

# Matrix Computations

## Chapter 3: Least-squares Problems and QR Decomposition

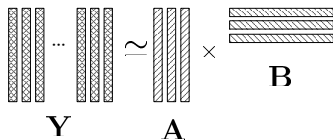
### Section 3.4 Problems Related to Least Squares

Jie Lu  
ShanghaiTech University

# Matrix Factorization

**Matrix Factorization:** Given  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and a positive integer  $k < \min\{m, n\}$ , solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{AB}\|_F^2$$



Also called **low-rank matrix approximation**

- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{AB}) \leq k$

# Principal Component Analysis

**Aim:** Given a collection of data points  $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , perform a low-dimensional representation

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}_i + \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{v}_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

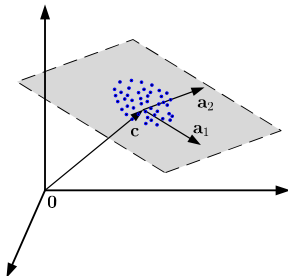
where  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$  is a basis matrix,  $\mathbf{b}_i \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is the coefficient for  $\mathbf{y}_i$ ,  $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the base or mean in statistics terms, and  $\mathbf{v}_i$  is noise or modeling error

Principal component analysis (PCA):

1. Choose  $\mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{y}_i$
2. Let  $\bar{\mathbf{y}}_i = \mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{c}$ , and solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}} \|\bar{\mathbf{Y}} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\|_F^2$$

3. we may want a semi-orthogonal  $\mathbf{A}$



**Applications:** dimensionality reduction, visualization of high-dimensional data, compression, extraction of meaningful features from data, etc.

- Example of senate voting: <http://livebooklabs.com/keepies/c5a5868ce26b8125>

# Topic Modeling

**Aim:** Discover thematic information or topics from a large collection of documents (e.g., books, articles, news, blogs)

**Bag-of-words representation:** Represent each document as a vector of word counts

... In fact, we will soon see that the **implementation** of **SDR** can be very easy, which allows **signal processing** practitioners to quickly test the viability of **SDR** in their applications. Several highly successful **applications** will be showcased as **examples** .....

a document



bag of words



$y =$

count	term
0	efficiency
2	applications
2	SDR
0	communications
1	example
1	signal processing
⋮	⋮
1	implementation

bag-of-words representation

# Topic Modeling (cont'd)

- Let  $n$  be the number of documents
- Let  $\mathbf{y}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$  be the bag-of-words representation of the  $i$ th document
- $\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is called the term-document matrix
- Hypotheses:<sup>1</sup>
  - If documents have similar columns vectors in  $\mathbf{Y}$  or similar usage of words, they tend to have similar meanings
  - The topic of a document will probabilistically influence the author's choice of words when writing the document

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<sup>1</sup>P. D. Turney and P. Pantel, "From frequency to meaning: Vector space models of semantics," *Journal of*

## Topic Modeling (cont'd)

**Problem:** Apply matrix factorization to a term-document matrix  $\mathbf{Y}$

The diagram shows the matrix factorization equation  $\mathbf{Y} \approx \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}$ . Matrix  $\mathbf{Y}$  is represented by two groups of three vertical bars with a cross-hatch pattern, separated by an ellipsis. Matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is represented by two groups of two vertical bars with diagonal hatching, separated by an ellipsis. Matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  is represented by three horizontal bars with horizontal hatching. The matrices are connected by an approximation symbol  $\approx$  and a multiplication symbol  $\times$ .

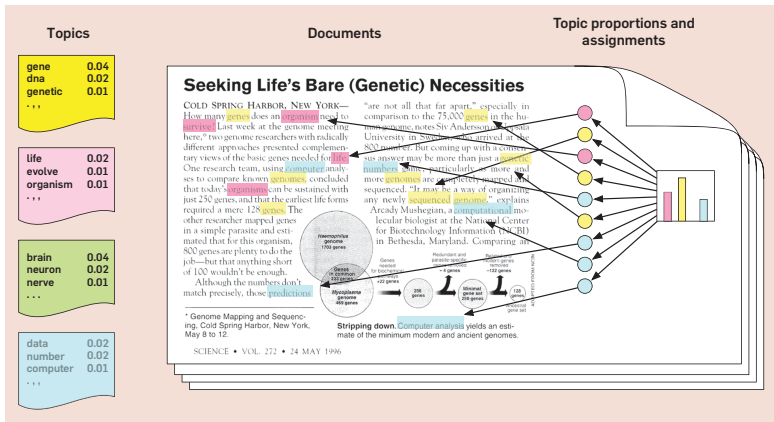
$\mathbf{A}$  is called a term-topic matrix and  $\mathbf{B}$  is called a topic-document matrix

**Interpretation:**

- Each column  $\mathbf{a}_i$  of  $\mathbf{A}$  represents a theme topic (e.g., local affairs, foreign affairs, politics, sports)
- $\mathbf{y}_i \approx \mathbf{A} \mathbf{b}_i$ : each document is postulated as a linear combination of topics
- Matrix factorization aims at discovering topics from the documents

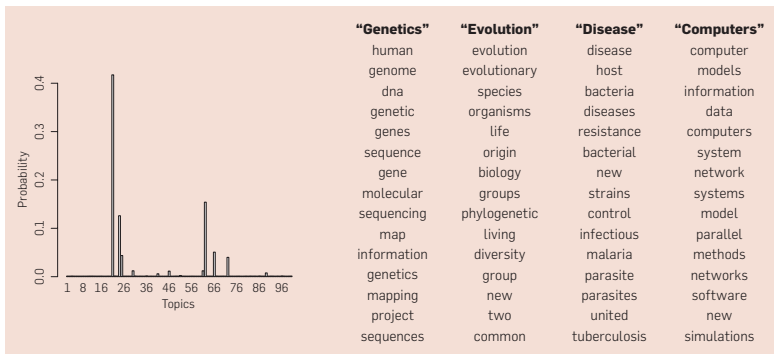
Topic modeling via matrix factorization has been used in or is tightly connected to information retrieval, natural language processing, machine learning; document clustering, classification and retrieval; latent semantic analysis, latent semantic indexing: finding similarities of documents, similarities of terms, etc.

# Topic Modeling (cont'd)



Source: D. Blei, "Probabilistic topic models," *Communications of the ACM*, vol. 55, no. 4, pp. 77–84, 2012.

# Topic Modeling (cont'd)



Topics found in a real set of documents. The document set consists of 17,000 articles from the journal *Science*. The topics are discovered using a technique called *latent Dirichlet allocation*, which is not the same as, but has strong connections to, matrix factorization [Blei'12]



# Matrix Factorization

**Problem:**

$$\min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{AB}\|_F^2$$

The problem has non-unique solutions

- If  $(\mathbf{A}^*, \mathbf{B}^*)$  is an optimal solution to the problem, then  $(\mathbf{A}^* \mathbf{Q}^{-1}, \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{B}^*)$  is also an optimal solution for any nonsingular  $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$
- The non-uniqueness of solution makes it a bad formulation for problems such as topic modeling

The problem is non-convex, but can be solved by singular value decomposition (beautifully)

It can also be solved by LS approach

# Alternating LS for Matrix Factorization

Alternating LS (ALS): Given a starting point  $(\mathbf{A}^{(0)}, \mathbf{B}^{(0)})$ , do

$$\mathbf{A}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}^{(i)}\|_F^2$$

$$\mathbf{B}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}^{(i+1)}\mathbf{B}\|_F^2$$

for  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , and stop when a termination criterion is satisfied

Make a mild assumption that  $\mathbf{A}^{(i)}, \mathbf{B}^{(i)}$  have full rank at every  $i$

## Alternating LS for Matrix Factorization (cont'd)

$$\mathbf{A}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}^{(i)}\|_F^2, \quad \mathbf{B}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}^{(i+1)}\mathbf{B}\|_F^2$$

# Alternating LS for Matrix Factorization (cont'd)

The updates of ALS can be written as

$$\mathbf{A}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{B}^{(i)})^T (\mathbf{B}^{(i)} (\mathbf{B}^{(i)})^T)^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{B}^{(i+1)} = ((\mathbf{A}^{(i+1)})^T \mathbf{A}^{(i+1)})^{-1} (\mathbf{A}^{(i+1)})^T \mathbf{Y}$$

- ALS is guaranteed to converge an optimal solution to  $\min_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{AB}\|_F^2$  under some mild assumptions<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>M. Udell, C. Horn, R. Zadeh, and S. Boyd, "Generalized low rank models," *Foundations and Trends in*

# Low-Rank Matrix Completion

**Aim:** Given  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with missing entries, i.e., the values  $y_{ij}$ 's are known only for  $(i, j) \in \Omega$  where  $\Omega$  is an index set that indicates the available entries, recover the missing entries of  $\mathbf{Y}$

**Applications:** recommender system, data science, etc.

**Example:** Movie recommendation <sup>3</sup>

- $\mathbf{Y}$  records how user  $i$  likes movie  $j$
- $\mathbf{Y}$  has lots of missing entries; A user doesn't watch all movies
- $\mathbf{Y}$  may be assumed to have low rank;  
Research shows that only a few factors affect users' preferences

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{matrix} & \text{movies} \\ \begin{matrix} 2 & 3 & 1 & ? & ? & 5 & 5 \\ 1 & ? & 4 & 2 & ? & ? & ? \\ ? & 3 & 1 & ? & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ ? & ? & ? & 3 & ? & 1 & 5 \end{matrix} & \begin{matrix} \\ \\ \\ \end{matrix} \text{users} \end{matrix}$$

<sup>3</sup>B. Koren, R. Bell, and C. Volinsky, "Matrix factorization techniques for recommender systems," *IEEE*

# ALS alternative for Low-Rank Matrix Completion

**Problem:** Given  $\{y_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in \Omega}$  and a positive integer  $k$ , solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}} \sum_{(i,j) \in \Omega} |y_{ij} - [\mathbf{AB}]_{ij}|^2$$

An ALS alternative for matrix completion:<sup>4</sup>

- Consider an equivalent reformulation of the problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}, \mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{AB} - \mathbf{R}\|_F^2 \quad \text{s.t. } r_{ij} = 0, \forall (i,j) \in \Omega$$

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<sup>4</sup>R. Sun and Z.-Q. Luo, "Guaranteed matrix completion via non-convex factorization," *IEEE Trans. Inform.*

# ALS alternative for Low-Rank Matrix Completion (cont'd)

- Do alternating optimization according to the equivalent problem

$$\mathbf{A}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}^{(i)} - \mathbf{R}^{(i)}\|_F^2$$

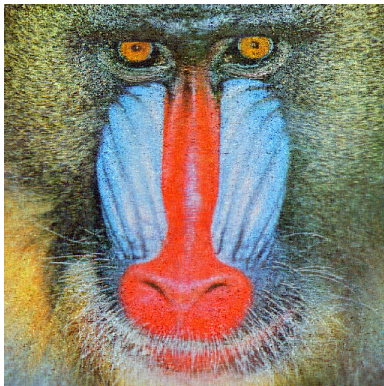
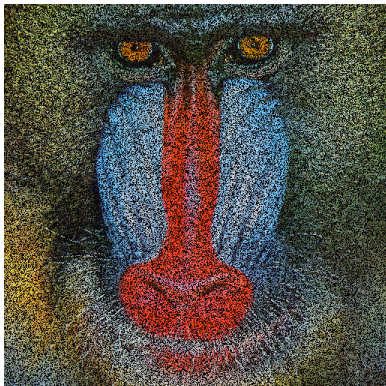
$$\mathbf{B}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}^{(i+1)}\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{R}^{(i)}\|_F^2$$

$$\mathbf{R}^{(i+1)} = \arg \min_{\substack{\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \\ r_{ij}=0, \forall (i,j) \in \Omega}} \|\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}^{(i+1)}\mathbf{B}^{(i+1)} - \mathbf{R}\|_F^2$$

- The first two equations can be solved via LS as before
- The third equation has the closed-form solution

$$r_{ij}^{(i+1)} = \begin{cases} 0, & (i,j) \in \Omega \\ [\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{A}^{(i+1)}\mathbf{B}^{(i+1)}]_{ij}, & (i,j) \notin \Omega \end{cases}$$

# Toy Demonstration of Low-Rank Matrix Completion



Left: An incomplete image with 40% missing pixels. Right: the matrix completion result of the algorithm shown on last page.  $k = 120$ .



## Beyond LS

- let  $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^T \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$  denote the  $i$ th row of  $\mathbf{A}$

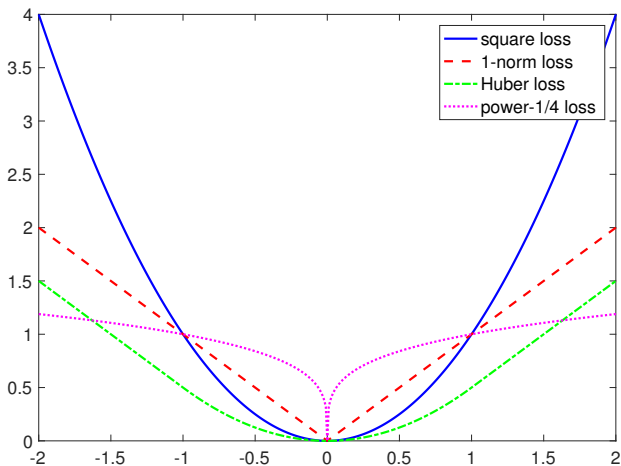
The LS problem can be rewritten as

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^T \mathbf{x} - y_i)$$

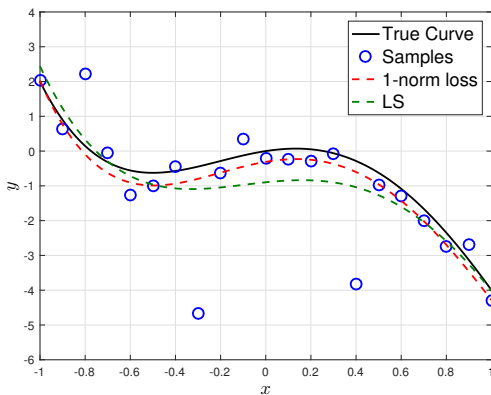
where  $\ell(z) = |z|^2$  is a **loss function** for measuring the badness of fit

- We can indeed use other loss functions such as
  - 1-norm loss:  $\ell(z) = |z|$
  - Huber loss:  $\ell(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}|z|^2, & |z| \leq 1 \\ |z| - \frac{1}{2}, & |z| > 1 \end{cases}$
  - power- $p$  loss:  $\ell(z) = |z|^p$ , with  $p < 1$
- The above loss functions are more robust against outliers
- However, they require optimization and don't result in a clean closed-form solution as LS

# Illustration of Loss Functions



## Example of Curve Fitting



“True” curve: the true  $f(x)$ ,  $p = 5$ . The points at  $x = -0.3$  and  $x = 0.4$  are outliers, and they do not follow the true curve. The 1-norm loss problem is solved by a convex optimization tool.

## Cheaper LS Solution

Recall that LS requires to solve the normal equation

$$(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{x}_{\text{LS}} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Complexity:  $O(n^3)$

- We also need to compute  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}$ , whose complexities are  $O(mn^2)$  and  $O(mn)$ , respectively

$O(n^3)$  is expensive for very large  $n$

We may acquire computationally less expensive LS solutions, with compromise of solution accuracy

# Gradient Descent

Consider a general unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

where  $f$  is continuously differentiable

**Gradient Descent:** Given a starting point  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ , do

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mu \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

where  $\mu > 0$  is a step size

Convergence results:

- For convex  $f$  and with proper  $\mu$ , gradient descent converges to an optimal solution
- For non-convex  $f$  and with proper  $\mu$ , gradient descent converges to a stationary point

## Gradient Descent (cont'd)

Gradient descent for LS:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - 2\mu(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} - \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Complexity for dense  $\mathbf{A}$ :

- Computing  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}$ :  $O(mn^2)$  and  $O(mn)$  (same as before)
  - $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}$  are cached for subsequent use
- Each iteration:  $O(n^2)$

Complexity for sparse  $\mathbf{A}$ :

- Computing  $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}$ :  $O(nnz(\mathbf{A}))$
- Each iteration:  $O(n + nnz(\mathbf{A}))$ 
  - $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$  is not necessarily sparse, so we do  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}$  and then  $\mathbf{A}^T(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$

More advanced optimization methods can be applied (e.g., conjugate gradient method)

# Online LS

Recall the LS formulation

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{t=1}^m |\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{x} - y_t|^2$$

Originally, the solving of LS is a batch process, i.e., solve one  $\mathbf{x}$  given the whole  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{y})$

In many applications, each  $(\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t, y_t)$  comes as time  $t$  goes  
We want the solving process to be adaptive/in real time

# Incremental Gradient Descent for Online LS

Consider an optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{t=1}^m f_t(\mathbf{x})$$

where every  $f_t$  is continuously differentiable

Incremental Gradient Descent:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \mu \nabla f_t(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}), \quad t = 1, 2, \dots$$

- Also called **stochastic gradient descent**, **least mean squares (LMS)** (in 70's)

Incremental gradient descent for LS:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}_{t-1} - 2\mu(\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{x}_{t-1} - y_t)\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t$$

- At each time  $t$ , only need the last iterate  $\mathbf{x}_{t-1}$  and the current data  $(\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t, y_t)$



# Recursive LS

Recursive LS (RLS) formulation:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{i=1}^t \lambda^{t-i} |\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^T \mathbf{x} - y_i|^2$$

where  $0 < \lambda \leq 1$  is prescribed, called the forgetting factor

- Weigh the importance of  $|\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^T \mathbf{x} - y_i|^2$  w.r.t. time  $t$ : The present is most important while distant pasts are insignificant
- How much we remember the past depends on  $\lambda$

At first look, the RLS solution is  $\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{R}_t^{-1} \mathbf{q}_t$  (assume  $\mathbf{R}_t$  nonsingular), where

$$\mathbf{R}_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \lambda^{t-i} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i^T, \quad \mathbf{q}_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \lambda^{t-i} y_i \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_i$$

$\mathbf{x}_t$  can be derived recursively by using the Woodbury matrix identity and exploiting the problem structures

# Woodbury Matrix Identity

For **A**, **B**, **C**, **D** with proper sizes,

$$(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{D} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1},$$

assuming that the inverses above exist

For the RLS problem, it is sufficient to consider the special case

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \frac{1}{1 + \mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

# Recursive LS

It can be verified that

$$\mathbf{R}_t = \lambda \mathbf{R}_{t-1} + \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T, \quad \mathbf{q}_t = \lambda \mathbf{q}_{t-1} + y_t \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t$$

Using the Woodbury matrix identity,

$$\mathbf{R}_t^{-1} = (\lambda \mathbf{R}_{t-1} + \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{R}_{t-1}^{-1} - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\lambda} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{R}_{t-1}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t} \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{R}_{t-1}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right) \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{R}_{t-1}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right)^T$$

Let  $\mathbf{P}_t = \mathbf{R}_t^{-1}$  and  $\mathbf{g}_t = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\lambda} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{R}_{t-1}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t} \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{R}_{t-1}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right)$ . Then,

$$\mathbf{g}_t = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\lambda} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t} \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right), \quad \mathbf{P}_t = \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} - \mathbf{g}_t \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right)^T$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_t &= \mathbf{P}_t \mathbf{q}_t = \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \mathbf{q}_{t-1} - \lambda \mathbf{g}_t \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right)^T \mathbf{q}_{t-1} + \frac{1}{\lambda} y_t \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t - y_t \mathbf{g}_t \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right)^T \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \\ &= \mathbf{x}_{t-1} - (\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{x}_{t-1}) \mathbf{g}_t + y_t \mathbf{g}_t \end{aligned}$$

# Recursive LS

RLS recursion:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{g}_t &= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\lambda} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t} \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right) \\ \mathbf{P}_t &= \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} - \mathbf{g}_t \left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{P}_{t-1} \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t \right)^T \\ \mathbf{x}_t &= \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + (y_t - \tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t^T \mathbf{x}_{t-1}) \mathbf{g}_t\end{aligned}$$

Remarks:

- It replaces the term  $2\mu\tilde{\mathbf{a}}_t$  in incremental gradient descent with  $\mathbf{g}_t$
- The RLS recursion may be numerically unstable as empirical results suggested. Modified RLS schemes were developed to mend this issue