Least squares problems How to state and solve them, then evaluate their solutions

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Outline

- Motivation and statistical framework
- Maths reminder (survival kit)
- Linear Least Squares (LLS)
- Non Linear Least Squares (NLLS)
- Statistical evaluation of solutions
- Model selection

Motivation and statistical framework

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Motivation

Regression problem

- **Data** : $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1..n}$,
- Model : $y = f_{\theta}(x)$
 - $x \in \mathbb{R}$: independent variable
 - $y \in \mathbb{R}$: dependent variable (value found by observation)
 - $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$: parameters
- Regression problem

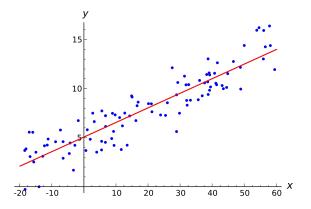
Find θ such that the model best explains the data,

i.e. y_i is close to $f_{\theta}(x_i)$, $i = 1 \dots n$.

Motivation

Regression problem, example

Simple linear regression : $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^2$



 \rightarrow find θ_1, θ_2 such that the data fits the model $y = \theta_1 + \theta_2 x$

How does one measure the fit/misfit ?

Motivation

Least squares method

The least squares method measures the fit with the Sum of Squared Residuals (SSR)

$$S(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i))^2,$$

and aims to find $\hat{\theta}$ such that

or equivalently

 $\forall \theta \in \mathbb{R}^{p}, \quad \mathcal{S}(\hat{\theta}) \leq \mathcal{S}(\theta),$

 $\hat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta \mathbb{R}^p} S(\theta).$

Important issues

- statistical interpretation
- existence, uniqueness and practical determination of $\hat{\theta}$ (algorithms)

Hypothesis

(x_i)_{*i*=1...*n*} are given

2 $(y_i)_{i=1...n}$ are samples of random variables

$$y_i = f_{\theta}(x_i) + \varepsilon_i, \ i = 1 \dots n,$$

where ε_i , $i = 1 \dots n$ are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) and

$$E[\varepsilon_i] = 0, \ E[\varepsilon_i^2] = \sigma^2, \ \text{density} \ \varepsilon \to g(\varepsilon)$$

The probability density of y_i is given by

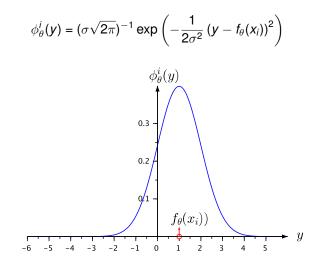
$$\phi_{\theta}^{i}: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

 $y \longrightarrow \phi_{\theta}^{i}(y) = g(y - f_{\theta}(x_{i}))$

hence $E[y_i|\theta] = f_{\theta}(x_i)$.

Example

If ε is normally distributed, i.e. $g(\varepsilon) = (\sigma \sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \varepsilon^2)$, we have



Joint probability density and Likelihood function

• Joint density

When θ is given, as the (y_i) are independent, the density of the vector $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ is

$$\phi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{\theta}^{i}(y_{i}) = \phi_{\theta}^{1}(y_{1})\phi_{\theta}^{2}(y_{2})\dots\phi_{\theta}^{n}(y_{n}).$$

Interpretation : for $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\mathsf{Prob}(\mathbf{y} \in D| heta) = \int_D \phi_{ heta}(\mathbf{y}) \, dy_1 \dots dy_n$$

• Likelihood function

When a sample of **y** is given, then $L_{\mathbf{y}}(\theta) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \phi_{\theta}(\mathbf{y})$ is called

Likelihood of the parameters θ

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

The Maximum Likelihood Estimate of θ is the vector $\hat{\theta}$ defined by

 $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p} L_{\mathbf{y}}(\theta).$

Under the Gaussian hypothesis, then

$$L_{\mathbf{y}}(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (\sigma \sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i)\right)^2\right),$$
$$= (\sigma \sqrt{2\pi})^{-n} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i)\right)^2\right),$$

hence, we recover the least squares solution, i.e.

$$\arg \max_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p} L_{\mathbf{y}}(\theta) = \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p} S(\theta).$$

Alternatives : Least Absolute Deviation Regression

• Least Absolute Deviation Regression : the misfit is measured by

$$S_1(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i)|.$$

Is $\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p} S_1(\theta)$ is a maximum likelihood estimate ?

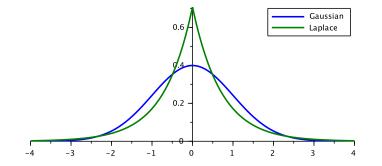
Yes, if ε_i has a Laplace distribution

$$g(\varepsilon) = (\sigma\sqrt{2})^{-1} \exp\left(-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sigma}|\varepsilon|\right)$$

First issue : S_1 is not differentiable

Alternatives : Least Absolute Deviation Regression

Densities of Gaussian vs. Laplacian random variables (with zero mean and unit variance) :



Second issue : the two statistical hypothesis are very different !

Take home message

Take home message #1 :

Doing Least Squares Regression means that you assume that the model error is Gaussian.

However, if you have no idea about the model error :

the nice theoretical and computational framework you will get is worth doing this assumption...

a posteriori goodness of fit tests can be used to assess the normality of errors.

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Matrix algebra

• Notation : $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n,m}(\mathbb{R}), x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

• Product : for
$$B \in \mathcal{M}_{m,p}(\mathbb{R})$$
, $C = AB \in \mathcal{M}_{n,p}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

Identity matrix

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix algebra

• Transposition, Inner product and norm :

$$A^{\top} \in \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$$
 , $[A^{\top}]_{ij} = a_{ji}$

For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x^{\top} y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i, \quad ||x||^2 = x^{\top} x$$

Matrix algebra

• Linear dependance / independence :

a set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is dependent if a vector x_i can be written as

$$x_j = \sum_{k=1, k \neq i}^m \alpha_k x_k$$

- a set of vectors which is not dependent is called independent
- ► a set of *m* > *n* vectors is necessarily dependent
- a set of *n* independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is called a basis
- The rank of a $A \in M_{nm}$ is the number of its linearly independent columns

$$\mathsf{rank}(A) = m \Longleftrightarrow \{Ax = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0\}$$

Linear system of equations

When A is square

rank(A) =
$$n \iff$$
 there exists A^{-1} s.t. $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$

When the above property holds :

• For all $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the system of equations

$$Ax = y$$
,

has a unique solution $x = A^{-1}y$.

• Computation : Gauss elimination algorithm (no computation of A^{-1})

in Scilab/Matlab : $x = A \setminus y$

Differentiability

• Definition : let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$,

$$f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix}, \quad f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

f is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + f'(a)h + ||h||\varepsilon(h), \quad \lim_{h \to 0} \varepsilon(h) = 0$$

• Jacobian matrix, partial derivatives :

$$\left[f'(a)\right]_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)$$

• Gradient : if $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is differentiable at a,

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + \nabla f(a)^{\top} h + ||h|| \varepsilon(h), \quad \lim_{h \to 0} \varepsilon(h) = 0$$

Nonlinear system of equations

When $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, a solution \hat{x} to the system of equations

 $f(\hat{x}) = 0$

can be found (or not) by the Newton's method : given x_0 , for each k

consider the affine approximation of f at x_k

$$T(x) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k)$$

2 take x_{k+1} such that $T(x_{k+1}) = 0$,

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

Newton's method can be very fast... if x_0 is not too far from \hat{x} !

Find a local minimum - gradient algorithm

When $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, a vector \hat{x} satisfying $\nabla f(\hat{x}) = 0$ and

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, f(\hat{x}) \leq f(x)$

can be found by the descent algorithm : given x_0 , for each k :

() select a direction d_k such that $\nabla f(x_k)^\top d_k < 0$

2 select a step ρ_k , such that

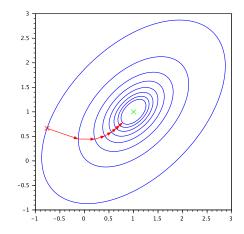
$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \rho_k d_k,$$

satisfies (among other conditions)

 $f(x_{k+1}) < f(x_k)$

The choice $d_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$ leads to the gradient algorithm

Find a local minimum - gradient algorithm



$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \rho_k \nabla f(x_k),$$

Least squares

Linear Least Squares (LLS)

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Linear models

• The model $y = f_{\theta}(x)$ is linear w.r.t. θ , i.e.

$$y = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \theta_{j} \phi_{j}(x), \quad \phi_{k} : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

Examples

$$y = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \theta_j x^{j-1}$$

$$y = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \theta_j \cos \frac{(j-1)x}{T}, \text{ where } T = x_n - x_1$$

$$\cdots$$

The residual for simple linear regression

• Simple linear regression

$$S(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_i - y_i)^2 = ||r(\theta)||^2,$$

Residual vector $r(\theta)$

$$r_i(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1, x_i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} - y_i$$

• For the whole residual vector

$$r(\theta) = A\theta - y, \quad y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The residual for a general linear model

• General linear model $f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \theta_j \phi_j(x)$

$$S(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f_{\theta}(x_i) - y_i)^2 = ||r(\theta)||^2,$$

=
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} \theta_j \phi_j(x_i) - y_i \right)^2 = ||r(\theta)||^2,$$

Residual vector $r(\theta)$

$$r_i(\theta) = [\phi_1(x_i), \dots, \phi_p(x_i)] \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} - y_i$$

• For the whole residual vector $r(\theta) = A\theta - y$ where A has size $n \times p$ and

$$a_{ij} = \phi_j(x_i).$$

Optimality conditions

• Linear Least Squares problem : find $\hat{\theta}$

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta \mathbb{R}^p} S(\hat{\theta}) = \|A\theta - y\|^2$$

Necessary optimality condition

$$\nabla S(\hat{\theta}) = 0$$

Compute the gradient by expanding $S(\theta)$

Optimality conditions

$$S(\theta + h) = ||A(\theta + h) - y||^{2} = ||A\theta - y + Ah||^{2}$$

= $(A\theta - y + Ah)^{\top}(A\theta - y + Ah)$
= $(A\theta - y)^{\top}(A\theta - y) + (A\theta - y)^{\top}Ah + (Ah)^{\top}(A\theta - y) + (Ah)^{\top}Ah$
= $||A\theta - y||^{2} + 2(A\theta - y)^{\top}Ah + ||Ah||^{2}$
= $S(\theta) + \nabla S(\theta)^{\top}h + ||Ah||^{2}$

$$\nabla S(\theta) = 2A^{\top}(A\theta - y),$$

hence $\nabla S(\hat{\theta}) = 0$ implies

 $A^\top A \hat{\theta} = A^\top y.$

Optimality conditions

Theorem : a solution of the LLS problem is given by $\hat{\theta}$, solution of the "normal equations"

$$\boldsymbol{A}^{\top}\boldsymbol{A}\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \boldsymbol{A}^{\top}\boldsymbol{y},$$

moreover, if rank A = p then $\hat{\theta}$ is unique. **Proof**:

$$\begin{split} S(\theta) &= S(\hat{\theta} + \theta - \hat{\theta}) = S(\hat{\theta}) + \nabla S(\hat{\theta})^{\top} (\theta - \hat{\theta}) + \|A(\theta - \hat{\theta})\|^2, \\ &= S(\hat{\theta}) + \|A(\theta - \hat{\theta})\|^2, \\ &\geq S(\hat{\theta}) \end{split}$$

Uniqueness:

$$S(\hat{\theta}) = S(\theta) \iff ||A(\theta - \hat{\theta})||^2 = 0,$$
$$\iff A(\theta - \hat{\theta}) = 0$$
$$\iff \theta = \hat{\theta},$$

Simple linear regression

- rank A = 2 if there exists $i \neq j$ such that $x_i \neq x_j$
- Computations :

$$S_{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}, S_{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}, S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}y_{i}, S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}$$
$$A^{\top}A = \begin{bmatrix} n & S_{x} \\ S_{x} & S_{xx} \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^{\top}y = \begin{bmatrix} S_{y} \\ S_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\theta_{1} = \frac{S_{y}S_{xx} - S_{x}S_{xy}}{nS_{xx} - S_{x}^{2}}, \quad \theta_{2} = \frac{nS_{xy} - S_{x}S_{y}}{nS_{xx} - S_{x}^{2}}$$

Practical resolution with Scilab

• When A is square and invertible, the Scilab command

computes x, the unique solution of $A \star x = y$.

• When A is not square and has full (column) rank, then the command

x=A\y

 $x=A \setminus y$

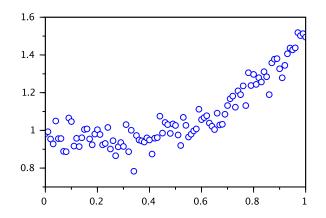
computes x, the unique least squares solution. i.e. such that norm (A*x-y) is minimal.

Although mathematically equivalent to

 $\mathbf{x}{=}\left(\mathbb{A'}{}^{\star}\mathbb{A}\right)\setminus\left(\mathbb{A'}{}^{\star}\mathbf{y}\right)$

the command $x=A \setminus y$ is numerically more stable, precise and efficient

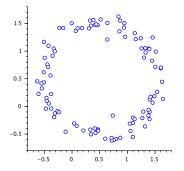
Practical resolution with Scilab



Fit $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1...n}$ with a polynomial of degree 2 with Scilab

An interesting example

Find a circle wich best fits $(x_i, y_i)_{i=1...n}$ in the plane



• Minimize the algebraic distance

$$d(a, b, R) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left((x_i - a)^2 + (y_i - b)^2 - R^2 \right)^2 = ||r||^2$$

An interesting example

• Algebraic distance

$$d(a, b, R) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left((x_i - a)^2 + (y_i - b)^2 - R^2 \right)^2 = ||r||^2$$

The residual vector is non-linear w.r.t. (a, b, R) but we have

$$r_{i} = R^{2} - a^{2} - b^{2} + 2ax_{i} + 2by_{i} - (x_{i}^{2} + y_{i}^{2}),$$

= $[2x_{i}, 2y_{i}, 1] \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ R^{2} - a^{2} - b^{2} \end{bmatrix} - (x_{i}^{2} + y_{i}^{2})$

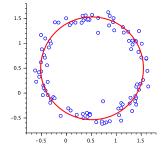
hence residual is linear w.r.t. $\theta = (a, b, R^2 - a^2 - b^2)$.

An interesting example

• Standard form, the unknown is $\theta = (a, b, R^2 - a^2 - b^2)$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 & 2y_1 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 2x_n & 2y_n & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad z = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 + y_1^2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n^2 + y_n^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad d(a, b, R) = ||A\theta - z||^2$$

In Scilab



A=[2*x,2*y,ones(x)]
z=x.^2+y.^2
theta=A\z
a=theta(1)
b=theta(2)
R=sqrt(theta(3)+a^2+b^2)
t=linspace(0,2*%pi,100)
plot(x,y,"o",a+R*cos(t),b+R*sin(t))



Take home message

Take home message #2 :

Solving linear least squares problem is just a matter of linear algebra

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• Consider data (*x_i*, *y_i*) to be fitted by the non linear model

 $y = f_{\theta}(x) = \exp(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x),$

The "log trick" leads some people to minimize

$$S_{log}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\log y_i - (\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_i) \right)^2,$$

i.e. do simple linear regression of $(\log y_i)$ against (x_i) , but this violates a fundamental hypothesis because

if $y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i)$ is normally distributed then $\log y_i - \log f_{\theta}(x_i)$ is not !

Possibles angles of attack

Remember that

$$S(\theta) = ||r(\theta)||^2$$
, $r_i(\theta) = f_{\theta}(x_i) - y_i$.

A local minimum of *S* can be found by different methods :

• Find a solution of the non linear systems of equations

$$\nabla S(\theta) = 2r'(\theta)^{\top}r(\theta) = 0,$$

with the Newton's method :

- needs to compute the Jacobian of the gradient itself (do you really want to compute second derivatives ?),
- does not guarantee convergence towards a minimum.

Possibles angles of attack

Use the spirit of Newton's method as follows : start with θ_0 and for each k

• consider the Taylor development of the residual vector at θ_k

$$r(\theta) = r(\theta_k) + r'(\theta_k)(\theta - \theta_k) + \|\theta - \theta_k\|\varepsilon(\theta - \theta_k)$$

and take θ_{k+1} such that the squared norm of the affine approximation

$$\|r(\theta_k) + r'(\theta_k)(\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k)\|^2$$

is minimal.

finding
$$\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k$$
 is a LLS problem !

Gauss-Newton method

• Original formulation of the Gauss-Newton method

 $\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \left[r'(\theta_k)^\top r'(\theta_k)\right]^{-1} r'(\theta_k)^\top r(\theta_k),$

• Equivalent Scilab implementation using backslash \ operator

 $\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - r'(\theta_k) \backslash r(\theta_k)$

Problem: what can you do when $r'(\theta_k)$ has not full column rank ?

Levenberg-Marquardt method

• Modify the Gauss-Newton iteration: pick up a $\lambda > 0$ and take θ_{k+1} such that

$$S_{\lambda}(\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k) = \|r(\theta_k) + r'(\theta_k)(\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k)\|^2 + \lambda \|(\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k)\|^2$$

is minimal.

• After rewriting $S_{\lambda}(\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k)$ using block matrix notation as

$$S_{\lambda}(\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k) = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} r'(\theta_k) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} I \end{pmatrix} (\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k) + \begin{pmatrix} r(\theta_k) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2$$

finding $\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k$ is a LLS problem and for any $\lambda > 0$ a unique solution exists !

Levenberg-Marquardt method

Since the residual vector reads

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} r'(\theta_k) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} \end{array} \right) (\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k) + \left(\begin{array}{c} r(\theta_k) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right)$$

the normal equations of the LLS are given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}'(\theta_{k}) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix}^{\top} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}'(\theta_{k}) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} (\theta_{k+1} - \theta_{k}) = -\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}'(\theta_{k}) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix}^{\top} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}(\theta_{k}) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\iff \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}'(\theta_{k})^{\top}, \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}'(\theta_{k}) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} (\theta_{k+1} - \theta_{k}) = -\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}'(\theta_{k})^{\top}, \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}(\theta_{k}) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\iff (r'(\theta_k)^{\top} r'(\theta_k) + \lambda \mathbf{I}) (\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k) = -r'(\theta_k)^{\top} r(\theta_k)$

Levenberg-Marquardt method

Hence, the mathematical formulation of Levenberg-Marquardt method is

 $\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \left[r'(\theta_k)^\top r'(\theta_k) + \lambda \mathbf{I} \right]^{-1} r'(\theta_k)^\top r(\theta_k)$

but practical Scilab implementation should use the backslash \ operator

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \begin{pmatrix} r'(\theta_k) \\ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \setminus \begin{pmatrix} r(\theta_k) \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

Levenberg-Marquardt method

Where is the insight in Levenberg-Marquardt method ?

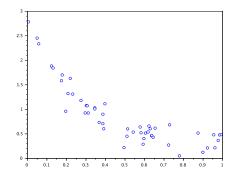
• Remember that $\nabla S(\theta) = 2r'(\theta)^{\top}r(\theta)$, hence LM iteration reads

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_{k+1} &= \theta_k - \frac{1}{2} \left(r'(\theta_k)^\top r'(\theta_k) + \lambda \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \nabla S(\theta_k), \\ &= \theta_k - \frac{1}{2\lambda} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} r'(\theta_k)^\top r'(\theta_k) + \mathbf{I} \right)^{-1} \nabla S(\theta_k) \end{aligned}$$

- When λ is small, LM methods behaves more like the Gauss-Newton method.
- When λ is large, LM methods behaves more like the gradient method.

 λ allows to balance between speed (λ = 0) and robustness ($\lambda \rightarrow \infty)$

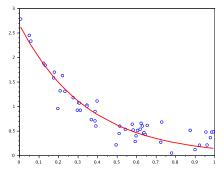
Consider data (x_i, y_i) to be fitted by the non linear model $f_{\theta}(x) = \exp(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x)$:



The Jacobian of $r(\theta)$ is given by

$$r'(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_1) & x_1 \exp(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_1) \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \exp(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_n) & x_n \exp(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_1) \end{bmatrix}$$

In Scilab, use the Isqrsolve or leastsq function:



 $\hat{\theta} = (0.981, -2.905)$

```
function r=resid(theta,n)
r=exp(theta(1)+theta(2)*x)-y;
endfunction
```

```
function j=jac(theta,n)
  e=exp(theta(1)+theta(2)*x);
  j=[e x.*e];
endfunction
```

```
load data_exp.dat
theta0=[0;0];
theta=lsqrsolve(theta0,resid,length(x),jac);
```

plot(x,y,"ob", x,exp(theta(1)+theta(2)*x),"r")

Enzymatic kinetics

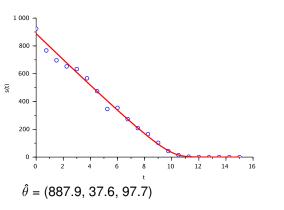
$$\begin{split} s'(t) &= \theta_2 \frac{s(t)}{s(t) + \theta_3}, \ t > 0, \\ s(0) &= \theta_1, \end{split}$$

$$y_i$$
 = measurement of s at time t_i

$$S(\theta) = ||r(\theta)||^2, \quad r_i(\theta) = \frac{y_i - s(t_i)}{\sigma_i}$$

Individual weights σ_i allow to take into account different standard deviations of measurements





```
function dsdt=michaelis(t,s,theta)
  dsdt=theta(2)*s/(s+theta(3))
endfunction
```

```
function r=resid(theta,n)
s=ode(theta(1),0,t,michaelis)
r=(s-y)./sigma
endfunction
```

```
load michaelis_data.dat
theta0=[y(1);20;80];
theta=lsqrsolve(theta0,resid,n)
```

If not provided, the Jacobian $r'(\theta)$ is approximated by finite differences (but true Jacobian always speed up convergence).

Take home message

Take home message #3 :

Solving non linear least squares problems is not that difficult with adequate software and good starting values

- Motivation and statistical framework
- Maths reminder
- Linear Least Squares (LLS)
- Non Linear Least Squares (NLLS)
- Statistical evaluation of solutions
- Model selection

Motivation

• Since the data $(y_i)_{i=1...n}$ is a sample of random variables, then $\hat{\theta}$ too !

• Confidence intervals for $\hat{\theta}$ can be easily obtained by at least two methods

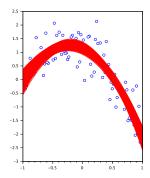
- Monte-Carlo method : allows to estimate the distribution of $\hat{\theta}$ but needs thousands of resamplings
- Linearized statistics : very fast, but can be very approximate for high level of measurement error

Monte Carlo method

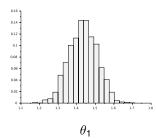
 The Monte Carlo method is a resampling method, i.e. works by generating new samples of synthetic measurement and redoing the estimation of θ̂. Here model is

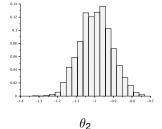
$$y = \theta_1 + \theta_2 x + \theta_3 x^2,$$

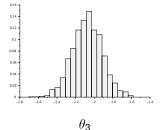
and data is corrupted by noise with $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$



Monte Carlo method







At confidence level=95%,

 $\hat{ heta}_1 \in [0.99, 1.29],$ $\hat{ heta}_2 \in [-1.20, -0.85],$ $\hat{ heta}_1 \in [-2.57, -1.91].$

Linearized Statistics

• Define the weighted residual $r(\theta)$ by

$$r_i(\theta) = \frac{y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i)}{\sigma_i},$$

where σ_i is the standard deviation of y_i .

• The covariance matrix of $\hat{\theta}$ can be approximated by

 $V(\hat{\theta}) = F(\hat{\theta})^{-1}$

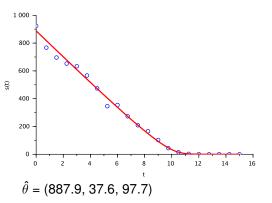
where $F(\hat{\theta})$ is the Fisher Information Matrix, given by

 $F(\theta) = r'(\theta)^{\top} r'(\theta)$

• For example, when $\sigma_i = \sigma$ for all *i*, in LLS problems

$$V(\hat{\theta}) = \sigma^2 A^\top A$$

Linearized Statistics



d=derivative(resid,theta)
V=inv(d'*d)
sigma_theta=sqrt(diag(V))

// 0.975 fractile Student dist.

t_alpha=cdft("T",m-3,0.975,0.025);

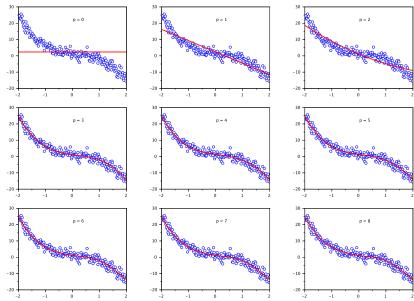
thetamin=theta-t_alpha*sigma_theta
thetamax=theta+t_alpha*sigma_theta

At 95% confidence level

 $\hat{\theta}_1 \in [856.68, 919.24], \quad \hat{\theta}_2 \in [34.13, 41.21], \quad \hat{\theta}_3 \in [93.37, 102.10].$

- Motivation and statistical framework
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Motivation : which model is the best ?



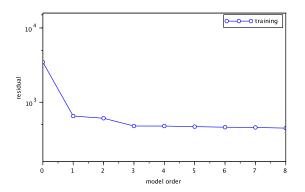
Least squares

Motivation : which model is the best ?

On the previous slide data has been fitted with the model

$$y=\sum_{k=0}^{p}\theta_{k}x^{k}, \quad p=0\ldots 8,$$

Consider $S(\hat{\theta})$ as a function of model order *p* does not help much



р	${\cal S}(\hat{ heta})$
0	3470.32
1	651.44
2	608.53
3	478.23
4	477.78
5	469.20
6	461.00
7	457.52
8	448.10

Validation

Validation is the key of model selection :

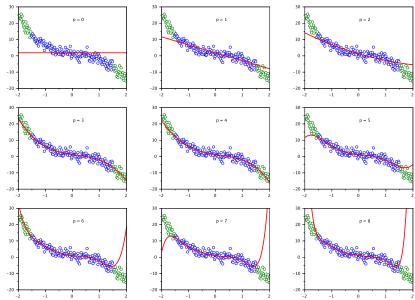
- Define two sets of data
 - $T \subset \{1, \ldots n\}$ for model training
 - $V = \{1, \ldots n\} \setminus T$ for validation
- Por each value of model order p
 - Compute the optimal parameters with the training data

$$\hat{\theta}_{\rho} = \arg\min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{\rho}} \sum_{i \in T} (y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i))^2$$

Compute the validation residual

$$S_V(\hat{\theta}_p) = \sum_{i \in V} (y_i - f_{\hat{\theta}_p}(x_i))^2$$

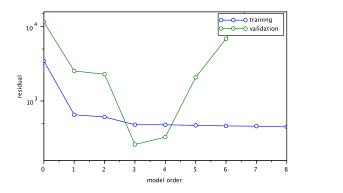
Training + Validation



Least squares

Training + Validation

Validation helps a lot: here the best model order is clearly p = 3 !



р	$S_V(\hat{ heta}_p)$
0	11567.21
1	2533.41
2	2288.52
3	259.27
4	326.09
5	2077.03
6	6867.74
7	26595.40
8	195203.35

Statistical evaluation and model selection

Take home message

Take home message #4 :

Always evaluate your models by either computing confidence intervals for the parameters or by using validation.