

3. Linear Least Squares

- Example
- QR factorization

Positive semi-definite matrix

Definition:

A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive semi-definite if $x^T A x \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Notation: $A \succeq 0$

Similarly, A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive definite if $x^T A x > 0$ for all non-zero $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ($A \succ 0$)

If x is an eigenvector of A , $Ax = \lambda x$
 $\Rightarrow x^T A x = \lambda \boxed{x^T x} \geq 0$
 $\Rightarrow \lambda \geq 0$

Q. Which of the following statements are true.

- i. If A is PSD, A is invertible.
- ii. If A is PD, A^{-1} exists and A^{-1} is also PD.
- iii. Let $f(x) = \|Ax - b\|_2^2$. For all x , the Hessian of f has non-negative eigenvalues.

Pick one:

A)

B) i, ii

C) ii, iii

Least squares

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad f(x) := \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^T x - b_i)^2$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \langle Ax - b, Ax - b \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle Ax, Ax \rangle - \langle Ax, b \rangle + \langle b, b \rangle \\ = \frac{1}{2} \langle A^T A x, x \rangle - \langle A^T b, x \rangle + \|b\|^2 \\ \nabla f(x) = A^T(Ax - b)$$

- Gradient

- Hessian

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = A^T A \quad x^T A^T A x = \|A x\|_2^2 \geq 0$$

- Is the Hessian positive definite? positive semidefinite?

column

Ans: Always positive semidefinite. Positive definite if A has full ~~rank~~ rank.

- Conditions for $x = x^*$ to be a global minimizer?

$$A^T(Ax^* - b) = 0$$

These are the **normal equations** of the least squares problem.

QR factorization

Orthogonal and orthonormal vectors

Two vectors $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$, $y \in \mathbf{R}^n$

- Recall cosine identity

$$x^T y = \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2 \cos(\theta)$$

- x and y are orthogonal if they are “perpendicular”

$$x^T y = 0 \quad (\cos(\theta) = 0)$$

- x and y are orthonormal if they are orthogonal and normalized

$$x^T y = 0, \quad x^T x = 1, \quad y^T y = 1$$

Orthogonal matrix

$Q \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal if its columns are all pairwise orthonormal

$$Q = [q_1 \quad \cdots \quad q_n], \quad Q^T Q = QQ^T = I$$

- Then the inverse is the transpose

$$Q^{-1} = Q^T$$

- Inner products are “invariant” under orthogonal transformations

$$(Qx)^T(Qy) = x^T Q^T Q y = x^T y$$

- 2-norm is also invariant

$$\|Qx\|_2 = \|x\|_2$$

- Determinant is either 1 or -1. (Why?)

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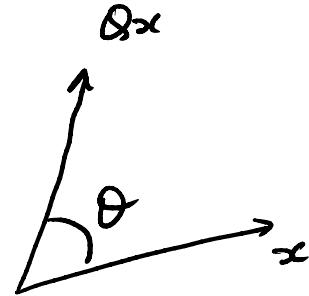
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$$\det(I) = \det(Q^T Q) = \det(Q)^2 = 1$$

Example

The rotation matrix

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$



is orthogonal.

Check: $Q^T Q = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta & 0 \\ 0 & \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

QR Factorization

Assume the first k columns of A are linearly indep.

$$m \begin{matrix} n \\ A \end{matrix} = \underbrace{\begin{matrix} k & m-k \\ \hat{Q} & \bar{Q} \end{matrix}}_Q \quad \begin{matrix} n \\ R \end{matrix}$$

where

- Q is orthogonal ($Q^T Q = QQ^T = I$)
- R is upper triangular ($R_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i > j$)
- \hat{Q} spans the range of A
- \bar{Q} spans the nullspace of A^T ,

In Julia,

$$(Q, R) = qr(A)$$

Always exists for any $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$

Reduced ("thin", "economode") QR factorization

For $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ full rank

$$\begin{matrix} & n & n & n \\ m & \boxed{A} = & \boxed{\hat{Q}} & \boxed{\hat{R}} \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} & & & n \end{matrix}$$

Equivalently,

$$a_1 = r_{11} q_1$$

$$a_2 = r_{12} q_1 + r_{22} q_2$$

$$a_3 = r_{13} q_1 + r_{23} q_2 + r_{33} q_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_n = r_{1n} q_1 + r_{2n} q_2 + \cdots + r_{nn} q_n$$

Using Projection to find Q.

Given vectors $v, \omega \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the projection of v onto ω is

$$\text{proj}_{\omega} v = \frac{\omega^T v}{\omega^T \omega} \omega$$

Given a matrix $A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n]$

we can find Q with $R(Q) = R(A)$ and Q orthonormal by:

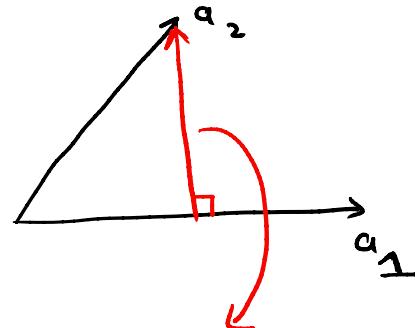
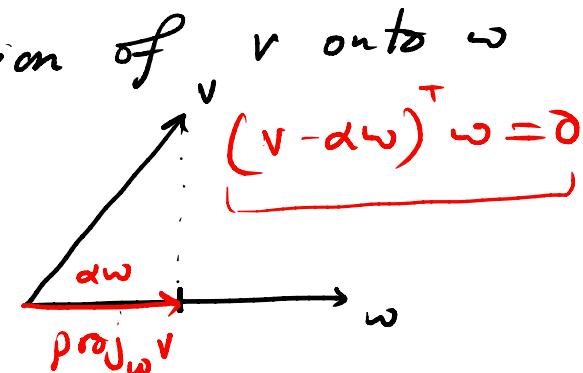
$$\tilde{q}_1 = a_1$$

$$\tilde{q}_2 = a_2 - \text{proj}_{\tilde{q}_1} a_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\tilde{q}_n = a_n - \text{proj}_{\tilde{q}_1} a_n - \dots - \text{proj}_{\tilde{q}_{n-1}} a_n$$

$$q_K = \tilde{q}_K / \|\tilde{q}_K\|_2$$



$$q_2 = a_2 - \text{proj}_{a_1} a_2$$

Solving least squares via QR

$$\underset{x \in \mathbf{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

Because 2-norm is invariant under orthogonal transformation,

$$\begin{aligned} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 &= (Ax - b)^T (Ax - b) \\ &= (Ax - b)^T Q^T Q (Ax - b) \\ &= \|Q^T (Ax - b)\|_2^2 \\ &= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \hat{R} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} x - \begin{bmatrix} \hat{Q}^T \\ \bar{Q}^T \end{bmatrix} b \right\|_2^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\|\hat{R}x - \hat{Q}^T b\|_2^2}_{(1)} + \underbrace{\|\bar{Q}^T b\|_2^2}_{(2)} \end{aligned}$$

$$Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{Q}^T \\ \bar{Q}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

(1) is minimized when $\hat{R}x = \hat{Q}^T b$, (2) is constant

Geometric perspective

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

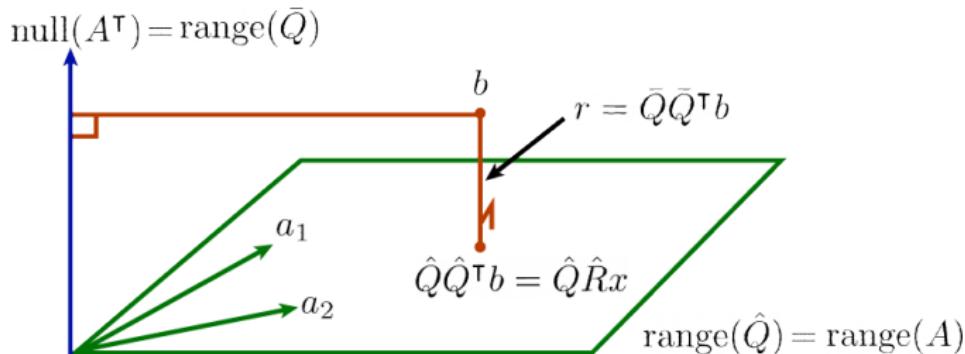
- Orthogonal projection matrix:

- A square matrix P is a projection matrix if $P^2 = P$.
- A projection matrix P is an orthogonal projection matrix if $P = P^T$.

- Let $A = QR$.

$$P^2 = P$$

- $\hat{Q}\hat{Q}^T$ and $\bar{Q}\bar{Q}^T$ are orthogonal projection matrices.
- For any $b \in \mathbf{R}^m$, $\hat{Q}\hat{Q}^T b$ is the closest point in $\text{range}(A)$ w.r.t. 2-norm.
- For any $b \in \mathbf{R}^m$, $\bar{Q}\bar{Q}^T b$ is the closest point in $\text{null}(A^T)$ w.r.t. 2-norm.



Solving least squares via QR

$$\underset{x \in \mathbf{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2$$

Mathematically

$$\begin{aligned} A^T Ax &= A^T b \\ R^T Q^T Q R x &= R^T Q^T b \\ R x &= Q^T b \\ x &= R^{-1} Q^T b \end{aligned}$$

Computationally

1. Compute $A = \hat{Q}\hat{R}$
2. Compute $y = \hat{Q}^T b$
3. Solve $\hat{R}x = y$

More computationally stable than solving $A^T A x = A^T b$ by forming $A^T A$