

Normal equations

$$2(\mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{c} - \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{y}) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{A} \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{y}$$

- The system is called the “Normal equations”
- Can solve least squares problems using these
- For \mathbf{A} size $m \times n$ and \mathbf{c} of size n and \mathbf{y} of size m what are the dimensions of the normal equations?
 - $n \times n$
- Have converted it to a regular system that we know how to solve
- Solve via LU decomposition
- Solution should be accurate if the matrix $\mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{A}$ is well conditioned

More on Normal Equations

- Normal equations are only important theoretically
- Gives us a way to think about least squares.
- In practice least squares solved via a different process
 - QR decomposition
- Why?
 - Somewhat expensive as we have to form $A^t A$
 - involves matrix multiplication and then solution
 - More importantly it is poorly conditioned
 - $\text{cond}(A^t A) = (\text{cond}(A))^2$
- Would like a method whose errors are closer to the condition number of A

Look at the fitting matrix in more detail

- Suppose we want to solve via least squares

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c}=\mathbf{y}$$

- \mathbf{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
 - Requires matrix-matrix multiplication which is expensive
- Instead
 - Look for methods that can directly operate on \mathbf{A} to get the solution
 - Recall in LU we did a set of transformations to \mathbf{A} and the r.h.s. to find \mathbf{c}
 - Today we will look at the QR algorithm

Key Ideas

- Column space of a matrix: the vector space formed by the collection of column vectors in a matrix
- Every matrix vector product results in a vector formed by linear combination of vectors in the column space
- A $m \times n$ rectangular matrix \mathbf{A} takes n vectors into m vectors
- Let the least squares problem be $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c}=\mathbf{f}$
- Let the solution which minimizes the residual be \mathbf{c}_*
- Then \mathbf{c}_* creates on matrix vector product a rhs \mathbf{f}_* that is in the column space of \mathbf{A}
- We want that \mathbf{c}_* minimizes $\mathbf{r}=\|\mathbf{f}-\mathbf{f}_*\|$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 8 & 13 & 12 \\ 14 & 11 & 2 & 7 \\ 4 & 5 & 16 & 9 \\ 15 & 10 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Column Space of A

- Not all m vectors \mathbf{f} will be reachable even if we supply arbitrary n vectors \mathbf{c}
- *Range* of A: the part of the space of m vectors that are reachable

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

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

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

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

- Key idea: We want to minimize the error in the part that can be reached

QR decomposition

- Suppose we can write

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}' \mathbf{R}'$$

- \mathbf{Q}' is an orthonormal matrix of dimension $m \times m$
- Columns of \mathbf{Q}' form a basis in the m dimensional space
- However \mathbf{A} has only n vectors
- \mathbf{R}' is a $m \times n$ matrix that can be written as $[\mathbf{R}]$

$$[\mathbf{0}]$$

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

\mathbf{Q}' can be partitioned as $[\mathbf{Q} \ \tilde{\mathbf{Q}}]$ with \mathbf{Q} containing n orthonormal columns m spanning column space of \mathbf{A}

$\tilde{\mathbf{Q}}$ $m-n$ orthonormal columns from unreachable part

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

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 \mathbf{Q}
 - Most trivial orthogonal matrix is the identity matrix
 - For an orthonormal matrix
 - $\mathbf{Q}^t\mathbf{Q}=\mathbf{I}$
 - So $\mathbf{Q}^{-1}=\mathbf{Q}^T$

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

Orthogonal matrix facts

- Suppose \mathbf{Q} is an orthonormal matrix
- Then for any vector \mathbf{r} the Euclidean norm is preserved in an orthonormal transformation
- Proof

$$\|\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r}\|^2 = (\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r})^t (\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{r}^t \mathbf{Q}^t \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}^t (\mathbf{Q}^t \mathbf{Q}) \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}^t \mathbf{r} = \|\mathbf{r}\|^2$$

- If \mathbf{Q} is an orthonormal matrix
so is the extended matrix \mathbf{Q}_e
- Easy to show from definition that

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

$$\mathbf{Q}_e^t \mathbf{Q}_e = \mathbf{I}$$

Solving least squares with QR

- $A=Q'R'$
- Let $r = y - Ac$ $b = Q'^t y$
- Goal of least squares find the c that minimizes squared error (residue)
- Partition b in to two pieces
 - b_1 of dimension n
 - b_2 of dimension $m-n$
 - $\|r\|^2 = \|y - Ac\|^2 = \|y - Q' R' c\|^2$
 - Length is not changed by multiplication with orthogonal matrix
 - So $\|r\|^2 = \|Q'^t r\|^2 = \|Q'^t [y - Q' R' c]\|^2$
 $= \|b_1 - R c\|^2 + \|b_2 - 0c\|^2$

So no matter what c 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 $A=Q'R'$
 - 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

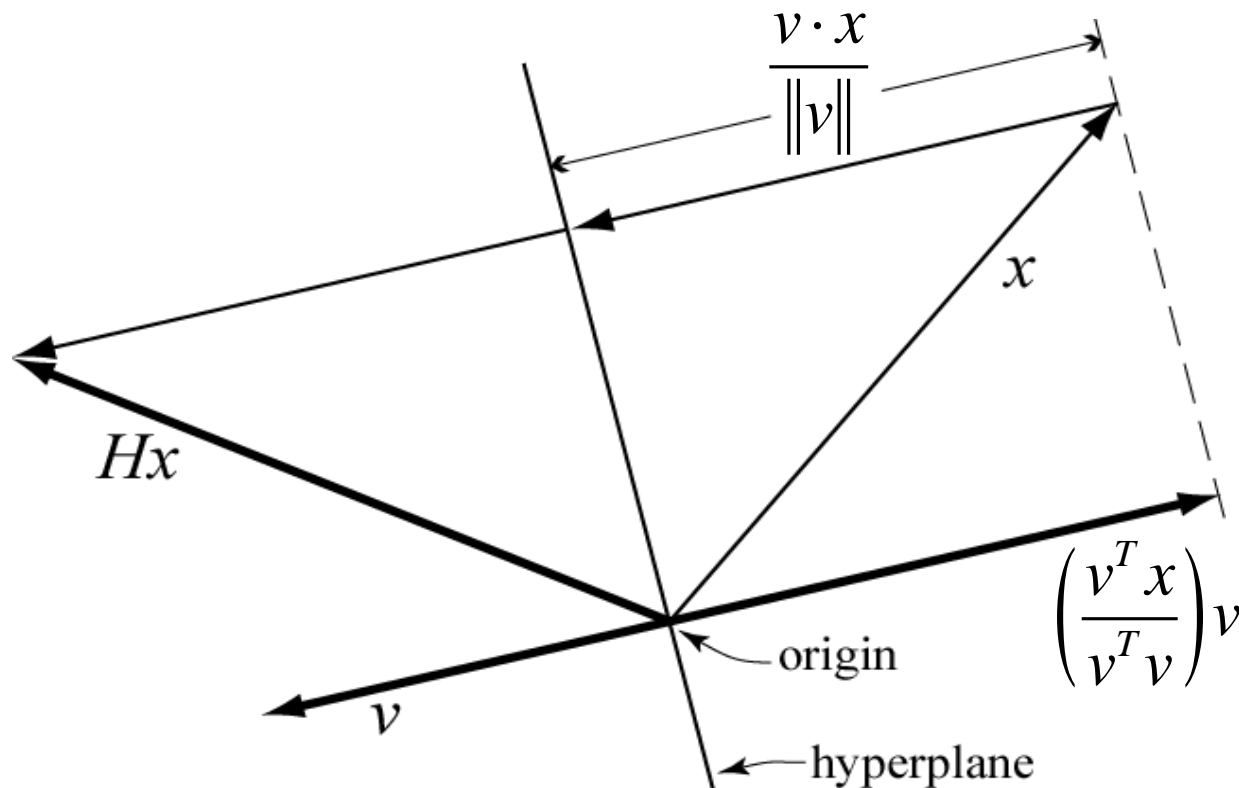
$$G_{25} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{c} & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{s} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{s} & 0 & 0 & -\mathbf{c} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix},$$

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 value at position (i,i)
 - $A=G_{ij}A$
 - end
- end

Householder Geometry

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



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 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
$$\begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} x = Q^T b$$
- Cost: $4mn + 4(m-1)(n-1) + \dots + 4(m-n) = O(mn^2)$