

# PHY604 Lecture 12

September 30, 2021

# Review: Multivariate Newton's method

- We can generalize Newton's method for equations with several variables
  - Can be used when we no longer have a linear system
  - Cast the problem as one of root finding
- Consider the vector function:  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = [f_1(\mathbf{x}) \quad f_1(\mathbf{x}) \quad \dots \quad f_N(\mathbf{x})]$
- Where the unknowns are:  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \quad x_1 \quad \dots \quad x_N]$
- Revised guess from initial guess  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ :  $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{J}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ 
  - $\mathbf{J}^{-1}$  is the inverse of the Jacobian matrix:

$$J_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial f_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j}$$

- To avoid taking the inverse at each step, solve with Gaussian substitution:

$$\mathbf{J}\delta\mathbf{x}^k = -\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^k)$$

# Review: Steepest descent

- Used for finding roots, minima, or maxima of functions of several variables
- Based on the idea of moving downhill with each iteration, i.e., opposite to the gradient

- If current position is  $\mathbf{x}_n$ , next step is:

$$\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_n - \alpha_n \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_n)$$

- Determine the step size  $\alpha$  such that we reach the line minimum in direction of the gradient:

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha_n} f[\mathbf{x}_{n+1}(\alpha_n)] = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}) \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_n) = 0$$

- Find root of function of  $\alpha$ :

$$g(\alpha) = \nabla f[\mathbf{x}_{n+1}(\alpha)] \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_n) = 0$$

# Review: Discrete Fourier transform

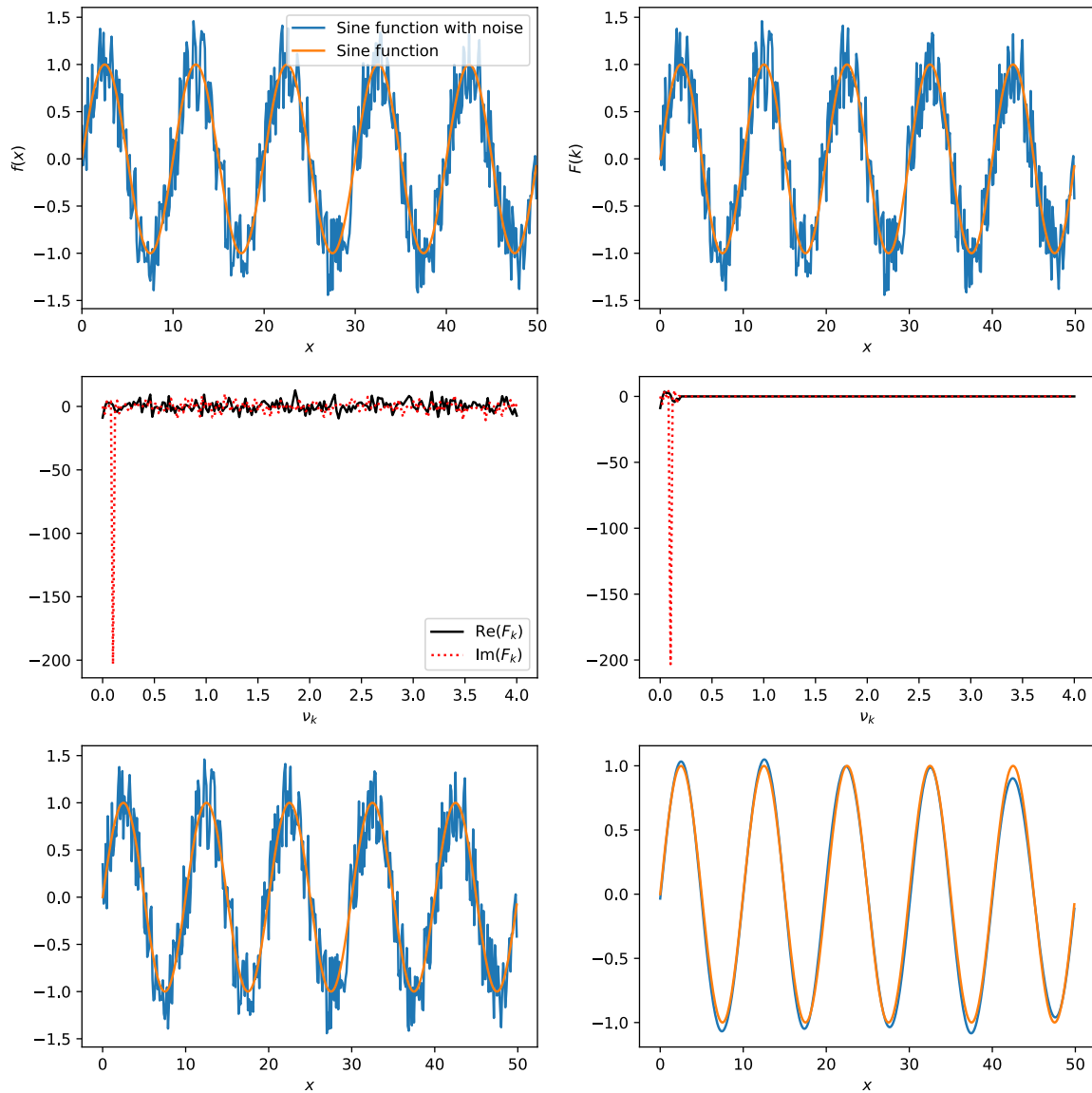
- Assume function evaluated on equally-spaced points  $n$ :

$$F_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_n \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi nk}{N}\right)$$

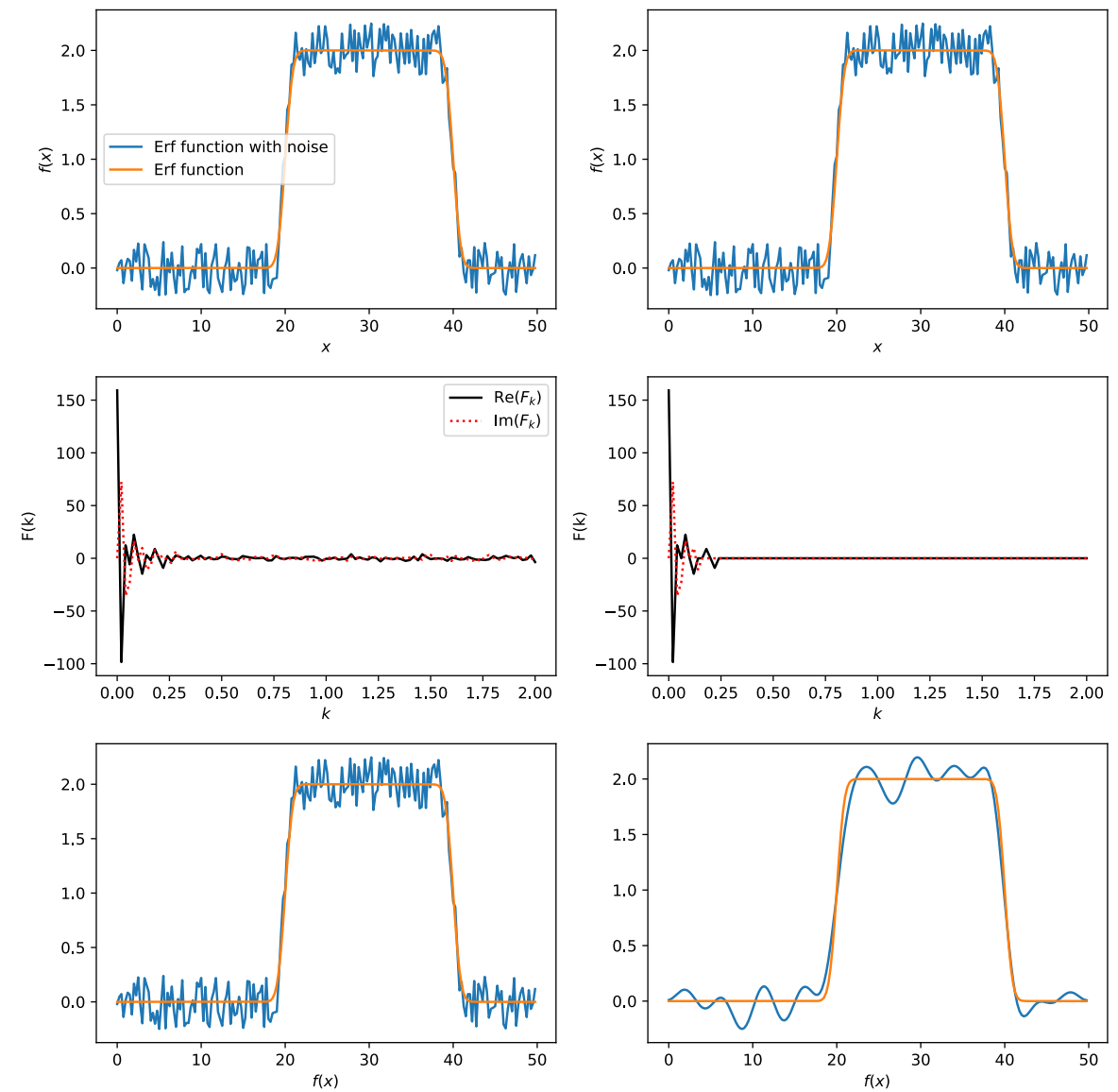
- (dropped the  $1/N$  from previous slide, matter of convention)
  - This is the discrete Fourier transform (DFT)
  - Does not require us to know the positions  $x_n$  of sample points, or even width  $L$
- We can define an inverse discrete Fourier transform to recover the initial function:
$$f_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} F_k \exp\left(i\frac{2\pi nk}{N}\right)$$
    - ( $1/N$  reappears)
  - “Exact” (up to rounding errors), even though we used the trapezoid rule
    - see e.g., Newman Sec. 7.2

# Review: What can we do with the DFT? E.g., filtering

## • Sin function with noise:



## • Error function with noise:



# Today's lecture: FFTs and curve fitting

- More on Fourier Transforms
  - 2D FT
  - Cosine transformation
  - FFTs
- Curve fitting

# Two-dimensional Fourier transforms

- Simply transform with respect to one variable and then the other
- Consider function on  $M \times N$  grid
  - 1. Perform DFT on each of the  $m$  rows:

$$F'_{ml} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_{mn} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi ln}{N}\right)$$

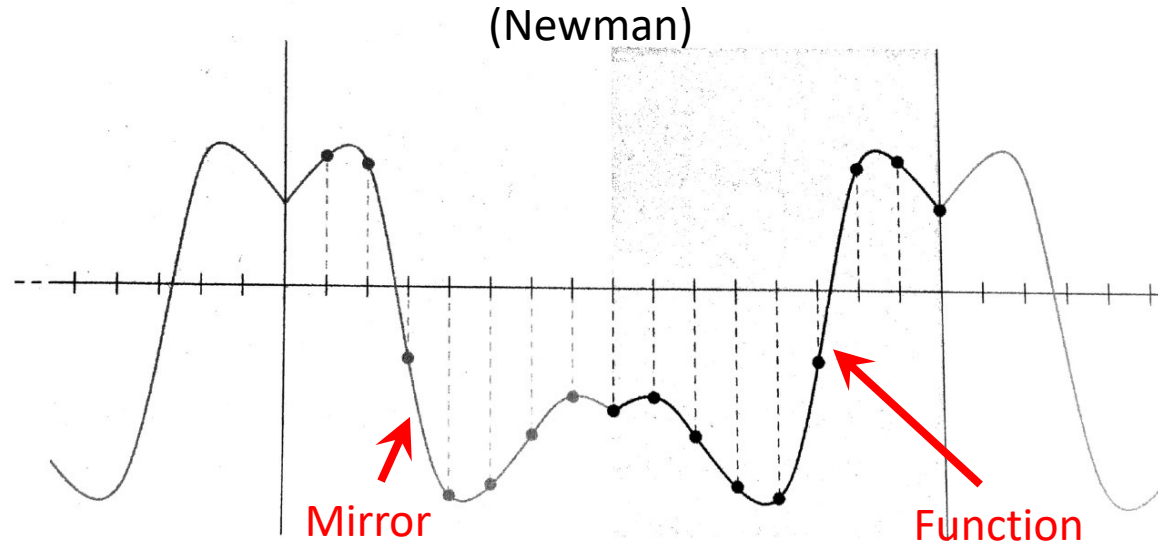
- 2. Take  $l$ th coefficient in each of the  $M$  rows and DFT:

$$F_{kl} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} F'_{ml} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi km}{M}\right)$$

- Combining these gives:

$$F_{kl} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_{mn} \exp\left[-i2\pi \left(\frac{km}{M} + \frac{ln}{N}\right)\right]$$

# Cosine transformation (see Newman Sec. 7.3)



- Can also construct Fourier series from using sine and cosine functions instead of complex exponentials
- Cosine series: Can only represent functions symmetric about the midpoint of the interval
  - Can enforce this for any function by mirroring it, and then repeating the mirrored function
- Different ways of writing it (see Newman):

$$F_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_n \cos \left( \frac{\pi k (n + \frac{1}{2})}{N} \right), \quad f_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} F_k \cos \left( \frac{\pi k (n + \frac{1}{2})}{N} \right)$$



# Benefits of the cosine transformation

- Only involves real functions
- Does not assume samples are periodic (i.e., first point and last point are the same)
  - Avoids discontinuities from periodically repeating function over interval
  - Often preferable for data that is not intrinsically periodic
- Used for compressing images and other media
  - JPEG, MPEG
- Can also define a sine transformation
  - Requires that function vanish at either end of its range

# Fast Fourier transforms

- DFTs shown before have a double sum, so scale something like  $N^2$  operations
  - We can do it in much less

- Consider the DFT: 
$$F_k = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f_n \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi nk}{N}\right)$$

- Take the number of samples to be a power of 2:  $N = 2^m$
- Break  $F_k$  into  $n$  even and  $n$  odd. For the even terms:

$$F_k^{\text{even}} = \sum_{r=0}^{\frac{1}{2}N-1} f_{2r} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi k(2r)}{N}\right) = \sum_{r=0}^{\frac{1}{2}N-1} f_{2r} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi kr}{N/2}\right)$$

- Just another Fourier transform, but with  $N/2$  samples

# Fast Fourier transforms continued

- For the odd terms:

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\frac{1}{2}N-1} f_{2r+1} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi k(2r+1)}{N}\right) = e^{-i2\pi k/N} \sum_{r=0}^{\frac{1}{2}N-1} f_{2r+1} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi kr}{N/2}\right) = e^{-i2\pi k/N} F_k^{\text{odd}}$$

- Therefore:

$$F_k = F_k^{\text{even}} + e^{-i2\pi k/N} F_k^{\text{odd}}$$

- So full DFT is sum of two DFTs with half as many points
- Now repeat the process until we get down to a single sample where:

$$F_0 = \sum_{n=0}^0 f_n e^0 = f_0$$

# Procedure for FFT

- 1. Start with (trivial) FT of single samples:

$$F_0 = \sum_{n=0}^0 f_n e^{i0} = f_0$$

- 2. Combine them in pairs using:

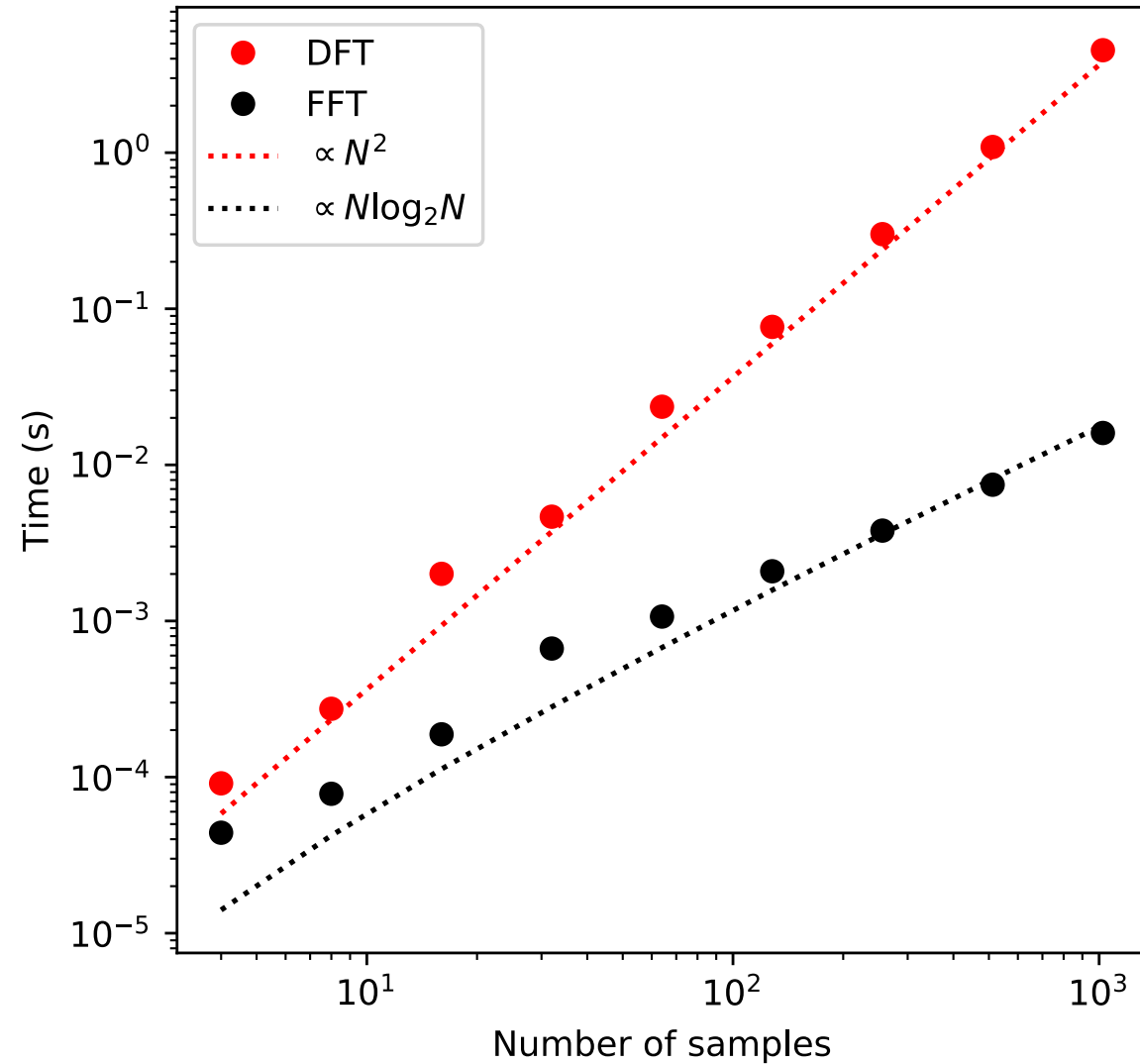
$$F_k = F_k^{\text{even}} + e^{-i2\pi k/N} F_k^{\text{odd}}$$

- 3. Continue combining into fours, eights, etc. until the full transform on the full set of samples is reconstructed

# Speed up

- First “round” we have  $N$  samples
- Next round we combine these into pairs to make  $N/2$  transforms with two coefficients each:  $N$  coefficients
- Next round we combine these into fours to make  $N/4$  transforms with four coefficients each:  $N$  coefficients
- ...
- For  $2^m$  samples we have  $m = \log_2 N$  levels, so the number of coefficients we have to calculate is  $N \log_2 N$
- Way better scaling than  $N^2$ !

# Speed up of FFT vs DFT



# Libraries for FFT

- FFTW (fastest Fourier transform in the west)
  - <https://www.fftw.org/>
  - C subroutine library
  - Open source
  
- Intel MKL (math kernel library)
  - <https://software.intel.com/content/www/us/en/develop/tools/oneapi/components/onemkl.html#gs.bu9rfp>
  - Written in C/C++, fortran
  - Also involves linear algebra routines
  - Not open source, but freely available
  - Often very fast, especially on intel processors

# Python's fft

- `numpy.fft`: <https://numpy.org/doc/stable/reference/routines.fft.html>
- `fft/ifft`: 1-d data
  - By design, the  $k=0, \dots, N/2$  data is first, followed by the negative frequencies. These later are not relevant for a real-valued  $f(x)$
  - $k$ 's can be obtained from `fftfreq(n)`
  - `fftshift(x)` shifts the  $k=0$  to the center of the spectrum
- `rfft/irfft`: for 1-d real-valued functions. Basically the same as `fft/ifft`, but doesn't return the negative frequencies
- 2-d and n-d routines analogously defined



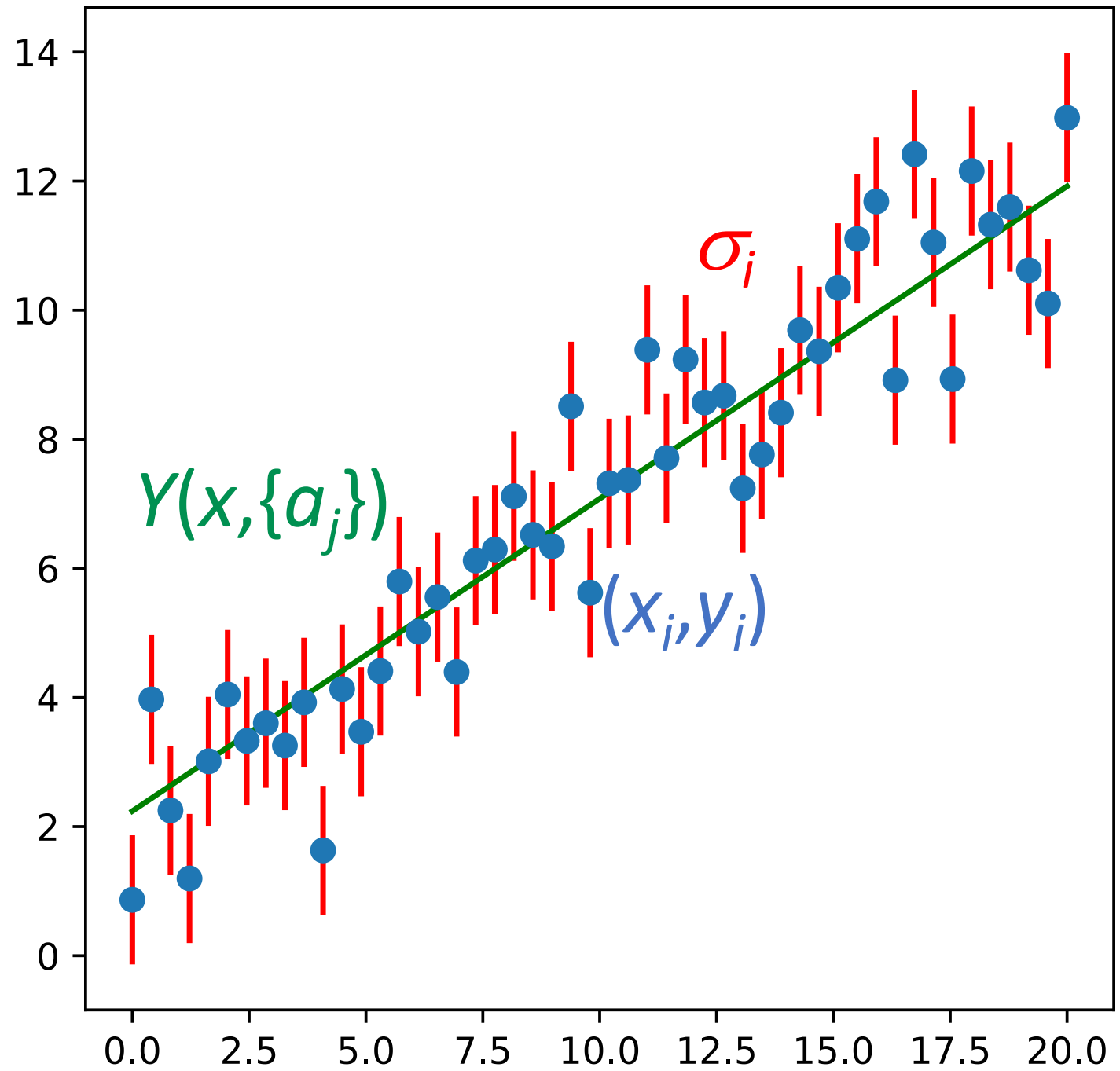
# Today's lecture: FFTs and curve fitting

- More on Fourier Transforms
  - 2D FT
  - Cosine transformation
  - FFTs
- Curve fitting

# Fitting data

- We have discussed **interpolation**, now we'll talk about **fitting**
  - *Interpolation* seeks to fill in missing information in some small region of the whole dataset
  - *Fitting* a function to the data seeks to produce a model (guided by physical intuition) so you can learn more about the global behavior of your data
- Goal is to understand data by finding a simple function that best represents the data
  - Previous discussion on linear algebra and root finding comes into play
- We will follow Garcia (Sec. 5.1)
  - Big topic, we'll just look at the basics

# Notation



# General theory of fitting

- We have a dataset of  $N$  points  $(x_i, y_i)$
- Would like to “fit” this dataset to a function  $Y(x, \{a_j\})$ 
  - $\{a_j\}$  is a set of  $M$  adjustable parameters
  - Find the value of these parameters that minimizes the distance between data points and curve:

$$\Delta_i = Y(x_i, \{a_j\}) - y_i$$

- Curve-fitting criteria: Minimize the sum of the squares

$$D(\{a_j\}) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \Delta_i^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} [Y(x_i, \{a_j\}) - y_i]^2$$

- “Least squares fit”
  - Not the only way, but the most common

# General theory of fitting

- Often data points have estimated error bars/confidence intervals  $\sigma_i$
- Modify fit criterion to give less weight to points with the most error

$$\chi^2(\{a_j\}) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left( \frac{\Delta_i}{\sigma_i} \right)^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{[Y(x_i, \{a_j\}) - y_i]^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

- $\chi^2$  most used fitting function
  - Errors have a Gaussian distribution
- We will not discuss “validation” of curve fitted to data
  - i.e., probability that the data is described by a given curve

# Linear regression

- Now that we have criteria for a good fit, we need to find  $\{a_i\}$
- First consider the simplest example: fitting data with a straight line

$$Y(x_i, \{a_0, a_1\}) = a_0 + a_1 x$$

- Such that  $\chi^2$  is minimized:

$$\chi^2(a_0, a_1) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{[a_0 + a_1 x_i - y_i]^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

# Linear regression: Finding coefficients

- Minimize  $\chi^2$  with respect to coefficients:

$$\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial a_0} = 2 \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{a_0 + a_1 x_i - y_i}{\sigma_i^2} = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial a_1} = 2 \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i \frac{a_0 + a_1 x_i - y_i}{\sigma_i^2} = 0$$

- We can write as:

$$a_0 S + a_1 \Sigma_x - \Sigma_y = 0,$$

$$a_0 \Sigma_x + a_1 \Sigma_{x^2} - \Sigma_{xy} = 0$$

- Where coefficients are known:

$$S \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}, \quad \Sigma_x \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{x_i}{\sigma_i^2}, \quad \Sigma_y \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{y_i}{\sigma_i^2}, \quad \Sigma_{x^2} \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{x_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}, \quad \Sigma_{xy} \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{x_i y_i}{\sigma_i^2}$$

# Linear regression: Finding coefficients

- Solving for  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ :

$$a_0 = \frac{\sum_y \sum_x^2 - \sum_x \sum_{xy}}{S \sum_x^2 - (\sum_x)^2}, \quad a_1 = \frac{S \sum_{xy} - \sum_y \sum_x}{S \sum_x^2 - (\sum_x)^2}$$

- Note that if  $\sigma_i$  is constant, it will cancel out
- Now let's define an error bar for the curve-fitting parameter  $a_j$

$$\sigma_{a_j}^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left( \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial y_i} \right)^2 \sigma_i^2$$

- See: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Propagation\\_of\\_uncertainty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Propagation_of_uncertainty)
- For our linear case (after some algebra):

$$\sigma_{a_0} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_x^2}{S \sum_x^2 - (\sum_x)^2}}, \quad \sigma_{a_1} = \sqrt{\frac{S}{S \sum_x^2 - (\sum_x)^2}}$$

Both independent of  $y_i$





# Linear regression: Errors in coefficients

- If error bars are constant:

$$\sigma_{a_0} = \frac{\sigma_0}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{\langle x^2 \rangle}{\langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2}}, \quad \sigma_{a_1} = \frac{\sigma_0}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2}}$$

← variance

- Where:

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i, \quad \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i^2$$

- If data does not have error bars, we can estimate  $\omega_0$  from the sample variance (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Variance>)

Sample std deviation

N-2 since already extracted  $a_0$  and  $a_1$  from data

$$\sigma_0 \simeq s^2 = \frac{1}{N-2} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} [y_i - (a_0 + a_1 x_i)]^2$$

# Nonlinear regression (with two variables)

- We have been discussing fitting a linear function, but many nonlinear curve-fitting problems can be transformed into linear problems

- Examples:  $Z(x, \{\alpha, \beta\}) = \alpha e^{\beta x}$

- Rewrite with:  $\ln Z = Y, \quad \ln \alpha = a_0, \quad \beta = a_1$

- Result:  $Y = a_0 + a_1 x$

# General least squares fit

- No analytic solution to general least squares problem, but can solve numerically
- Generalize to functions of the form:

$$Y(x_i, \{a_j\}) = a_0 Y_0(x) + a_1 Y_1(x) + \cdots + a_{M-1} Y_{M-1}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} a_j Y_j(x)$$

- Now minimize  $\chi^2$ : 
$$\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial \{a_j\}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \{a_j\}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} a_k Y_k(x_i) - y_i \right]^2 = 0$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{Y_j(x_i)}{\sigma_i^2} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} a_k Y_k(x_i) - y_i \right] = 0$$

# General least-squares fit

- From previous slide, we have:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \frac{Y_j(x_i)Y_k(x_i)}{\sigma_i^2} a_k = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{Y_j(x_i)y_i}{\sigma_i^2}$$

- Set of  $j$  equations known as **normal equations** of the least-squares problem ( $Y$ 's may be nonlinear, but linear in  $a$ 's)
- Define **design matrix** with elements  $A_{ij} = Y_j(x_i)/\sigma_i$ :

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{Y_0(x_0)}{\sigma_0} & \frac{Y_1(x_0)}{\sigma_0} & \cdots \\ \frac{Y_0(x_1)}{\sigma_1} & \frac{Y_1(x_1)}{\sigma_1} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

- Only depends on independent variables (not  $y_i$ )

# General least-squares fit

- With design matrix, we can rewrite: 
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} \frac{Y_j(x_i)Y_k(x_i)}{\sigma_i^2} a_k = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{Y_j(x_i)y_i}{\sigma_i^2}$$

- As: 
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} A_{ij}A_{ik}a_k = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} A_{ij} \frac{y_i}{\sigma_i} \implies (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

- Where  $b_i = y_i / \sigma_i$

- Thus:  $\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$

- Or, we can solve for  $\mathbf{a}$  via Gaussian elimination

# Goodness of fit

- Usually, we have  $N \gg M$ , the number of data points is much greater than the number of fitting variables
- Given the error bars, how likely is it that the curve actually describes the data?
- Rule of thumb: If the fit is good, on average the difference should be approximately equal to the error bars

$$|y_i - Y(x_i)| \simeq \sigma_i$$

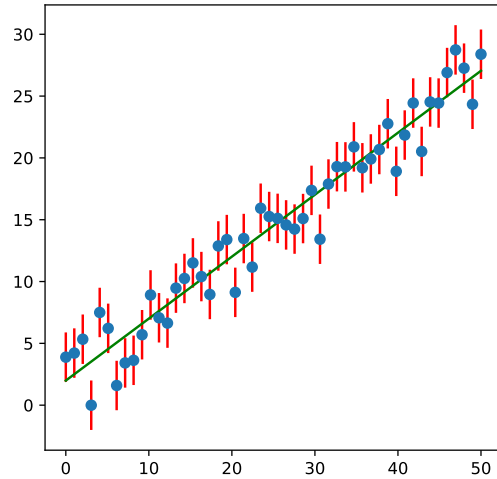
- Plugging in gives  $\chi^2$  equal to  $N$ . Since we know we can have a perfect fit for  $M=N$ , we postulate:

$$\chi^2 \simeq N - M$$

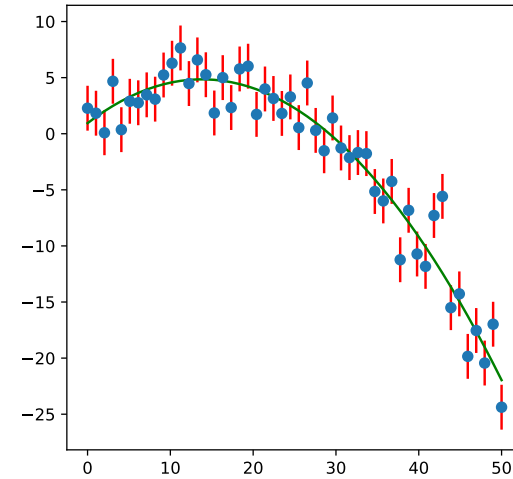
- If  $\chi^2 \gg N - M$ , probably not an appropriate function (or too small error bars)
- If  $\chi^2 \ll N - M$ , fit is too good, error bars may be too large

# Least squares fitting example:

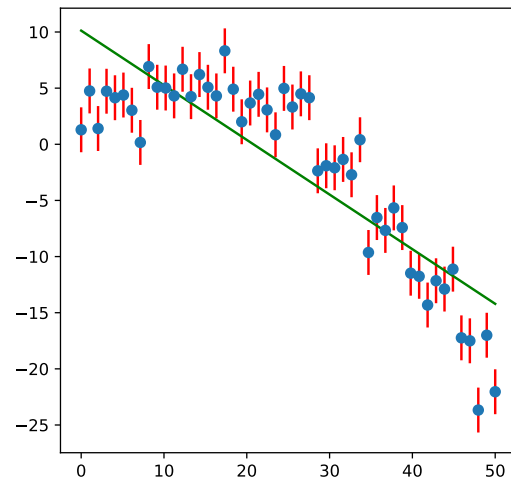
Linear regression, linear function



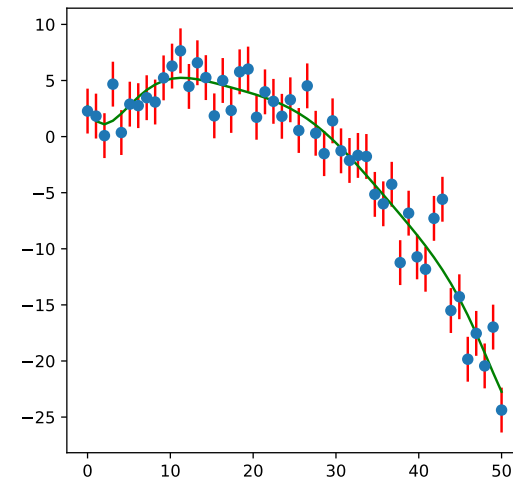
Polynomial regression (order 2), quadratic function



Linear regression, quadratic function



Polynomial regression (order 10), quadratic function



# Comments on general least squares

- In the example, we used polynomials as our functions, but can use linear combinations of any functions we would like
- We choose functions strategically to get the best least squares fit
  - Often choosing orthogonal basis functions in the range of the fit will produce better fits
- The matrix  $\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}$  is notoriously ill conditioned especially for increased number of basis functions
  - Gaussian substitution will have problems solving (numpy solve uses singular-value decomposition)
- Procedure can be generalized if we also have errors in  $x$



# Nonlinear least-squares fitting

- Even in the polynomial case, we were using linear combinations of functions
- We can also directly fit a function whose parameters enter nonlinearly
- Consider the function:  $f(a_0, a_1) = a_0 e^{a_1 x}$

- Want to minimize:  $Q \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - a_0 e^{a_1 x_i})^2$

- Take derivatives:  $f_0 = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial a_0} = \sum_{i=1}^N e^{a_1 x_i} (a_0 e^{a_1 x_i} - y_i) = 0,$

$$f_1 = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial a_1} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i e^{a_1 x_i} (a_0 e^{a_1 x_i} - y_i) = 0$$

# Nonlinear least-squares fitting

- Produces a nonlinear system—we can use the multivariate root-finding techniques we learned earlier:

- Compute the Jacobian
- Take an initial guess for unknown coefficients
- Use Newton-Raphson techniques to compute the correction:

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = \mathbf{a}_0 - \mathbf{J}^{-1} \mathbf{f}$$

- Iterate
- 
- Can be very difficult to converge, and highly dependent on the initial guess

# Fitting packages

- Fitting is a very sensitive procedure—especially for nonlinear cases
- Lots of minimization packages exist that offer robust fitting procedures
- MINUIT2: the standard package in high-energy physics (Python version: PyMinuit and Iminuit)
- MINPACK: Fortran library for solving least squares problems—this is what is used under the hood for the built in SciPy least squares routine
  - <http://www.netlib.org/minpack/>
- SciPy optimize:  
<https://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/optimize.html>

# After class tasks

- Homework 2 due today
- Homework 3 will be posted today or tomorrow
  
- Readings
  - FFTs:
    - Newman Ch. 7
    - [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete\\_Fourier\\_transform](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrete_Fourier_transform)
  
  - Linear regression:
    - [Wikipedia page on variance](#)
    - [Wikipedia page on propagation of errors](#)
    - Garcia Sec. 5.1