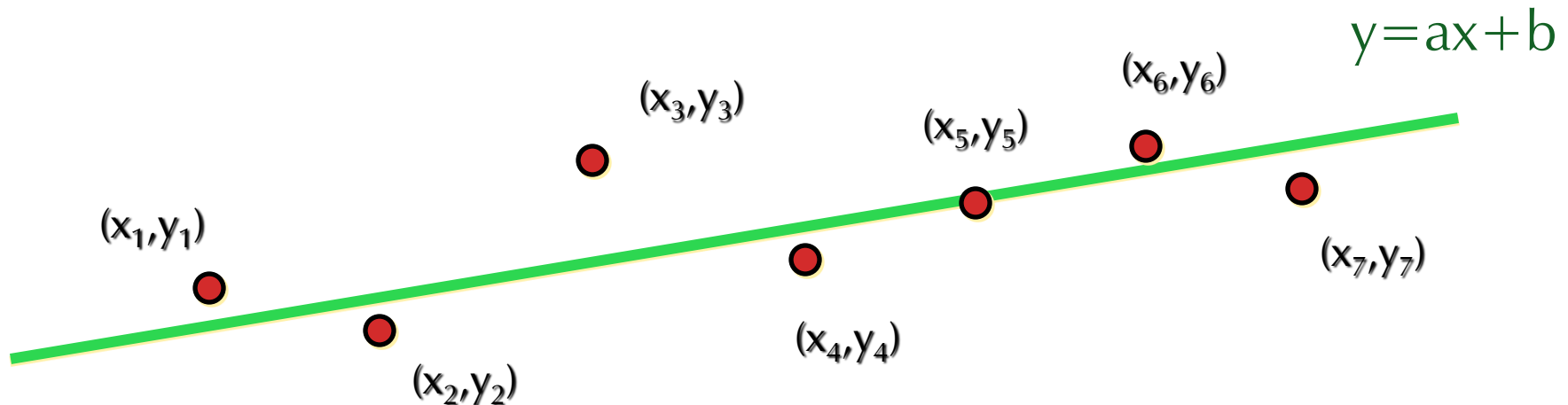


Data Modeling and Least Squares Fitting

COS 323

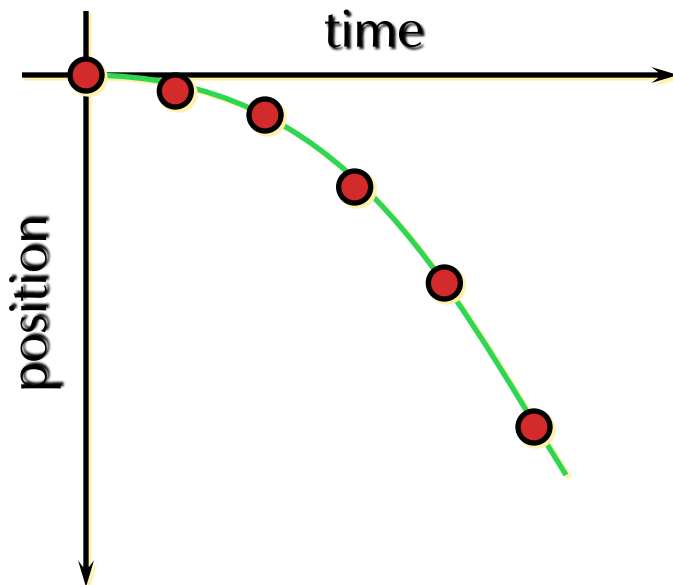
Data Modeling

- Given: data points, functional form, find constants in function
- Example: given (x_i, y_i) , find line through them; i.e., find a and b in $y = ax + b$



Data Modeling

- You might do this because you actually care about those numbers...
 - Example: measure position of falling object, fit parabola



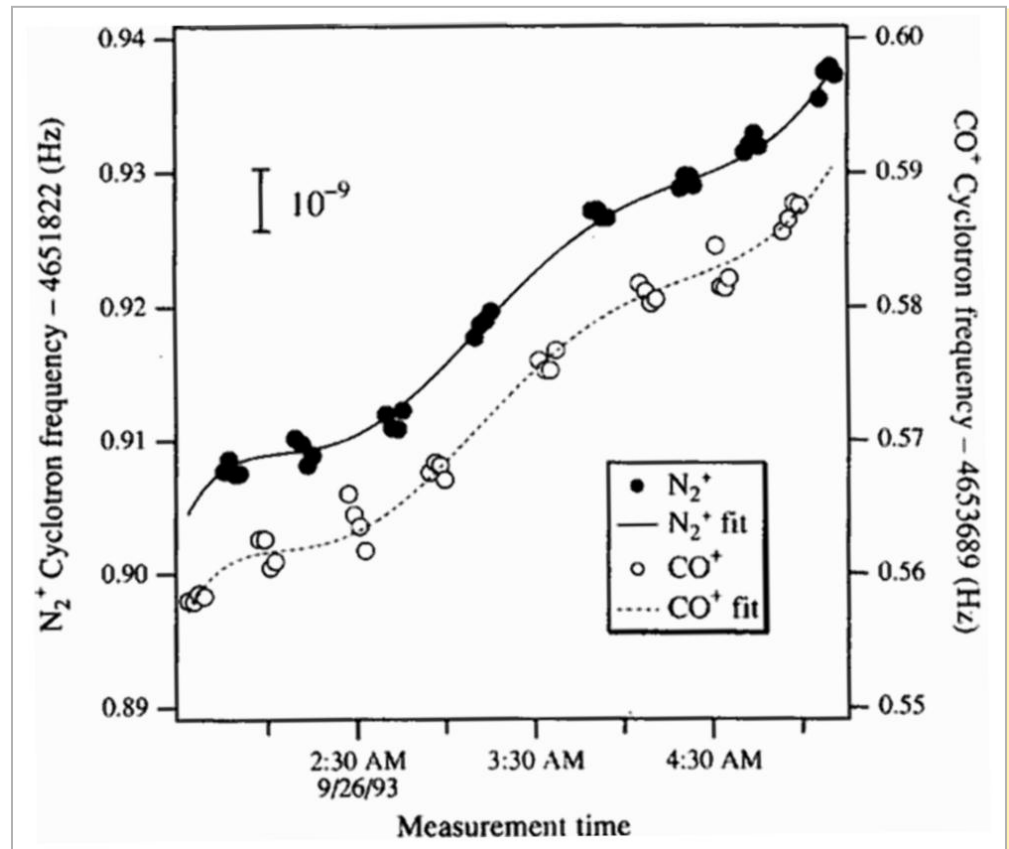
$$p = -\frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

$\Rightarrow$ Estimate g from fit

Data Modeling

- ... or because some aspect of behavior is unknown and you want to ignore it

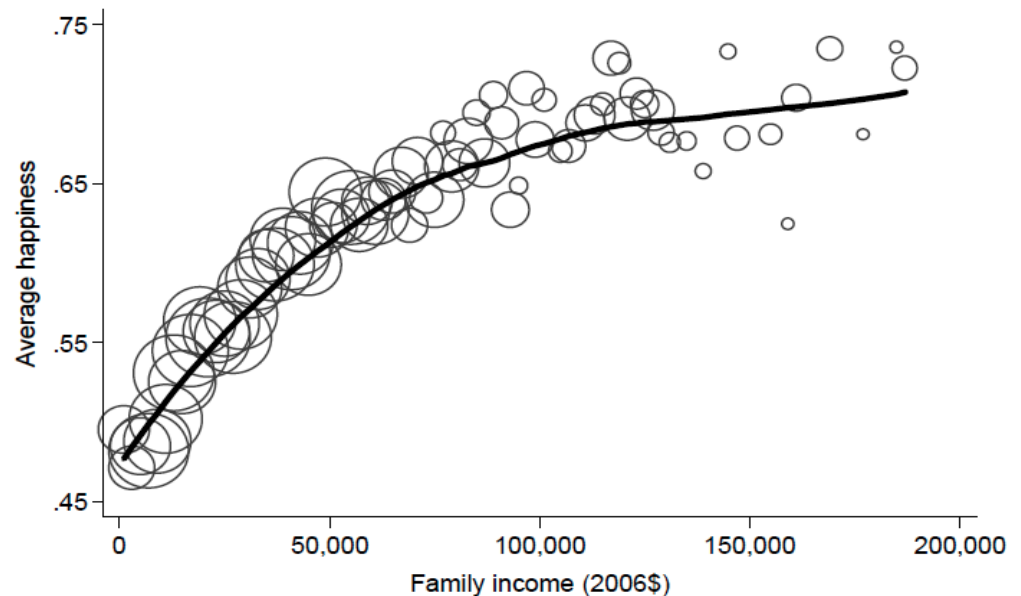
- Measuring relative resonant frequency of two ions, want to ignore magnetic field drift



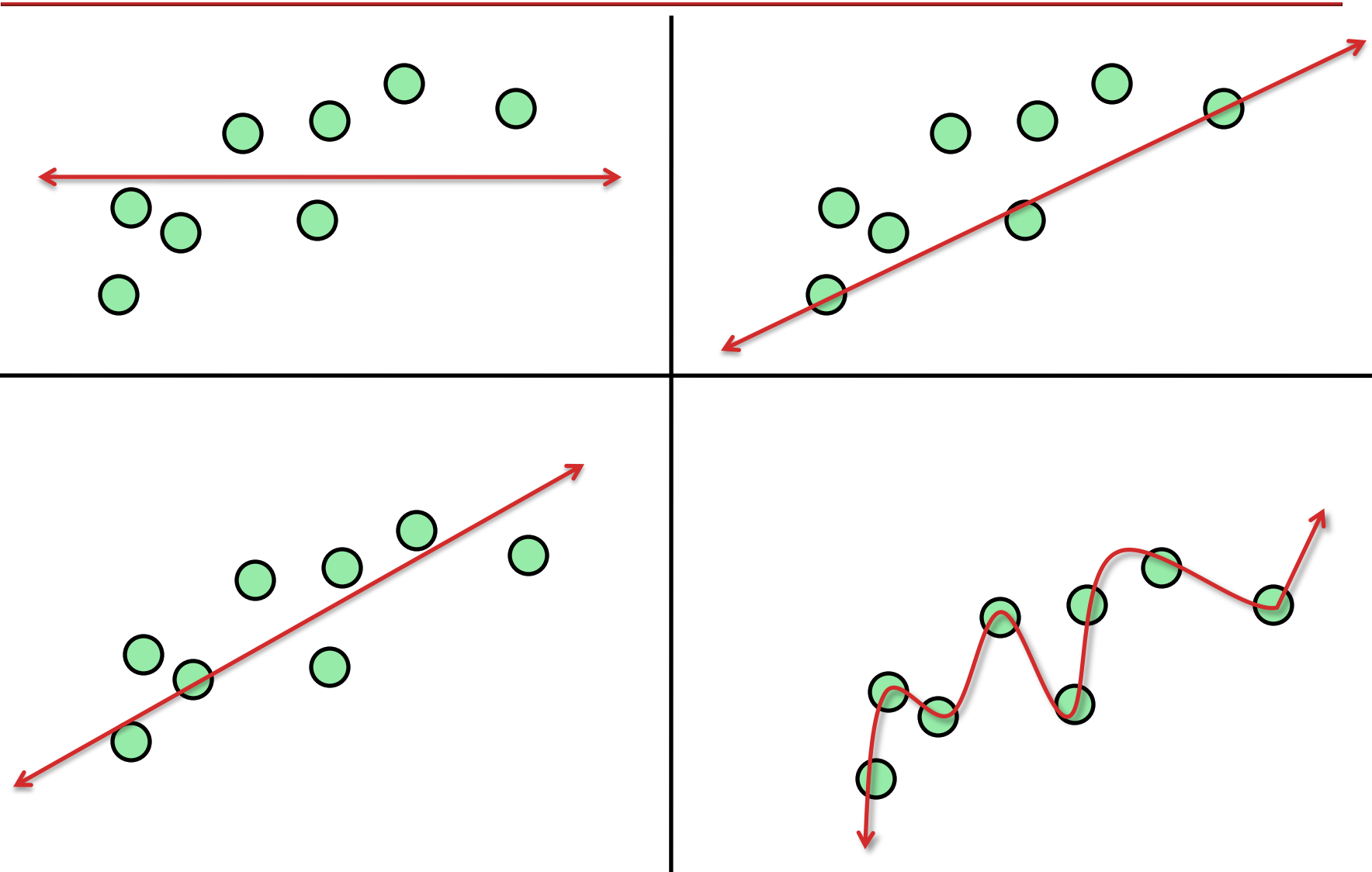
Data Modeling

- ... or to compare model types to figure out what *kind* of dependence exists

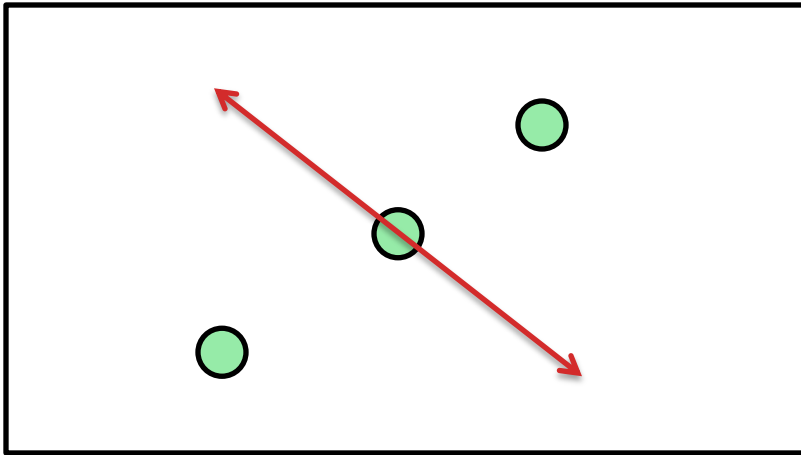
– Is happiness linear w.r.t. income?



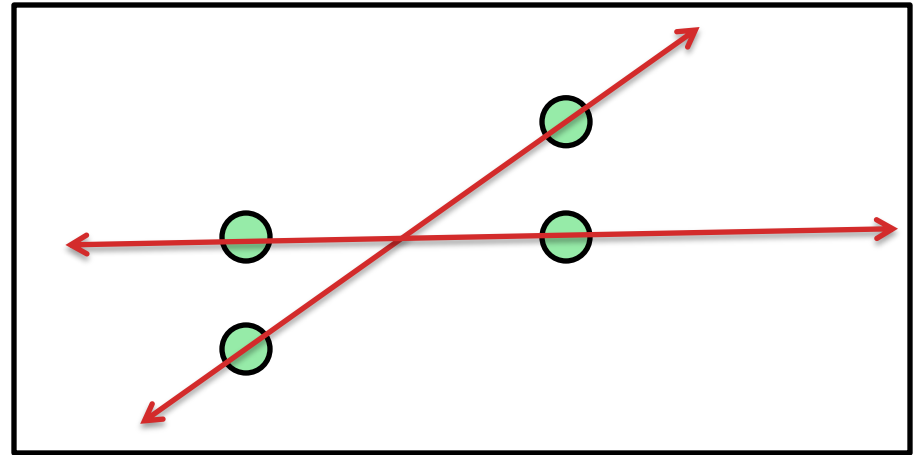
Which model is best?



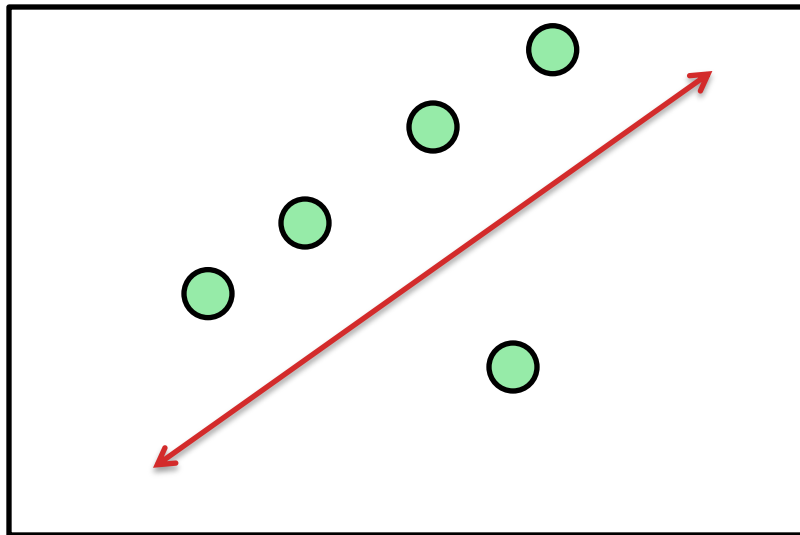
Best-fit lines under different metrics



Sum of residuals



Sum of absolute values of residuals



Maximum error of
any point

Least Squares

- Nearly universal formulation of fitting:
minimize squares of differences between
data and function

- Example: for fitting a line, minimize

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i (y_i - (ax_i + b))^2$$

with respect to a and b

- Finds one unique best-fit model for a dataset

Linear Least Squares

- Important special case
 - (Also called “Ordinary least squares”)
- General pattern:

$$y_i = a f(\vec{x}_i) + b g(\vec{x}_i) + c h(\vec{x}_i) + \dots$$

Given $(\vec{x}_i, y_i)$, solve for $a, b, c, \dots$

- *Dependence on unknowns* ($a, b, c, \dots$) is linear, but f, g , etc. might not be!

Linear Least Squares Examples

- General form: $y_i = a f(\vec{x}_i) + b g(\vec{x}_i) + c h(\vec{x}_i) + \dots$
Given $(\vec{x}_i, y_i)$, solve for $a, b, c, \dots$
- **Linear** regression: $f(x_i) = x_i, g(x_i) = 1$
 $y_i = a * x_i + b$
- **Multiple** linear regression:
 $y_i = a * x_{1i} + b * x_{2i} + c$
- **Polynomial** regression:
 $y_i = a * x_i^2 + b * x_i + c$

How do we compute the model
parameters?

Solving Linear Least Squares Problem (one simple approach)

- Take partial derivatives:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i (y_i - a f(x_i) - b g(x_i) - \dots)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a} = \sum_i -2 f(x_i) (y_i - a f(x_i) - b g(x_i) - \dots) = 0$$

$$a \sum_i f(x_i) f(x_i) + b \sum_i f(x_i) g(x_i) + \dots = \sum_i f(x_i) y_i$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial b} = \sum_i -2 g(x_i) (y_i - a f(x_i) - b g(x_i) - \dots) = 0$$

$$a \sum_i g(x_i) f(x_i) + b \sum_i g(x_i) g(x_i) + \dots = \sum_i g(x_i) y_i$$

Solving Linear Least Squares Problem

- For convenience, rewrite as matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sum_i f(x_i)f(x_i) & \sum_i f(x_i)g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \sum_i g(x_i)f(x_i) & \sum_i g(x_i)g(x_i) & \\ \vdots & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i f(x_i)y_i \\ \sum_i g(x_i)y_i \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

- Factor:

$$\sum_i \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \sum_i y_i \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Alternative Perspective: Overconstrained (Approximate) Linear System

- There's a different derivation of this:
overconstrained linear system

$$\mathbf{A}x = b$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b \end{pmatrix}$$

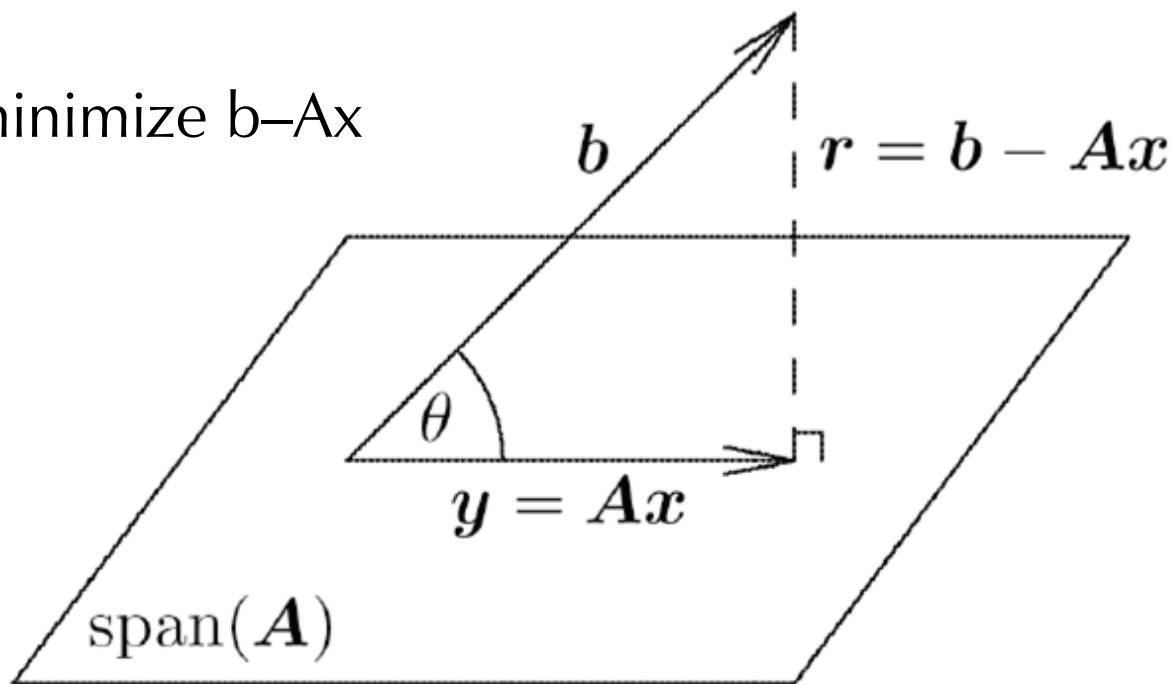
Notation:

- Rows of $\mathbf{A}$ are basis functions computed on observations ($f(x_i)$, $g(x_i)$, ...)
- x is column of model parameters (a , b , c ...)
- b is column of " y_i "

- $\mathbf{A}$ has n rows and $m < n$ columns:
more equations than unknowns

Geometric Interpretation for Over-determined System

- Find the x that comes “closest” to satisfying $Ax=b$
 - i.e., minimize $\|b-Ax\|$

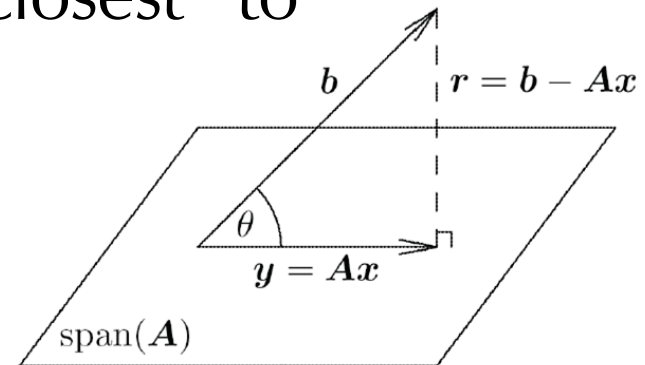


Geometric Interpretation

- Interpretation: find x that comes “closest” to satisfying $Ax=b$

- i.e., minimize $\|b - Ax\|$
- i.e., minimize $\|b - Ax\|$

- Equivalently, find x such that r is orthogonal to $\text{span}(A)$



$$0 = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{Ax})$$

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

Forming the equation

- What are $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{b}$?
 - Row i of $\mathbf{A}$ is basis functions computed on x_i
 - Row i of $\mathbf{b}$ is y_i

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} f(x_1) & g(x_1) & \cdots \\ f(x_2) & g(x_2) & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i f(x_i) f(x_i) & \sum_i f(x_i) g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \sum_i g(x_i) f(x_i) & \sum_i g(x_i) g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i y_i f(x_i) \\ \sum_i y_i g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Minimizing Sum of Squares

= Finding Closest Ax in $\text{span}(A)$

- Compare two expressions we've derived: equal!



$$\begin{bmatrix} \sum_i f(x_i)f(x_i) & \sum_i f(x_i)g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \sum_i g(x_i)f(x_i) & \sum_i g(x_i)g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_i y_i f(x_i) \\ \sum_i y_i g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Starting from goal of
finding Ax in $\text{span}(A)$
closest to b outside $\text{span}(A)$



$$\sum_i \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \sum_i y_i \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Starting from goal of
minimizing sum of squares

Great, but how do we solve it?

Ways of Solving Linear Least Squares

$$\sum_i \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \sum_i y_i \begin{bmatrix} f(x_i) \\ g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

- Option 1:

for each x_i, y_i

compute $f(x_i), g(x_i)$, etc.

store in row i of A

store y_i in b

compute $(A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$

- $(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ is known as “pseudoinverse” of A

Ways of Solving Linear Least Squares

- Option 2:
 - for each x_i, y_i
 - compute $f(x_i)$, $g(x_i)$, etc.
 - store in row i of A
 - store y_i in b
 - compute $A^T A$, $A^T b$
 - solve $A^T A x = A^T b$**
- Known as “normal equations” for least squares
 - Inefficient, since A typically larger than $A^T A$ and $A^T b$

Ways of Solving Linear Least Squares

- Option 3:

for each x_i, y_i

compute $f(x_i)$, $g(x_i)$, etc.

accumulate outer product in U

accumulate product with y_i in v

solve $Ux=v$

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_i f(x_i)f(x_i) & \sum_i f(x_i)g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \sum_i g(x_i)f(x_i) & \sum_i g(x_i)g(x_i) & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}}_U \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sum_i y_i f(x_i) \\ \sum_i y_i g(x_i) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}}_v$$

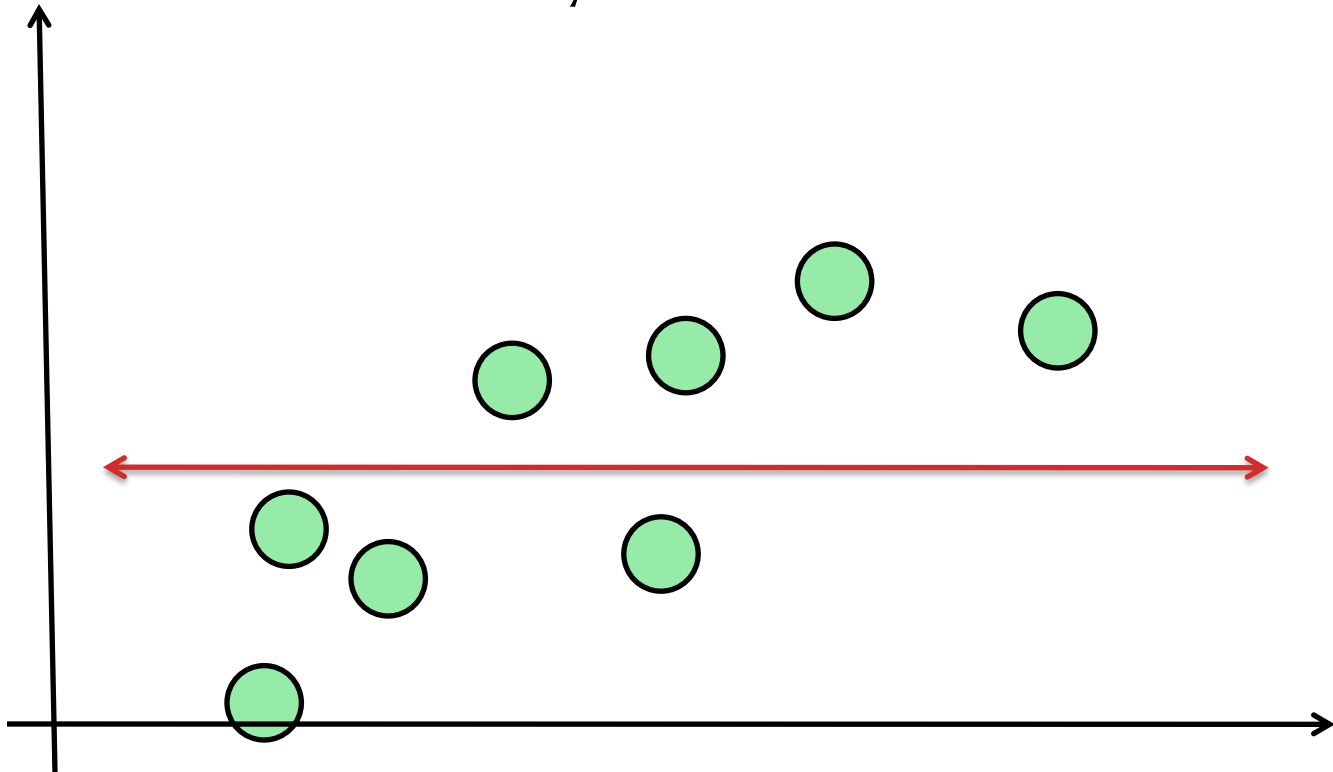
The Problem with Normal Equations

- Involves solving $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$
- This can be **inaccurate**
 - Independent of solution method
 - Remember:
$$\frac{\|\Delta \mathbf{x}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \text{cond}(\mathbf{A}) \frac{\|\Delta \mathbf{A}\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\|}$$
 - **$\text{cond}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) = [\text{cond}(\mathbf{A})]^2$**
- Next week: computing pseudoinverse stably
 - More expensive, but more accurate
 - Also allows diagnosing insufficient data

Special Cases

Special Case: Constant

- Let's try to model a function of the form
 $y = a$



Special Case: Constant

- Let's try to model a function of the form

$$y = a$$

- Comparing to general form

$$y_i = af(\vec{x}_i) + bg(\vec{x}_i) + ch(\vec{x}_i) + \dots$$

we have $f(x_i)=1$ and we are solving

$$\sum_i [1]a = \sum_i [y_i]$$

$$\therefore a = \frac{\sum_i y_i}{n}$$

Special Case: Line

- Fit to $y=a+bx$
- $f(x_i)=1$, $g(x_i)=x$. So, solve:

$$\sum_i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \sum_i y_i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} n & \sum x_i \\ \sum x_i & \sum x_i^2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} \sum x_i^2 & -\sum x_i \\ -\sum x_i & n \end{bmatrix}}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2}, \quad \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum y_i \\ \sum x_i y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a = \frac{\sum x_i^2 \sum y_i - \sum x_i \sum x_i y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2}, \quad b = \frac{n \sum x_i y_i - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2}$$

Variant: Weighted Least Squares

Weighted Least Squares

- Common case: the (x_i, y_i) have different uncertainties associated with them
- Want to give more weight to measurements of which you are more certain

- Weighted least squares minimization

$$\min \chi^2 = \sum_i w_i (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$

- If “uncertainty” (stdev) is σ , best to take $w_i = 1/\sigma_i^2$

Weighted Least Squares

- Define weight matrix $\mathbf{W}$ as

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 & & & & 0 \\ & w_2 & & & \\ & & w_3 & & \\ & & & w_4 & \\ 0 & & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

- Then solve weighted least squares via

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

Understanding Error and Uncertainty

Error Estimates from Linear Least Squares

- For many applications, finding model is useless without estimate of its accuracy
- Residual is $b - Ax$
- Can compute $\chi^2 = (b - Ax) \cdot (b - Ax)$
- How do we tell whether answer is good?
 - Lots of measurements
 - χ^2 is small
 - χ^2 increases quickly with perturbations to x
($\rightarrow$ **standard variance** of estimate is small)

Error Estimates from Linear Least Squares

- Let's look at increase in χ^2 :

$$\begin{aligned}x &\rightarrow x + \delta x \\(b - \mathbf{A}(x + \delta x))^T (b - \mathbf{A}(x + \delta x)) \\&= ((b - \mathbf{A}x) - \mathbf{A}\delta x)^T ((b - \mathbf{A}x) - \mathbf{A}\delta x) \\&= (b - \mathbf{A}x)^T (b - \mathbf{A}x) - 2\delta x^T \mathbf{A}^T (b - \mathbf{A}x) + \delta x^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \delta x \\&= \chi^2 - 2\delta x^T (\mathbf{A}^T b - \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}x) + \delta x^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \delta x \\&\text{So, } \chi^2 \rightarrow \chi^2 + \delta x^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \delta x\end{aligned}$$

- So, the *bigger* $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ is, the *faster* error increases as we move away from current x

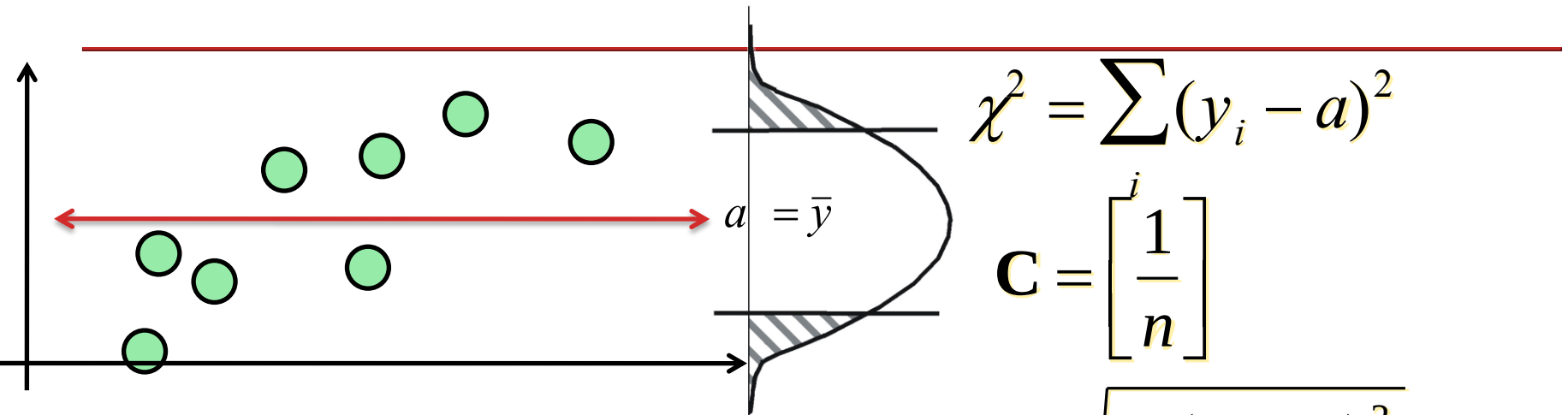
Error Estimates from Linear Least Squares

- $C = (A^T A)^{-1}$ is called *covariance* of the data
- The “**standard variance**” in our estimate of x is

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\chi^2}{n - m} \mathbf{C}$$

- This is a matrix:
 - Diagonal entries give variance of estimates of components of x : e.g., $\text{var}(a_0)$
 - Off-diagonal entries explain mutual dependence: e.g., $\text{cov}(a_0, a_1)$
- $n - m$ is (# of samples) minus (# of degrees of freedom in the fit): consult a statistician...

Special Case: Error in Constant Model



$$\chi^2 = \sum (y_i - a)^2$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

standard deviation of data : $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y_i - a)^2}{n-1}}$

standard error of a : $\sigma_a = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (y_i - a)^2}{n-1}} / \sqrt{n}$

“standard deviation
of mean”

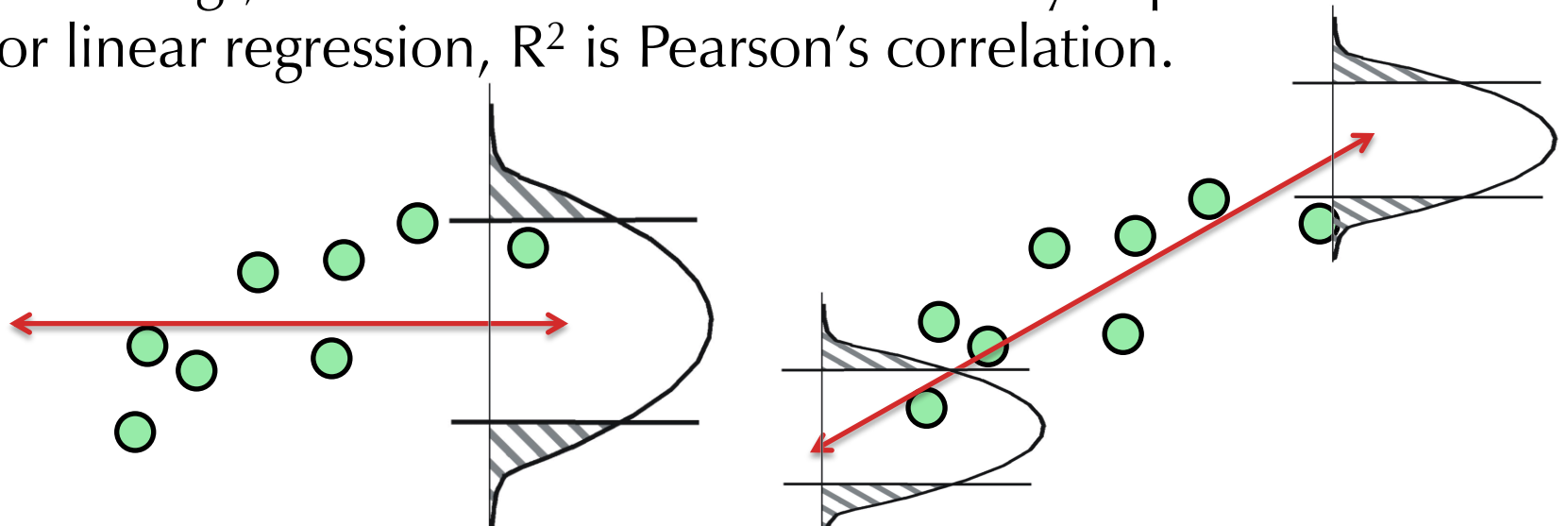
Coefficient of Determination

$$R^2 \equiv 1 - \frac{\chi^2}{\sum_i y_i - \bar{y}}$$

R^2 : Proportion of observed variability that is explained by the model

e.g., $R^2 = 0.7$ means 70% variability explained

For linear regression, R^2 is Pearson's correlation.



Keep in mind...

- In general, uncertainty in estimated parameters goes down slowly: like $1/\sqrt{\text{\# samples}}$
- Formulas for special cases (like fitting a line) are messy: simpler to think of $A^T A x = A^T b$ form
- Normal equations method often not numerically stable: orthogonal decomposition methods used instead
- Linear least squares is not always the most appropriate modeling technique...

Next time

- Non-linear models
 - Including logistic regression
- Dealing with outliers and bad data
- Practical considerations
 - Is least squares an appropriate method for my data?