

## Introduction to Overdetermined Linear Systems

↓  
"more eqns than unknowns"



tall rectangular matrix.



$$A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

where

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

with  $m > n$ .

# Contents

cf) Sq. linear systems : poly. interp.



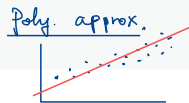
① Opening Example: Polynomial Approximation

② The Normal Equations

③ Appendix: Derivation of Normal Equation

# Opening Example: Polynomial Approximation

# Introduction



## Problem: Fitting Functions to Data

Given data points  $\{(x_i, y_i) \mid i \in \mathbb{N}[1, m]\}$ , pick a form for the “fitting” function  $f(x)$  and minimize its total error in representing the data.

linear regression

*m is large*

*# of data*

- With real-world data, interpolation is often not the best method.
- Instead of finding functions lying exactly on given data points, we look for ones which are “close” to them.
- In the most general terms, the fitting function takes the form

$$f(x) = c_1 f_1(x) + \cdots + c_n f_n(x),$$

*$f_1, \dots, f_n$  are elementary building blocks.*

where  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  are known functions while  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are to be determined.

- Ex.
- Polynomial fit:  $f_j(x) = x^{j-1}$
  - periodic fit:  $f_j(x) = \text{cosine or sine functions.}$

# Linear Least Squares Approximation

Want to keep  $n$  small.

In this discussion:

- use a polynomial fitting function  $p(x) = c_1 + c_2x + \dots + c_nx^{n-1}$  with  $n < m$ ;
- minimize the 2-norm of the error  $r_i = y_i - p(x_i)$ :  
*residual*  $r_i$   $y_i$  (exact y-data)  $p(x_i)$  (approx. y-data)

$$\|\mathbf{r}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m r_i^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - p(x_i))^2}.$$

Since the fitting function is linear in unknown coefficients and the 2-norm is minimized, this method of approximation is called the **linear least squares (LLS) approximation**.

(linear regression)

## Example: Temperature Anomaly

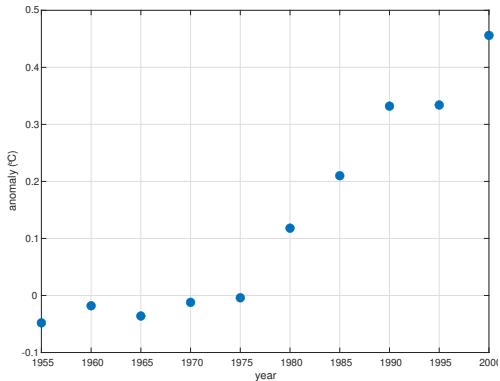
Below are 5-year averages of the worldwide temperature anomaly as compared to the 1951-1980 average (source: NASA).

Year	Anomaly ( $^{\circ}C$ )
1955	-0.0480
1960	-0.0180
1965	-0.0360
1970	-0.0120
1975	-0.0040
1980	0.1180
1985	0.2100
1990	0.3320
1995	0.3340
2000	0.4560

## Example: Temperature Anomaly (cont')

### Import and Plot Data

```
t = (1955:5:2000)';  
y = [-0.0480; -0.0180;  
     -0.0360; -0.0120;  
     -0.0040;  0.1180;  
      0.2100;  0.3320;  
      0.3340;  0.4560];  
plot(t, y, 'r')
```

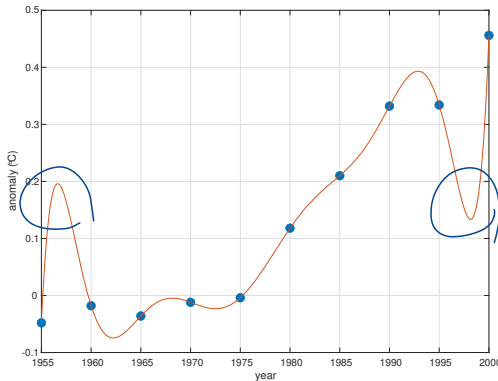


## Example: Temperature Anomaly (cont')

### Interpolation

```
t = (t-1950)/10;  
n = length(t);  
V = t.(0:n-1);  
c = V\y;  
p = @(x) polyval(flip(c),  
    (x-1950)/10);  
hold on  
fplot(p, [1955 2000])
```

function plot





# Fitting by a Straight Line

Suppose that we are fitting data to a linear polynomial:  $p(x) = c_1 + c_2x$ .

- If it were to pass through all data points:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_1 = p(x_1) = c_1 + c_2x_1 \\ y_2 = p(x_2) = c_1 + c_2x_2 \\ \vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots \\ y_m = p(x_m) = c_1 + c_2x_m \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{\text{matrix equation}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{y}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m \end{bmatrix}}_{V \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 2}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{c}}$$

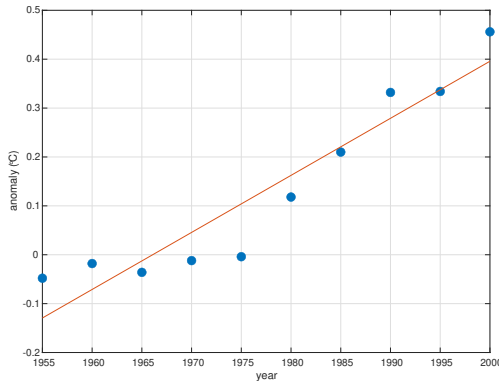
Vandermonde-type matrix.  
↙

- The above is unsolvable; instead, find  $\mathbf{c}$  which makes the residual  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{y} - V\mathbf{c}$  “as small as possible” in the sense of vector 2-norm.
- Notation:  $\mathbf{y} = V\mathbf{c}$

# Fitting by a Striaght Line: MATLAB Implementation

Revisiting the temperature anomaly example again:

```
year = (1955:5:2000)';  
t = year - 1955;  
V = t.^(0:1);  
c = V\y;  
p = @(x) polyval(flip(c),  
    x-1955);  
plot(year, y, 'b.')  
hold on  
fplot(p, [1955, 2000])
```



Backslash can handle  
the rectangular matrix  $V$ . (LLS instead of GE).

# Fitting by a General Polynomial

In general, when fitting data to a polynomial

$$p(x) = c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2 + \cdots + c_nx^{n-1},$$

we need to solve

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{y}} \quad \text{"="} \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 & \cdots & x_m^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}_V \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{c}}.$$

- The solution  $\mathbf{c}$  of  $\mathbf{y} \text{ " = " } V\mathbf{c}$  turns out to be the solution of the normal equation

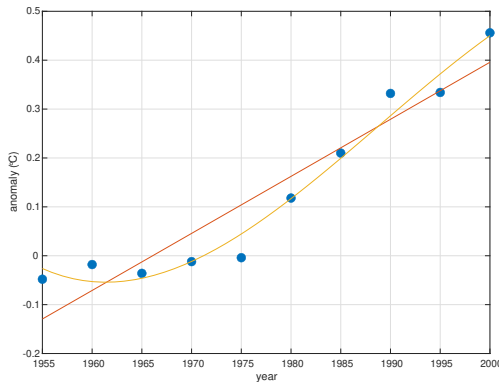
Since  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m > n$ ),  
 $V^T V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  (sq.)

$$V^T V \mathbf{c} = V^T \mathbf{y}.$$

# Fitting by a General Polynomial: MATLAB Implementation

Revisiting the temperature anomaly example again:

```
V = t.(0:3);  
c = V\y;  
q = @(x) polyval(flip(c),  
    x-1955);  
hold on  
fplot(q, [1955 2000])
```



# Backslash Again

## The Versatile Backslash

In MATLAB, the generic linear equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is solved by  $\mathbf{x} = A \backslash \mathbf{b}$ .

- When  $A$  is a square matrix, Gaussian elimination is used.
- When  $A$  is NOT a square matrix, the normal equation  $A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$  is solved instead.
- As long as  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  where  $m \geq n$  has rank  $n$ , the square matrix  $A^T A$  is nonsingular. (unique solution)
- Though  $A^T A$  is a square matrix, MATLAB does not use Gaussian elimination to solve the normal equation.
- Rather, a faster and more accurate algorithm is used.

# The Normal Equations

# LLS and Normal Equation

**Big Question:** How is the least square solution  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  equivalent to the solution of the normal equation  $A^T A\mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$ ?

## Theorem (Normal Equation)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m \geq n$ . If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies  $A^T A\mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$ , then  $\mathbf{x}$  solves the LLS problems, i.e.,  $\mathbf{x}$  minimizes  $\|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|_2$ .

- **Idea of Proof.** Enough show to that  $\|\mathbf{b} - A(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})\|_2 \geq \|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|_2$  for any  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- **Useful identity.**

$$\|\mathbf{u} \pm \mathbf{v}\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|_2^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 \pm 2\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}, \quad (\star)$$

# Proof of the Theorem

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  be arbitrary. Using the identity  $(\star)$ , we can write

$$\|\mathbf{b} - A(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})\|_2^2 = \|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + \|A\mathbf{y}\|_2^2 - 2\mathbf{y}^T A^T(\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}).$$

Since  $\mathbf{x}$  solves the normal equation  $A^T A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ , the last term vanishes; since  $\|A\mathbf{y}\|_2 \geq 0$ , it follows that

$$\|\mathbf{b} - A(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})\|_2^2 \geq \|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|_2^2.$$

Since  $\mathbf{y}$  was chosen arbitrarily, this shows that  $\mathbf{x}$  minimizes  $\|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|$ . □



# Appendix: Derivation of Normal Equation

# Derivation of Normal Equation

Consider  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  where  $m \geq n$ .

- **Requirement:** minimize the 2-norm of the residual  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}$ :

$$g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) := \|\mathbf{r}\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \left( b_i - \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \right)^2.$$

- **Strategy:** using calculus, find the minimum by setting

$$\mathbf{0} = \nabla g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

which yields  $n$  equations in  $n$  unknowns  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .

## Derivation of Normal Equation (cont')

Noting that  $\partial x_j / \partial x_k = \delta_{j,k}$ , the  $n$  equations  $\partial g / \partial x_k = 0$  are written out as

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^m 2(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j)(-a_{ik}), \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{N}[1, n],$$

which can be rearranged into

$$\sum_{i=1}^m a_{ik}b_i = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}a_{ik}x_j, \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{N}[1, n].$$

One can see that the two sides correspond to the  $k^{\text{th}}$  elements of  $A^T \mathbf{b}$  and  $A^T A \mathbf{x}$  respectively:

$$A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b},$$

showing the desired equivalence.