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Numerical Linear Algebra Lecture 8: Household Reflectors; Least Square Problems

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Gram-Schmidt as Triangular Orthogonalization

Every step of Gram-Schmidt can be viewed as multiplication with triangular matrix. For example, at first step:

$$[\mathbf{v}_{1}|\mathbf{v}_{2}|\dots\mathbf{v}_{n}] \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{r_{11}} & \frac{-r_{12}}{r_{11}} & \frac{-r_{13}}{r_{11}} & \cdots \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{R}_{1}} = [q_{1}|\mathbf{v}_{2}^{(2)}|\dots|\mathbf{v}_{n}^{(2)}],$$

 Gram-Schmidt therefore multiplies triangular matrices to orthogonalize column vectors, and in turns can be viewed as triangular orthogonalization

$$\mathbf{A}\underbrace{\mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2\dots\mathbf{R}_n}_{\hat{\mathbf{R}}^{-1}} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}$$

where \mathbf{R}_i is a triangular matrix.

■ A 'dual' approach would be orthogonal triangularization, i.e., multiply **A** by unitary matrices to make it triangular matrix

Householder Triangularization

- Method introduced by Alston Scott Householder in 1958
- It multiplies unitary matrices to make column triangular, e.g.

 \blacksquare After n steps, we get a product of unitary matrices

$$\mathbf{Q}_n \dots \mathbf{Q}_2 \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{F}$$

and in turn we get full QR factorization $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}$

- \mathbf{Q}_k introduces zeros below diagonal of kth column while preserving zeros below diagonal in preceding columns
- The key question is how to find \mathbf{Q}_k

Householder Reflectors

- \blacksquare First, consider $\mathbf{Q}_1:\mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{a}_1=\|\mathbf{a}_1\|\,\mathbf{e}_1$, where $\mathbf{e}_1=(1,0,\dots,0)^{\,\mathcal{T}}$. Why the length is $\|\mathbf{a}_1\|$?
- $lackbox{\bf Q}_1$ reflects a_1 across hyperplane H orthogonal to $lackbox{\bf v} = \|a_1\|e_1 a_1$, and therefore

$$\mathbf{Q}_1 = \mathbf{I} - 2 \frac{\mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^*}{\mathbf{v}^* \mathbf{v}}$$

■ More generally,

$$\mathbf{Q}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{F} \end{bmatrix}$$

where **I** is $(k-1)\times(k-1)$ and **F** is $(m-k+1)\times(m-k+1)$ such that $\mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}=\|x\|_2\,e_1$, where **x** is $(a_{k,k},a_{k,k+1},\ldots,a_{k,m})^T$

■ What is **F** ? It has similar form as \mathbf{Q}_1 with $\mathbf{v} = ||x|| e_1 - \mathbf{x}$.

Choice of Reflectors

- We could choose **F** such that $\mathbf{Fx} = -\|x\| \, \mathbf{e}_1$ instead of $\mathbf{Fx} = \|x\| \, \mathbf{e}_1$, or more generally, $\mathbf{Fx} = z \, \|\mathbf{x}\| \, \mathbf{e}_1$ with |z| = 1 for $z \in \mathbb{C}$
- This leads to an infinite number of possible QR factorizations of A
- If we require $z \in \mathbb{R}$, we still have two choices
- Numerically, it is undesirable for $\mathbf{v}^*\mathbf{v}$ to be close to zero for $\mathbf{v} = z \|\mathbf{x}\| e_1 \mathbf{x}$, and $\|v\|$ is larger if $z = -sign(x_1)$
- Therefore, $\mathbf{v} = -sign(x_1) \|\mathbf{x}\| e_1 \mathbf{x}$. Since $\mathbf{I} 2\frac{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^*}{\mathbf{v}^*\mathbf{v}}$ is independent of sign, clear out the factor -1 and obtain $\mathbf{v} = sign(x_1) \|\mathbf{x}\| e_1 + \mathbf{x}$
- For completeness, if $x_1 = 0$, set z to 1 (instead of 0)

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{for } k = 1 \text{ to } n \\ &\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}_{k:m,k} \\ &\mathbf{v}_k = sign(\mathbf{x}_1) \|\mathbf{x}\| \ \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{x} \\ &\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{v}_k / \|\mathbf{v}_k\| \\ &\mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n} = \mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n} - 2\mathbf{v}_k(\mathbf{v}_k^* \mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n}) \end{aligned}$$

- Note that sign(x) = 1 if $x \ge 0$ and = -1 if x < 0
- Leave R in place of A
- lacktriangle Matrix $oldsymbol{Q}$ is not formed explicitly but reflection vector $oldsymbol{v}_k$ is stored

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- Answer: We can use lower diagonal portion of **A** to store all but one entry in each \mathbf{v}_k . So an additional array of size n is needed.

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- **Question:** What happens if \mathbf{v}_k is 0 in line 3 of the loop?



Applying or Forming **Q**

■ Compute $\mathbf{Q}^*\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{Q}_n \dots \mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{b}$

Implicit calculation of
$$\mathbf{Q}^*\mathbf{b}$$
 for $k=1$ to n
$$b_{k:m}=b_{k:m}-2\mathbf{v}_k(\mathbf{v}_k^*\mathbf{b}_{k:m})$$

■ Compute $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{Q}_2...\mathbf{Q}_n\mathbf{x}$

Implicit calculation of
$$\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}$$

for $k = n$ down to 1
 $\mathbf{x}_{k:m} = \mathbf{x}_{k:m} - 2\mathbf{v}_k(\mathbf{v}_k^*\mathbf{x}_{k:m})$

- Question: How to form **Q** and $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}$, respectively?
- Answer: Apply $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{I}_{m \times m}$ or first n columns of \mathbf{I} , respectively

Operation Count

- Most work done at step $\mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n} = \mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n} 2\mathbf{v}_k(\mathbf{v}_k^* \mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n})$
- Flops per iteration:
 - $\mathbf{v} \sim 2(m-k)(n-k)$ for dot products $\mathbf{v}_k^* \mathbf{A}_{k:m,k:n}$
 - $\sim (m-k)(n-k)$ for outer product $2v_k(...)$
 - $\sim (m-k)(n-k)$ for subtraction
 - $\sim 4(m-k)(n-k)$ total
- Including outer loop, total flops is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} 4(m-k)(n-k) = 4 \sum_{k=1}^{n} (mn-km-kn+k^2)$$

$$\sim 4mn^2 - 4(m+n)n^2/2 + 4n^3/3$$

$$= 2mn^2 - \frac{2}{3}n^3$$

If $m\approx n$, it is more efficient than Gram-Schmidt method, but if $m\gg n$, similar to Gram-Schmidt

Givens Rotations

- Instead of using reflection, we can rotate x to obtain $||x||e_1$
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \blacksquare & A \mbox{ Given rotation } {\bf R} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \mbox{ rotates } {\bf x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mbox{ counterclockwise by } \theta \\ \end{tabular}$
- lacktriangle Choose heta to be angle between $(x_i,x_j)^T$ and $(1,0)^T$, and we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_i \\ x_j \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{x_i^2 + x_j^2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$cos\theta = rac{x_i}{\sqrt{x_i^2 + x_j^2}}, \quad sin\theta = rac{-x_j}{\sqrt{x_i^2 + x_j^2}}$$

Givens QR

■ Introduce zeros in column bottom-up, one zero at a time

- \blacksquare To zero a_{ij} , left-multiply matrix F with ${\bf F}_{i:i+1,i:i+1}$ being rotation matrix and ${\bf F}_{kk}=1$ for $k\neq i,i+1$
- \blacksquare Flop count of Givens ${\bf QR}$ is $3mn^2-n^3$, which is about 50% more expensive than Householder ${\bf QR}$

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Linear Least Squares Problems

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Linear Least Squares Problems

- \blacksquare Overdetermined system of equations $Ax\approx b,$ where A has more rows than columns and has full rank, in general has no solutions
- Example application: Polynomial least squares fitting
- In general, minimize the residual $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$
- In terms of 2-norm, we obtain linear least squares problem: Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, $m \geq n$, and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{C}^m$, find $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that $\|\mathbf{b} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2$ is minimized
- If **A** has full rank, the minimizer **x** is the solution to the normal equation

$$\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{b}$$

or in terms of the pseudoinverse A^+ ,

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^+ \mathbf{b}$$
, where $\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}^* \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^* \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$

Geometric Interpretation

- lacksquare Ax is in range(A), and the point in range(A) closest to b is its orthogonal projection onto range(A)
- Residual **r** is then orthogonal to range(**A**), and hence $\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{A}^*(\mathbf{b} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = 0$

Solution of Least Squares Problems

- \blacksquare One approach is to solve normal equation $\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{A}^*\mathbf{b}$ directly using Cholesky factorization
 - Is unstable, but is very efficient if $m \gg n \left(mn^2 + \frac{1}{3}n^3\right)$
- \blacksquare More robust approach is to use QR factorization $\textbf{A}=\hat{\textbf{Q}}\hat{\textbf{R}}$
 - ${\bf b}$ can be projected onto range(A) by $P=\hat{Q}\hat{Q}^*$, and therefore $\hat{Q}\hat{R}x=\hat{Q}\hat{Q}^*b$
 - Left-multiply by $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}^*$ and we get $\hat{\mathbf{R}}\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}^*\mathbf{b}$ (note $\mathbf{A}^+ = \hat{\mathbf{R}}^{-1}\hat{\mathbf{Q}}^*$)

Least squares via QR Factorization:

Compute reduced QR factorization $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}\hat{\mathbf{R}}$

Compute vector $\mathbf{c} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}^* \mathbf{b}$

Solve upper-triangular system $\hat{\mathbf{R}}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ for \mathbf{x}

Solution of Least Squares Problems contd.

Least squares via QR Factorization:

Compute reduced QR factorization $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}\hat{\mathbf{R}}$

Compute vector $\mathbf{c} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}^* \mathbf{b}$

Solve upper-triangular system $\hat{R}x = c$ for x

- Computation is dominated by QR factorization $(2mn^2 \frac{2}{3}n^3)$
- lacktriangle Question: If Householder QR is used, how to compute $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}\mathbf{b}$?
- \blacksquare Answer: Compute Q^*b (where Q is from full QR factorization) and then take first n entries of resulting Q^*b

Solution by SVD

- Using $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^*$, \mathbf{b} can be projected onto range(\mathbf{A}) by $\mathbf{P} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{U}}^*$, and therefore $\hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{U}}^*\mathbf{b}$
- Left-multiply by $\hat{\mathbf{U}}$ and we get $\hat{\Sigma}\hat{\mathbf{V}}^*\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}^*\mathbf{b}$

Least squares via SVD:

Compute reduced SVD factorization $\boldsymbol{A} = \hat{\boldsymbol{U}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \boldsymbol{V}^*$

Compute vector $\mathbf{c} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}^* \mathbf{b}$

Solve diagonal system $\hat{\Sigma} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{c}$ for \mathbf{w}

Set $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{w}$

- \blacksquare Work is dominated by SVD, which is $\sim 2mn^2+11n^3$ flops, very expensive if $m\approx n$
- Best numerical stability
- **Question:** If **A** is rank deficient, how to solve $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{b}$?

Solution by SVD

- Using $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^*$, \mathbf{b} can be projected onto range(\mathbf{A}) by $\mathbf{P} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{U}}^*$, and therefore $\hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{U}}^*\mathbf{b}$
- \blacksquare Left-multiply by $\hat{\textbf{U}}$ and we get $\hat{\Sigma}\hat{\textbf{V}}^*\textbf{x}=\hat{\textbf{U}}^*\textbf{b}$

Least squares via SVD: Compute reduced SVD factorization $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^*$ Compute vector $\mathbf{c} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}^*\mathbf{b}$ Solve diagonal system $\hat{\Sigma}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{c}$ for \mathbf{w} Set $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{w}$

- \blacksquare Work is dominated by SVD, which is $\sim 2mn^2+11n^3$ flops, very expensive if $m\approx n$
- Best numerical stability
- **Question:** If **A** is rank deficient, how to solve $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{b}$?
- Answer: x is no longer unique. Constrain x to be orthogonal to null space of A.