

LACOL DATA SCIENCE: Least Squares Lecture

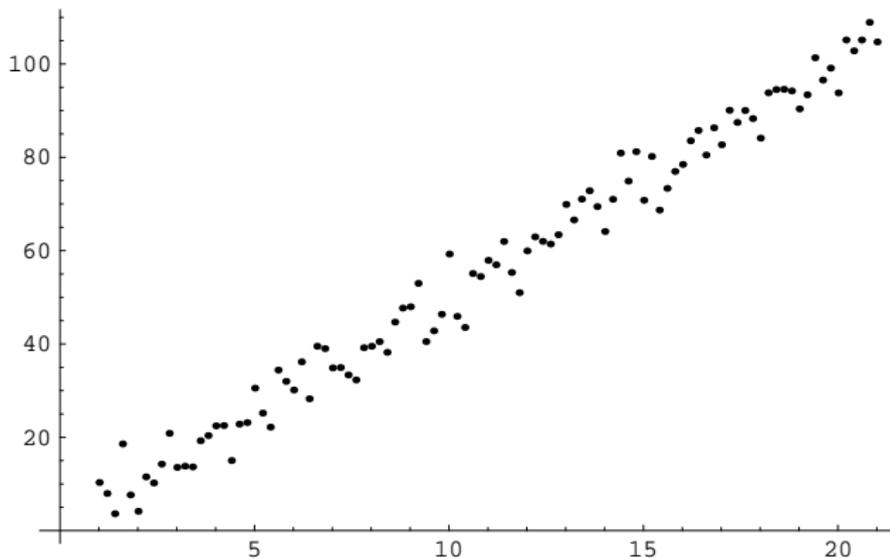
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public_html/`

Williams College

Introduction

Spring Test



Spring Test

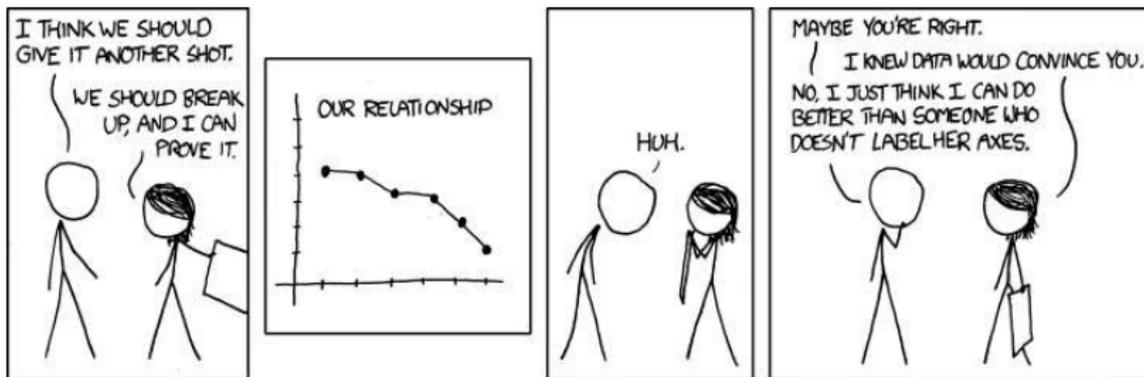
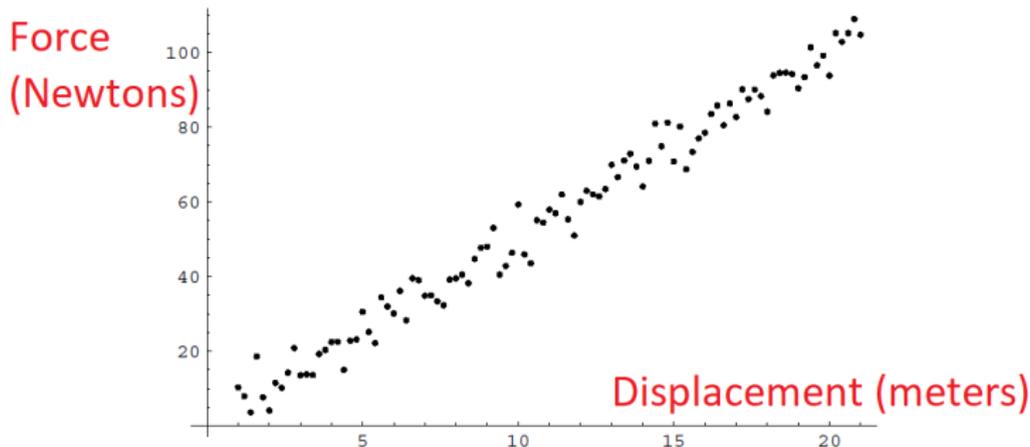


Figure: xkcd: Convincing: <https://xkcd.com/833/> (Extra text: And if you labeled your axes, I could tell you exactly how MUCH better.)

Spring Test



Data from $x_n = 5 + .2n$, $y_n = 5x_n$ plus an error randomly drawn from a normal distribution with mean zero and standard deviation 4. Best fit line of $y = 4.99x + .48$; thus $a = 4.99$ and $b = .48$.

Spring Test (continued)

Our value of b is significantly off: $a = 4.99$ and $b = .48$.

Spring Test (continued)

Our value of b is significantly off: $a = 4.99$ and $b = .48$.

Using absolute values for errors gives best fit value of a is 5.03 and the best fit value of b is less than 10^{-10} in absolute value.

Spring Test (continued)

Our value of b is significantly off: $a = 4.99$ and $b = .48$.

Using absolute values for errors gives best fit value of a is 5.03 and the best fit value of b is less than 10^{-10} in absolute value.

The difference between these values and those from the Method of Least Squares is in the best fit value of b (the least important of the two parameters), and is due to the different ways of weighting the errors.

Regression

See https://web.williams.edu/Mathematics/sjmiller/public_html/probabilitylifesaver/MethodLeastSquares.pdf

Overview

Idea is to find *best-fit* parameters: choices that minimize error in a conjectured relationship.

Say observe y_i with input x_i , believe $y_i = ax_i + b$. Three choices:

$$E_1(a, b) = \sum_{n=1}^N (y_i - (ax_i + b))$$
$$E_2(a, b) = \sum_{n=1}^N |y_i - (ax_i + b)|$$
$$E_3(a, b) = \sum_{n=1}^N (y_i - (ax_i + b))^2.$$

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Use sum of squares as calculus available.

Linear Regression

Explicit formula for values of a, b minimizing error $E_3(a, b)$.

From

$$\partial E_3(a, b) / \partial a = \partial E_3(a, b) / \partial b = 0 :$$

After algebra:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{a} \\ \hat{b} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 & \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N x_n & \sum_{n=1}^N 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

or

$$a = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N 1 \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N y_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N 1 \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N x_n}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \sum_{n=1}^N y_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N x_n - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \sum_{n=1}^N 1}$$

Theory

Theoretical Aside: Derivation

See https://web.williams.edu/Mathematics/sjmiller/public_html/341Fa18/handouts/MethodLeastSquares.pdf

$$E_3(a, b) = \sum_{n=1}^N (y_i - (ax_i + b))^2.$$

Error a function of two variables, the unknown parameters a and b .

Note x, y are the data *NOT* the variables.

The goal is to find values of a and b that minimize the error.

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: II

One-Variable Calculus: candidates for max/min from boundary points and critical points (places where derivative vanishes).

Multivariable Calculus: Similar, need partial derivatives to vanish (partial is hold all variables fixed but one).

$$\nabla E = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial a}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial b} \right) = (0, 0),$$

or

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = 0.$$

Do not have to worry about boundary points: as $|a|$ and $|b|$ become large, the fit gets worse and worse.

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: III

Differentiating $E(a, b)$ yields

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a} = \sum_{n=1}^N 2(y_n - (ax_n + b)) \cdot (-x_n)$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b} = \sum_{n=1}^N 2(y_n - (ax_n + b)) \cdot (-1).$$

Setting $\partial E/\partial a = \partial E/\partial b = 0$ (and dividing by -2) yields

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - (ax_n + b)) \cdot x_n = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - (ax_n + b)) = 0.$$

Note we can divide both sides by -2 as it is just a constant; we cannot divide by x_i as that varies with i .

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: IV

Rewrite as

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2\right) a + \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n\right) b &= \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n \\ \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n\right) a + \left(\sum_{n=1}^N 1\right) b &= \sum_{n=1}^N y_n.\end{aligned}$$

Values of a and b which minimize the error satisfy the following matrix equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 & \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N x_n & \sum_{n=1}^N 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N y_n \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: V

Inverse of a matrix A is the matrix B such that $AB = BA = I$, where I is the identity matrix.

If $A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$ is a 2×2 matrix where $\det A = \alpha\delta - \beta\gamma \neq 0$, then A is invertible and

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\alpha\delta - \beta\gamma} \begin{pmatrix} \delta & -\gamma \\ -\beta & \alpha \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

In other words, $AA^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ here.

For example, if $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$ then $\det A = 1$ and $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$; we can check this by noting (through matrix multiplication) that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: VI

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 & \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N x_n & \sum_{n=1}^N 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N y_n \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

Denote the matrix from (1) by M . The determinant of M is

$$\det M = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \cdot \sum_{n=1}^N 1 - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \cdot \sum_{n=1}^N x_n.$$

As

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n,$$

we find that

$$\det M = N \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 - (N\bar{x})^2 = N^2 \cdot \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \bar{x})^2,$$

where the last equality follows from algebra. If the x_n are not all equal, $\det M$ is non-zero and M is invertible.

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: VII

We rewrite (4) in a simpler form. Using the inverse of the matrix and the definition of the mean and variance, we find

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{N^2\sigma_x^2} \begin{pmatrix} N & -N\bar{x} \\ -N\bar{x} & \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n \\ \sum_{n=1}^N y_n \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

Expanding gives

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{N \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n - N\bar{x} \sum_{n=1}^N y_n}{N^2\sigma_x^2} \\ b &= \frac{-N\bar{x} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n + \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \sum_{n=1}^N y_n}{N^2\sigma_x^2} \\ \bar{x} &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_i \\ \sigma_x^2 &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: VIII

As the formulas for a and b are so important, it is worth giving another expression for them. We also have

$$a = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N 1 \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N y_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N 1 \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N x_n}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N x_n y_n - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \sum_{n=1}^N y_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n \sum_{n=1}^N x_n - \sum_{n=1}^N x_n^2 \sum_{n=1}^N 1}.$$

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: Remarks

Formulas for a and b are reasonable, as can be seen by a unit analysis. Imagine x in meters and y in seconds. Then if $y = ax + b$ we would need b and y to have the same units (seconds), and a to have units seconds per meter. If we substitute we do see a and b have the correct units. Not a proof that we have not made a mistake, but a great reassurance. No matter what you are studying, you should always try unit calculations such as this.

Theoretical Aside: Derivation: Remarks

There are other, equivalent formulas for a and b , arranging the algebra in a slightly different sequence of steps. Essentially what we are doing is the following: image we are given

$$4 = 3a + 2b$$

$$5 = 2a + 5b.$$

If we want to solve, we can proceed in two ways. We can use the first equation to solve for b in terms of a and substitute in, or we can multiply the first equation by 5 and the second equation by 2 and subtract; the b terms cancel and we obtain the value of a . Explicitly,

$$20 = 15a + 10b$$

$$10 = 4a + 10b,$$

which yields

$$10 = 11a,$$

or

$$a = 10/11.$$

Regression Extensions

Beyond the Best Fit Line

Did $y = ax + b$.

All that matters is linear in the unknown parameters.

Could do

$$y = a_1 f_1(x) + a_2 f_2(x) + \dots + a_k f_k(x);$$

do not need the functions f to be linear.

Non-linear Relations

Most relations are not linear.

Newton's law of gravity: $F = Gm_1m_2/r^2$.

If guess force is proportional to a power of the distance:
 $F = Br^a$.

Take logarithms: $\log(F) = a \log(r) + b$ with $b = \log B$.

Note the linear relation between $\log(F)$ and $\log(r)$.

City Populations

The twenty-five most populous cities (I believe this is American cities from a few years ago):

8,363,710	1,540,351	912,062	754,885	620,535
3,833,995	1,351,305	808,976	703,073	613,190
2,853,114	1,279,910	807,815	687,456	604,477
2,242,193	1,279,329	798,382	669,651	598,707
1,567,924	948,279	757,688	636,919	598,541

City Populations

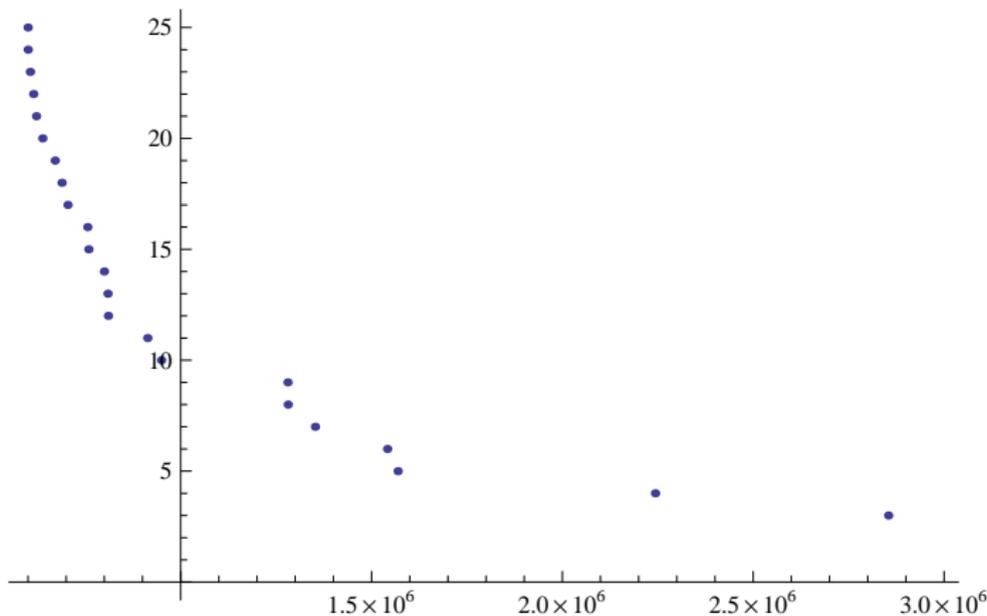


Figure: Plot of rank versus population

City Populations

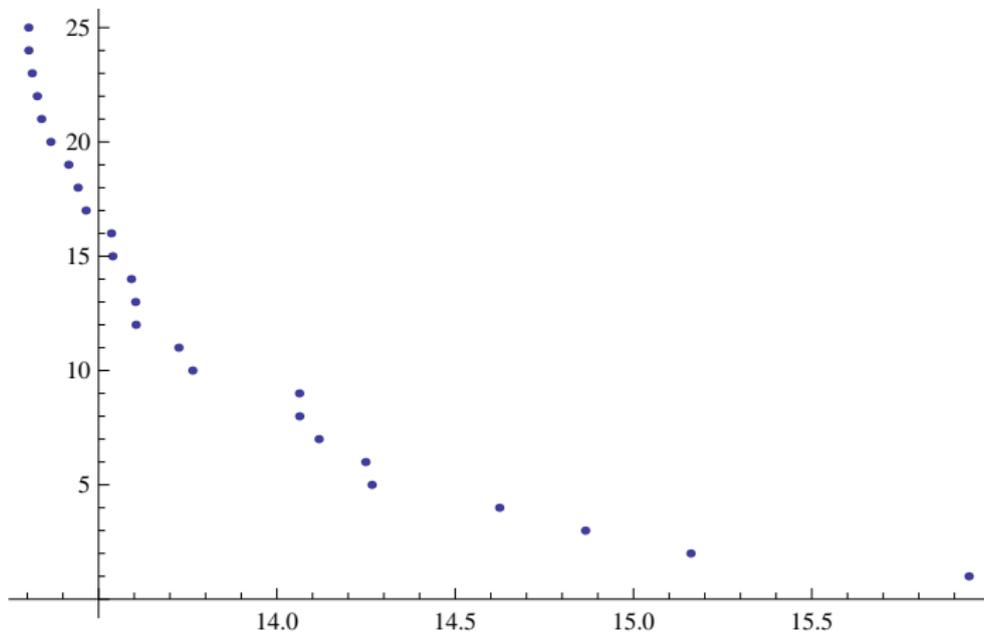


Figure: Plot of rank versus $\log(\text{population})$

City Populations

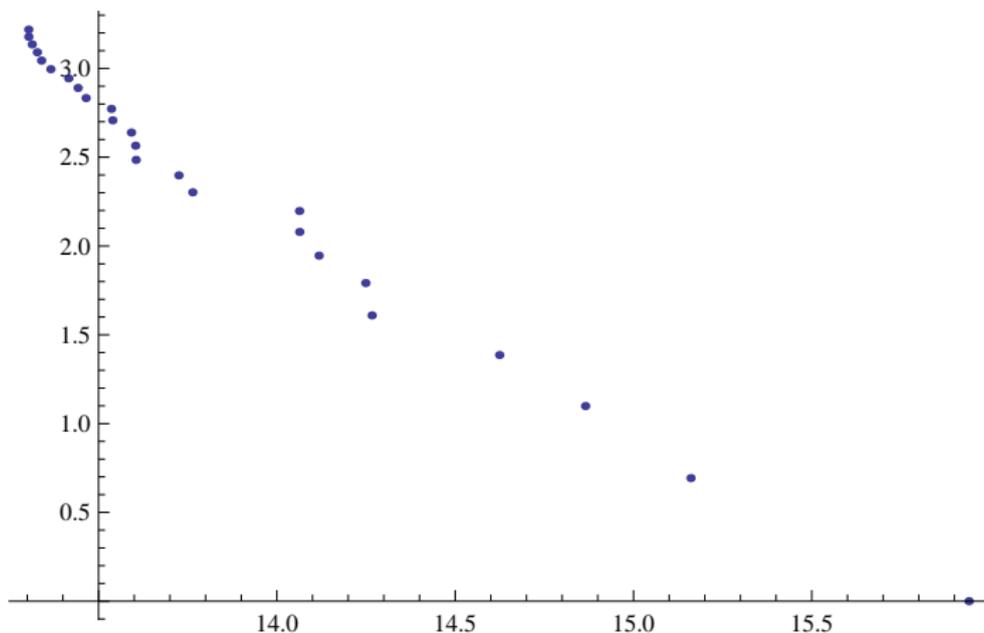


Figure: Plot of $\log(\text{rank})$ versus $\log(\text{population})$

City Populations

Plot of 100 most populous cities

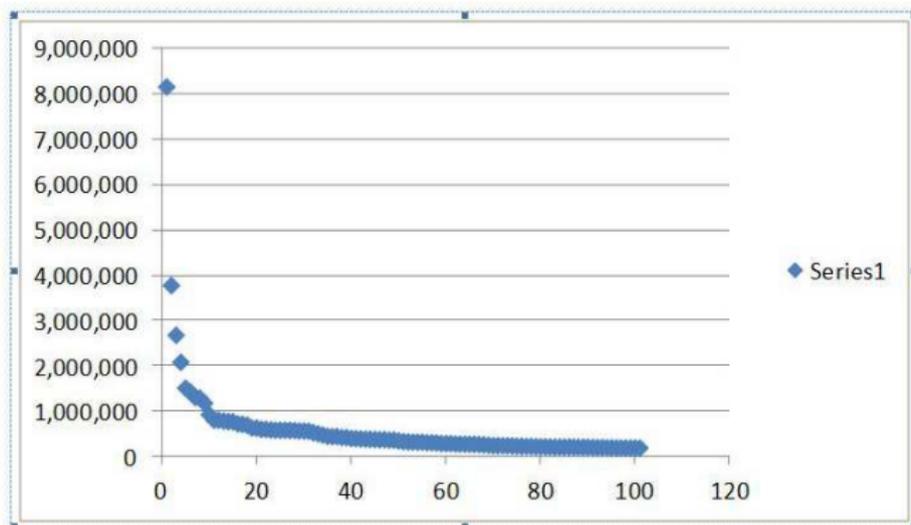


Figure: Plot of rank versus population

City Populations

Plot of 100 most populous cities: log-log plot

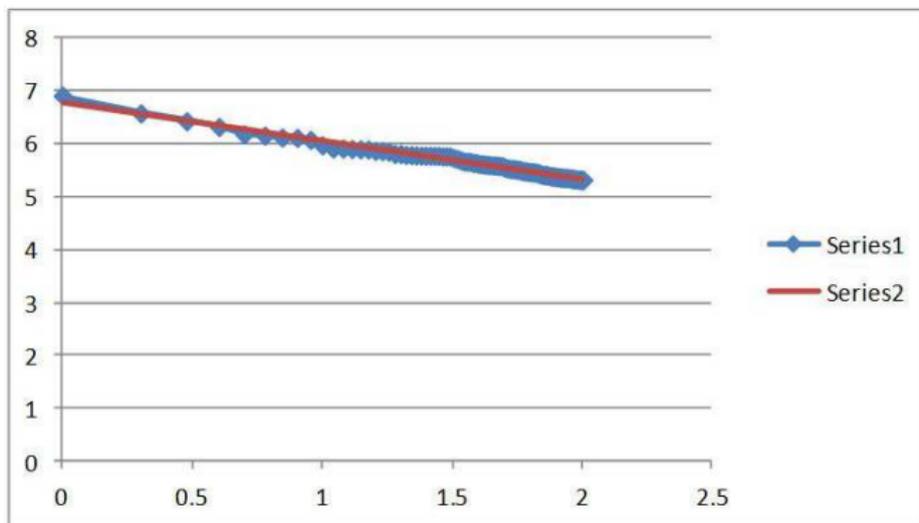


Figure: Plot of $\log(\text{rank})$ versus $\log(\text{population})$

Word Counts

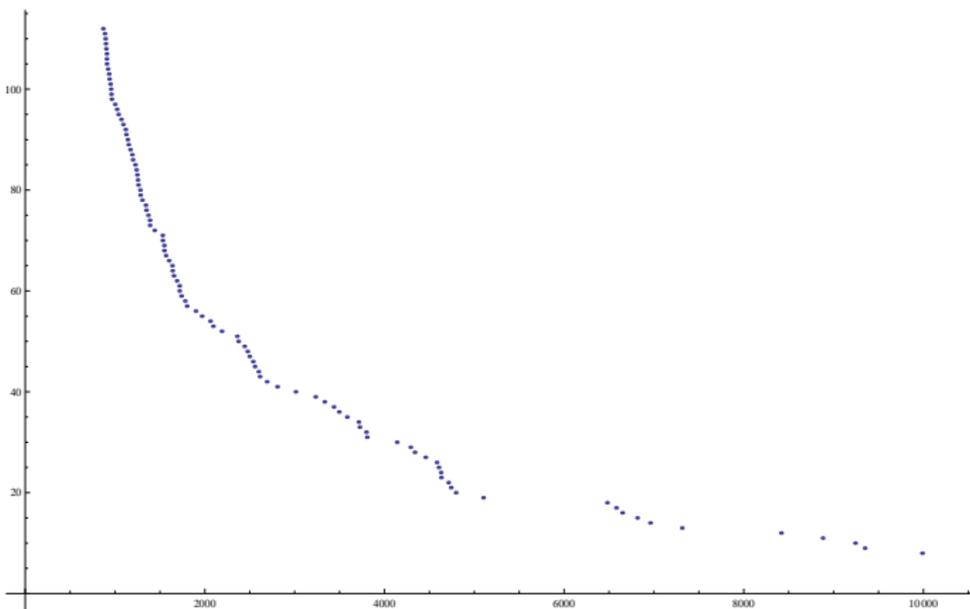


Figure: Plot of rank versus occurrences

Word Counts

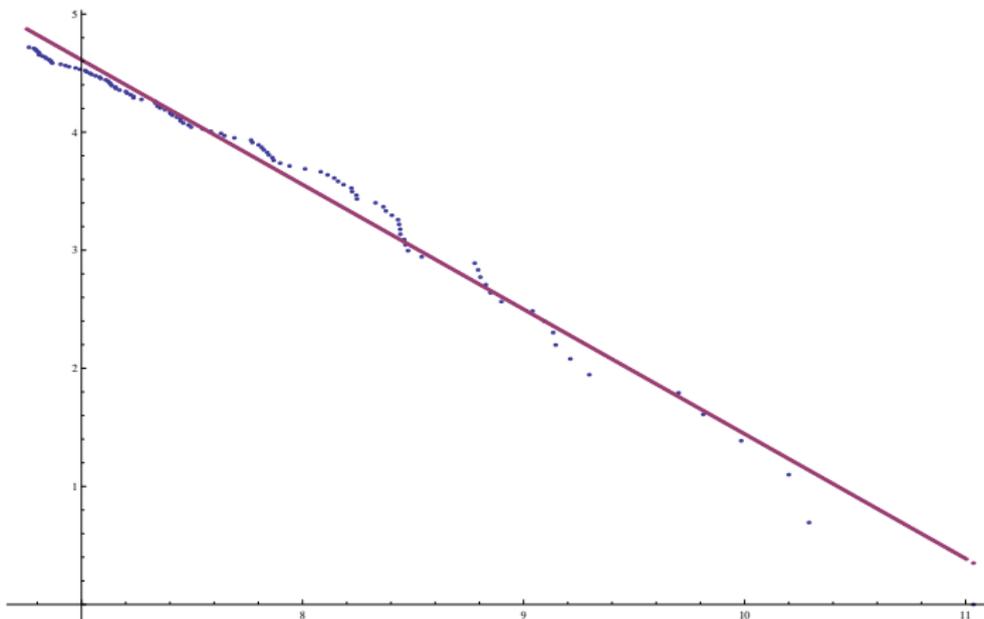


Figure: Plot of $\log(\text{rank})$ versus $\log(\text{occurrences})$

Examples:
Chapter 70 Aid, Kepler's Laws, Birthday Problem

Framework

Real World Challenge: Need to assign \$3,500,000 to three schools (LES, WES, MtG).

- Pre-regionalization know how much state gives each; post regionalization only know sum.
- State has formula, lots of variables, secret.

What is the goal? How do we accomplish it?

Objectives

- Fair formula that predicts well.
- Transparent, seems fair.
- Can be explained.

Solution

Solution: Method of Least Squares / Linear Regression.

Inputs: Population of Schools (LES(pop), WES(pop), MtG(pop)), Assessment of Towns (EQV(L), EQV(W)).

Formula: If $\vec{y} = \mathbf{X}\vec{\beta}$ then

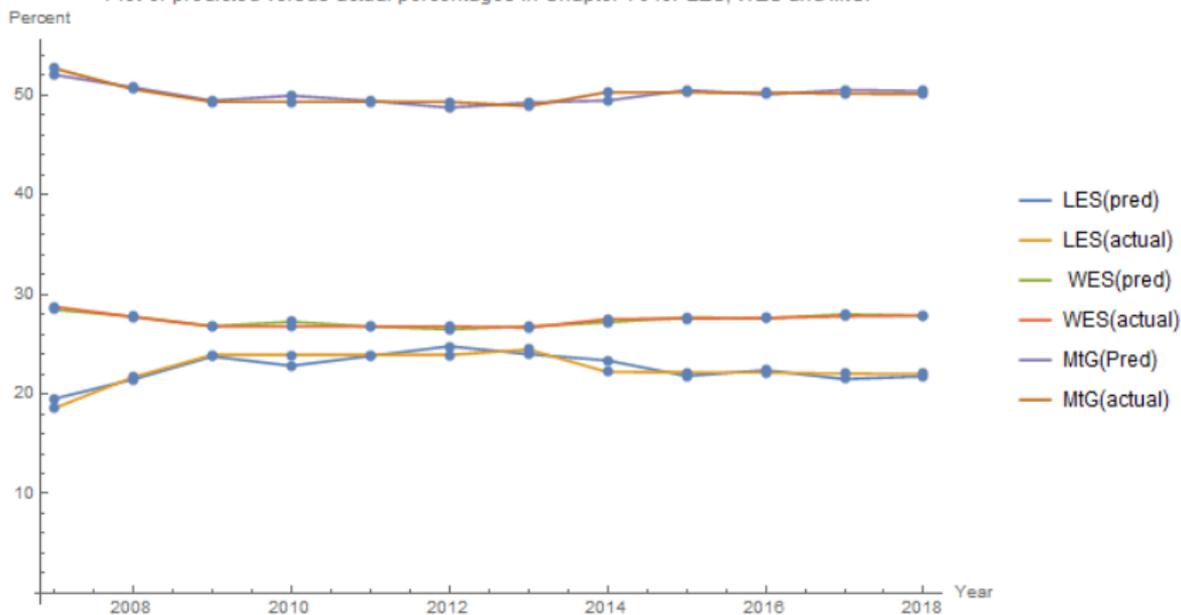
$$\vec{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T\vec{y}.$$

What properties do we want the solution to have?

Properties of Solution

- Want solution to exist – will it?
- Want values to be between 0 and 1 – will it?
- Want values to be stable under small changes – will it?
- Want the sum of the three percentages to add to 1 – will it?

Plot of predicted versus actual percentages in Chapter 70 for LES, WES and MtG.



Theory vs Reality

Predicted, Actual and Errors for Schools:

LES:	21.7826	22.0248	-0.242194
WES:	27.8397	27.8767	-0.0369861
MtG:	50.3776	50.0984	0.279181

Sum of three predictions is 100%

Total chapter 70 funds in 2018: 3,489,437.

1% of total is 34,894.40.

.3% of total is 10,468.31.

School budgets (roughly): LES \$2.7 million, WES \$6.6 million, MtG \$11 million.

Logarithms and Applications

Many non-linear relationships are linear after applying logarithms:

$$Y = BX^a \text{ then } \log(Y) = a \log(X) + b, \quad b = \log B.$$

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Kepler's Third Law: if T is the orbital period of a planet traveling in an elliptical orbit about the sun (and no other objects exist), then $T^2 = \tilde{B}L^3$, where L is the length of the semi-major axis.

Assume do not know this – can we *discover* through statistics?

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Assume do not know this – can we *discover* through statistics?

Kepler's Third Law: Can see the 1.5 exponent!

Data: Semi-major axis: Mercury 0.387, Venus 0.723, Earth 1.000, Mars 1.524, Jupiter 5.203, Saturn 9.539, Uranus 19.182, Neptune 30.06 (the units are astronomical units, where one astronomical unit is $1.496 \cdot 10^8$ km).

Data: orbital periods (in years) are 0.2408467, 0.61519726, 1.0000174, 1.8808476, 11.862615, 29.447498, 84.016846 and 164.79132.

If $T = BL^a$, what should B equal with this data? Units: bruno, millihelen, slug, smoot, See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_humorous_units_of_measurement

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Kepler's Third Law: Can see the 1.5 exponent!

If try $\log T = a \log L + b$: best fit values are...?

HOMEWORK!

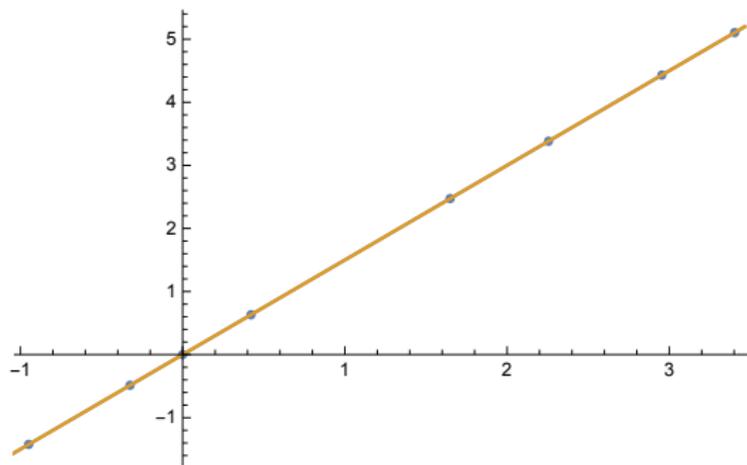


Figure: Plot of $\log P$ versus $\log L$ for planets. Is it surprising $b \approx 0$ (so $B \approx 1$ or $b \approx 0$)?

Units: Goal: find good statistics to describe the world.



Figure: Harvard Bridge, about 620.1 meters.

Units: Goal: find good statistics to describe the world.



Figure: Harvard Bridge, 364.1 Smoots (\pm one ear).

Units: Goal: find good statistics to describe the world.

Sieze opportunities: Never know where they will lead.



Oliver Smoot: Chairman of the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) from 2001 to 2002, President of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) from 2003 to 2004.

Birthday Problem

Birthday Problem: Assume a year with D days, how many people do we need in a room to have a 50% chance that at least two share a birthday, under the assumption that the birthdays are independent and uniformly distributed from 1 to D ?

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An analysis shows the answer is approximately $D^{1/2} \sqrt{\log 4}$.

Can do simulations and try and see the correct exponent; will look not for 50% chance but the expected number of people in room for the first collision.

Birthday Problem (cont)

Try $P = BD^a$, take logs so $\log P = a \log D + b$ ($b = \log B$).

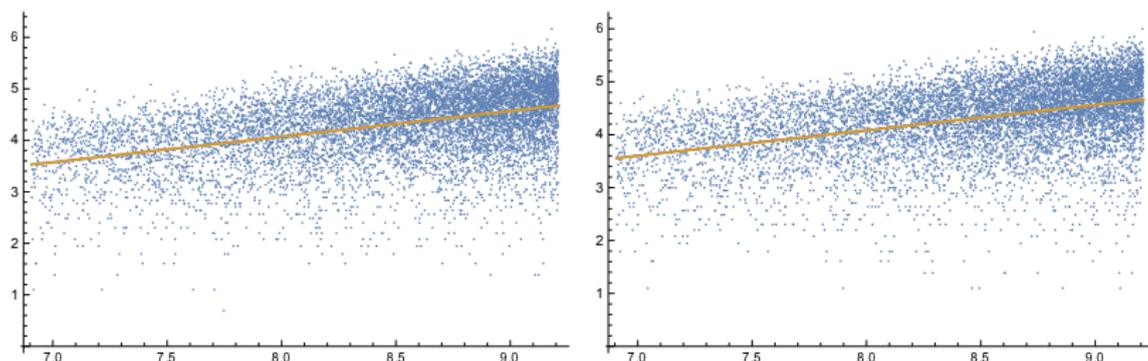


Figure: Plot of best fit line for P as a function of D . We twice ran 10,000 simulations with D chosen from 10,000 to 100,000. Best fit values were $a \approx 0.506167$, $b \approx -0.0110081$ (left) and $a \approx 0.48141$, $b \approx 0.230735$ (right).