

21. Linear algebra III: Orthogonality and QR factorization

Last time

- Solving linear equations
- Elimination / row reduction
- LU factorization

Goals for today

- Geometry of Euclidean space
- Orthogonality
- Inner products
- Gram–Schmidt orthogonalization
- QR factorization

Systems of linear equations

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- Usually requires significant computational effort
- Are there situations where it might be easy?
- When A is **diagonal**
- Ease comes from strong kind of “independence” of columns:
 - **orthogonal** or **perpendicular**
- One column “does not affect” other columns

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- Think of \mathbf{v} as “column vector”, $n \times 1$ matrix
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- “**Householder notation**”

Unit vectors

- Can now decompose vector v as

$$\mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{v}\| \hat{\mathbf{v}}$$

- $\hat{\mathbf{v}}$ is **unit vector** – **direction** of \mathbf{v}

Orthogonality

- Want to characterise key concept: **orthogonality**
- Several ways to approach this
- Let's think about **projections**

Projections

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- Call $P_u(v)$ the (orthogonal) **projection** of v onto u
- Gives vector in direction of u , with length $\alpha_u(v)$

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- Gives vector in direction of u , with length $\alpha_u(v)$
- (Orthogonal) “shadow” of v on the direction of u
- For orthogonal unit vectors i and j impose $P_i(i) = 1$ and $P_j(i) = 0$

Projections II

- For vector $u = u_1 i + u_2 j$ have $P_i(u) = u_1 i$
- Impose linearity:

$$P_u(v_1 i + v_2 j) = v_1 P_u(i) + v_2 P_u(j) = \|u\| [v_1 P_{\hat{u}}(i) + v_2 P_{\hat{u}}(j)]$$

- For two *unit* vectors, by symmetry $\alpha_i(\hat{u}) = \alpha_{\hat{u}}(i)$
- So $P_u(v) = (u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2) \hat{u}$

Dot product and orthogonality

- Define **dot product** $u \cdot v := \alpha_u(v) = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2$
- In general $u \cdot v := \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i = u^T v$
- From above derivation $\hat{u} \cdot \hat{v} = \cos(\theta)$
- Where θ is **angle** between u and v

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- Where θ is **angle** between u and v
- Say u and v are **orthogonal** if $u \cdot v = 0$

Orthogonal linear combinations

- Suppose v_1, \dots, v_n are all mutually orthogonal
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- Orthogonal decomposition:

$$b = (b \cdot v_1)v_1 + \dots + (b \cdot v_n)v_n$$

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- So $\mathbf{u}^T Q^T Q \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}$
- Hence $Q^T Q = I$, identity matrix
- So columns \mathbf{q}_i of Q satisfy $\mathbf{q}_i \cdot \mathbf{q}_j = \delta_{ij}$
- i.e. columns are **orthonormal**

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- Can we create an *orthogonal* set of vectors from them?
- For two vectors u and v , take u as one of the vectors
- Make an orthogonal decomposition of v as
$$v = (\text{part of } v \text{ in direction of } u) + (\text{the rest})$$

Orthogonalization II

- Define $q_1 := (v \cdot u)\hat{u}$ = part of v in direction of u
- Define $q_2 := v - a$
- Then

$$q_1 \cdot q_2 = q_1 \cdot v - q_1 \cdot q_1 = (v \cdot u)(u \cdot v) - (v \cdot u)^2 = 0$$

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- i.e. q_1 and q_2 are indeed orthogonal

Orthogonalization III

- Generalize to n vectors:
- Define $u_1 = v_1; \quad q_1 := \frac{u_1}{\|u_1\|}$
- Define $u_2 = v_2 - (v_2 \cdot q_1)q_1; \quad q_2 := \frac{u_2}{\|u_2\|}$
- Define $u_3 = v_3 - (v_3 \cdot q_2)q_2 - (v_3 \cdot q_1)q_1; \quad q_3 := \frac{u_3}{\|u_3\|}$

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- Produces a set of n orthogonal vectors q_i
- Now express columns of A in terms of q_i :

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$$v_2 = (v_2 \cdot q_1)q_1 + (v_2 \cdot q_2)q_2$$

$$v_3 = (v_3 \cdot q_1)q_1 + (v_3 \cdot q_2)q_2 + (v_3 \cdot q_3)q_3$$

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- With orthogonal Q and upper-triangular R
- However, **not numerically stable**

Solving linear equations

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- Gives another method to solve $Ax = b$:
- Factorize $A = QR$
- Solve $Qy = b$ as $y_i = (b \cdot q_i)q_i$
- Then solve $Rx = y$ by substitution

Summary

- Key concepts: **length, angle, orthogonality**
- Described by inner product $a \cdot b$
- Can orthogonalise set of vectors using Gram–Schmidt algorithm
- Gives QR factorization of a matrix