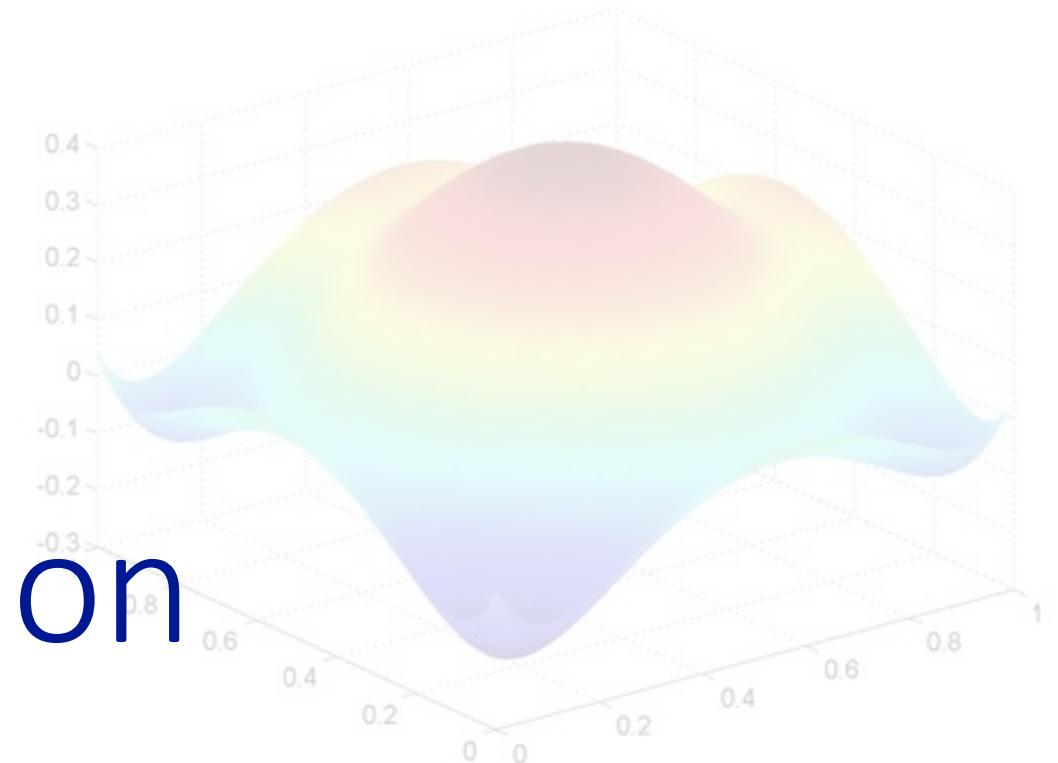


# Parameter estimation



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Lecture 6

Principles of Modeling for Cyber-Physical Systems

Instructor: Madhur Behl

# But first..

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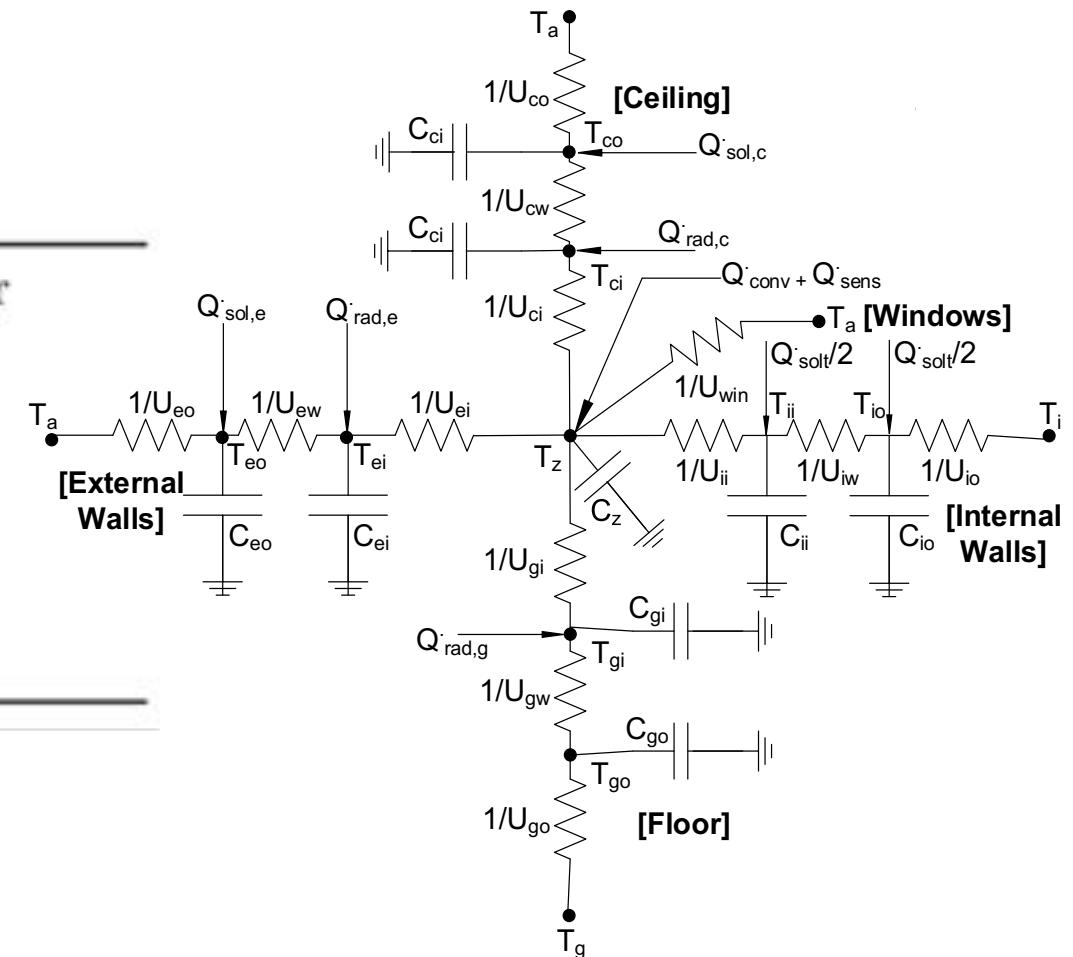
- **Worksheet 3 is out:**

- Towards Matlab implementation of the model.
- Nominal values of parameters from EnergyPlus IDF file.
- Specify model structure in Matlab.
- Collect training data.
- Use the templates provided to save time.
- **Due in 1.5 week. Thursday, Oct 4, by 2:00pm**

# Previously..

How to find the values of the parameters ?

$U_{*o}$	convection coefficient between the wall and outside air
$U_{*w}$	conduction coefficient of the wall
$U_{*i}$	convection coefficient between the wall and zone air
$U_{win}$	conduction coefficient of the window
$C_{**}$	thermal capacitance of the wall
$C_z$	thermal capacity of zone $z_i$
<i>g: floor; e: external wall; c: ceiling; i: internal wall</i>	



# Parameter estimation overview

---

- Simple Linear Regression
- Least squares
- Non-linear least squares
- State-space sum of squared errors
- Non-linear optimization (estimation) methods
- Global and local search
- MATLAB implementations

# Simple Linear Regression

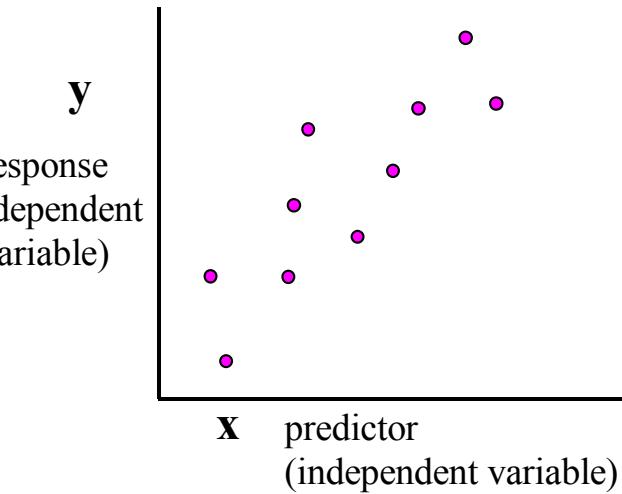
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Suppose we collect some data and want to determine the relation between the observed values,  $y$ , and the independent variable,  $x$ :

We can model the data using a **linear model**

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

observed response    unknown intercept    unknown slope    unknown random error



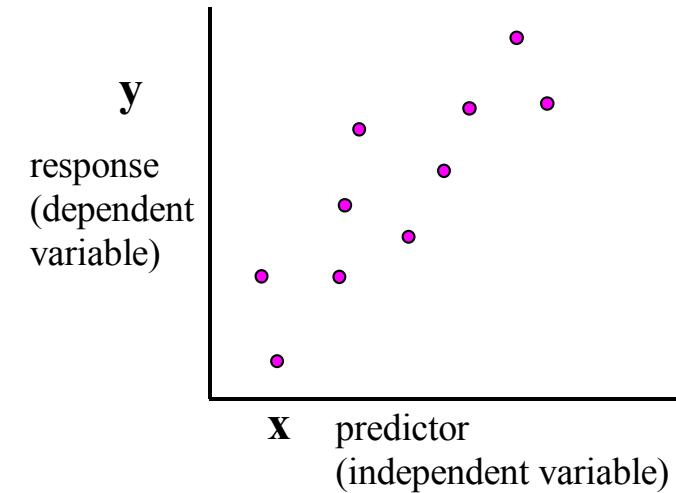
# Simple Linear Regression

---

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$$

observed response      unknown intercept      unknown slope      unknown random error

$\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are the **parameters** of this linear model.



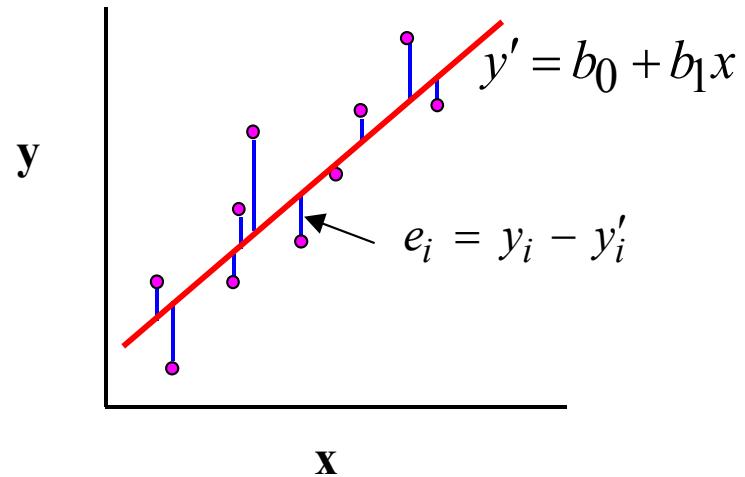
- Don't know the true values of the parameters.
- Estimate them using the assumed model and the observations (data)

# Simple Linear Regression

---

$$y_i = \overbrace{b_0 + b_1 x_i}^{\text{estimate of } \beta_0} + \overbrace{e_i}^{\text{residual}}$$

- Estimate  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  to obtain the best fit of the simulated values to the observations.
- One method: **Minimize sum of squared errors, or residuals.**

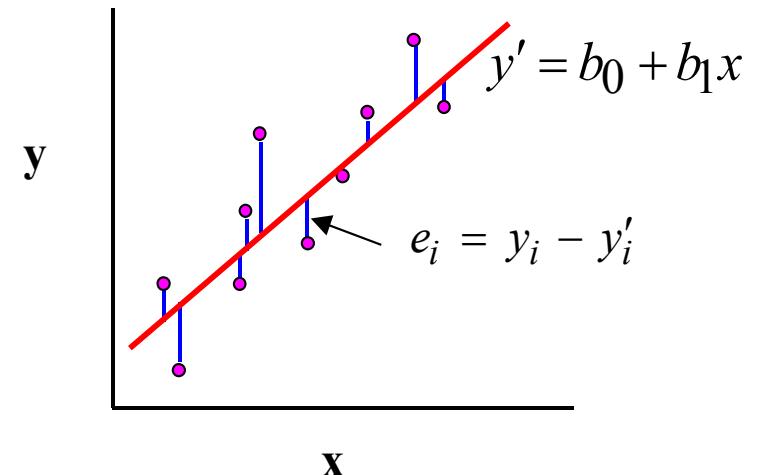


# Simple Linear Regression

---

$$y_i = \overbrace{b_0 + b_1 x_i}^{\text{simulated values, } y'_i} + e_i$$

observed response    estimate of  $\beta_0$     estimate of  $\beta_1$     residual



Sum of squared residuals:

$$S(b_0, b_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y'_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2$$

To minimize:

$$\text{Set } \frac{\partial S}{\partial b_0} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial S}{\partial b_1} = 0$$

# Simple Linear Regression

---

$$S(b_0, b_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y'_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - b_0 - b_1 x_i)^2$$

Set  $\frac{\partial S}{\partial b_0} = 0$  and  $\frac{\partial S}{\partial b_1} = 0$

$$b_0 n + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

$$b_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

This results in the **normal equations**:

- Solve these equations to obtain expressions for  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ , the parameter estimates that give the best fit of the simulated and observed values.

# Linear Regression in Matrix Form

---

Linear regression model:  $y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i + e_i$ ,  $i=1..n \rightarrow \underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{b} + \underline{e}$

$$\underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{e} = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix}$$

vector of  
observed  
values

matrix of  
Predictors/  
features

vector of  
parameters

vector of  
residuals

# Linear Regression in Matrix Form

---

Linear regression model:  $y_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i + e_i$ ,  $i=1..n \rightarrow \underline{y} = \underline{X}\underline{b} + \underline{e}$

- The **normal equations** ( $\underline{b}'$  is the vector of least-squares estimates of  $\underline{b}$ ):

Using summations  
And setting the derivative to 0

$$b_0 n + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$
$$b_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + b_1 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

Using matrix notation:

$$\underline{X}^T \underline{X} \underline{b}' = \underline{X}^T \underline{y} \rightarrow \underline{b}' = (\underline{X}^T \underline{X})^{-1} \underline{X}^T \underline{y}$$

# Ordinary least squares

---

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & X_{21} & \dots & X_{k1} \\ 1 & X_{12} & X_{22} & \dots & X_{k2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{1n} & X_{2n} & \dots & X_{kn} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times k} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix}_{k \times 1} + \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1}$$

This can be rewritten more simply as:

$$y = X\beta + \epsilon$$

# Ordinary least squares

---

$$e = y - X\hat{\beta}$$

The sum of squared residuals (RSS) is  $e'e$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & \dots & \dots & e_n \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times n} \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} = [e_1 \times e_1 + e_2 \times e_2 + \dots + e_n \times e_n]_{1 \times 1}$$

# Ordinary least squares

---

The sum of squared residuals (RSS) is  $e'e$ .

$$\begin{aligned} e'e &= (y - X\hat{\beta})'(y - X\hat{\beta}) \\ &= y'y - \hat{\beta}'X'y - y'X\hat{\beta} + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta} \\ &= y'y - 2\hat{\beta}'X'y + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta} \end{aligned}$$

# Ordinary least squares

---

$$e'e = y'y - 2\hat{\beta}'X'y + \hat{\beta}'X'X\hat{\beta}$$

$$\frac{\partial e'e}{\partial \hat{\beta}} = -2X'y + 2X'X\hat{\beta} = 0$$

$$(X'X)\hat{\beta} = X'y \qquad \qquad \hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y$$

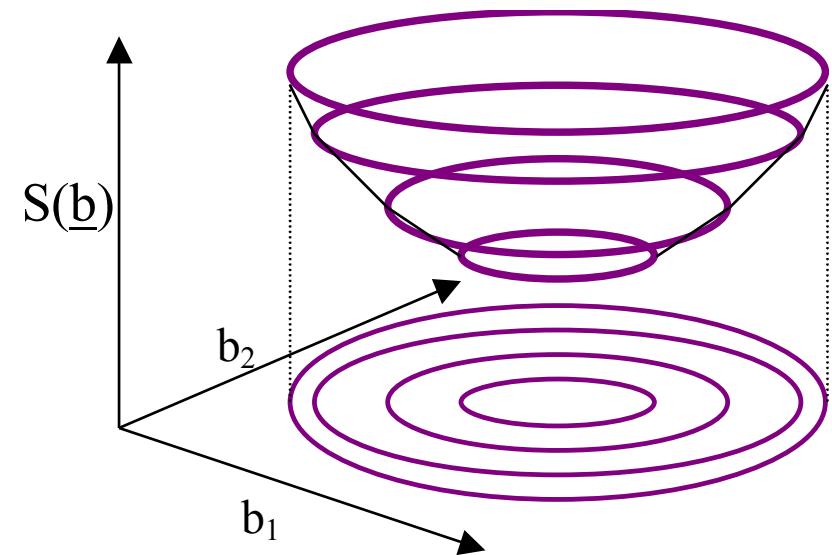
# Linear versus Nonlinear Models

---

**Linear models:** Sensitivities of the output are **not** a function of the model parameters:

$$y'_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial y'_i}{\partial b_0} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial y'_i}{\partial b_1} = x_i ; \text{ recall} \quad \underline{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}$$



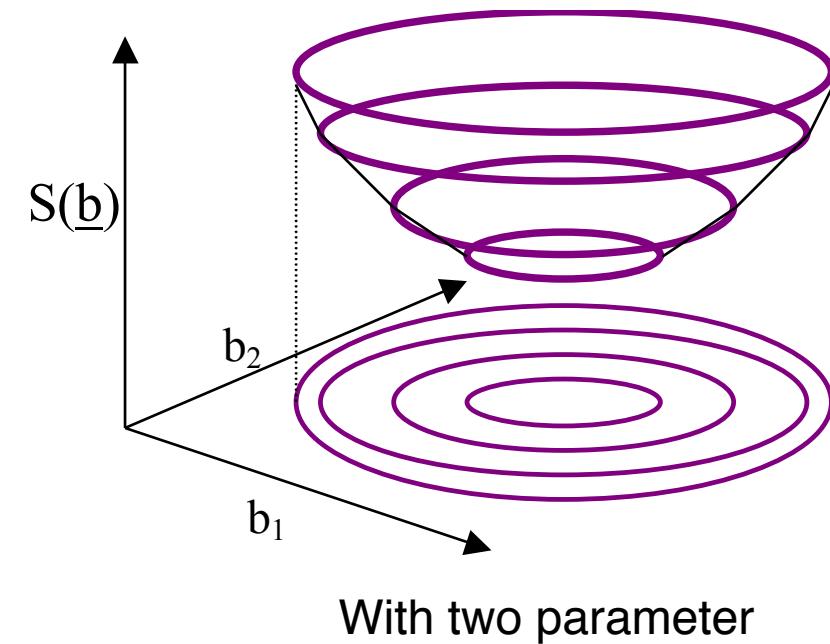
# Linear versus Nonlinear parameters

---

- Linear models have elliptical objective function surfaces.
- i.e. the level sets of the objective function (sum of errors squared) are ellipsis.

*One step to get to the minimum.*

**Nonlinear parametric models:** Sensitivities are a function of the model parameters.



Nonlinearity is in parameter space.

---

$$x(k + 1) = A_\theta(k)x(k) + B_\theta(k)u(k)$$

$$y(k) = C_\theta(k)x(k) + D_\theta(k)u(k)$$

Elements of A, B, C, and D could be non-linear in the parameter  $\theta$

# Nonlinear Estimation

---

Suppose that we have collected data on the output/response  $Y$  ( $n$  samples),

- $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$

corresponding to  $n$  sets of values of the independent variables/predictors/features  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  and  $X_p$

- $(x_{11}, x_{21}, \dots, x_{p1}),$
- $(x_{12}, x_{22}, \dots, x_{p2}),$
- ... and
- $(x_{1n}, x_{2n}, \dots, x_{pn}).$

# Nonlinear Estimation

---

For possible values  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q$  of the parameters, the residual sum of squares function

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)]^2$$

$$\hat{y}_i = f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$$

# Nonlinear Estimation

---

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)]^2$$

The least squares estimates of  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q$ , are values which minimize  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$ .

# Nonlinear Estimation

---

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - f(x_{1i}, x_{2i}, \dots, x_{pi} | \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)]^2$$

To find the least squares estimate we need to determine when all the derivatives  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  with respect to each parameter  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$  and  $\theta_q$  are equal to zero.

This will involve, terms with partial derivatives of the non-linear function f.

$$\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_1}, \frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_2}, \dots, \frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_q}$$

# Nonlinear Estimation

---

$$\frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_1}, \frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_2}, \dots, \frac{\delta f(\dots)}{\delta \theta_q}$$

Closed form analytical solutions are not possible.

It is usually necessary to develop an iterative technique for solving them

# Recall..

---

$$x(k + 1) = A_\theta(k)x(k) + B_\theta(k)u(k)$$

$$y(k) = C_\theta(k)x(k) + D_\theta(k)u(k)$$



$$\hat{y}(k) = f(\hat{x}(k), u(k), \hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_q)$$

# How can we compute the sum of squared error for state-space models ?

---

$$x(k+1) = A_\theta x(k) + B_\theta u(k)$$

$$y(k) = C_\theta(k) + D_\theta u(k)$$

Consider the LTI model

# sum of squared error for state-space models

---

Given  $x(0) = x_0$ , and  $u(k), k = 1, \dots N$

$$y(0) = C_\theta x(0) + D_\theta u(0)$$

$$x(1) = A_\theta x(0) + B_\theta u(1)$$

$$y(1) = C_\theta x(1) + D_\theta u(1)$$

$$x(2) = A_\theta x(1) + B_\theta u(2)$$

$$y(1) = C_\theta A_\theta x(0) + C_\theta B_\theta u(1) + D_\theta u(1)$$

$$x(2) = A_\theta A_\theta x(0) + A_\theta B_\theta u(1) + B_\theta u(2)$$

$$y(2) = C_\theta x(2) + D_\theta u(2)$$

$$y(2) = C_\theta A_\theta A_\theta x(0) + C_\theta A_\theta B_\theta u(1) + C_\theta B_\theta u(2) + D_\theta u(2)$$

# sum of squared error for state-space models

---

$$\begin{bmatrix} y(0) \\ y(1) \\ \vdots \\ y(N-1) \end{bmatrix} = \mathcal{O} x(0) + \mathcal{T} \begin{bmatrix} u(0) \\ u(1) \\ \vdots \\ u(N-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

For a given estimate of  $\theta$ , this is the  $\hat{y}$  vector

$$S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

# sum of squared error for state-space models

---

$$\mathcal{O} = \begin{pmatrix} C_\theta \\ C_\theta A_\theta \\ \vdots \\ C_\theta A_\theta^{N-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{T} = \begin{pmatrix} D_\theta & 0 & \dots \\ C_\theta B_\theta & D_\theta & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ C_\theta A_\theta^{N-2} B_\theta & C_\theta A_\theta^{N-3} B_\theta & \dots C_\theta B_\theta & D_\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

# Nonlinear Estimation

---

Let  $\mathcal{Z}^N$  be the given data-set  $\{\mathbf{u}_k, \mathbf{x}_0, k = 1, \dots, N\}$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N = \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N(\mathcal{Z}^N) = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta} S_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Z}^N)$$

$S_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Z}^N)$  is the squared error i.e.  $S_N(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{Z}^N) = \sum_{k=1}^N \mathbf{e}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{e}_k^T(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$\mathbf{e}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{y}_k - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Measured                          Predicted (for a particular value of  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ )

# Non-linear least squares

---

We will cover the following methods:

- 1) Steepest descent (or Gradient descent) and Newton's method,
- 2) Gauss Newton and Linearization, and
- 3) Levenberg-Marquardt's procedure.

1. In each case a iterative procedure is used to find the least squares estimators :  $\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_q$
2. That is an initial estimates,  $\theta_1^0, \theta_2^0, \dots, \theta_q^0$  ,for these values are determined.
3. Iteratively find better estimates,  $\theta_1^i, \theta_2^i, \dots, \theta_q^i$  that hopefully converge to the least squares estimates,

# Steepest Descent

---

- The steepest descent method focuses on determining the values of  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q$  that minimize the sum of squares function,  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$ .
- The basic idea is to determine from an initial point,  $\theta_1^0, \theta_2^0, \dots, \theta_q^0$  and the tangent plane to  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  at this point, the vector along which the function  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  will be decreasing at the fastest rate.
- The method of steepest descent than moves from this initial point along the direction of steepest descent until the value of  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  stops decreasing.

# Steepest Descent

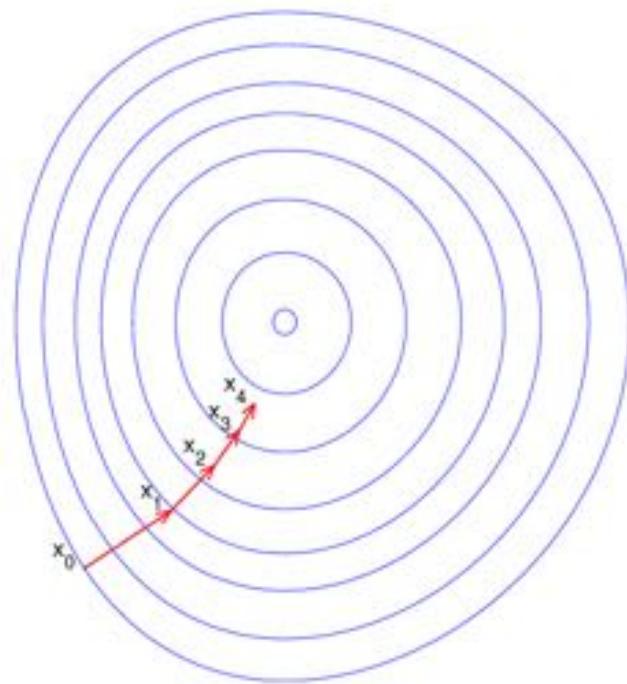
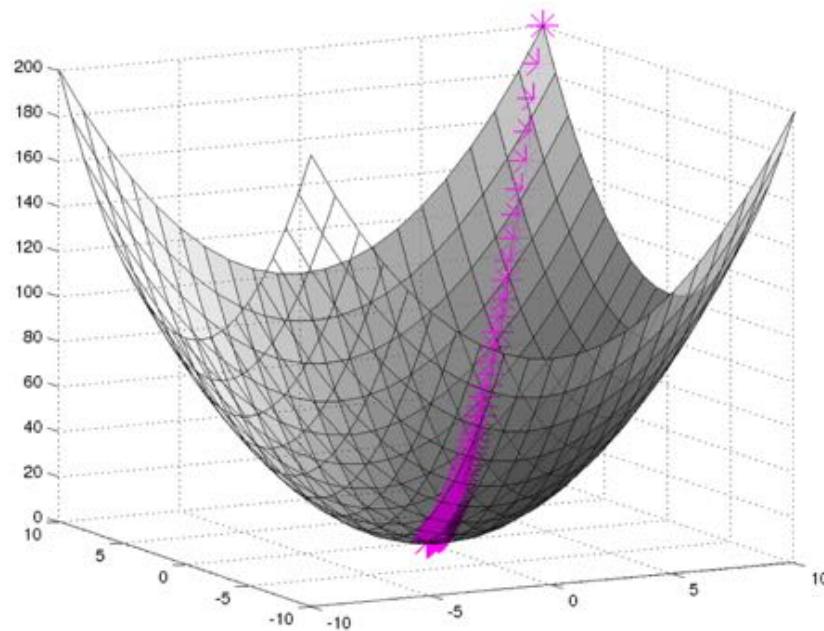
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- It uses this point,  $\theta_1^1, \theta_2^1, \dots, \theta_q^1$  as the next approximation to the value that minimizes  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$ .
- The procedure then continues until the successive approximation arrive at a point where the sum of squares function,  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  is minimized.
- At that point, the tangent plane to  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  will be horizontal and there will be no direction of steepest descent.

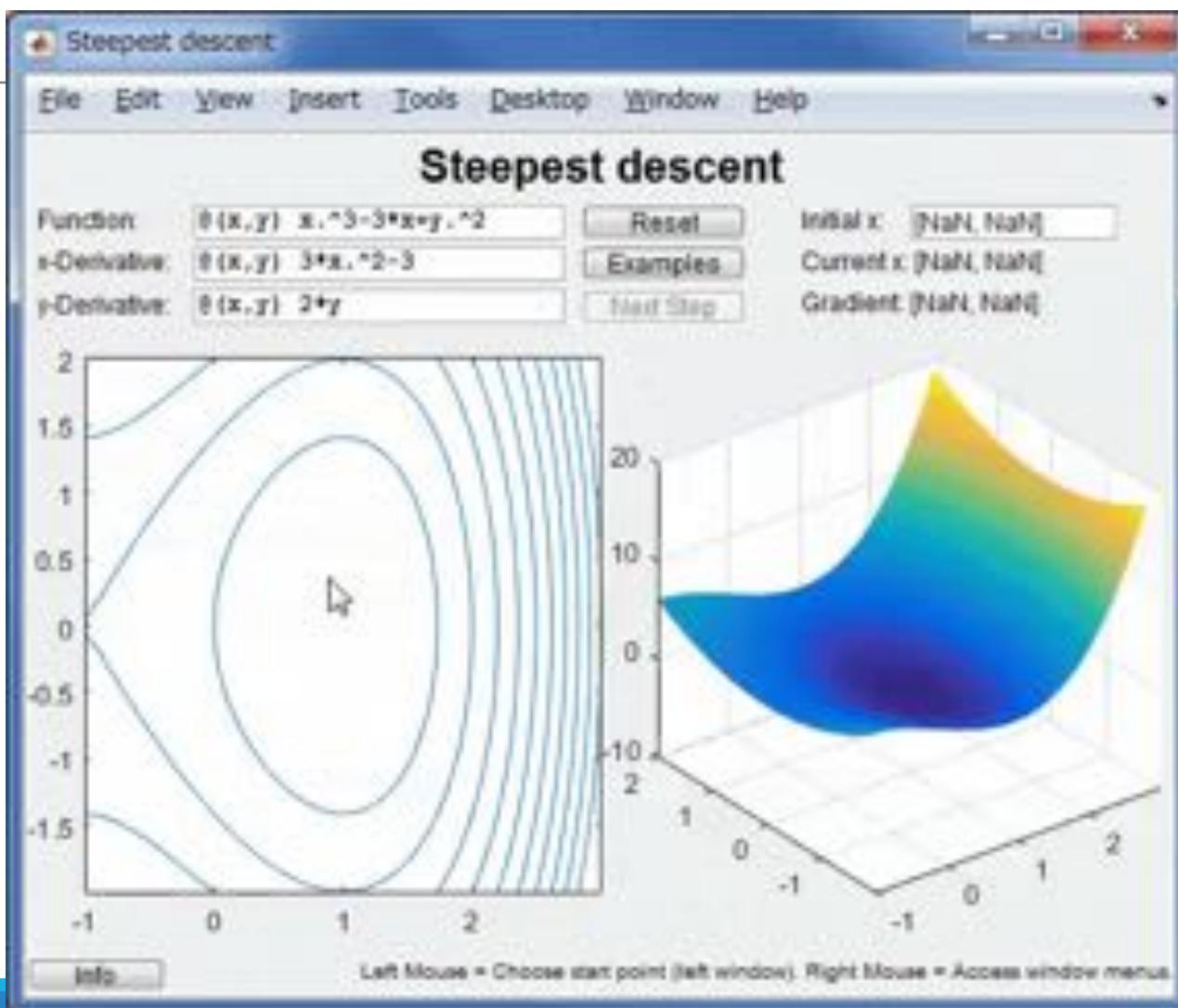
# Steepest Descent

---

To find a local minimum of a function using steepest descent, one takes steps proportional to the *negative* of the gradient of the function at the current point.



# Steepest Descent



# Steepest Descent

---

Initialize k=0, choose  $\theta_0$

While  $k < k_{\max}$

$$\theta_k = \theta_{k-1} - \underbrace{\nabla F(\theta_{k-1})}_{\text{Gradient}}$$

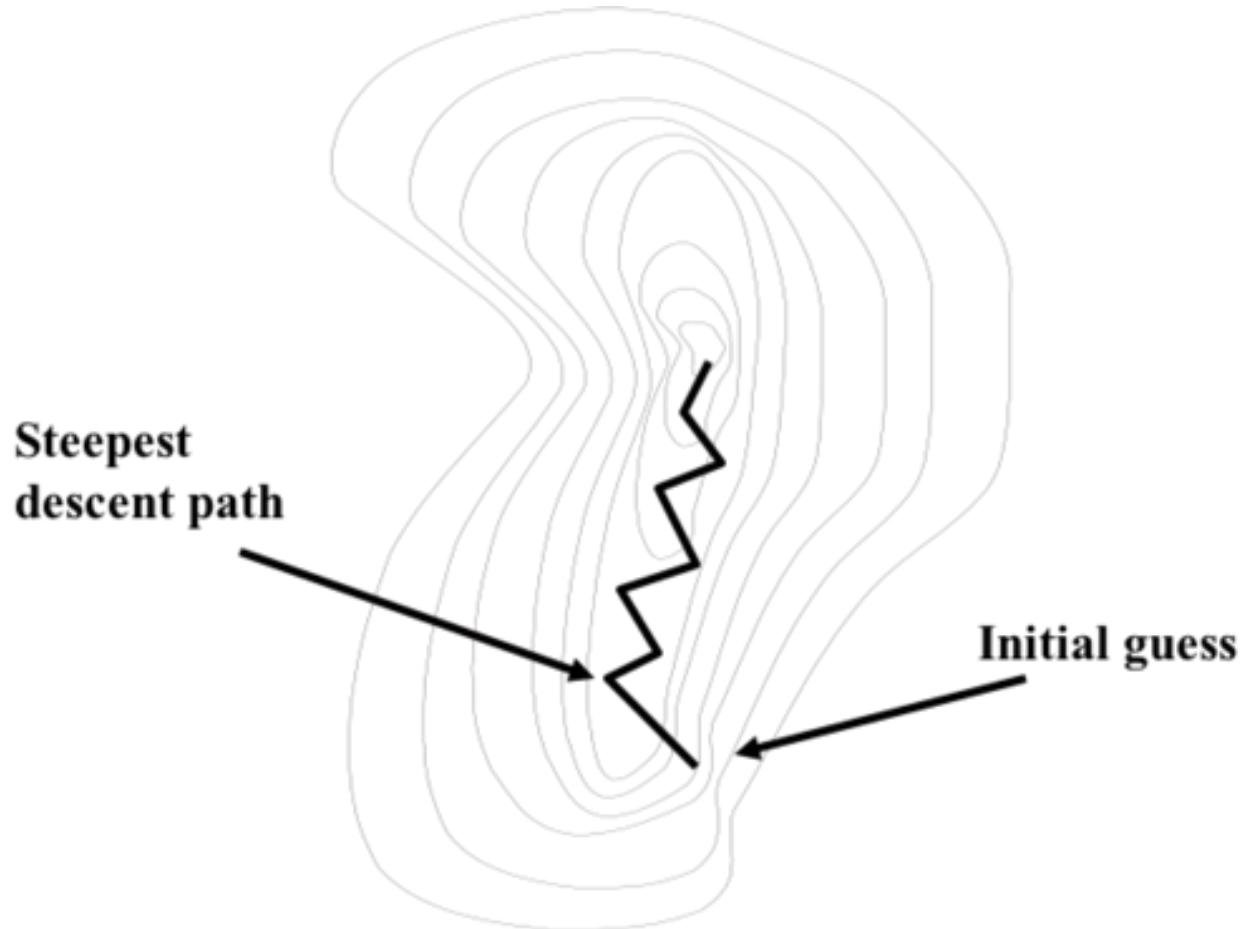
# Steepest Descent

---

- While, theoretically, the steepest descent method will converge, it may do so in practice with agonizing slowness after some rapid initial progress.
- Slow convergence is particularly likely when the  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$  contours are highly curved and it happens when the path of steepest descent zigzags slowly up a narrow ridge, each iteration bringing only a slight reduction in  $S(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_q)$ .
- A further disadvantage of the steepest descent method is that it is not scale invariant.
- The steepest descent method is, on the whole, slightly less favored than the linearization method (described later) but will work satisfactorily for many nonlinear problems

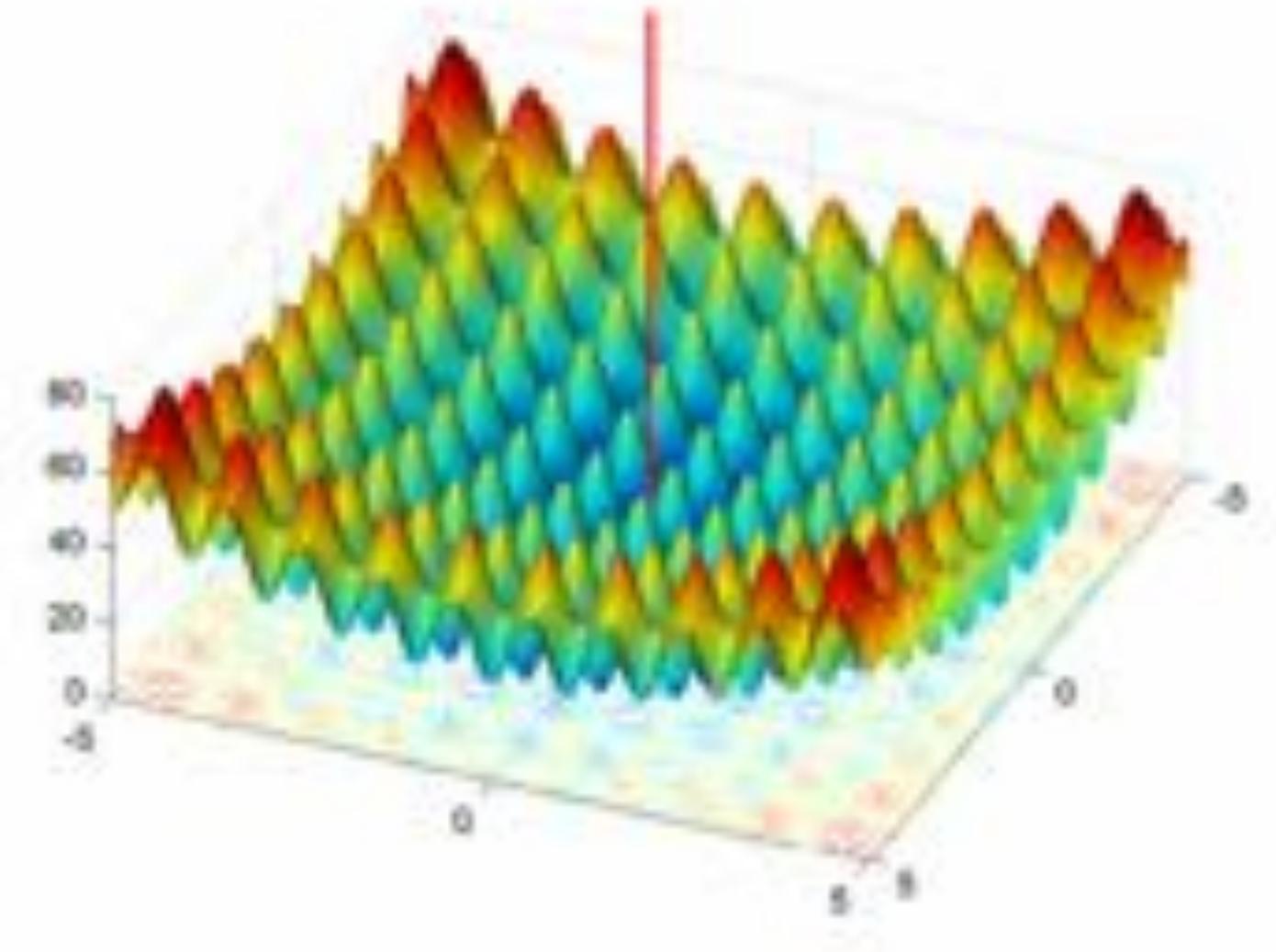
# Steepest Descent

---



# Steepest Descent

---



Gradient descent is a *local* optimization method

# Least squares in general

---

Most optimization problem can be formulated as a nonlinear least squares problem

$$x^* = \arg \min_x \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (f_i(x))^2$$

$$x^* = \arg \min_x \frac{1}{2} f(x)^T f(x)$$

Where  $f_i: R^n \mapsto R$ ,  $i=1,\dots,m$  are given functions, and  $m \geq n$

# Newton's Method

---

Quadratic approximation

$$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + f'(x)\Delta x + \frac{1}{2}f''(x)\Delta x^2$$

What's the minimum solution of the quadratic approximation

$$\Delta x = -\frac{f'(x)}{f''(x)}$$

# Newton's Method

---

High dimensional case:

$$F(x + \Delta x) \approx F(x) + \nabla F(x)\Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^T H(x) \Delta x$$

What's the optimal direction?

$$\Delta x \approx -H(x)^{-1} \nabla F(x)$$

# Newton's Method

---

Initialize k=0, choose  $x_0$

While  $k < k_{\max}$

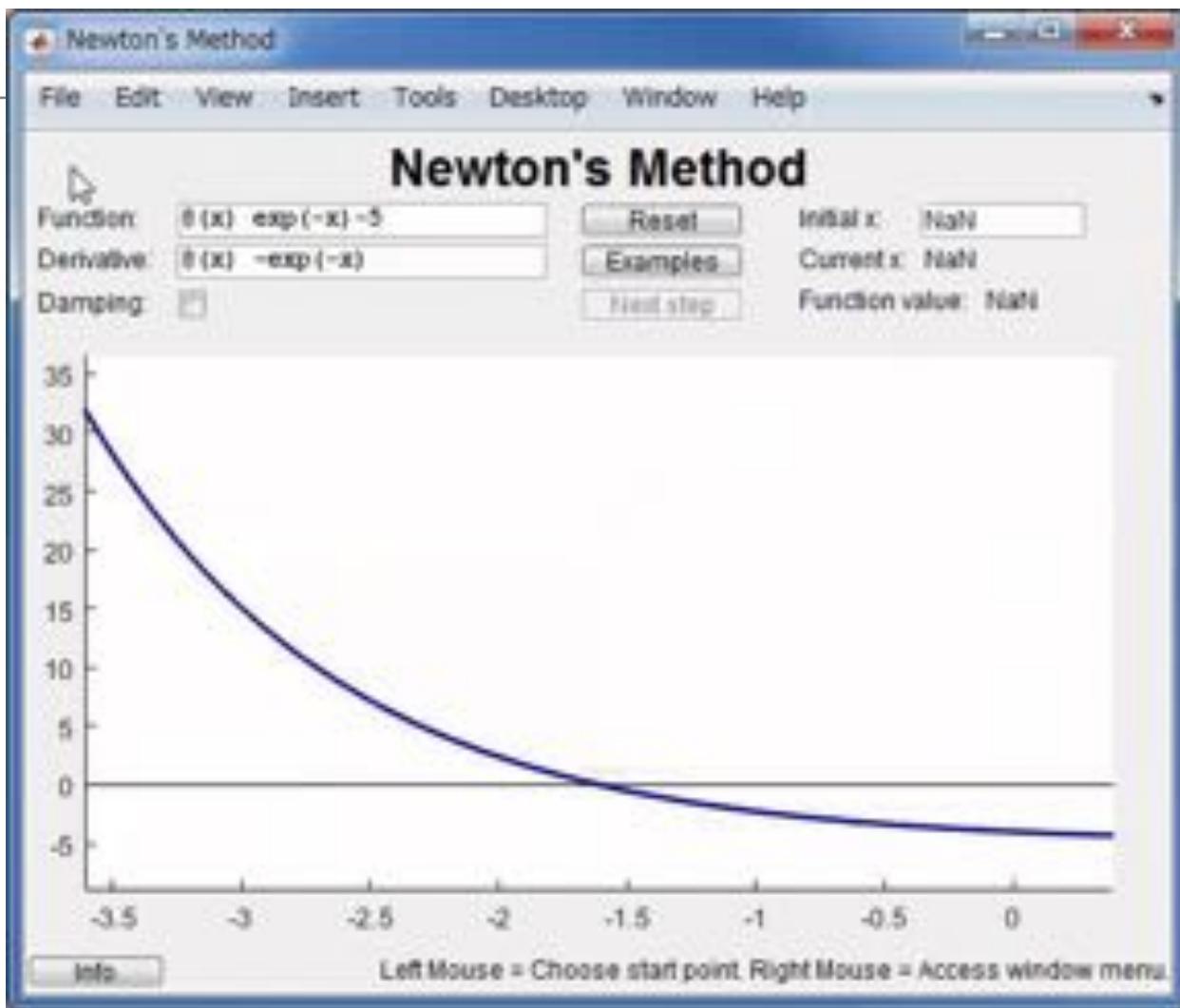
$$x_k = x_{k-1} - \lambda H(x)^{-1} \nabla F(x_{k-1})$$

# Newton's Method

---

- Finding the inverse of the Hessian matrix is often expensive
- Approximation methods are often used
  - conjugate gradient method
  - quasi-newton method

# Newton's Method



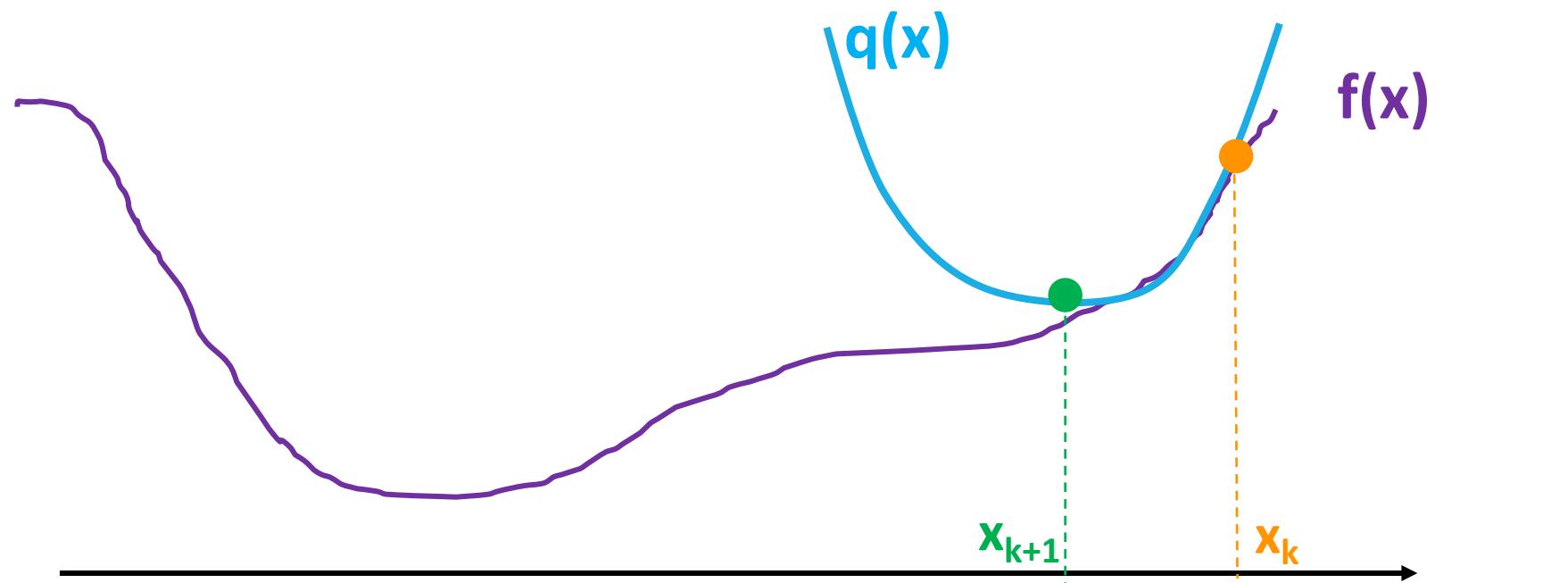
# Newton's Method

---

$$\min_x f(x)$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1} \cdot \nabla f$$



# Terminology

---

The *gradient*  $\nabla f$  of a multivariable function is a vector consisting of the function's partial derivatives:

$$\nabla f(x_1, x_2) = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \right)$$

The *Hessian matrix*  $H(f)$  of a function  $f(x)$  is the square matrix of second-order partial derivatives of  $f(x)$ :

$$H(f(x_1, x_2)) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

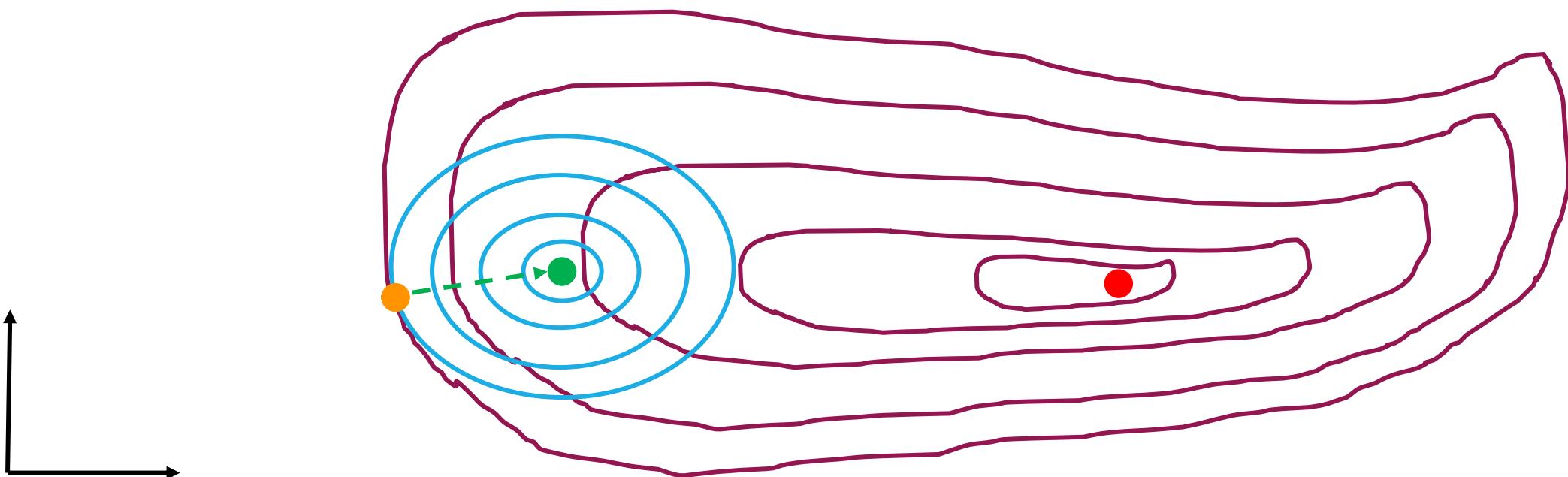
# Newton's Method

---

$$\min_x f(x)$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1} \cdot \nabla f$$



# Newton's Method

---

Let  $f(x): \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  be sufficiently smooth

Taylor's approximation: For close to point 'a'  $f(x) \approx f(a) + g^T(x - a) + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{(x - a)^T H(x - a)}_{x^T Hx - 2a^T Hx + a^T Ha} + h.o.t.$

$$g = \nabla f(a) \quad H = \nabla^2 f(a)$$

$$q(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T H x + b^T x + c \quad \text{where} \quad b = g - H a$$

$$\nabla q = 0 \Rightarrow Hx + b = 0 \Rightarrow x = -H^{-1}b = -H^{-1}g + a = a - H^{-1}g$$

$$x = a - H^{-1}g \implies x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1} \cdot \nabla f$$

# Newton's Method

---

$$\nabla q = 0 \Rightarrow Hx + b$$

*For minima*

$$\nabla^2 q > 0$$

$$\nabla^2 q = H$$

*Minima if  $H$  is PSD*

1) Initialize:  $x_0$

1)  $H$  may fail to be PSD

2) Iterate:  $x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1} \cdot g$

2)  $H$  may not be invertible.

$$g = \nabla f(x_k) \quad H = \nabla^2 f(x_k)$$

3) Difficult to compute  $H$  in practice through numerical methods

# Recall: Non-linear least squares

---

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N (r_j(x))^2 = \|r(x)\|_2^2$$

The j-th component of the vector  $r(x)$  is the residual

$$r_j(x) = y_j - \hat{y}_j$$

$$r(x) = (r_1(x), r_2(x), \dots, r_N(x))^T$$

# Non-linear least squares

---

The *Jacobian*  $J(x)$  is a matrix of all  $\nabla r_j(x)$ :

$$J(x) = \left[ \frac{\partial r_j}{\partial x_i} \right]_{j=1,\dots,N; i=1,\dots,n} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla r_1(x)^T \\ \nabla r_2(x)^T \\ \vdots \\ \nabla r_N(x)^T \end{bmatrix}$$

# Non-linear least squares

---

$$\nabla f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N r_j(x) \nabla r_j(x) = J(x)^T r(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^2 f(x) &= \sum_{j=1}^N \nabla r_j(x) \nabla r_j(x)^T + \sum_{j=1}^N r_j(x) \nabla^2 r_j(x) \\ &= J(x)^T J(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N r_j(x) \nabla^2 r_j(x)\end{aligned}$$

# Gauss-Newton Method

---

Use the approximation  $\nabla^2 f_k \approx J_k^T J_k$

$J_k$  must have full rank

Requires accurate initial guess

Fast convergence close to solution

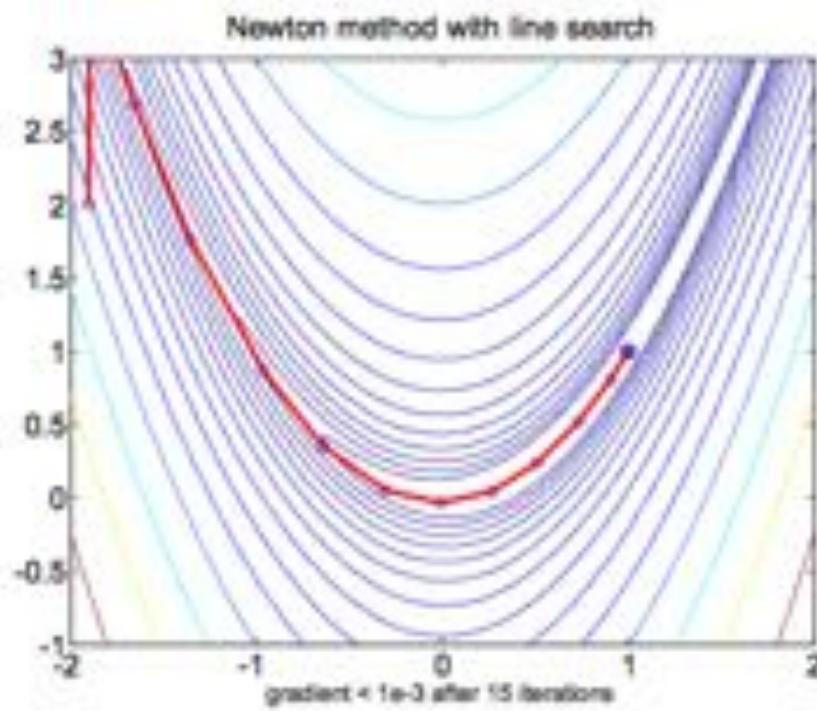
$$J(x)^T J(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N r_j(x) \nabla^2 r_j(x)$$

Residuals are small when  
close to the optimal

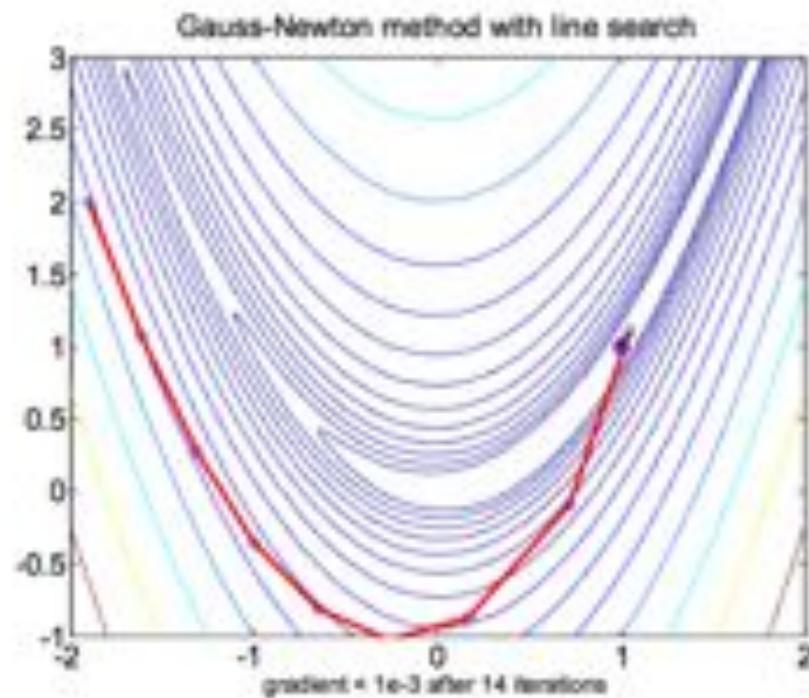
# Comparison

---

Newton



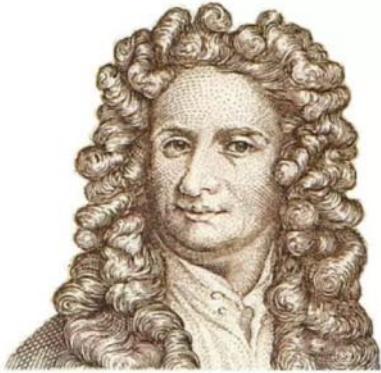
Gauss-Newton



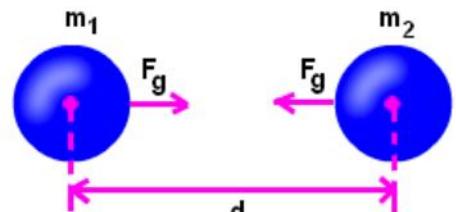
- requires computing Hessian (i.e.  $n^2$  second derivatives)
- exact solution if quadratic

- approximates Hessian by Jacobian product
- requires only  $n$  first derivatives

# Lets talk about curvatures..



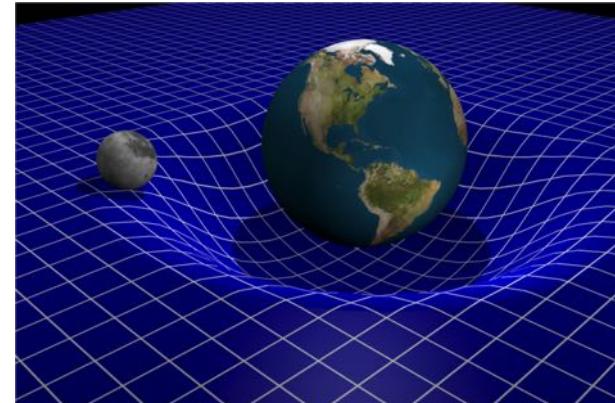
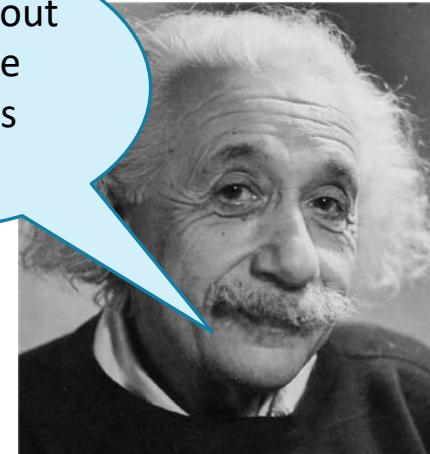
**Gravity.**  
It's not just a good idea.  
It's the Law.



$$F_g = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{d^2}$$

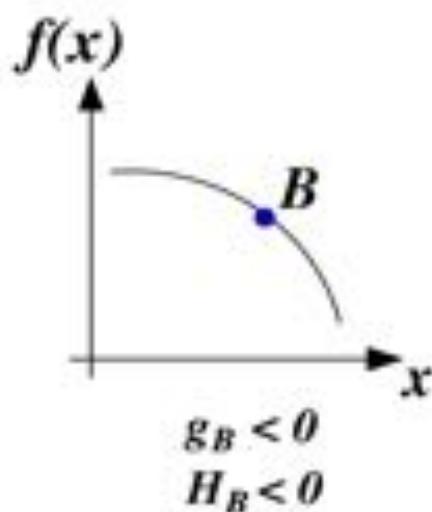
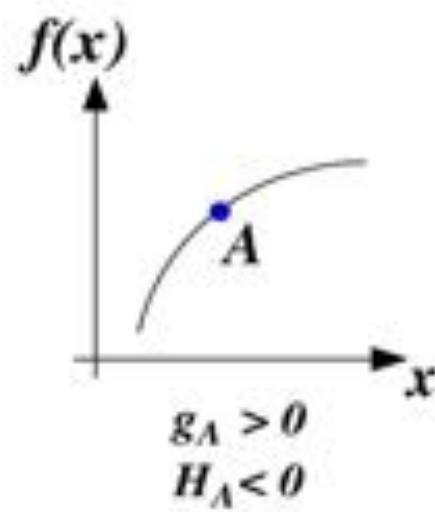
*Newton does  
not have a good  
track record of  
accounting for  
curvatures*

Nope, its about  
space-time  
curvatures  
dude.

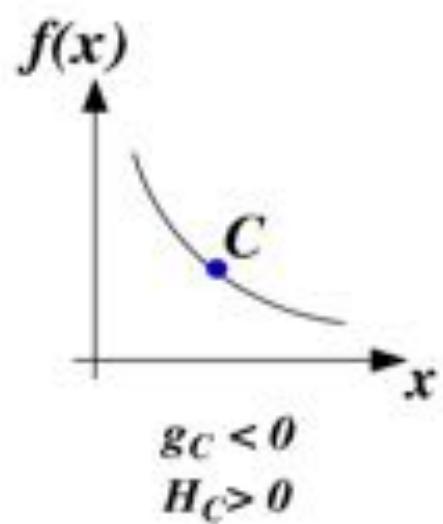


Are you serious  
right now ! Lets  
see you try to  
invent calculus..

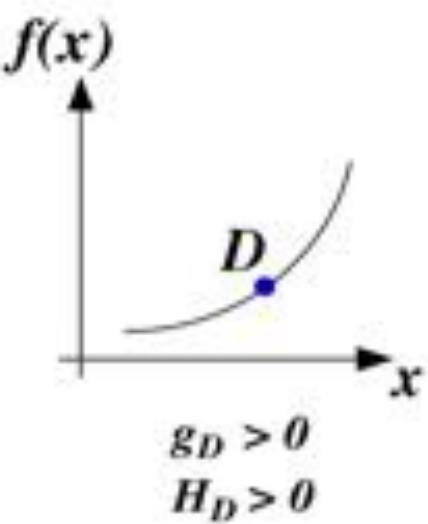
Newton's method cannot use negative curvature



Negative curvature



Positive curvature



## Newton's method cannot use negative curvature

---

- We can progress if we use a positive definite approximation of the Hessian matrix of  $f(x)$ .  
$$x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1} \cdot g$$
- One possibility is to approximate  $H$  by the identity matrix  $I$  (always PD)
  - This will be the same as steepest descent:  
$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \Delta g$$
  - Too slow, + convergence issues
- Instead use  $\tilde{H} = H_k + \lambda I$ 
  - High value of  $\lambda$  == steepest (gradient) descent.
  - Low value == Newton or Gauss Newton method

# Levenberg-Marquardt Method

---

- Mixture of Gauss-Newton and Gradient descent.
- Acts like Gauss-Newton when close to the minimum (quadratic region)
- Gradient descent when improvement is difficult.
- Depends on a parameter  $\lambda$  which
  1. Controls the mixture of Gauss-Newton and Gradient Descent
  2. Controls the step-length.

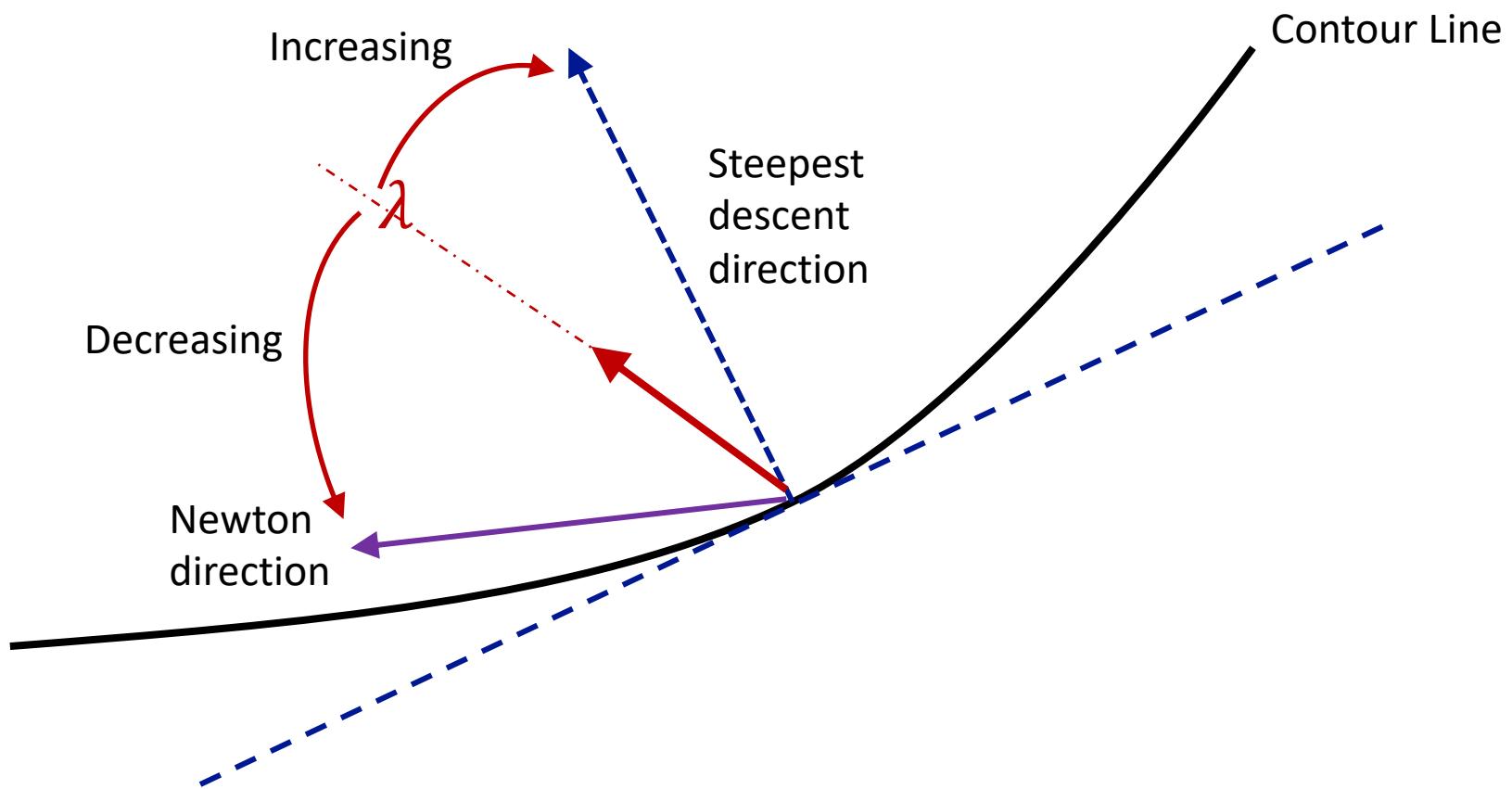


Illustration of Levenberg-Marquardt gradient descent

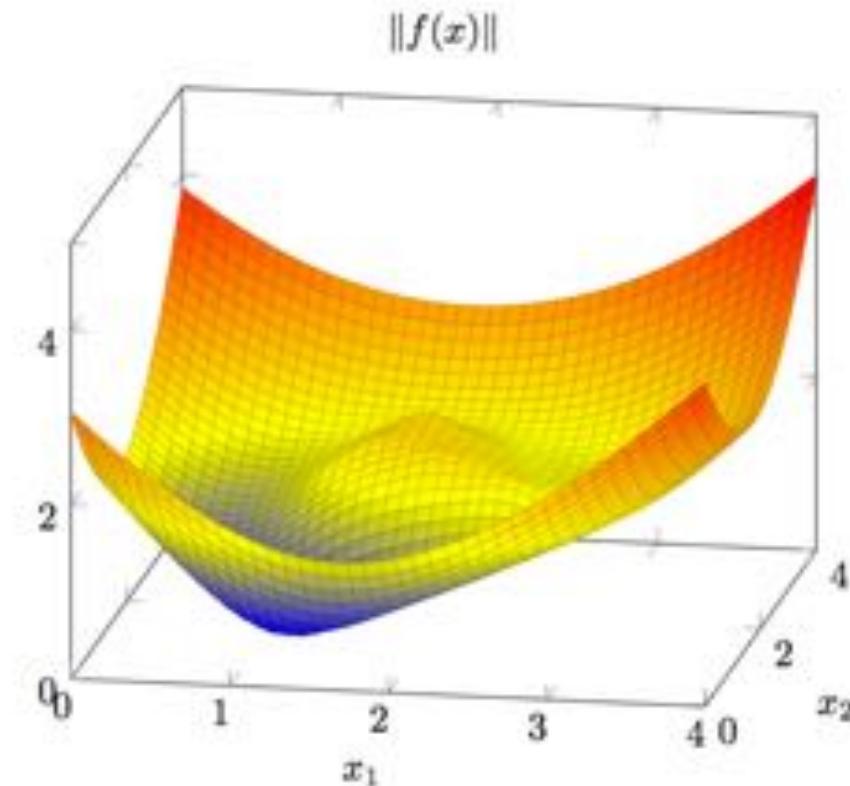
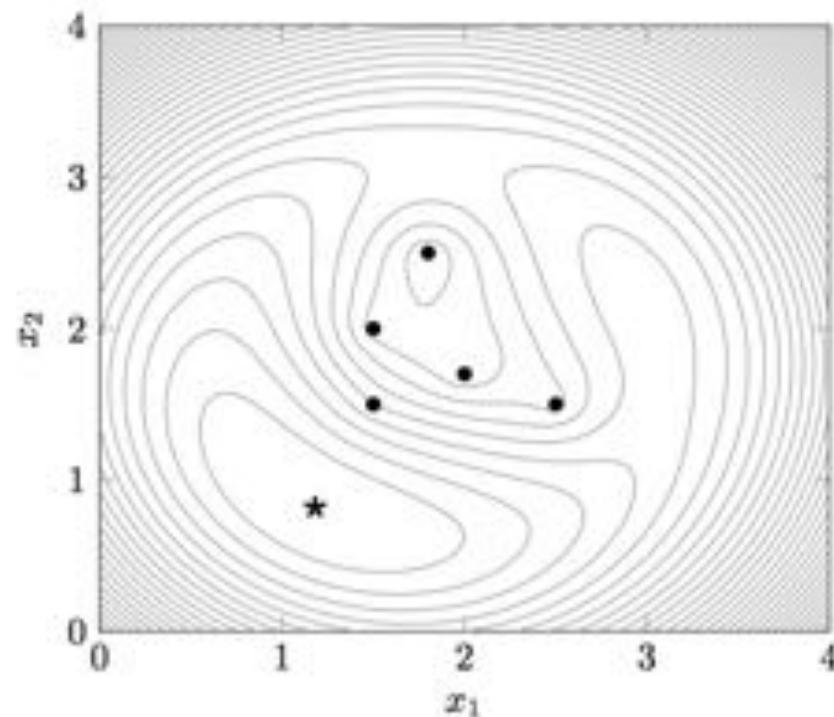
# Levenberg-Marquardt Method

---

- 1) Adapt the value of  $\lambda$  during the optimization.
- 2) If the iteration was successful ( $F(x_{k+1}) < F(x_k)$ )
  - a) Decrease  $\lambda$  and try to use as much curvature information as possible.
- 3) If the previous iteration was unsuccessful ( $F(x_{k+1}) > F(x_k)$ )
  - a) Increase  $\lambda$  and use only basic gradient information.
- 4) Trust Region Algorithm

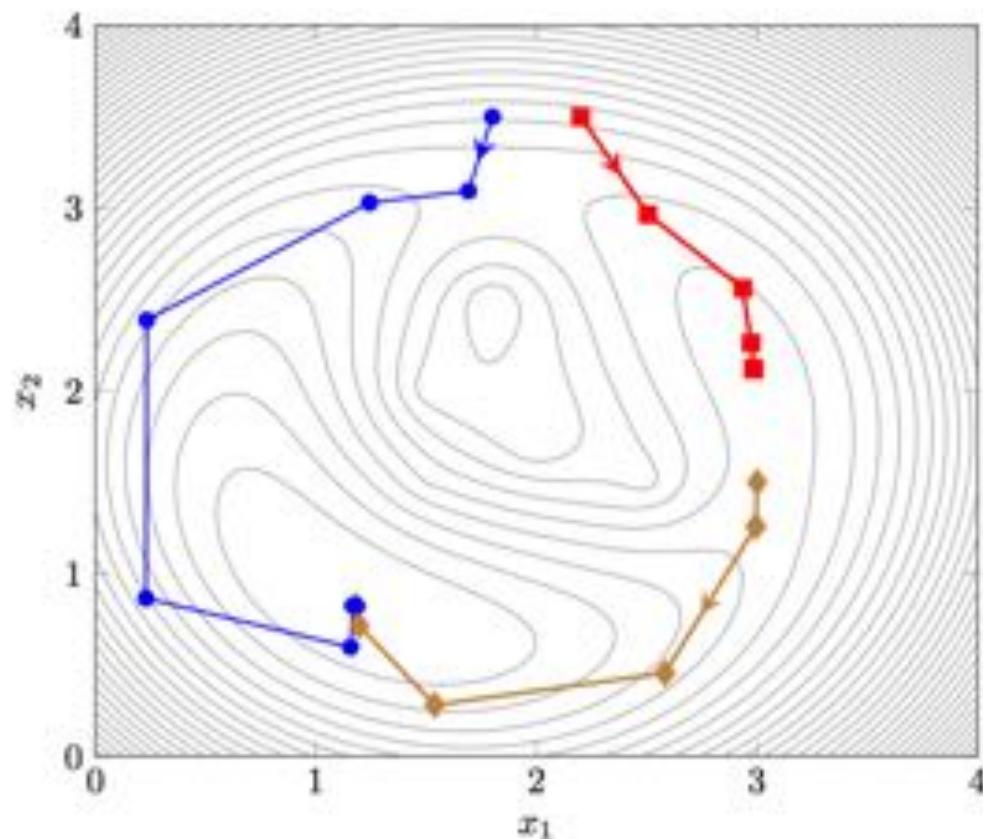
# Levenberg-Marquardt Method

---



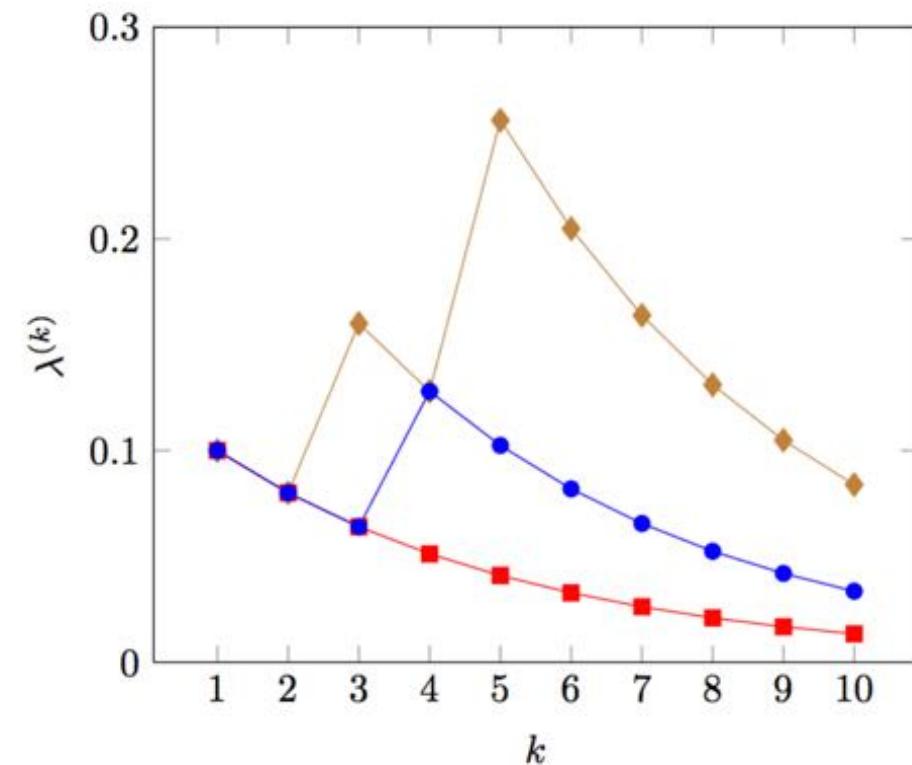
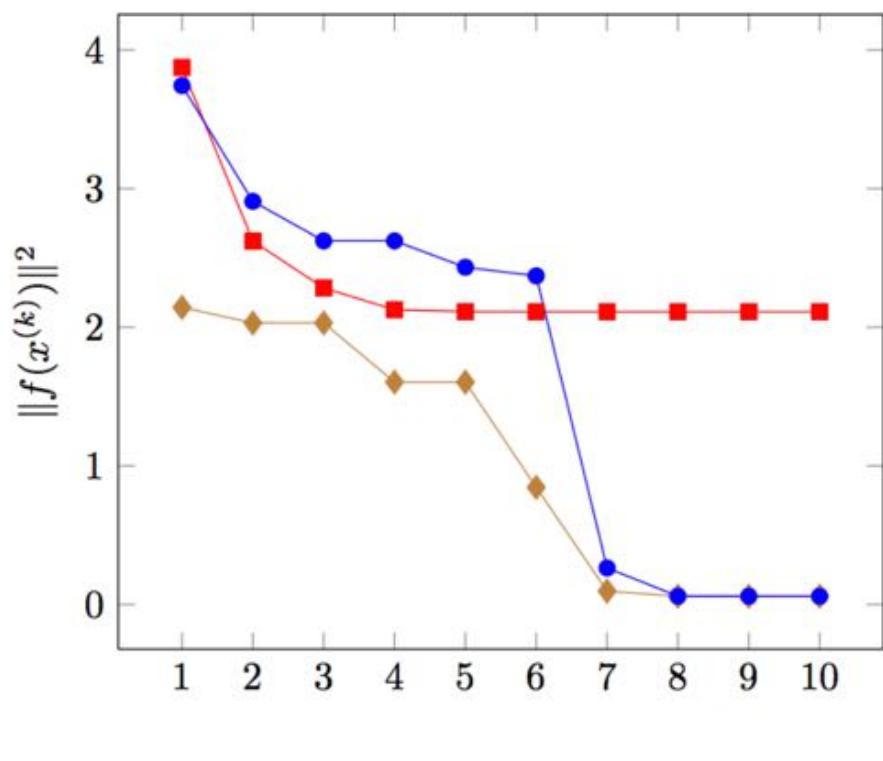
# Levenberg-Marquardt from 3 initial points

---



# Levenberg-Marquardt from 3 initial points

---



# Stopping Criteria

---

**Criterion 1:** reach the number of iteration specified by the user

$$K > k_{\max}$$

# Stopping Criteria

---

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$$K > k_{\max}$$

**Criterion 2:** when the current function value is smaller than a user-specified threshold

$$F(x_k) < \sigma_{\text{user}}$$

# Stopping Criteria

---

**Criterion 1:** reach the number of iteration specified by the user

$$K > k_{\max}$$

**Criterion 2:** when the current function value is smaller than a user-specified threshold

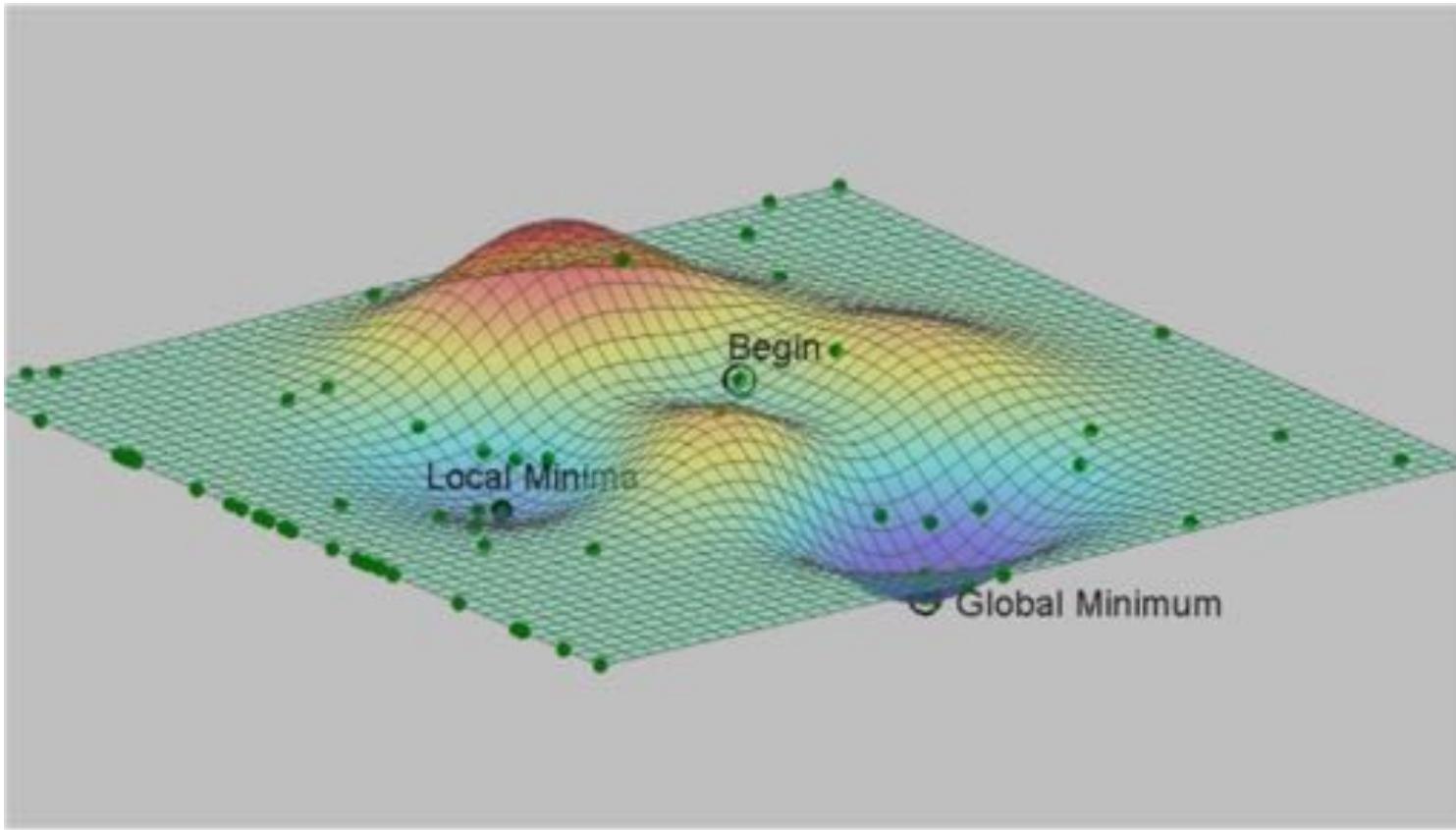
$$F(x_k) < \sigma_{\text{user}}$$

**Criterion 3:** when the change of function value is smaller than a user-specified threshold

$$||F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1})|| < \varepsilon_{\text{user}}$$

# Multi-start search

---



- Several points as initial guesses for regression and the regression is performed for each point.
  - 1) Choose randomly..
  - 2) Choose within some neighborhood of nominal values.

# NLLS in Matlab

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## **nlinfit**

---

Nonlinear regression

## **lsqnonlin**

---

Solve nonlinear least-squares (nonlinear data-fitting) problems

## **lsqcurvefit**

---

Solve nonlinear curve-fitting (data-fitting) problems in least-squares sense

# Example: nlinfit

---

```
[th,R,J,COVB,mse] = nlinfit(U,Y,@(th,U)getlabelmodel3(th,U,pass),th0,options);
```

Predictor variables

Model function (returns predicted labels)

Estimation algorithm options

Non-linear regression

Response values

Initial coefficient values

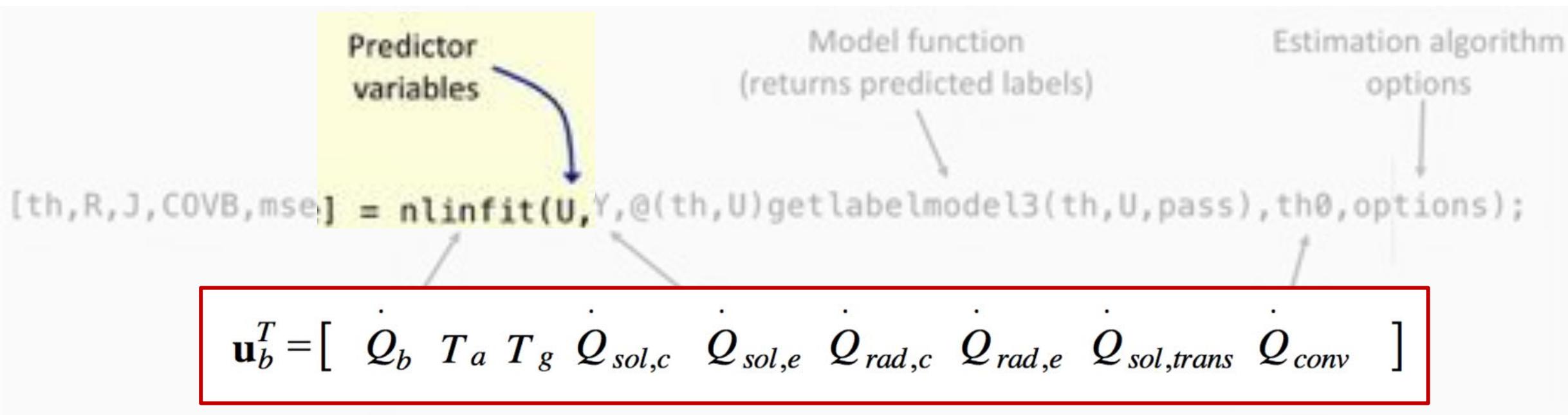
The diagram illustrates the inputs to the `nlinfit` function. The code is shown in a light yellow box. Three annotations with arrows point to specific parts of the code:

- An arrow from the label "Predictor variables" points to the input `U`.
- An arrow from the label "Model function (returns predicted labels)" points to the function handle `@(th,U)getlabelmodel3(th,U,pass)`.
- An arrow from the label "Estimation algorithm options" points to the input `options`.

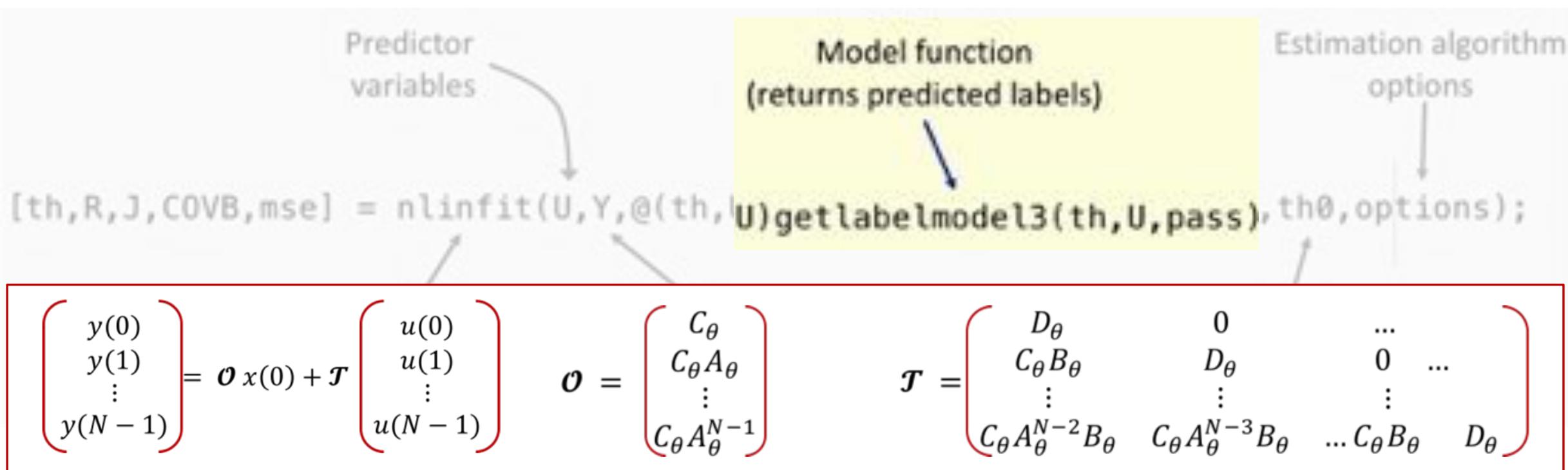
Below the code, three additional annotations with arrows point to other parts of the input list:

- An arrow from the label "Non-linear regression" points to the input `Y`.
- An arrow from the label "Response values" points to the input `Y`.
- An arrow from the label "Initial coefficient values" points to the input `th0`.

# Example: nlinfit



# Example: nlinfit



# Example: nlinfit

---

$$\theta_1 = [C_{e1} \ C_{i1} \ C_{cl} \ C_{g1} \ R_{e1} \ R_{e2} \ R_{i1} \ R_{i2} \ R_{cl} \ R_{c2} \ R_{g1} \ R_{g2} \ C_{e2} \ C_{i2} \ C_{c2} \ C_{g2} \ R_{e3} \ R_{i3} \ R_{c3} \ R_{g3}]$$

```
[th,R,J,COVB,mse] = nlinfit(U,Y,@(th,U)getlabelmodel3(th,U,pass),th0,options);
```

Non-linear regression      Response values      Initial coefficient values