

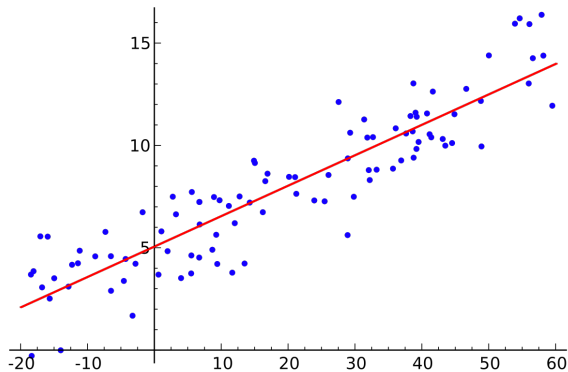


# Lecture 10:

# Least Squares Method

CS 111: Intro to Computational Science  
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Ziad Matni, Ph.D.  
Dept. of Computer Science, UCSB



# Administrative

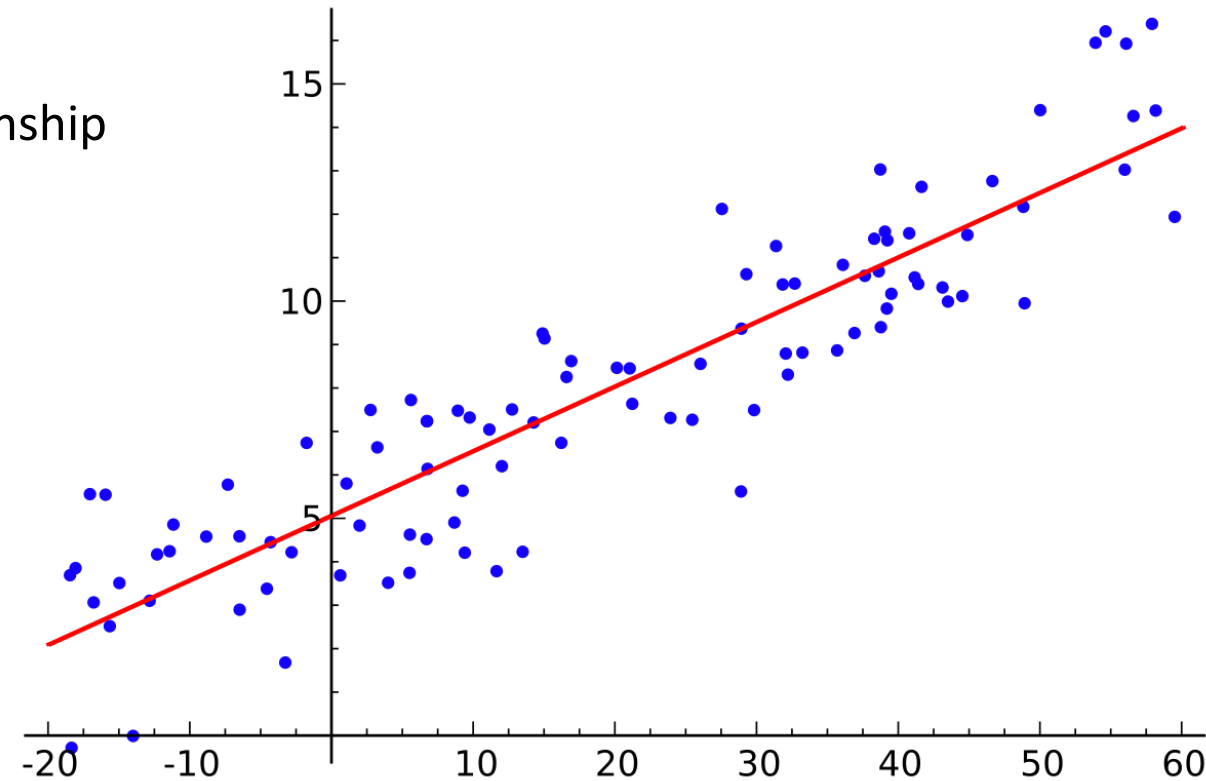
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- New homework due Monday
- Lab tomorrow

# Least Squares Method

A form of mathematical **regression analysis** that finds the **line of best fit** for a **set of data**

- Provides a visual demonstration of the relationship between the data points
- Often we refer to the x-axis as the Independent Variables & y-axis as the Dependent Variables
- Can be used to help forecast data



# Example...

$$Ax \approx b$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 1237 \\ 1941 \\ 2417 \\ 711 \\ 1177 \\ 475 \end{pmatrix}$$

Her survey reveals:

- $x_1 = 1237$  ft.
- $x_2 = 1941$  ft.
- $x_3 = 2417$  ft.

To confirm these, she climbs each

- $x_2 - x_1 = 711$  ft.
- $x_3 - x_1 = 1177$  ft.
- $x_3 - x_2 = 475$  ft.

**This is an  
OVERDETERMINED  
SYSTEM!**

Can we use  
`npla.solve()`  
to find  $x$ ?

# Data Fitting

- Given data points  $(t_i, y_i)$  (where  $i = 1$  to  $m$ )
  - So,  $\mathbf{t}$  is the horizontal axis
- We want to find a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  of parameters that give us the “best fit” to the data by the model function  $f(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x})$  as

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - f(t_i - \mathbf{x}))^2$$

# Data Fitting

- We will assume the model is **linear**  
(i.e. a *linear combination of parameters*), i.e:

$$f(t, x) = x_0 + x_1 t + x_2 t^2 + x_3 t^3 + \dots + x_n t^n$$

Called the  
general linear  
model

- If we think we can fit our data into a model that's a straight-line, then all we need are the **first 2 components,  $x_0$  and  $x_1$**

- So:  $f(t, x) = x_0 + x_1 t$
- This means:  $x_2, x_3, \dots x_n$  are all equal **0**

# Data Fitting

- We will assume the model is **linear**  
(i.e. a *linear combination of parameters*), i.e:

$$f(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}) = x_0 + x_1 \mathbf{t} + x_2 \mathbf{t}^2 + x_3 \mathbf{t}^3 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{t}^n$$

- If instead, we want to fit data into a parabola, then we need the **first 3 components**, etc..

- So: 
$$f(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}) = x_0 + x_1 \mathbf{t} + x_2 \mathbf{t}^2$$

- This means:  $x_3, x_4, \dots x_n$  are all equal **0**

## Revelation!

We can express these kinds of models with a linear system of equations using **matrices**.

# LSQ Method

- We're trying to fit a line  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{t} + \mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{t}^2 + \mathbf{x}_3\mathbf{t}^3 + \dots + \mathbf{x}_n\mathbf{t}^n$  thru a set of points
- Of course, the line is likely to miss some of the points
- These missed points (collectively called *deviations*) can be represented as a sum of squares:

$$R^2 = \sum_{i=0}^n [y_i - f(t_i, x_i)]^2$$

- The idea is to minimize these deviations, so we'll solve for  $\frac{\partial R^2}{\partial x_i} = 0$
- As an example, for a straight line ( $y = x_0 + x_1t$ ) fitting:

$$x_0 = \frac{\bar{y}(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2) - \bar{x}(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2} \quad x_1 = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i) - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2}$$

- Luckily, we can just use a built-in **numpy** function! 😊



# LSQ Setup

**Example:** If you want to fit to a STRAIGHT LINE (i.e. *1<sup>st</sup> order polynomial*):

- You want to fit to the model:

$$f(t, x) = x_0 + x_1 t$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 6 \\ 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 2.9 \\ 2.7 \\ 4.8 \\ 5.3 \\ 7.1 \\ 7.6 \\ 7.7 \\ 8.0 \\ 9.4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Indicates the y-axis values

Indicates the t-axis values

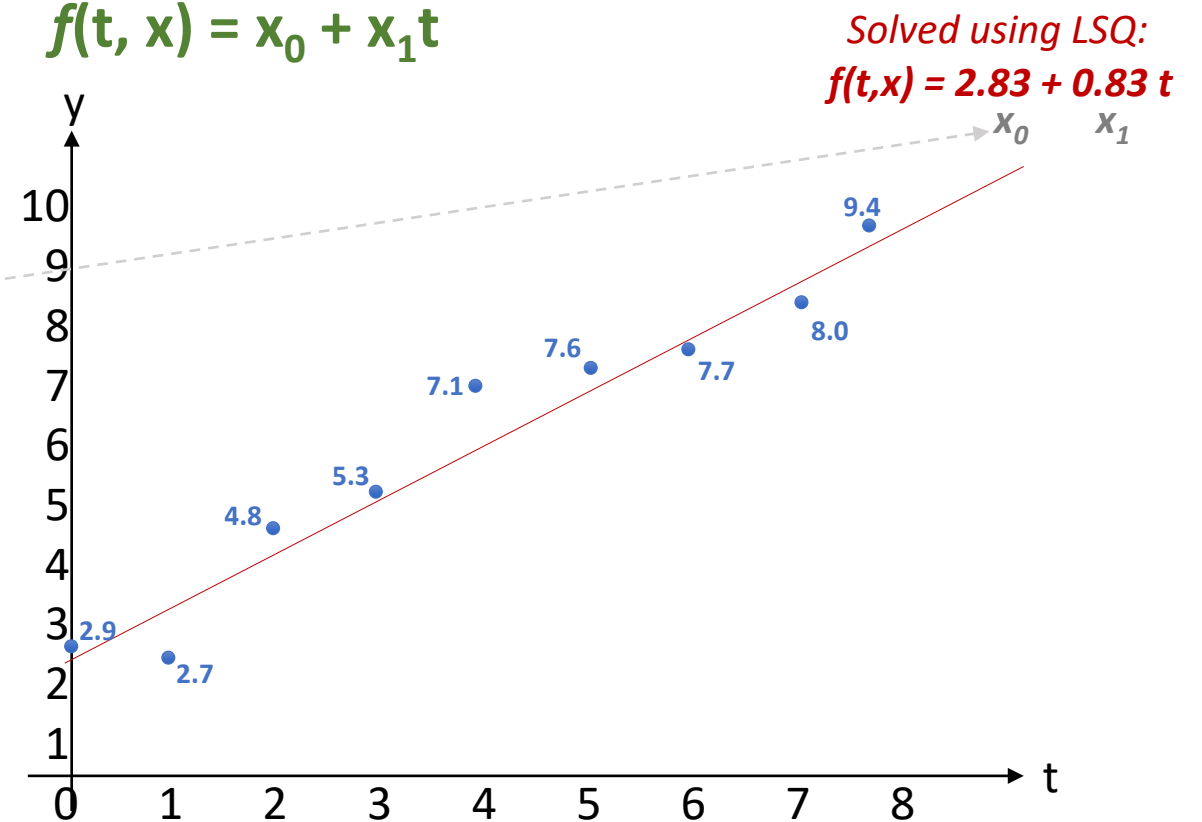
# LSQ Setup

**Example:** If you want to fit to a STRAIGHT LINE (i.e. *1<sup>st</sup> order polynomial*):

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$$f(t, x) = x_0 + x_1 t$$



# Computationally:

**Example:** If you want to fit to a STRAIGHT LINE (i.e. *1<sup>st</sup> order polynomial*):  $f(t, x) = x_0 + x_1 t$

- You create matrix **A** to be 2 columns
  - Column 0 is the number **1** (that's  $t^0$ , the coefficients of  $x_0$ )
  - Column 1 is the number **t** (that's the  $t^1$  coefficients of  $x_1$ )
- You create vector **b** (single column matrix)
  - Contains the observed values (i.e. the data  $\equiv$  the y-axis)
- You run LSQ method (**lstsq()** function) to solve for **x** in  $Ax \approx b$ 
  - You can also get a **residual vector** (same size as **b**)

A:	b:	x:	r:
[ 1.  0.]	2.9		-0.75
[ 1.  1.]	2.7		-1.53
[ 1.  2.]	4.8		-0.00
[ 1.  3.]	5.3		-0.08
[ 1.  4.]	7.1		1.14
[ 1.  5.]	7.6		1.07
[ 1.  6.]	7.7	3.6485	0.59
[ 1.  7.]	7.6	0.5771	-0.09
[ 1.  8.]	9.4		1.13
[ 1.  9.]	9.0		0.16
[ 1. 10.]	9.6		0.18
[ 1. 11.]	10.0		0.00
[ 1. 12.]	10.2		-0.37
[ 1. 13.]	9.7		-1.45

# Solving the LSQ Problem using QR Factorization

Consider:  $A\mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{b}$

$$\rightarrow A^T A \mathbf{x} \approx A^T \mathbf{b}$$

$$\rightarrow (A^T A)^{-1} (A^T A) \mathbf{x} \approx (A^T A)^{-1} (A^T \mathbf{b})$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} \approx (A^T A)^{-1} (A^T \mathbf{b})$$

This is called the “normal equation” and is not always recommended because you cannot guarantee numerical stability (or that  $A$  is non-singular)

# Solving the LSQ Problem using QR Factorization

$$\mathbf{x} \approx (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b})$$

- However, by forming the product  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ , you square the condition number!
- Since  $\text{Cond}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{Cond}(\mathbf{A}^T) \rightarrow \text{Cond}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) = [\text{Cond}(\mathbf{A})]^2$
- So, if you use the QR decomposition on matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , you can get a better least-squares estimate than the Normal Equations in terms of solution quality
  - Let's see how...

# Solving the LSQ Problem using QR Factorization

$$\mathbf{x} \approx (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b})$$

If  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$ , then:

$$\mathbf{x} \approx ((\mathbf{QR})^T (\mathbf{QR}))^{-1} ((\mathbf{QR})^T \mathbf{b})$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} \approx (\cancel{\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{Q}^T} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{R})^{-1} (\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{b}) \quad \text{since } \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} \approx (\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R})^{-1} (\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{b})$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{R}^{-1T} (\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{b})$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{R}^{-1} \cancel{\mathbf{R}^{-1T}} (\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{b}) \quad \text{since } \mathbf{R}^{-1T} \mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{b}$$

# Python Implementation

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- Using `np.linalg.lstsq()`
- OR!! We can also use `np.linalg.qr()`

# Quick! To the Python-mobile!





# Your TO DOs!

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- Finish new assignment by Monday
- Lab tomorrow!

**</LECTURE>**