

Computational Methods
CMSC/AMSC/MAPL 460

Least squares method: QR

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Several slides in this lecture are adapted from Profs. O'Leary UMD and Heckbert, CMU

Look at the fitting matrix in more detail

- Suppose we want to solve via least squares

$$Ax=b$$

- A is a $m \times n$ matrix with $m > n$
- One way to solve was via LU decomposition of normal equations
 - Poor condition numbers and so not recommended
 - Require matrix-matrix multiplication
- Today: Other matrix decompositions that are stable and less expensive
- Here A is a matrix that takes n vectors into m vectors
- Not all m vectors will be reachable even if we supply arbitrary n vectors
 - Range of A : the part of the space of m vectors that are reachable

$$\text{Range}(A) = \{y \in R^m : y=Ax \text{ for some } x \in R^n\}$$

- The range of A contains all those vectors that can be made up using the columns of A
- $\text{Rank}(A)$ is the dimension of the range of A
- Null space of A : those vectors x , for which Ax is zero

$$\text{Null}(A) = \{x \in R^n : Ax=0\}$$

$$\text{Dim}(\text{Null}(A)) + \text{Rank}(A) = n$$

Orthogonal Matrices

- Orthogonal matrices are square matrices that have their columns orthonormal to each other
 - dot product of different column vectors is zero, while of the same column is one
 - Denoted Q
 - Most trivial orthogonal matrix is the identity matrix
 - $Q^t Q = I$

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

generalization: a matrix is *Hermitian* iff $Q^{-1} = Q^H$ where superscript H denotes complex conjugate transpose

QR decomposition

- Suppose we can write

$$A=Q'R'$$

- Q' is an orthogonal matrix of dimension $m \times m$
- R' is a $m \times n$ matrix that can be written as $\begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

R is a triangular $n \times n$ matrix and 0 is a matrix of zeroes of size $m-n \times n$

Q' can also be partitioned as $[Q \ Q^{\sim}]$ with Q containing n orthogonal columns and Q^{\sim} $m-n$ orthogonal columns

- If $Ax=b$ then $(Q'R')x=b$ or $Q'(R'x)=b$ or $Q'y=b$
 - So if b is in $\text{range}(A)$, it is also in $\text{range}(Q')$
 - Similarly if $Q'y=b$; then $b=Ax$ with $x=R^{-1}y$
 - Columns of Q form an orthonormal basis for $\text{range}(A)$

Properties of QR

- Let $A^t z = 0$
 - z is in the nullspace of A^t
 - $(Q'R')^t z = R'^t Q'^t z = 0$
 - So $R^t y = 0$ for $y = Q^t z$
 - If R is full rank this means y has to be the zero vector
 - So $Q^t z = 0$
 - So z must be composed of the elements from Q^\sim
 - So the columns of Q^\sim form an orthonormal basis for $\text{nullspace}(A^t)$

Orthogonal matrix facts

- Suppose Q is an orthogonal matrix
- Then for any vector r the Euclidean norm is preserved in an orthogonal transformation

- Proof

$$\|Qr\|^2 = (Qr)^t (Qr) = r^t Q^t Q r = r^t (Q^t Q) r = r^t r = \|r\|^2$$

- If Q is an orthogonal matrix so is the extended matrix Q_e
- Easy to show from definition that

$$Q_e = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & Q \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q_e^t Q_e = I$$

Solving least squares with QR

- $A=Q'R'$
- Let $r = b - Ax$ $c = Q'^t b$
- Goal of least squares find the x that minimizes squared error (residue)
- Partition c in to two pieces
 - c_1 of dimension n
 - c_2 of dimension $m-n$
 - $\|r\|^2 = \|b - Ax\|^2 = \|b - Q' R' x\|^2$
 - Length is not changed by multiplication with orthogonal matrix
 - So $\|r\|^2 = \|Q'^t r\|^2 = \|Q'^t [b - Q' R' x]\|^2 = \|c - \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} x\|^2$
 $= \|c_1 - R x\|^2 + \|c_2 - 0x\|^2$

So no matter what x is the second term remains unchanged

If we minimize $\|r\|^2$ the best we can do is minimize first term

Solving LS via QR

- How do we minimize $\|c_1 - R x\|^2$
 - If R is full rank set solve $Rx=c$ then we have done the best we can
 - (if R is rank deficient solve in least squares sense)
 - Recall R is triangular so this equation can be easily solved
- Algorithm
 - Compute QR factorization of A
 - Form $c_1=Q^t b$
 - Solve $Rx=c_1$
 - If R is full rank and Q^{\sim} is available then the norm of the residual is $\|Q^{\sim t} b\|$. Else $r = b - A x$.

Computing the factorization

- QR is useful ... so how do we factorize a matrix A ?
- In LU we computed an upper triangular matrix by computing adding multiples of other rows so that elements below a given column were zeroed out
- The multipliers were stored in L which gave us $A=LU$
- Here we want to zero out entries below the diagonal but do it with orthogonal matrices
- Two strategies
- Zero out a column at a time using a matrix Q_1 so that $Q_1^t A$ gives us all entries below a certain one in a column as zero
 - Householder transformations
 - Result $Q_n^t \dots Q_2^t Q_1^t A = R$ or $A = Q_1 \dots Q_{n-1} Q_n R = Q R$
- Zero out one specific entry of a column at a time
 - Givens rotations
- Product of orthogonal matrices is orthogonal

To compute QR

- Perform a sequence of orthogonal transformations that zero out elements
- Orthogonal transformations can be rotations or reflections or combinations

- Givens Rotation:

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} c & s \\ s & -c \end{bmatrix}$$

- Givens matrix has elements

- $c^2 + s^2 = 1$

- How do we use a rotation to zero out an element?

- Let $z = [z_1 \ z_2]^t$

$$Gz = \begin{bmatrix} cz_1 + sz_2 \\ sz_1 - cz_2 \end{bmatrix} = xe_1$$

- We want

- Eliminate z_2 $(c^2 + s^2)z_1 = cx$, $c = z_1/x$.

- Similarly we get $s = z_2/x$, and $z_1^2 + z_2^2 = x^2$

Givens QR

- To apply idea to larger matrix, embed the Givens matrix in identity matrix. We will use the notation G_{ij} to denote an $n \times n$ identity matrix with its i th and j th rows modified to include the Givens rotation: for example, if $n = 6$, then

$$G_{25} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{c} & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{s} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{s} & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-c} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix},$$

and multiplication of a vector by this matrix leaves all but rows 2 and 5 of the vector unchanged.

- Algorithm
 - for $i=1, \dots, n$
 - for $j=i+1, \dots, m$
 - Find Givens matrix G_{ij} to zero out j,i element of A using the the value at position (i,i)
 - $A=G_{ij}A$
 - end
- end

Householder Transformations

The *Householder transformation* determined by vector v is:

$$H = I - 2 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v}$$

← outer product, $n \times n$ matrix
← inner product, scalar

To apply it to a vector x , compute:

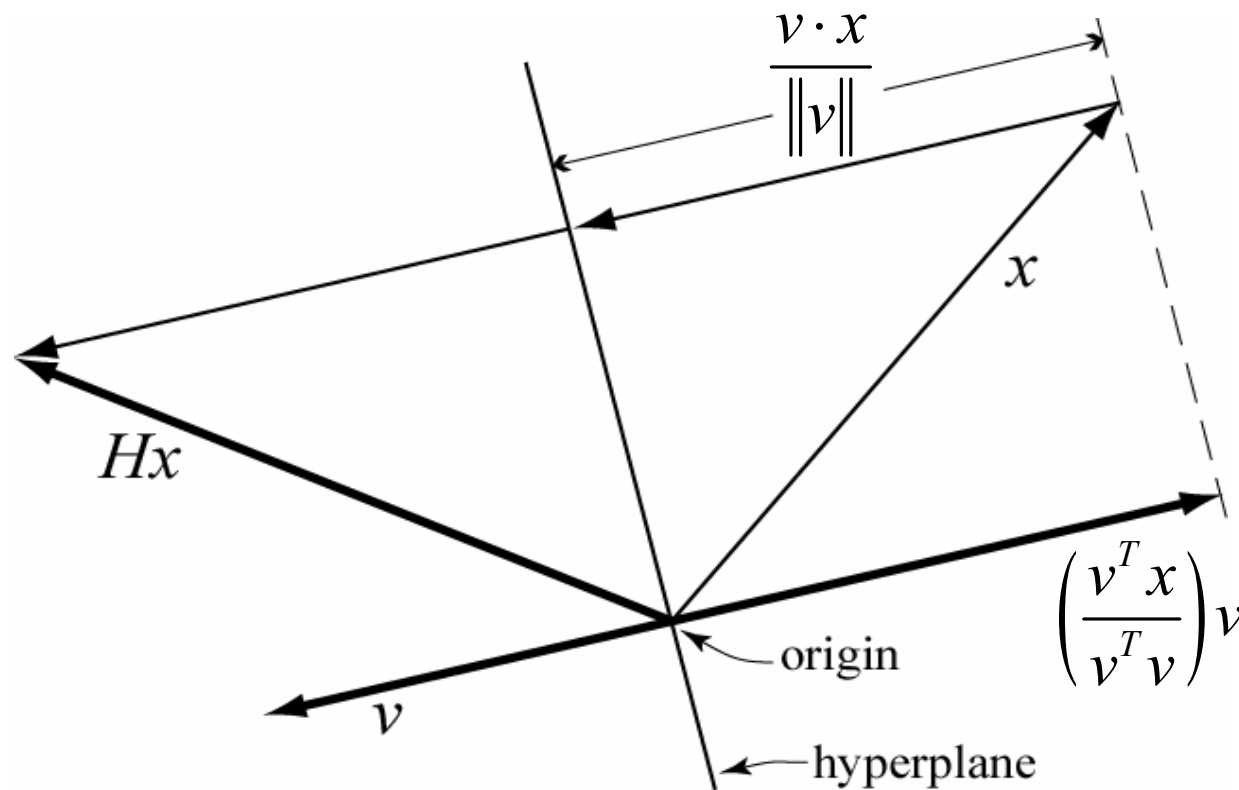
$$Hx = \left(I - 2 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} \right) x = x - 2 \frac{v(v^T x)}{v^T v}$$

$$Hx = x - \left(2 \frac{v^T x}{v^T v} \right) v$$

← scalar

Householder Geometry

- Hx is x reflected through the hyperplane perpendicular to v ($p : p^T v = 0$)



Householder Properties

- H is symmetric, since

$$H^T = \left(I - 2 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} \right)^T = I^T - 2 \frac{(vv^T)^T}{v^T v} = I - 2 \frac{v^{TT} v^T}{v^T v} = H$$

- H is orthogonal, since

$$\begin{aligned} H^T H &= HH = \left(I - 2 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} \right) \left(I - 2 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} \right) \\ &= I - 4 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} + 4 \frac{v(v^T v)v^T}{(v^T v)^2} = I - 4 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} + 4 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v} = I \end{aligned}$$

and $H^T H = I$ implies $H^T = H^{-1}$

Householder to Zero Matrix Elements

We'll use Householder transformations to zero subdiagonal elements of a matrix.

Given any vector a , find the v that determines an H such that,

$$Ha = \alpha e_1 = \alpha[1, 0, 0, \dots, 0]^T$$

Now solve for v :

$$Ha = a - \left(2 \frac{v^T a}{v^T v} \right) v = a - \mu v = \alpha e_1$$

where μ is parenthesized scalar, related to length of v

$$\Rightarrow v = (a - \alpha e_1) / \mu$$

We're free to choose $\mu = 1$, since $\|v\|$ does not affect H

Choosing the Vector v

So $v = a - \alpha e_1$ for some scalar α .

But $\|Ha\|_2 = \|a\|_2$

(prove this by expanding $\|Ha\|_2^2 = (Ha)^T Ha$)

and $\|Ha\|_2 = |\alpha|$ by design, so $\alpha = \pm\|a\|_2$

(either sign will work).

To avoid $v \approx 0$ we choose $\alpha = -\text{sign}(a_1)\|a\|_2$,

so $v = a + \text{sign}(a_1)\|a\|_2 e_1$ is our answer.

Applying Householder Transforms

- Don't compute Hx explicitly, that costs $3n^2$ flops.
- Instead use the formula given previously,

$$Hx = x - \left(2 \frac{v^T x}{v^T v} \right) v$$

which costs $4n$ flops (if you pre-compute $v^T v$ or pre-normalize $v^T v=2$).

- Typically, when using Householder transformations, you never compute the matrix H ; it's only used in derivation and analysis.

QR Decomposition

- Householder transformations are a good way to zero out subdiagonal elements of a matrix.
- A is decomposed:

$$Q^T A = \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad Q Q^T A = A = Q \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- where $Q^T = H_n \dots H_2 H_1$ is the orthogonal product of Householders and R is upper triangular.
- Overdetermined system $Ax=b$ is transformed into the easy-to-solve

$$\begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} x = Q^T b$$

SVD and Pseudo-Inverse

- $\mathbf{Ax}=\mathbf{b}$ \mathbf{A} is $m \times n$, \mathbf{x} is $n \times 1$ and \mathbf{b} is $m \times 1$.
- $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{USV}^t$ where \mathbf{U} is $m \times m$, \mathbf{S} is $m \times n$ and \mathbf{V} is $n \times n$
- $\mathbf{USV}^t \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{b}$. So $\mathbf{SV}^t \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{U}^t \mathbf{b}$
- If \mathbf{A} has rank r , then r singular values are significant

$$\mathbf{V}^t \mathbf{x}=\text{diag}(\sigma_1^{-1}, \dots, \sigma_r^{-1}, 0, \dots, 0) \mathbf{U}^t \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{V} \text{diag}(\sigma_1^{-1}, \dots, \sigma_r^{-1}, 0, \dots, 0) \mathbf{U}^t \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_r = \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^t \mathbf{b}}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v}_i \quad \sigma_r > \varepsilon, \quad \sigma_{r+1} \leq \varepsilon$$
- Pseudoinverse $\mathbf{A}^+=\mathbf{V} \text{diag}(\sigma_1^{-1}, \dots, \sigma_r^{-1}, 0, \dots, 0) \mathbf{U}^t$
 - \mathbf{A}^+ is a $n \times m$ matrix.
 - If $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A})=n$ then $\mathbf{A}^+=\mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A}$
 - If \mathbf{A} is square $\mathbf{A}^+=\mathbf{A}^{-1}$