# Computational method and numerical algorithms: Lecture 5

Wangtao Lu Zhejiang University

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## Chapter 4: Least Squares

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Let's consider the following system of equations:

$$x_1 + x_2 = 2$$
,

$$x_1-x_2=1,$$

$$x_1+x_2=3.$$

It is clear that this system of equations has no solutions.

A system of equations with no solution is called **inconsistent**. Alternatively, we can find a solution that makes the equations as

"accurate" as possile.

How to quantify the accuracy of a solution?

We rewrite the previous equations in the following vector form

$$v_1x_1+v_2x_2=b,$$

where

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

We know that,

$$v_1x_1 + v_2x_2, x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

forms a plane  $\Pi$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . If vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is on the plane, then the above equation has a unique solution.

What if *b* is outside the plane?

$$||b - (v_1x_1 + v_2x_2)||_2$$

attains its minimum at  $x_1 = \bar{x}_1$  and  $x_2 = \bar{x}_2$ ?

The optimal solution  $\bar{x}$  in fact satisfies

$$b - (v_1\bar{x}_1 + v_2\bar{x}_2) \perp \text{Plane} \quad \Pi = \{x_1v_1 + x_2v_2 : x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}\},\$$

i.e., for all  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$(x_1v_1 + x_2v_2)^T [b - (v_1\bar{x}_1 + v_2\bar{x}_2)] = 0 \rightarrow [v_1, v_2] [b - (v_1\bar{x}_1 + v_2\bar{x}_2)] = 0.$$

In general, when we need to solve Ax = b with  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and m > n, we can solve the following Least Squares problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} ||b - Ax||_2, \text{ or } \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} ||Ax - b||_2^2.$$

Accordingly, we expect that the optimal solution  $\bar{x}$  satisfies

$$b - A\bar{x} \perp \text{Super Plane} \quad \Pi = \{Ax \in \mathbb{R}^m : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\},\$$

i.e.,

$$(Ax)^T(b-A\bar{x})=0, \quad \forall x\in\mathbb{R}^n\to A^T(b-A\bar{x})=0.$$

Can we derive that above result by Calculus?

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Chapter 4: Lea:

4.1 Least Squares and the Normal Equations

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Revisit the least squares problem,

$$\min_{x\in\mathbb{R}^n}\left(y(x)=||b-Ax||_2^2\right),\,$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Suppose that y(x) has a minimum value at  $x = \bar{x}$ . Then, what does Calculus tell us?

$$\mathcal{J}_x y(x)|_{x=\bar{x}} = .$$

This directly gives rise to the following normal equations

Its solution  $\bar{x}$  minimizes the Euclidean length of the residual r = b - Ax. Different types of errors:

- **2-norm error:**  $||r||_2 = ||b A\bar{x}||$ .
- ▶ Sqaured error:  $SE = ||r||_2^2$ .
- **Root mean squared error:** RMSE =  $\sqrt{SE/m}$ .

## Revisit the least squares problem,

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left( y(x) = ||b - Ax||_2^2 \right),$$

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$$\mathcal{J}_{x}y(x)|_{x=\bar{x}}=0.$$

This directly gives rise to the following normal equations

$$A^{T}(b-A\bar{x})=0 \rightarrow A^{T}A\bar{x}=A^{T}b.$$

Its solution  $\bar{x}$  minimizes the Euclidean length of the residual r=b-Ax. Different types of errors:

- ▶ **2-norm error:**  $||r||_2 = ||b A\bar{x}||$ .
- ▶ Sqaured error:  $SE = ||r||_2^2$ .
- **Root mean squared error:** RMSE =  $\sqrt{SE/m}$ .

$$x_1+x_2=2,$$

$$x_1-x_2=1,$$

$$x_1+x_2=3.$$

**Sol.** We have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, the components of the normal equations are

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^T b = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can solve

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{array}\right] \bar{x} = \left[\begin{array}{c} 6 \\ 4 \end{array}\right] \rightarrow \bar{x} = \left[\begin{array}{c} 7/4 \\ 3/4 \end{array}\right].$$

Thus, the residual vector

$$r = b - A\bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 \\ 0 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad ||r||_2 = \sqrt{0.5} \approx 0.707$$

$$SE = ||r||_2^2 = 0.5$$
,  $RMSE = \sqrt{SE/m} = 1/\sqrt{6} \approx 0.408$ .

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4.1 Least Squares and the Normal Equations

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Let  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots (x_m, y_m)$  be a set of points in the plane. Given a fixed class of models, such as all lines  $y = c_1 + c_2 x$ , we hope to find the specific instance of the model that best fits the data points in the 2-norm.

Specifically, once we find out the model, then checking this model at the m points we get an error vector,  $e = [e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_m]$ . The best-fitting model has the following property the 2-norm of e, i.e.,

$$||e||_2 = \sqrt{e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_m^2}$$

attains its minimum.

**Example 1.** Find the line that best fits the three data points (x, y) = (1, 2), (-1, 1) and (1, 3). **Sol.** Suppose the line is  $y = c_1 + c_2 x$ , then we hope that

$$e_1 = c_1 + 1 \cdot c_2 - 2 = 0,$$
  
 $e_2 = c_1 + (-1) \cdot c_2 - 1 = 0,$   
 $e_3 = c_1 + 1 \cdot c_2 - 3 = 0.$ 

This then gives rise to a least squares problem, we can solve the normal equations to get  $c_1 = 7/4$ ,  $c_2 = 3/4$ . Consequently, the best-fitting line is y = 7/4 + 3x/4. Then, we get the following table regarding residuals

X	у	line	error
1	2	2.5	$e_1 = -0.5$
-1	1	1.0	$e_2 = 0.0$
1	3	2.5	$e_3 = 0.5$ .

Then the SE is  $(-0.5)^2 + 0.5^2 = 0.5$  and the RMSE =  $1/\sqrt{6}$ .

**Sol.** Suppose the parabola is  $y = c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2$ , then we hope that

$$\begin{cases} e_1 = c_1 + (-1)c_2 + (-1)^2c_3 - 1 = 0 \\ e_2 = c_1 + (0)c_2 + (0)^2c_3 - 0 = 0 \\ e_3 = c_1 + (1)c_2 + (1)^2c_3 - 0 = 0 \\ e_4 = c_1 + 2c_2 + 2^2c_3 - (-2) = 0. \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4.1 \text{ Least Squares and Negmal Equations} \\ 1 \text{ Negmal Equations} \\ 1 \text{ Negmal Equations} \\ 1 \text{ Occupations} \\ 0 \text{ Occupations} \\ 1 \text{ Occupations} \\ 0 \text{ occupations} \\ 1 \text{ Occupations} \\ 1 \text{ Occupations} \\ 0 \text{ occupations} \\ 0 \text{ occupations} \\ 1 \text{ Occupations} \\ 0 \text{ occupations} \\ 1 \text{ Occupations} \\ 0 \text{ oc$$

However, this cannot have a solution. Instead, we hope 2-norm of  $e = [e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4]$  attains its minimum, we need to solve the related least squares problem again. Thus, we solve the normal equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 6 & 8 \\ 6 & 8 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.45 \\ -0.65 \\ -0.25 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus, the parabolar is  $y = 0.45 - 0.65t - 0.25t^2$ . The residual errors are

X	у	parabola	error
-1	1	0.85	$e_1 = 0.15$
0	0	0.45	$e_2 = -0.45$
1	0	-0.45	$e_3 = 0.45$ .
2	-2	-1.85	$e_4 = -0.15$ .

SE is  $e_1^2 + e_2^2 + e_3^2 + e_4^2 = 0.45$ , and RMSE= $\sqrt{0.45}/\sqrt{4} \approx 0.335$ .

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4.1 Least Squares and the

# Fitting data by least squares

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Given a set of m data points  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)$ .

- 1. Choose a model.
- 2. Force the model to fit the data.
- 3. Solve the normal equations.

When fitting a given set of data points, shall higher degree polynomials provide better-fitting model?

The answer is

**Example 3.**Let  $x_1 = 2.0, x_2 = 2.2, x_3 = 2.4, \dots, x_{11} = 4.0$ . Set  $y_i = \sum_{n=0}^7 x_i^n$  for  $1 \le i \le 11$ . Use the normal equations to find the least squares polynomial  $P(x) = \sum_{n=1}^8 c_n x^{n-1}$  fitting  $(x_i, y_i)$ .

When fitting a given set of data points, shall higher degree polynomials provide better-fitting model?

The answer is NO.

**Example 3.**Let  $x_1 = 2.0, x_2 = 2.2, x_3 = 2.4, \dots, x_{11} = 4.0$ . Set  $y_i = \sum_{n=0}^7 x_i^n$  for  $1 \le i \le 11$ . Use the normal equations to find the least squares polynomial  $P(x) = \sum_{n=1}^8 c_n x^{n-1}$  fitting  $(x_i, y_i)$ .

## 4.3 QR Factorization

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Since Normal Equations can have ill-conditioned coefficient matrix, we here give a technique that is more preferred to Normal Equations for solving least squares problem.

We first turn  $A_1$  into a unit vector,

$$y_1 = A_1, \quad q_1 = \frac{y_1}{||y_1||_2}.$$

To find the next unit vector that is orthogonal to  $y_1$ , we set

$$y_2 = A_2 - q_1(q_1^T A_2), \quad q_2 = \frac{y_2}{||y_2||_2}.$$

We can check

$$y_2^T q_1 = A_2^T q_1 - q_1^T q_1(q_1^T A_2) = A_2^T q_1 - q_1^T A_2 = 0 \rightarrow q_2^T q_1 = 0.$$

To find the j-th vector  $q_j$  from  $A_j$ ,  $q_1, \ldots, q_{j-1}$ , we set

$$y_j = A_j - \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} q_l(q_l^T A_j), \quad q_j = \frac{y_j}{||y_j||_2}.$$

One easily check that for  $i = 1, \dots, j-1$ ,

$$y_j^T q_i = A_j^T q_i - \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} q_l^T q_i (q_l^T A_j) = A_j^T q_i - q_i^T A_j = 0 \rightarrow q_j^T q_i = 0.$$

Consequently, we get all  $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_n$  that are pairwise orthogonal.

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$$r_{jj} = ||y_j||_2, r_{ij} = q_i^T A_j,$$

then

$$A_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} q_i(q_i^T A_j) + y_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} r_{ij}q_i + r_{jj}q_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j} r_{ij}q_j, \quad j = 1, \ldots, n.$$

In matrix form, we get

$$[A_1|A_2|\cdots|A_n] = [q_1|q_2|\cdots|q_n] \left[ egin{array}{cccc} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & r_{nn} \end{array} 
ight].$$

Or, A=QR, where Q consists of pairwise orthonormal vectors such that  $Q^TQ=I_n$  and R is an upper triangular matrix. Such a decomposition is the so-called **reduced QR Factorization**. Can  $r_{jj}=0$  Here?

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4.3 QR Factorization

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**Example 1.**Find the reduced QR factorization by applying Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization to the columns of

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} 1 & -4 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array} \right].$$

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```
Let A_j, j=1,\ldots,n be linearly independent vectors: for j=1,2,\ldots,n y=A_j for i=1,2,\ldots,j-1 r_{ij}=q_i^TA_j y=y-r_{ij}q_i end r_{jj}=||y||_2 q_j=y/r_{jj} end
```

Computational Complexity:

4.3 QR Factorization

$$[A_{1}|A_{2}|\dots|A_{m}] = [q_{1}|q_{2}|\dots|q_{m}] \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} & \cdots & r_{1m} \\ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} & \cdots & r_{2m} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ & & & r_{nn} & \cdots & r_{nm} \\ & & & \ddots & \vdots & \\ & & & & r_{mm} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, we easily see that

$$[A_1|A_2|\dots|A_n] = QR = [q_1|q_2|\dots|q_m] \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & r_{nn} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is the so-called Full QR Factorization.



### 4.3 QR Factorization

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**Example 2.**Find the full QR factorization by applying Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization to the columns of

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{rr} 1 & -4 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array} \right].$$

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 $Q = [q_1|q_2|\dots|q_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ . Since  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m$  are orthonormal to each other, we easily see that

$$Q^TQ = .$$

In other words,  $Q^T = Q^{-1}$ . Matrices with such a property are called orthogonal matrices.

**Prop.** 1 If Q is an  $m \times m$  orthogonal matrix, then for any  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $||Qb||_2 = ||b||_2$ .

Proof.

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 $Q=[q_1|q_2|\dots|q_m]\in\mathbb{R}^{m imes m}.$  Since  $q_1,q_2,\dots,q_m$  are orthonormal to each other, we easily see that

$$Q^TQ=I_m.$$

In other words,  $Q^T = Q^{-1}$ . Matrices with such a property are called orthogonal matrices.

**Prop.** 1 If Q is an  $m \times m$  orthogonal matrix, then for any  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $||Qb||_2 = ||b||_2$ .

Proof.

$$[A_1|A_2|\dots|A_n] = QR = [q_1|q_2|\dots|q_m] \left[ egin{array}{cccc} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \ & & \ddots & dots \ & & & r_{nn} \ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \ dots & dots & dots & dots \ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{array} 
ight]$$

Least Squares Problem: Given  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , find  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $||Ax - b||_2 = ||QRx - b||_2 = ||Rx - Q^T b||_2$  attains the minimum. Let  $d = Q^T b$ , then the residual vector

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \\ \hline e_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ e_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & r_{nn} \\ \hline 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \\ \hline d_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ d_m \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$[e_{n+1},\ldots,e_m] = -[d_{n+1},\ldots,d_m].$$

Therefore, we can only enforce

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, we get the following approach to solve the least squares problem. Given the  $m \times n$  inconsistent system

$$Ax = b$$
,

find the full QR factorization A = QR and set:

- 1.  $\hat{R} = \text{upper } n \times n \text{ submatrix of } R$ ;
- 2.  $\hat{d} = \text{upper } n \text{ entries of } d = Q^T b.$

Solve  $\hat{R}\bar{x} = \hat{d}$  for the least squares solution  $\bar{x}$ .

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 $\mbox{\bf Example 3.} \mbox{\bf Use}$  the full QR factorization to solve the least squares prolem

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -4 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} -3 \\ 15 \\ 9 \end{array}\right]$$

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**Example 4.**Use the QR factorization to solve a previous least squares problem: Let  $x_1=2.0, x_2=2.2, x_3=2.4, \ldots, x_{11}=4.0$ . Set  $y_i=\sum_{n=0}^7 x_i^n$  for  $1\leq i\leq 11$ . Use the normal equations to find the least squares polynomial  $P(x)=\sum_{n=1}^8 c_n x^{n-1}$  fitting  $(x_i,y_i)$ .

4.3 QR Factorization

Let 
$$A_j$$
,  $j = 1, ..., n$  be linearly independent vectors:

$$\begin{aligned} & \textbf{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n \\ & y = A_j \\ & \textbf{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, j - 1 \\ & r_{ij} = q_i^T A_j \\ & y = y - r_{ij} q_i \\ & \textbf{end} \\ & r_{jj} = ||y||_2 \\ & q_j = y/r_{jj} \end{aligned}$$

end

Let 
$$A_j, j = 1, ..., n$$
 be linearly independent vectors:  
for  $j = 1, 2, ..., n$   
 $y = A_j$   
for  $i = 1, 2, ..., j - 1$   
 $r_{ij} = q_i^T y$   
 $y = y - r_{ij}q_i$   
end  
 $r_{ij} = ||y||_2$   
 $q_j = y/r_{jj}$   
end

**Example 4.**Compare the results of classic GS and modified GS, computed in double precision, on the matrix of almost-parallel vectors

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \delta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \delta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \delta \end{array} \right],$$

where  $\delta = 10^{-10}$ .

### Householder reflectors

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A **Householder reflector** is an orthogonal matrix that reflects all m-vectors through an m-1 dimensional plane.

**Theorem.** Let x and w be vectors with  $||x||_2 = ||w||_2$  and define v = w - x. Then  $H = I - 2vv^T/v^Tv$  is a symmetric orthogonal matrix and Hx = w.

Proof.

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**Example 1.**Let x = [3, 4] and w = [5, 0]. Find a Householder reflector H that satisfies Hx = w.

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Example 2.Use Householder reflectors to find the QR factorization of

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 \end{array}\right].$$

**Example 3.**Use Householder reflectors to find the QR factorization of

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -4 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array}\right].$$

### General Case

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How can we use Householder reflectors to find QR Factorization of an  $m \times n$  matrix A?

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# Assignment V:

P199, Computer Problems: 1. P225, Computer Problems: 1,3.

Due date: October 28, 2020.