

CX1104: Linear Algebra for Computing

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{A \quad m \times n} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}}_{x \quad n \times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}}_{b \quad m \times 1}$$

Chap. No : **7.2.1**

Lecture : **Least Squares**

Topic : **Applications to Linear Models**

Concept : **Linear in the parameter Models**

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Fitting a line to data

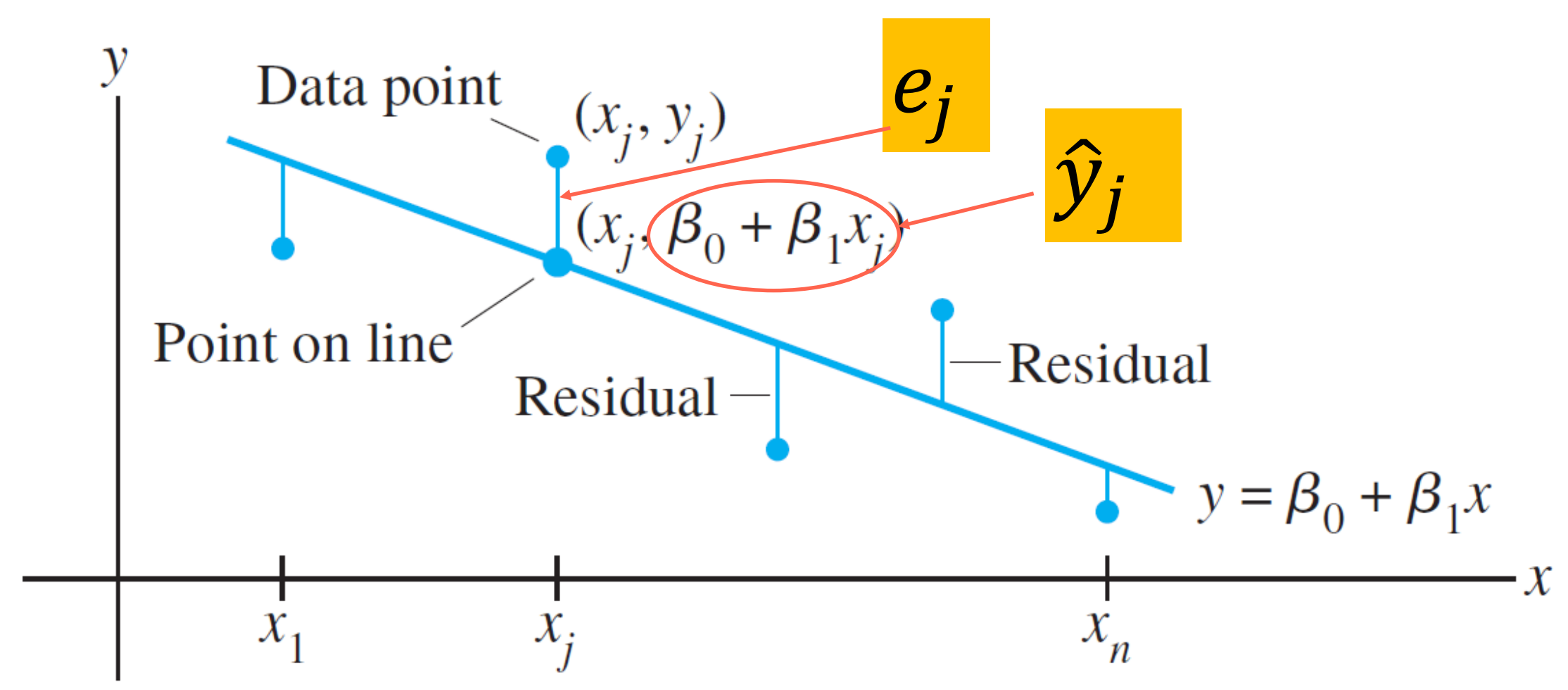


FIGURE 1 Fitting a line to experimental data.

We are given: $\{x_j, y_j\}$ where $j = 1..n$

Example

j	x_i	y_i
1	0.5	9.2
2	1.0	10.4
3	1.5	8.1

Find an equation $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ that describes the table.

Lay 5e, pg 371

Ref: Chasnov: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RIQBEhLhM8Y>

Least-Squares Lines

The simplest relation between two variables x and y is the linear equation $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$.¹ Experimental data often produce points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ that,

¹ This notation is commonly used for least-squares lines instead of $y = mx + b$.

when graphed, seem to lie close to a line. We want to determine the parameters β_0 and β_1 that make the line as “close” to the points as possible.

Suppose β_0 and β_1 are fixed, and consider the line $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ in Figure 1. Corresponding to each data point (x_j, y_j) there is a point $(x_j, \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_j)$ on the line with the same x -coordinate. We call y_j the *observed* value of y and $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_j$ the *predicted* y -value (determined by the line). The difference between an observed y -value and a predicted y -value is called a *residual*.

There are several ways to measure how “close” the line is to the data. The usual choice (primarily because the mathematical calculations are simple) is to add the squares of the residuals. The **least-squares line** is the line $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ that minimizes the sum of the squares of the residuals. This line is also called a **line of regression of y on x** , because any errors in the data are assumed to be only in the y -coordinates. The coefficients β_0, β_1 of the line are called (linear) **regression coefficients**.²

Actual **y** vector

Estimated **y** vector

residual vector ϵ , defined by $\epsilon = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$

$e_j = y_j - \hat{y}_j$, where $\hat{y}_j = \text{estimated } y_j$

Least Squares Solution to linear regression

If the data points were on the line, the parameters β_0 and β_1 would satisfy the equations

Predicted y-value		Observed y-value
$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1$	=	y_1
$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2$	=	y_2
\vdots		\vdots
$\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n$	=	y_n

We can write this system as

$$X\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{y}, \quad \text{where } X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Of course, if the data points don't lie on a line, then there are no parameters β_0, β_1 for which the predicted y-values in $X\boldsymbol{\beta}$ equal the observed y-values in \mathbf{y} , and $X\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{y}$ has no solution. This is a least-squares problem, $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, with different notation!

The square of the distance between the vectors $X\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and \mathbf{y} is precisely the sum of the squares of the residuals. The $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ that minimizes this sum also minimizes the distance between $X\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and \mathbf{y} . *Computing the least-squares solution of $X\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{y}$ is equivalent to finding the $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ that determines the least-squares line in Figure 1.*

Least Squares Solution:

From

$$X\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{y}$$

Then pre-multiply by X^T to get the normal equation,

$$X^T X \boldsymbol{\beta} = X^T \mathbf{y}$$

Then premultiply by $(X^T X)^{-1}$,

$$\begin{aligned} (X^T X)^{-1} (X^T X) \boldsymbol{\beta} &= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y} \\ \boldsymbol{\beta} &= (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$

Example 1

EXAMPLE 1 Find the equation $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ of the least-squares line that best fits the data points $(2, 1)$, $(5, 2)$, $(7, 3)$, and $(8, 3)$.

SOLUTION Use the x -coordinates of the data to build the design matrix X in (1) and the y -coordinates to build the observation vector \mathbf{y} :

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

For the least-squares solution of $X\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{y}$, obtain the normal equations (with the new notation):

$$X^T X \boldsymbol{\beta} = X^T \mathbf{y}$$

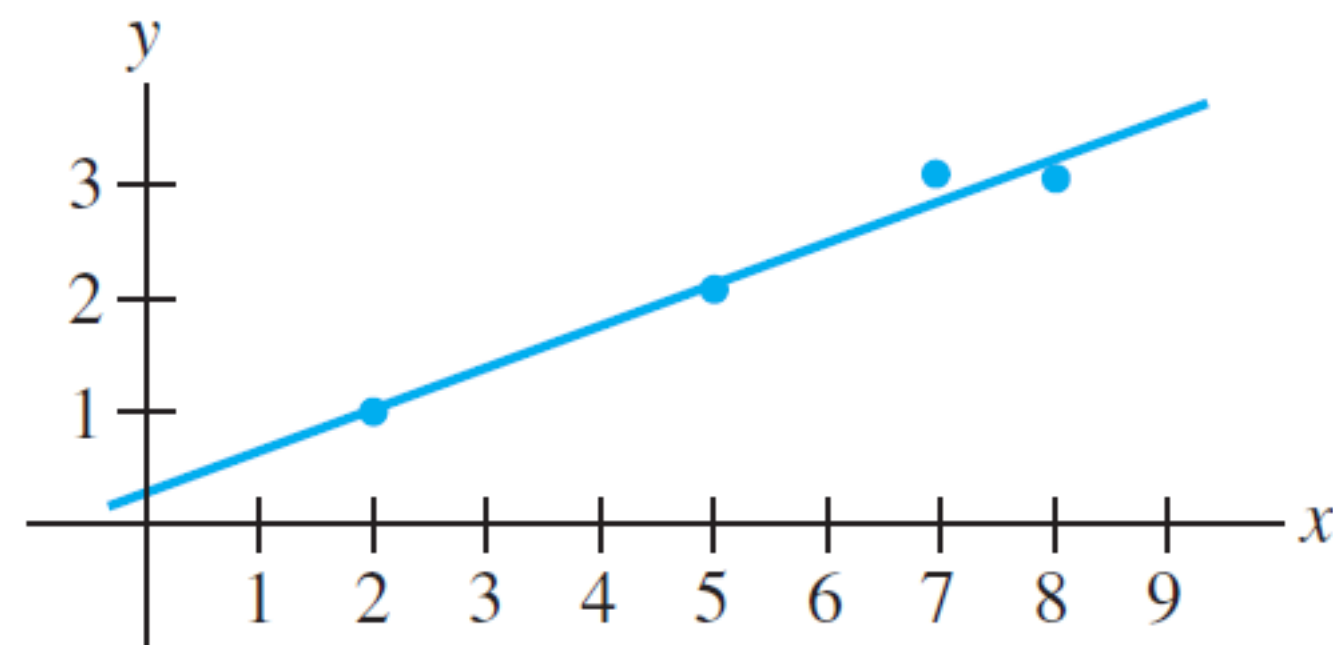


FIGURE 2 The least-squares line
 $y = \frac{2}{7} + \frac{5}{14}x$.

That is, compute

$$X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 22 \\ 22 & 142 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$X^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 57 \end{bmatrix}$$

The normal equations are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 22 \\ 22 & 142 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 57 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 22 \\ 22 & 142 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 57 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{84} \begin{bmatrix} 142 & -22 \\ -22 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 57 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{84} \begin{bmatrix} 24 \\ 30 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/7 \\ 5/14 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus the least-squares line has the equation

$$y = \frac{2}{7} + \frac{5}{14}x$$

Least Squares Fit to Other Curves

Least-Squares Fitting of Other Curves

When data points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ on a scatter plot do not lie close to any line, it may be appropriate to postulate some other functional relationship between x and y .

The next two examples show how to fit data by curves that have the general form

$$y = \beta_0 f_0(x) + \beta_1 f_1(x) + \dots + \beta_k f_k(x) \quad (2)$$

where f_0, \dots, f_k are known functions and β_0, \dots, β_k are parameters that must be determined. As we will see, equation (2) describes a linear model because it is linear in the unknown parameters.

Linear in the parameter model:

$$\mathbf{y} = X\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$

where

residual vector $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$, defined by $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \mathbf{y} - X\boldsymbol{\beta}$

Any equation of this form is referred to as a **linear model**. Once X and \mathbf{y} are determined, the goal is to minimize the length of $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$, which amounts to finding a least-squares solution of $X\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{y}$. In each case, the least-squares solution $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is a solution of the normal equations

$$X^T X \boldsymbol{\beta} = X^T \mathbf{y}$$

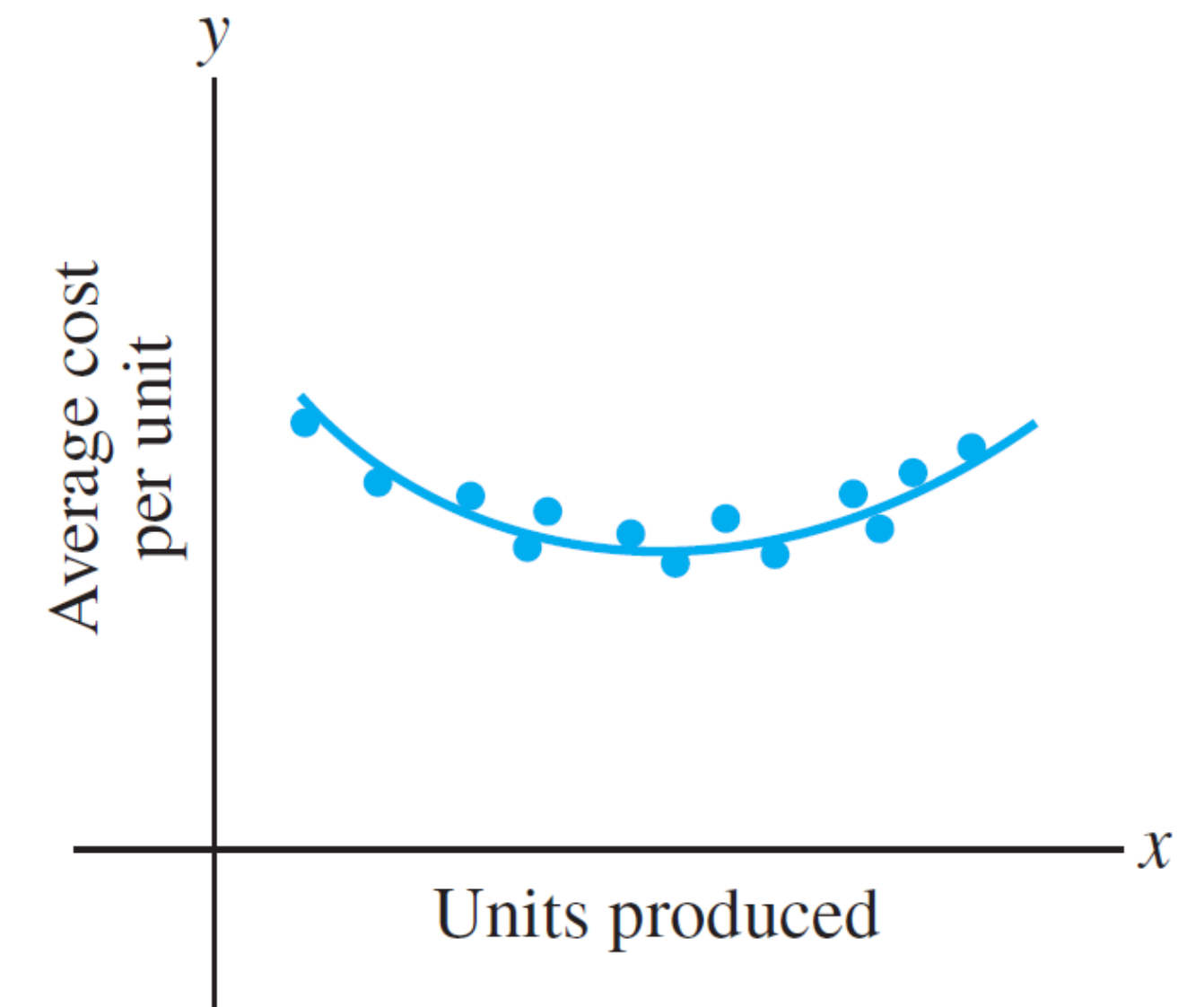


FIGURE 3

Average cost curve.

Example 2: fitting to curves

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose data points $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ appear to lie along some sort of parabola instead of a straight line. For instance, if the x -coordinate denotes the production level for a company, and y denotes the average cost per unit of operating at a level of x units per day, then a typical average cost curve looks like a parabola that opens upward (Figure 3). In ecology, a parabolic curve that opens downward is used to model the net primary production of nutrients in a plant, as a function of the surface area of the foliage (Figure 4). Suppose we wish to approximate the data by an equation of the form

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 \tag{3}$$

Describe the linear model that produces a “least-squares fit” of the data by equation (3).

SOLUTION Equation (3) describes the ideal relationship. Suppose the actual values of the parameters are $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$. Then the coordinates of the first data point (x_1, y_1) satisfy an equation of the form

$$y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2 + \epsilon_1$$

where ϵ_1 is the residual error between the observed value y_1 and the predicted y -value $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2$. Each data point determines a similar equation:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2 + \epsilon_1 \\ y_2 &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 + \beta_2 x_2^2 + \epsilon_2 \\ &\vdots \\ y_n &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n + \beta_2 x_n^2 + \epsilon_n \end{aligned}$$

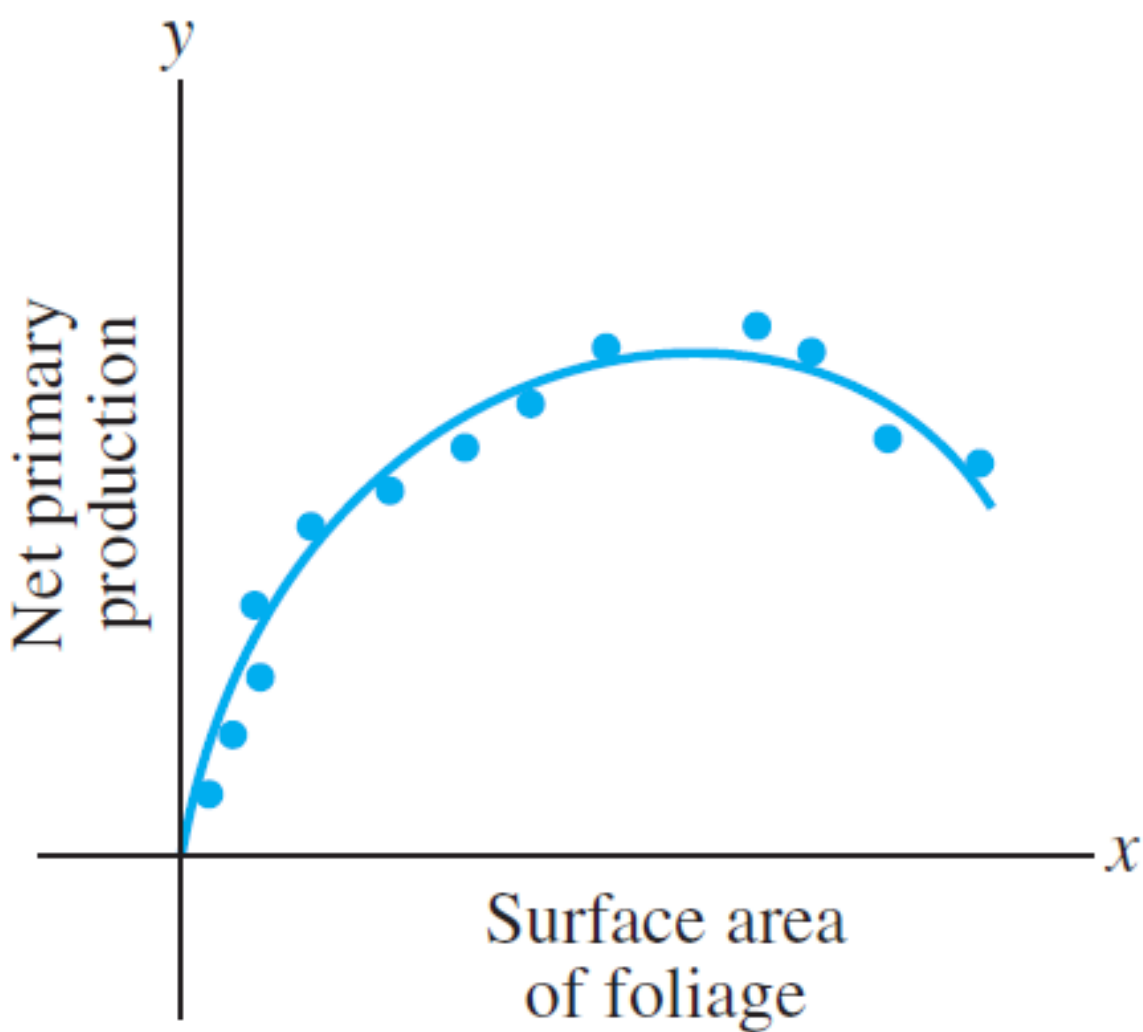


FIGURE 4
Production of nutrients.

It is a simple matter to write this system of equations in the form $\mathbf{y} = X\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$. To find X , inspect the first few rows of the system and look for the pattern.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{y} &= X \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

Observation
vector

Design
matrix

Parameter
vector

Residual
vector