

# CS 450: Numerical Analysis

## Lecture 6

### Chapter 3 – Linear Least Squares

#### QR Factorization

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# Linear Least Squares Motivation

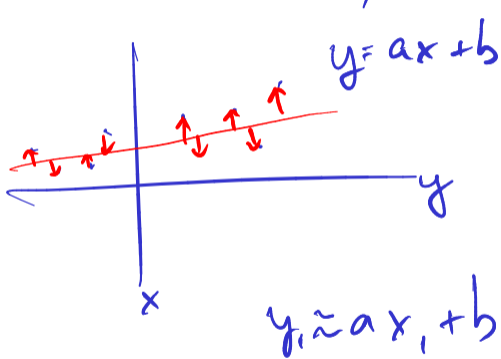
$Ax \approx b$  overdetermined, minimize  $\|Ax - b\|_2$

$$\begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(x_1, y_1)$$

$\vdots$

$$(x_m, y_m)$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \\ \vdots \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \\ \vdots \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

# Linear Least Squares

- Find  $x^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \underbrace{\|Ax - b\|_2}_{\text{residual}}$  where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ .

$$x^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \underbrace{\langle Ax - b, Ax - b \rangle}_{\|Ax - b\|^2}$$

- Given the SVD  $A = U\Sigma V^T$  we have  $x^* = \underbrace{V\Sigma^\dagger U^T}_{\text{pseudoinverse}} b$ , where  $\Sigma^\dagger$  contains the reciprocal of all nonzeros in  $\Sigma$ :

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^{-1} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

pseudoinverse

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$$U \Sigma V^T x = b$$

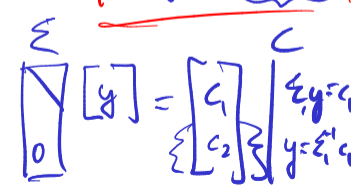
$\Leftrightarrow$

$$U \Sigma y = b$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$$\Sigma y = U^T b$$

$$\Sigma y = c$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \\ \sigma_3 \\ \sigma_4 \\ \sigma_5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \\ y_5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_i = c_i / \sigma_i$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \\ c_5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\rightarrow$

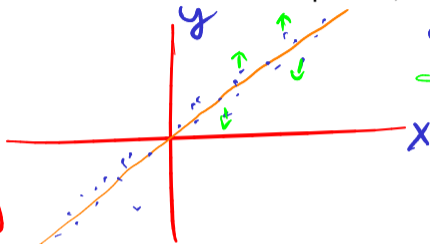
$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \\ c_5 \\ c_6 \\ c_7 \end{bmatrix}$$

diff. is residual

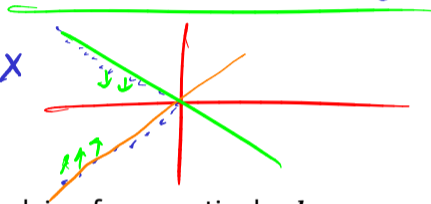
# Conditioning of Linear Least Squares

- ▶ Consider fitting a line to a collection of points, then perturbing the points:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} [c] = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$



conditioning w.r.t.  $y$

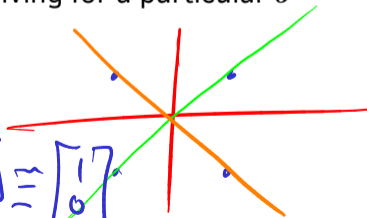


- ▶ LLS is ill-posed for any  $A$ , unless we consider solving for a particular  $b$

for all possible  $b$  in  $Ax \approx b$

LLS is ill posed

$$\begin{bmatrix} \epsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies x^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \epsilon \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \epsilon \end{bmatrix}$$



# Normal Equations

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

- ▶ *Normal equations* are given by solving  $A^T A x = A^T b$ :

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \boxed{\phantom{00}} \boxed{\phantom{00}} = \boxed{\phantom{00}} \boxed{\phantom{00}} \\
 \boxed{\phantom{00}} \boxed{\phantom{00}} = \boxed{\phantom{00}} \boxed{\phantom{00}}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \left.
 \begin{array}{l}
 V \Sigma^T U^T U \Sigma V^T x = V \Sigma^T U^T b \\
 \cancel{V \Sigma^T} \Sigma V^T x = \cancel{V \Sigma^T} U^T b
 \end{array}
 \right\}$$

- ▶ However, solving the normal equations is a more ill-conditioned problem than the original least squares algorithm

$$A^T A = V \Sigma^T \Sigma V^T = \begin{matrix} \boxed{\phantom{00}} \\ \boxed{\phantom{00}} \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{\max}^2 & & \\ & \dots & \\ & & \sigma_{\min}^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \boxed{\phantom{00}} \\ \boxed{\phantom{00}} \end{matrix}$$

$A$  is  $n+1 \times n$       $\begin{bmatrix} A \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$       $\begin{matrix} \text{ortho} \\ \text{ortho} \end{matrix}$

$$\kappa(A^T A) = \kappa(A)^2 = \frac{\sigma_{\max}^2}{\sigma_{\min}^2}$$

## Solving the Normal Equations

- ▶ If  $A$  is full-rank, then  $A^T A$  is symmetric positive definite (SPD):

$$A^T A = V \Sigma^2 V^T$$

*rows eigenvectors* (pointing to  $V^T$ )  
*eigenvalue decomposition* (under  $V \Sigma^2 V^T$ )  
*eigenvalues* (under  $\Sigma^2$ )

$$(A^T A)^T = A^T A$$
$$A^T A V = V \Sigma^2$$

*SPD* (under  $V \Sigma^2 V^T$ )

*SPD* (under  $\Sigma^2$ )

*SPD* (under  $\Sigma^2$ )

- ▶ Since  $A^T A$  is SPD we can use Cholesky factorization, to factorize it and solve linear systems:

$$A^T A = L L^T$$

*not unit-diagonal* (under  $L$ )

# QR Factorization

- ▶ If  $A$  is full-rank there exists an orthogonal matrix  $Q$  and a unique upper-triangular matrix  $R$  with a positive diagonal such that  $A = QR$

$$\boxed{A^T A = L L^T = R^T R}$$

$$A R^{-1} = A L^{-T} = Q$$

$$\underbrace{L^{-1} A^T A L^{-T}} = I$$

▶ A reduced QR factorization (unique part of general QR) is defined so that  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has orthonormal columns and  $R$  is square and upper-triangular

Orthonormal  
Columns

Cholesky - QR

$$A = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{orth.}}}{Q} \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{upper tri}}}{R} \quad \text{full}$$
  
$$\boxed{A} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & r_{nn} \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} \\ & \ddots \\ & & r_{nn} \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

- ▶ **Classical Gram-Schmidt process for QR:**

$$A = [a_1 \dots a_n] = [q_1 \dots q_n] [R]$$

$$r_1 = \|a_1\|$$

$$r_i = \|b_i\|$$

$$q_1 = \frac{a_1}{\|a_1\|}, \quad q_i = \frac{b_i}{\|b_i\|}, \quad b_i = a_i - \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \langle q_j, a_i \rangle}_{r_{ji}} q_j$$

- ▶ **Modified Gram-Schmidt process for QR:**

$$b_i = \text{MGS}(a_i, i-1), \quad \text{MGS}(x, j) = \text{MGS}(x - \langle q_j, x \rangle q_j, j-1)$$
$$\text{MGS}(x, 0) = x$$

$$b_i = b_i^2 - \langle q_3, (b_i^1 - \langle q_2, (a_i - \langle q_1, a_i \rangle q_1) \rangle q_2) q_3 \rangle$$

$b_i^1$

$$q_i = \frac{b_i^1}{\|b_i^1\|}$$

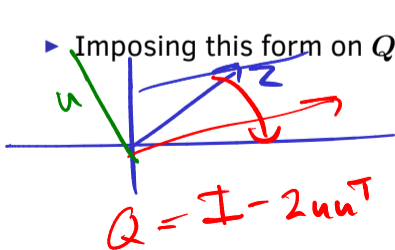
$b_i^2$

# Householder QR Factorization

- ▶ A Householder transformation  $Q = I - 2uu^T$  is an orthogonal matrix defined to annihilate entries of a given vector  $z$ , so  $\|z\|_2 Q e_1 = z$ :

$$Q^T z = \begin{bmatrix} \|z\|_2 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = e_1 \|z\|_2 \quad \left[ \begin{array}{c} | \\ a_1 \\ | \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{Q^T} \left[ \begin{array}{c} r_{11} \\ | \\ \dots \\ | \end{array} \right]$$

- ▶ Imposing this form on  $Q$  leaves exactly two choices for  $u$  given  $z$ ,



$$u = \frac{z \pm \|z\|_2 e_1}{\|z \pm \|z\|_2 e_1\|_2}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c} Q_{11} \\ Q_{12} \\ Q_{13} \dots \end{array} \right]$$

## Applying Householder Transformations

- ▶ The product  $x = Qw$  can be computed using  $O(n)$  operations if  $Q$  is a Householder transformation

$$Q = I - 2uu^T$$

$$Q^T v = (I - 2uu^T)v = v - 2\langle u, v \rangle u \quad O(n)$$

- ▶ Householder transformations are also called *reflectors* because their application reflects a vector along a hyperplane (changes sign of component of  $w$  that is parallel to  $u$ )

$$z - \underbrace{\langle q_1, z \rangle}_{q_1^T z} q_1 = \underbrace{(I - q_1 q_1^T)}_{\substack{\text{projection (G-S)} \\ z - w}} z \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} (I - 2uu^T)z = z - 2u \langle u, z \rangle \\ \underbrace{uu^T z}_w \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{th. } z - 2w \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$$