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# Generalized Least-Squares Ftting with Procedures for Uncorrelated Data of Constant Variance

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# Abstract

We show how generalized least-squares fitting, namely, the fitting of correlated data, can be carried out with algorithms for uncorrelated data of constant variance. Doing so requires only a simple linear transformation of the measurement data.

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#### 1. Introduction

**Article Info** 

Least-squares fitting of data is a recurring task in statistics and natural science. While there are many approaches and algorithms for performing least-squares fitting of uncorrelated data, only very few exist that support least-squares fitting correlated measurement data. This is not a major problem though, since—as we show in this application note—least-squares fitting of correlated measurement data can be translated into a least-squares fitting problem for uncorrelated data of constant variance. The only thing needed is a simple linear transformation of the data.

#### 2. The Optimization Problem

Least-squares fitting can be described as follows. The relationship between the variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$  is described by a model function.

$$x = f(x, \alpha) \qquad \dots (1)$$

where x is a column vector of the x-values and  $\alpha$  is the vector of the model parameters. An example for f is

	$\left( x_{1} \right)$		$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \end{pmatrix}$	
<i>x</i> =	$x_2$	=	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	(2)
	$\begin{pmatrix} x_3 \end{pmatrix}$	)	$\left(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2\right)$	

where f has two input variables  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and one output variable  $x_3$ . This example is illustrated in Figure 1.

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In this application note, we assume that the x-values are complex. However, our findings also hold for real-valued x's.



The problem to be solved is that the true x- and  $\alpha$ - values are unknown. For instance, the x values can only be observed with additive noise. Generalized least-squares curve fitting provides a way of estimating the true values. The estimates are written as  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  and they are inferred by minimizing Equation (3).

$$\chi^2 = \delta^{\dagger} C^{-1} \delta \qquad \dots (3)$$

where

$$\delta \coloneqq x - f(\hat{x}, \hat{\alpha}) \tag{4}$$

The elements of the matrix C are defined as:

$$C_{ij} \coloneqq E(\{x_i - \varepsilon(x_i)\}\{x_j - E(x_j)\}^*) \qquad \dots (5)$$

for  $1 \le i, j \le m$  [see, for instance (Taupin, 1988)].  $\varepsilon$  stands for the expectation value. The minimization of Equation (3) is referred to as generalized least-squares fitting.

Note that the *x*-values in Equation (5) are modeled as stochastic variables. For more details on observed values and stochastic variables see Appendix A.

Also note that  $C_{ii}$  is the variance of  $x_i$  and that  $C_{ij}$  for  $i \neq j$  indicates the correlation between  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ . Furthermore, note that if f is non-linear in x, f may have to be replaced with a slightly modified function. For more details on this see (Metz *et al.*, 2003).

While many analytical formulas and numerical procedures exist for the minimization of  $\chi^2$  for uncorrelated x-values  $(C_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j)$ , few exist for correlated x-values. This is especially true for commercially available procedures, which only seem to tackle the minimization of  $\chi^2$  for uncorrelated x values with constant variance. In other words, they only minimize

$$\chi^2 = \delta^{\dagger} \delta$$
 ...(6)

The minimization of Equation (6) is referred to as ordinary least-squares fitting.

The next section discusses how generalised least-squares fitting problems can be transformed into ordinary least-squares fitting problems.

#### 3. Translating Generalized Least-Squares Fitting into Ordinary Least-Squares Fitting

This transformation exploits the fact that *C* is hermitian [namely  $C^{\dagger} = C$  according to Equation (5)]. See also (Wikipedia Contributors, 2021). Therefore, *C* can be factored into:

$$C = U V U^{\dagger} \qquad \dots (7)$$

where U and V are constructed as follows (Wikipedia Contributors, 2020): solve the eignenvalue equation

...(8)

The solutions are the vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m$  and the real values  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m$ . Thereafter, construct U according to

$$U = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m)$$
...(9)

and V according to

$$V_{ij} \coloneqq \begin{cases} v_i \text{ for } i = j \\ 0 \text{ for } i \neq j \end{cases} \dots (10)$$

Note that U is a unitary matrix, meaning  $U^{-1} = U^{\dagger}$  (Wikipedia Contributors, 2020).

$$\delta = U \sigma \delta'$$
 ...(11)

with

$$\sigma_{ij} \coloneqq \begin{cases} \sqrt{v_i} \text{ for } i = j \\ 0 \text{ for } i \neq j \end{cases} \dots (12)$$

transforms Equation (3) into Equation (6). To demonstrate this, we insert Equation (11) into Equation (3):

$$\chi^{2} = \delta^{\dagger} C^{-1} \delta$$

$$= (U\sigma \ \delta')^{\dagger} C^{-1} (U\sigma \ \delta')$$

$$= (\delta')^{\dagger} \sigma^{\dagger} U^{\dagger} C^{-1} U\sigma \delta' \qquad \dots (13)$$

Using Equation (7), this yields'

$$\chi^{2} = (\delta')^{\dagger} \sigma U^{\dagger} (UVU^{\dagger})^{-1} U \sigma \delta'$$

$$= (\delta')^{\dagger} \sigma \underbrace{U^{\dagger} (\underline{U^{\dagger}})^{-1}}_{1} V^{-1} \underbrace{U^{-1} \underline{U}}_{1} \sigma \delta'$$

$$= (\delta')^{\dagger} \sigma V^{-1} \sigma \delta' \qquad \dots (14)$$

where 1 is the identity matrix.

Remembering that  $V = \sigma \sigma$  [see Equation (12)], we get

$$\chi^{2} = (\delta')^{\dagger} \underbrace{\sigma \sigma^{-1} \sigma^{-1} \sigma}_{1} \delta'$$
$$= (\delta')^{\dagger} \delta' \qquad \dots (15)$$

which indeed is isomorphic to Equation (6) (Wikipedia Contributors, 2021).

### 4. How to Use this Result in Practice?

From Equation (11) and Equation (4), we get

$$\delta' = \sigma^{-1} U^{-1} \delta$$
  
=  $\sigma^{-1} U^{-1} x - \sigma^{-1} U^{-1} f(\hat{x}, \hat{\alpha})$   
=  $\underbrace{\sigma^{-1} U^{-1} x}_{x'} - \underbrace{\sigma^{-1} U^{-1} f(\hat{x}, \hat{\alpha})}_{f'(\hat{x}', \hat{\alpha}')}$  ...(16)

The last row exploits the fact that  $\delta' = x' - f'(\hat{x}', \hat{\alpha})$ .

From Equation (16), the following recipe for fitting correlated data with algorithms for ordinary least-squares fitting can be inferred.

1. Take your measurement data x and calculate

$$x' = \sigma^{-1} U^{\dagger} x \qquad \dots (17)$$

2. Calculate a new model function

$$f'(x',\alpha) = \sigma^{-1}U^{\dagger}f(U\sigma \ \hat{x}',\alpha)$$
 ...(18)

3. Minimize

$$(\delta')^{\dagger}\delta'$$
 ... (19)

with

$$\delta' = x' - f'(x', \alpha) \qquad \dots (20)$$

This step yields the estimates  $\hat{x}'$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$ 

4. Calculate the estimates  $\hat{x}$  with

$$\hat{x} = U\sigma \ \hat{x}' \qquad \dots (21)$$

#### 5. Conclusion

This application note provides a simple recipe for how to translate generalized least-squares curve fitting into least-squares curve fitting of uncorrelated data with constant variance.

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## Appendix

#### **Stochastic Variables and Observations**

The reader should be aware of the distinction between stochastic variables and observations. Stochastic variables are a mathematical concept for representing quantities that are subject to random variation. Stochastic variables are associated with a probability law, a so-called distribution function, and one can assign expectation values, variances, co-variances and so on to them.

Observations, on the other hand, are concrete numbers that are observed in, for instance, measurements, and they are typed into, say, a computer when performing some kind of evaluation.

Many textbooks on statistical inference use capital letters such as X for stochastic variables and small letters such as x for observations. In this work, we do not make this formal distinction in order to keep the formalism simple.

From the context, it will be clear what is meant. For instance, expectation values, variances etc. are only defined for stochastic variables, whereas a minimization of Equation (6) can only be done for concrete numbers, namely, the observations x.

Statistical inference is about estimating the values of unknown quantities. These estimates are obtained from the data of an experiment, so they are numbers you calculate from the observations.

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