a,b,dt);
y=dlsim(ad,bd,c,d,u);
ym=y+0.08*randn(m,1);
w=inv(0.08^2);
```

% Initialize Variables

```
h=[ym(1:m-1) u(1:m-1)];
clear xe
xe(1,:)= [5 5];
xx=100000;
```



% Nonlinear Least Squares

i=1;

while norm(xx) > 1e-8

if i > 50, break; end

aa=xe(i,1);bb=xe(i,2);

ea=exp(aa*dt);

h=[dt*ym(1:m-1)*ea+(bb/aa^2*(1-ea)+bb/aa*dt*ea)*u(1:m-1) 1/aa*(ea-1)*u(1:m-1)];

xx=inv(h'*w*h)*h'*w*(ym(2:m)-ym(1:m-1)*ea-bb/aa*(ea-1)*u(1:m-1));

xe(i+1,:)=xe(i,:)+xx';

i=i+1;

end

iteration_results=xe

disp(' ')

[phie,game]=c2d(xe(i,1),xe(i,2),dt)

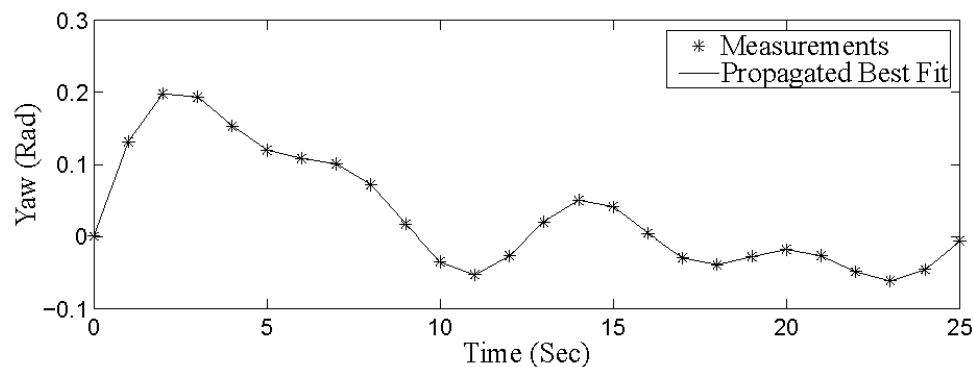
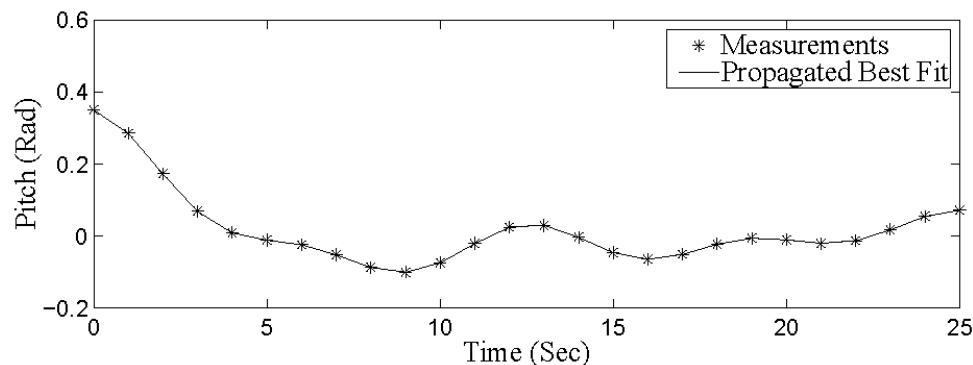
- Under certain approximations, the pitch θ and yaw ψ attitude dynamics of an inertially and aerodynamically symmetric projectile can be modeled via

$$\theta(t) = k_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \cos(\omega_1 t + \delta_1) + k_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} \cos(\omega_2 t + \delta_2) + k_3 e^{\lambda_3 t} \cos(\omega_3 t + \delta_3) + k_4$$

$$\psi(t) = k_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \sin(\omega_1 t + \delta_1) + k_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} \sin(\omega_2 t + \delta_2) + k_3 e^{\lambda_3 t} \sin(\omega_3 t + \delta_3) + k_5$$

where $k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4, k_5, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3$ are 14 constants which can be related to the aerodynamic and mass characteristics of the projectile and to the initial motion conditions

- These constants are often estimated by nonlinear least squares to “best fit” measured pitch and yaw histories modeled by the above equations
- Consider simulated measurements of $\theta(t)$ and $\psi(t)$ with the measurement error generated by using a zero-mean Gaussian noise process with a standard deviation given by $\sigma = 0.0002$
- 52 measurements are sampled at 1 second intervals



Note: starting values are not that far off the true values

Constant Parameter	Start Value	True Value
k_1	0.5000	0.2000
k_2	0.2500	0.1000
k_3	0.1250	0.0500
k_4	0.0000	0.0001
k_5	0.0000	0.0001
λ_1	-0.1500	-0.1000
λ_2	-0.0600	-0.0500
λ_3	-0.0300	-0.0250
ω_1	0.2600	0.2500
ω_2	0.5500	0.5000
ω_3	0.9500	1.0000
δ_1	0.0100	0.0000
δ_2	0.0100	0.0000
δ_3	0.0100	0.0000

- The nonlinear least squares variables are given by

$$\mathbf{x}^{(14 \times 1)} = [k_1 \ k_2 \ k_3 \ k_4 \ k_5 \ \lambda_1 \ \lambda_2 \ \lambda_3 \ \omega_1 \ \omega_2 \ \omega_3 \ \delta_1 \ \delta_2 \ \delta_3]^T$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}^{(52 \times 1)} = [\tilde{\theta}(0) \ \tilde{\psi}(0) \ \tilde{\theta}(1) \ \tilde{\psi}(1) \ \dots \ \tilde{\theta}(25) \ \tilde{\psi}(25)]^T$$

$$H^{(52 \times 14)} = \begin{bmatrix} \left. \frac{\partial \theta(0)}{\partial x_1} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} & \dots & \left. \frac{\partial \theta(0)}{\partial x_{14}} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} \\ \left. \frac{\partial \psi(0)}{\partial x_1} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} & \dots & \left. \frac{\partial \psi(0)}{\partial x_{14}} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \left. \frac{\partial \theta(25)}{\partial x_1} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} & \dots & \left. \frac{\partial \theta(25)}{\partial x_{14}} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} \\ \left. \frac{\partial \psi(25)}{\partial x_1} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} & \dots & \left. \frac{\partial \psi(25)}{\partial x_{14}} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c} \end{bmatrix}, \quad W^{(52 \times 52)} = 10^8 \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & & & 0 \\ & 0.25 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & 0.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

$= (1/0.0002)^2$



- Convergence history

Parameter	Iteration Number					σ
	0	1	2	...	5	
k_1	0.5000	0.1852	0.1975		0.1999	0.0006
k_2	0.2500	0.1075	0.1012		0.0997	0.0005
k_3	0.1250	0.0567	0.0505		0.0500	0.0001
k_4	0.0000	-0.0006	0.0001		0.0002	0.0001
k_5	0.0000	-0.0018	-0.0005		0.0001	0.0001
λ_1	-0.1500	-0.1234	-0.0954		-0.0998	0.0004
λ_2	-0.0600	-0.0661	-0.0585		-0.0497	0.0004
λ_3	-0.0300	-0.0398	-0.0338		-0.0250	0.0002
ω_1	0.2600	0.2490	0.2471		0.2500	0.0004
ω_2	0.5500	0.5300	0.4955		0.4999	0.0004
ω_3	0.9500	0.9697	1.0068		0.9998	0.0002
δ_1	0.0100	0.0344	0.0143		0.0010	0.0031
δ_2	0.0100	-0.0447	0.0051		0.0001	0.0048
δ_3	0.0100	0.0024	-0.0570		-0.0001	0.0024

- Observe the rather dramatic convergence progress shown in the results
- The rightmost column is obtained by taking the square root of the 14 diagonal elements of $(H^T W H)^{-1}$ on the final iteration
 - We prove this interpretation later
 - Note that the convergence errors are comparable in size to the corresponding σ
 - Weighted sum square of residuals at each iteration is given by

Cost	Iteration Number				
	0	1	2	...	5
J	1.08×10^7	2.51×10^5	1.17×10^4		1.93×10^1

- Dramatic convergence is evidenced by the decrease of the weighted sum square of the residuals by six orders of magnitude in five iterations



- Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) algorithm used to overcome the deficiencies of both NLS and the gradient algorithms

linear f

linearization of loss function

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{y}^T W \Delta \mathbf{y} \equiv \frac{1}{2} [\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}})]^T W [\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}})] \quad (1)$$

- Take the gradient with respect to the estimate, evaluated at \mathbf{x}_c

$$\nabla_{\hat{\mathbf{x}}} J|_{\mathbf{x}_c} = -H^T W [\tilde{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_c)] \equiv -H^T W \Delta \mathbf{y}_c$$

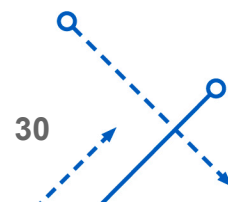
where

$$H \equiv \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right|_{\mathbf{x}_c}$$

- The method of gradients seeks corrections down the gradient

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\frac{1}{\eta} \nabla_{\hat{\mathbf{x}}} J = \frac{1}{\eta} H^T W \Delta \mathbf{y}_c$$

where $1/\eta$ is a scalar which controls the step size



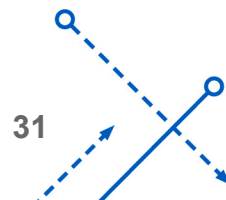
- The LM correction is then given by

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = (H^T W H + \eta \mathcal{H})^{-1} H^T W \Delta \mathbf{y}_c \quad (2)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_c + \Delta \mathbf{x} \quad (3)$$

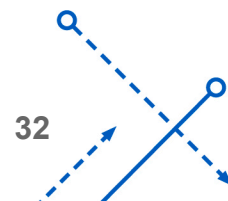
where \mathcal{H} is a diagonal matrix with entries given by the diagonal elements of $H^T W H$ or in some cases simply the identity matrix

- The search direction is an intermediate between the steepest descent and the differential correction direction
- As $\eta \rightarrow 0$ the correction is equivalent to the differential correction method (Non linear least squares)
- As $\eta \rightarrow \infty$ the correction reduces to a steepest descent search along the negative gradient of J (Gradient method)
- Controlling η is a heuristic art form that can be tuned by the user
 - Generally η is large in early iterations and should definitely be reduced toward zero in the region near the minimum



- Typical recipe for implementing the LM algorithm

1. Compute Eq. (1) using an initial estimate for $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$, denoted by \mathbf{x}_c .
2. Use Eqs. (2) and (3) to update the current estimate with a large value for η (usually much larger than the norm of $H^T W H$, typically 10 to 100 times the norm).
3. Recompute Eq. (1) with the new estimate. If the new value for Eq. (1) is \geq the value computed in step 1, then the new estimate is disregarded and η is replaced by $f\eta$, where f is a fixed positive constant, usually between 1 and 10 (we suggest a default of 5). Otherwise, retain the estimate, and replace η with η/f .
4. After each subsequent iteration, compare the new value of Eq. (1) with its value using the previous estimate and replace η with $f\eta$ or η/f as in step 3. The estimate $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is retained if J in Eq. (1) continues to decrease and discarded if Eq. (1) increases.



- Same as last example

- Starting value for λ_1 is set to -0.8500 instead of -0.1500
- For this initial value, the standard least squares solution diverges rapidly with each iteration
- Use the LM algorithm with $\eta = 1 \times 10^6$
- Convergence now occurs

Parameter	Iteration Number				
	0	10	15	...	20
k_1	0.5000	0.3601	0.0844		0.1999
k_2	0.2500	0.1946	0.2099		0.0997
k_3	0.1250	0.0905	0.0620		0.0500
k_4	0.0000	-0.0062	0.0111		0.0002
k_5	0.0000	-0.0047	-0.0004		0.0001
λ_1	-0.8500	-0.7977	-0.0436		-0.0998
λ_2	-0.0600	-0.0760	-0.1270		-0.0497
λ_3	-0.0300	-0.0418	-0.0436		-0.0250
ω_1	0.2600	0.1094	0.1621		0.2500
ω_2	0.5500	0.5505	0.4950		0.4999
ω_3	0.9500	0.9582	0.9874		0.9998
δ_1	0.0100	0.0060	0.5068		0.0010
δ_2	0.0100	-0.1234	-0.3482		0.0001
δ_3	0.0100	0.1225	0.1918		-0.0001
η	10^6	0.5120	0.0041		

% True Values

```
k1=0.2;k2=0.1;k3=0.05;k4=0.0001;k5=0.0001;
```

```
lam1=-0.1;lam2=-0.05;lam3=-0.025;
```

```
w1=0.25;w2=0.5;w3=1.0;
```

```
d1=0;d2=0;d3=0;
```

% Measurements

```
t=[0:1:25]';m=length(t);
```

```
theta=k1*exp(lam1*t).*cos(w1*t+d1)+k2*exp(lam2*t).*cos(w2*t+d2) ...  
+k3*exp(lam3*t).*cos(w3*t+d3)+k4;
```

```
psi=k1*exp(lam1*t).*sin(w1*t+d1)+k2*exp(lam2*t).*sin(w2*t+d2) ...  
+k3*exp(lam3*t).*sin(w3*t+d3)+k5;
```

```
thetam=theta+0.0002*randn(m,1);
```

```
psim=psi+0.0002*randn(m,1);
```

```
ym=[thetam;psim];
```

% Factor for Levenberg-Marquardt Algorithm

```
fac=1e6;facc(1)=fac;
```

% Initial Conditions

```
xc=[0.5;0.25;0.125;0;0;-0.85;-0.06;-0.03;0.26;0.55;0.95;0.01;0.01;0.01];
dx=ones(14,1);i=1;clear xe;xe(1,:)=xc';
```

%Levenberg-Marquardt Algorithm

```
while norm(dx)>1e-6,
```

```
i=i+1;if (i > 50), break, end
```

```
k1e=xc(1);k2e=xc(2);k3e=xc(3);k4e=xc(4);k5e=xc(5);
```

```
lam1e=xc(6);lam2e=xc(7);lam3e=xc(8);
```

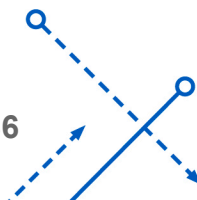
```
w1e=xc(9);w2e=xc(10);w3e=xc(11);
```

```
d1e=xc(12);d2e=xc(13);d3e=xc(14);
```

```
thetae=k1e*exp(lam1e*t).*cos(w1e*t+d1e)+k2e*exp(lam2e*t).*cos(w2e*t+d2e) ...
+k3e*exp(lam3e*t).*cos(w3e*t+d3e)+k4e;
```

```
psie=k1e*exp(lam1e*t).*sin(w1e*t+d1e)+k2e*exp(lam2e*t).*sin(w2e*t+d2e) ...
+k3e*exp(lam3e*t).*sin(w3e*t+d3e)+k5e;
```

```
h=[exp(lam1e*t).*cos(w1e*t+d1e) exp(lam2e*t).*cos(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    exp(lam3e*t).*cos(w3e*t+d3e) ones(m,1) zeros(m,1) ...
    k1e*t.*exp(lam1e*t).*cos(w1e*t+d1e) k2e*t.*exp(lam2e*t).*cos(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    k3e*t.*exp(lam3e*t).*cos(w3e*t+d3e) -k1e*t.*exp(lam1e*t).*sin(w1e*t+d1e) ...
    -k2e*t.*exp(lam2e*t).*sin(w2e*t+d2e) -k3e*t.*exp(lam3e*t).*sin(w3e*t+d3e) ...
    -k1e*t.*exp(lam1e*t).*sin(w1e*t+d1e) -k2e*t.*exp(lam2e*t).*sin(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    -k3e*t.*exp(lam3e*t).*sin(w3e*t+d3e)
    exp(lam1e*t).*sin(w1e*t+d1e) exp(lam2e*t).*sin(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    exp(lam3e*t).*sin(w3e*t+d3e) zeros(m,1) ones(m,1) ...
    k1e*t.*exp(lam1e*t).*sin(w1e*t+d1e) ...
    k2e*t.*exp(lam2e*t).*sin(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    k3e*t.*exp(lam3e*t).*sin(w3e*t+d3e) ...
    k1e*t.*exp(lam1e*t).*cos(w1e*t+d1e) ...
    k2e*t.*exp(lam2e*t).*cos(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    k3e*t.*exp(lam3e*t).*cos(w3e*t+d3e) ...
    k1e*t.*exp(lam1e*t).*cos(w1e*t+d1e) ...
    k2e*t.*exp(lam2e*t).*cos(w2e*t+d2e) ...
    k3e*t.*exp(lam3e*t).*cos(w3e*t+d3e)];
```



```
dy=ym-[thetae;psie];
jold=sum(dy'*dy);
```

```
dx=inv(h'*h + fac*diag(diag(h'*h)))*h'*(ym-[thetae;psie]);
xc=xc+dx;
xe(i,:)=xc';
```

```
k1e=xc(1);k2e=xc(2);k3e=xc(3);k4e=xc(4);k5e=xc(5);
lam1e=xc(6);lam2e=xc(7);lam3e=xc(8);
w1e=xc(9);w2e=xc(10);w3e=xc(11);
d1e=xc(12);d2e=xc(13);d3e=xc(14);
```

```
thetae=k1e*exp(lam1e*t).*cos(w1e*t+d1e)+k2e*exp(lam2e*t).*cos(w2e*t+d2e) ...
+k3e*exp(lam3e*t).*cos(w3e*t+d3e)+k4e;
```

```
psie=k1e*exp(lam1e*t).*sin(w1e*t+d1e)+k2e*exp(lam2e*t).*sin(w2e*t+d2e) ...
+k3e*exp(lam3e*t).*sin(w3e*t+d3e)+k5e;
```

```
dy=ym-[thetae;psie];
jnew=sum(dy'*dy);
```



```
% Update Factor
if jnew < jold
    fac=fac/5;
else
    fac=fac*5;
end

facc(i)=fac;

cost(i)=.25e8*dy'*dy*0.5;

end
```