4 - Computing Least Squares Solutions

Computing a least squares solution involves many of the concepts covered in sections 2 and 3 such as matrix multiplication and matrix inverse. Thus there are efficient and inefficient ways to compute a least squares solution given the problem setup. More specifically, if the problem involves a psd matrix then one can take advantage of the cholesky decomposition methods which were shown to be advantageous.

4.1 - Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

For solution S , data matrix X and solution space Y:

```
XS = Y
X^T X S = X^T Y
     S = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y
```

XS = Y

One can make use of the pseudo inverse of X as its dimensions are arbitrary and may be singular:

```
X^+XS = X^+Y
     S \approx X^+ Y
```

To compute the ordinary least squares solution the pseudo inverse is used. This is done with the SciPy function pinv() from the scipy.linalg function base. More information on the pinv() function can be found on the SciPy documentation page [9].

4.1.1 - SciPy OLS

X = np.random.uniform(size = (3,2))Y = np.array([1,1,1])

```
X,Y
(array([[0.67459005, 0.33554957],
        [0.48042258, 0.86050783],
        [0.64218228, 0.429431 ]]),
 array([1, 1, 1]))
inv = la.pinv(X)
S = inv @ Y
X @ S # approximate solution to y
array([0.99860208, 0.99970045, 1.00169257])
```

```
4.1.2 - Python statsmodels Module
As per the statsmodels documentation page [11] statsmodels: Econometric and Statistical Modeling with Python "statsmodels is a Python module that
```

provides classes and functions for the estimation of many different statistical models, as well as for conducting statistical tests, and statistical data

exploration." As with the previous Python modules introduced, the tools we required can be imported with the call import statsmodels.api as sm. It should be noted that version 0.13.2 of the statsmodels module is being used.

import statsmodels.api as sm print(sm. version) 0.13.2

```
Here the module is used to compute least square solutions. The functions sm.OLS() and sm.GLS() are used to compute the ordinary and generalized
least square solutions.
```

Notice how the OLS() function produces the exact same result as the raw computation.

Using the same technique as done in Python, the pseudo inverse is used to find the ordinary least squares solution. This is done with the R function

inv2 = sm.OLS(Y, X).fit()inv2.fittedvalues # same approx solution as raw computation

4.1.4 - R OLS

inv <- pinv(X)</pre> S <- inv %*% Y

4.1.3 - statsmodels OLS

array([0.99860208, 0.99970045, 1.00169257])

```
pinv() from the pracma package. More information on the pinv() function can be found on the pracma documentation page [10].
# set up with same "random" data as Python example
X \leftarrow \text{matrix}(c(0.67459005, 0.48042258, 0.64218228, 0.33554957, 0.86050783, 0.429431), ncol = 2)
Y < - rep(1, 3)
print(X)
print(Y)
                      [,2]
           [,1]
[1,] 0.6745901 0.3355496
[2,] 0.4804226 0.8605078
[3,] 0.6421823 0.4294310
[1] 1 1 1
```

```
print(X %*% S) # approximate solution to y
           [,1]
[1,] 0.9986021
[2,] 0.9997004
[3,] 1.0016926
These results are consistent with the computations done in Python.
```

GLS makes use of the psd inverse calculations and matrix multiplication functions. For solution S, data matrix X, solution space Y and PSD matrix Σ :

```
4.2 - Generalized Least Squares (GLS)
```

XS = Y

 $X^T \Sigma^{-1} X S = X^T \Sigma^{-1} Y$ $S = (X^T \Sigma^{-1} X)^{-1} X^T \Sigma^{-1} Y$ Since Σ is PSD, then Σ^{-1} is PSD and hence $(X^T\Sigma^{-1}X)$ is also PSD. Thus using cholesky decomposition for $\Sigma=L_1^TL_1$ and the inner matrix

methods, as well as a "pure" version which does not and finally a built-in method using the statsmodels module.

L = la.solve_triangular(np.linalg.cholesky(sigma), np.eye(len(sigma)), lower=True)

The function computes $X(X^Tsigma^{-1}X)^{-1}X^Tsigma^{-1}Y$

```
(X^T\Sigma^{-1}X)=X^T(L_1^{-1}L_1^{-T})X=L_2^TL_2 the GLS computation then becomes:
                                                                      S = (X^T \Sigma^{-1} X)^{-1} X^T \Sigma^{-1} Y
                                                                         = (L_2^{-1}L_2^{-T})X^T(L_1^{-1}L_1^{-T})Y
4.2.1 - Python GLS
```

A fast generalized least squares solution for data matrix X, solution space Y and PSD matrix sigma.

Notes: -> sigma must be PSD

x,y,s

array([1., 1., 1.]),

time_normal = [] time_chole = [] $time_sm = []$

for i in range(n):

t1 = time.time()

t3 = time.time()

slightly slower in R compared to NumPy.

Notes: -> sigma must be PSD

sigma inverse

inner inverse

return gls soln

return gls

inv2 %*% t(X) %*% inv1 %*% Y

experiment is run using varying sized matrices.

s <- s + scales[n] * eye(scales[n])</pre>

time looks to get larger as the size of the system increases.

n <- length(scales)</pre>

time_solve <- numeric(n)</pre> time_chol <- numeric(n)</pre>

 $Y \leftarrow rep(1, scales[n])$

s < -0.5 * (t(s) + s)

for (i in 1:n) {

scales <- c(2, 10, 50, 500, 1000, 5000, 10000)

 $X \leftarrow matrix(runif(scales[n]^2, 0, 1), nrow = scales[n], ncol = scales[n])$

s <- matrix(runif(scales[n]^2, 0, 1), nrow = scales[n], ncol = scales[n])</pre>

chole_gls <- function(X,Y,sigma) {</pre>

Linv <- backsolve(chol(sigma), diag(ncol(X)))</pre>

L2 <- backsolve(chol(crossprod(inner, X)), diag(ncol(X)))

inner <- crossprod(tcrossprod(Linv), X)</pre>

tcrossprod(tcrossprod(L2), inner) %*% Y

time normal.append(time.time()-t1)

-> dimensions of X, Y and sigma must agree for matrix multiplication def chole gls(X, Y, sigma): # Find first inverse sigma^{-1}

The shortcuts discussed above for psd matrices can be used directly in the GLS computation. One can implement a version using cholesky decomposition

```
# Find next inverse (...)^{-1}
    inner = X.T @ np.matmul(L.T,L)
    L2 = la.solve triangular(np.linalg.cholesky(inner @ X), np.eye(len(X)), lower=True)
    # Return gls
    return np.matmul(L2.T,L2) @ inner @ Y
# A pure generalized least squares solution for data matrix X, solution space Y and PSD matrix sigma.
# The function computes X(X^Tsigma^{-1}X)^{-1}X^Tsigma^{-1}Y
# Notes: -> sigma must be PSD
         -> dimensions of X, Y and sigma must agree for matrix multiplication
def pure gls(X, Y, sigma):
    # Find first inverse sigma^{-1}
    s_inv = la.inv(sigma)
    # Return gls
    return la.inv(X.T @ s_inv @ X) @ X.T @ s_inv @ Y
A small GLS example is performed below using a matrix of size \mathbb{R}^{3\times3} where all three methods are tested.
# Data
x = np.random.uniform(0,1, size = (3,3))
y = np.array([1.,1,1])
# PSD sigma matrix
s = np.random.uniform(0,1, size = (3,3)) # symmetric psd
s = s + s.T - np.diag(s.diagonal())
s = np.matmul(s, s.T)/3
```

array([[1.14032497, 1.0809451 , 1.22701868], [1.0809451 , 1.33186762, 1.04385891], [1.22701868, 1.04385891, 1.86092279]]))

sol1 = pure_gls(X[0:N[i], 0:N[i]], Y[0:N[i]], sigma[0:N[i], 0:N[i]])

A fast generalized least squares solution for data matrix X, solution space Y # and PSD matrix sigma. The function computes $(X^Tsigma^{-1}X)^{-1}X^Tsigma^{-1}Y$

A pure generalized least squares solution for data matrix X, solution space Y # and PSD matrix sigma. The function computes $(X^Tsigma^{-1}X)^{-1}X^Tsigma^{-1}Y$

-> dimensions of X, Y and sigma must agree for matrix multiplication

(array([[0.05154553, 0.33478251, 0.68424231],

[0.7103685, 0.42704954, 0.5659001],[0.6738195, 0.29515479, 0.28922683]]),

```
soln = pure_gls(x, y, s)
soln_chole = chole_gls(x,y,s)
soln_sm = sm.GLS(y, x, s).fit()
x @ soln, x @ soln_chole, soln_sm.fittedvalues # 3 solutions all equal to y
(array([1., 1., 1.]), array([1., 1., 1.]), array([1., 1., 1.]))
One can observe that the results are all equivalent for each method. To view the difference in computational run times for each of these methods, a small
experiment is run using varying sized matrices.
N = np.array([2, 10, 50, 500, 1000, 5000, 10000])
n = len(N)
# data
X = np.random.uniform(0,1, size = (N[n-1], N[n-1]))
Y = np.ones(N[n-1])
# psd sigma
sigma = np.random.uniform(0,1, size = (N[n-1], N[n-1]))
sigma = 0.5*(sigma + sigma.T)
sigma = sigma + N[n-1] * np.eye(N[n-1])
```

t2 = time.time() sol2 = chole_gls(X[0:N[i], 0:N[i]], Y[0:N[i]], sigma[0:N[i], 0:N[i]]) time_chole.append(time.time()-t2)

```
sol3 = sm.GLS(Y[0:N[i]], X[0:N[i], 0:N[i]], sigma[0:N[i], 0:N[i]]).fit()
     time_sm.append(time.time()-t3)
N for NxN sized matrix Pure GLS Cholesky GLS statsmodels GLS
                                                      0.000398
                      0.000081
                                     0.000589
                  50 0.000610
                                     0.001257
                                                      0.001597
                      0.630047
                                                      0.497284
                 500
                                     0.020646
                                                     2.308699
                      3.008091
                                     0.069500
                1000
                5000 11.976236
                                     3.500787
                                                     65.164299
               10000 21.954963
                                    15.347694
                                                    545.324912
Note: these runtimes will vary depending on the machine one uses but we can expect the overall trends to stay the same. One can observe how much
slower the built-in statsmodels function sm.GLS() is compared to the other two methods. This can be attributed to the statsmodels function performing
additional tasks within the GLS() call. These tasks include calculating residuals, fitted values and other descriptive summary results. If your goal is to
produce nice results and are not concerned with run time then using this function may be desired. If run time is a concern then building GLS functions from
scratch is clearly advantageous. These raw functions can be improved by implementing a cholesky decomposition method, which was shown above to
compute solutions the fastest.
4.2.2 - R GLS
The same process for GLS computation can be carried out in R, making use of the same psd matrix tricks. It should be noted that matrix multiplication is
```

Notes: -> sigma must be PSD -> dimensions of X, Y and sigma must agree for matrix multiplication pure gls <- function(X, Y, sigma) {</pre> # sigma inverse inv1 <- solve(sigma)</pre> # inner inverse inv2 <- solve(t(X) %*% inv1 %*% X)</pre>

```
Similar to what was done above for Python, a small GLS example is performed below using a matrix of size \mathbb{R}^{3\times3}. Here the cholesky method is implemented
and compared to a "pure" implementation that uses no decomposition.
x \leftarrow matrix(runif(9), ncol = 3)
y < -c(1,1,1)
s <- matrix(runif(9), ncol = 3)</pre>
s < -0.5*(s + t(s))
s < -s + 3*eye(3)
print(x)
print(y)
print(s)
           [,1]
                        [,2]
[1,] 0.9049013 0.14480767 0.5152959
[2,] 0.7297637 0.40634528 0.2310326
[3,] 0.2044630 0.04217148 0.5226685
[1] 1 1 1
                       [,2]
           [,1]
                                  [,3]
[1,] 3.4516124 0.5254392 0.7363178
[2,] 0.5254392 3.2415333 0.8283556
[3,] 0.7363178 0.8283556 3.3701677
soln1 <- pure gls(x,y,s)</pre>
soln2 <- chole_gls(x,y,s)</pre>
print(x %*% soln1)
print(x %*% soln2) # same solution equal to y
     [,1]
[1,] 1
[2,]
[3,] 1
     [,1]
[1,] 1
[2,]
[3,]
      1
One can observe the equivalence os the solutions for each method. To view the difference in computational run times for each of these methods, a small
```

```
N <- scales[i]
t1 <- Sys.time()</pre>
soln1 <- pure_gls(X[1:N, 1:N], Y[1:N], s[1:N, 1:N])
time solve[i] <- Sys.time() - t1</pre>
```

```
A matrix: 6 x 3 of type dbl
N for NxN sized matrix Pure Implementation Cholesky Implementation
                   10
                                   0.000717
                                                             0.000070
                                                             0.000257
                   50
                                   0.001714
                  500
                                   1.063931
                                                             0.069808
                 1000
                                   2.827480
                                                             0.168958
                 5000
                                  13.069145
                                                             3.751185
                10000
                                  33.688865
                                                            16.694152
```

[9] Virtanen, P. et al., 2020. SciPy 1.0: Fundamental Algorithms for Scientific Computing in Python, [link] (https://scipy.org/)

t3 <- Sys.time() soln2 <- chole_gls(X[1:N, 1:N], Y[1:N], s[1:N, 1:N])</pre> time_chol[i] <- Sys.time() - t3</pre>

[11] Seabold, Skipper, and Josef Perktold, 2010. statsmodels: Econometric and Statistical Modeling with Python, [link] (https://www.statsmodels.org)

[10] Hans W. Borchers, 2022, Package 'pracma' (Practical Numerical Math Functions), [link] (https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pracma)

Note: these runtimes will vary depending on the machine one uses but we can expect the overall trends to stay the same. The results are similar to what was found in Python. Taking advantage of a cholesky decomposition when computing a GLS solution in R clearly leads to faster run times. The difference in run