

# SI231b: Matrix Computations

## Lecture 11: QR Factorization

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## Recap: Orthogonal Projection

Suppose  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} (m > n)$  has full rank, to perform the orthogonal projection onto the column space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ , the orthogonal projector  $\mathbf{P}$

- ▶ when  $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ ,

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^T,$$

where  $\mathbf{Q} = [q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n]$

- ▶ for arbitrary basis  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$  of  $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ ,

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^T,$$

where  $\mathbf{A} = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$

Given a basis  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$  of a subspace  $\mathcal{S}$ , how to compute its orthogonal/orthonormal basis  $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$ ?

**Key:** through iterative process and using the fact that

- ▶  $\text{span}\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\} = \text{span}\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k\}, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$
- ▶  $\text{span}\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k\} \subset \text{span}\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k, a_{k+1}\}$

**Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization.**

**Key:** orthogonal projection of vector **a** onto vector **b**

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle} \mathbf{b},$$

where  $\langle \rangle$  represents the inner product of two vectors.

## How to compute the orthonormal basis?

Orthogonal projection of vector  $\mathbf{a}$  onto vector  $\mathbf{b}$

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle} \mathbf{b},$$

where  $\langle \rangle$  represents the inner product of two vectors.

$$\mathbf{q}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{a}_1}{\|\mathbf{a}_1\|}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_2 = \mathbf{a}_2 - (\mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_2) \mathbf{q}_1$$

$$\mathbf{q}_2 = \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_2}{\|\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_2\|}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k = \mathbf{a}_k - (\mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_1 - (\mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_2 - \cdots - (\mathbf{q}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_{k-1}$$

$$\mathbf{q}_k = \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k}{\|\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k\|}$$

Can you also explain in the context of projection onto subspaces?

# Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

**Algorithm:** Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization (**numerically unstable**)

**input:** a collection of linearly independent vectors  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_1 = \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{q}_1 = \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_1 / \|\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_1\|_2$$

for  $i = 2, \dots, n$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i = \mathbf{a}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\mathbf{q}_j^T \mathbf{a}_i) \mathbf{q}_j$$

$$\mathbf{q}_i = \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i / \|\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i\|_2$$

end

**output:**  $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n$

# Modified Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

The (classic) Gram-Schmidt (CGS)

- ▶ gives orthogonal  $\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i$  in exact arithmetic
- ▶ is numerical unstable due to round off error accumulation on modern computers (returns non-orthogonal  $\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i$ )

**Modified Gram-Schmidt** (MGS)

Instead of computing  $\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k = \mathbf{a}_k - (\mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_1 - (\mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_2 - \cdots - (\mathbf{q}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_{k-1}$ ,  
but

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(1)} = \mathbf{a}_k - (\mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_k) \mathbf{q}_1$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(2)} = \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(1)} - (\mathbf{q}_2^T \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(1)}) \mathbf{q}_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(j)} = \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(j-1)} - (\mathbf{q}_j^T \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_k^{(j-1)}) \mathbf{q}_j$$

$$\vdots$$

Both CGS and MGS take  $\mathcal{O}(2mn^2)$  flops

# Classical vs Modified Gram-Schmidt

Given  $\mathbf{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \epsilon & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \epsilon \end{bmatrix}^T$ ,  
compare classical and modified Gram-Schmidt for

$$\mathcal{V} = \text{span} \{ \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_3 \}$$

where the approximation  $1 + \epsilon^2 \approx 1$  can be made.

## Classical Gram-Schmidt

$$\blacktriangleright \mathbf{q}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{a}_1}{\|\mathbf{a}_1\|_2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\blacktriangleright \mathbf{q}_2 = \mathbf{a}_2 - \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{q}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\epsilon & \epsilon & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\mathbf{q}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{q}_2}{\|\mathbf{q}_2\|_2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\blacktriangleright \mathbf{q}_3 = \mathbf{a}_3 - \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_3 \mathbf{q}_1 - \mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{a}_3 \mathbf{q}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\epsilon & 0 & \epsilon \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\mathbf{q}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{q}_3}{\|\mathbf{q}_3\|_2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

**Orthogonality is lost**

## Modified Gram-Schmidt

$$\blacktriangleright \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\mathbf{q}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\blacktriangleright \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_2 = \mathbf{a}_2 - \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{q}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\epsilon & \epsilon & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\mathbf{q}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\blacktriangleright \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_3 = \mathbf{a}_3 - \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_3 \mathbf{q}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\epsilon & 0 & \epsilon \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_3 = \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_3 - \mathbf{q}_2^T \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_3 \mathbf{q}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{\epsilon}{2} & -\frac{\epsilon}{2} & \epsilon \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\mathbf{q}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Orthogonality is preserved



For a full rank matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m > n$ ), the Gram-Schmidt procedure gives

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \cdots & q_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{Q}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{R}}$$

with  $r_{kk} \neq 0$ . This is called the *reduced QR factorization* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

# Full QR Factorization

Extending the reduced QR factorization by adding  $m - n$  columns to  $\mathbf{Q}$  so that

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Q}} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \cdots & q_n & q_{n+1} & \cdots & q_m \end{bmatrix}$$

is an orthogonal matrix ( $\tilde{\mathbf{Q}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ )

► **orthogonal matrix**: a square matrix with orthonormal columns, i.e.,

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Q}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{Q}} = \mathbf{I}_m$$

Then  $\mathbf{A} = \tilde{\mathbf{Q}} \tilde{\mathbf{R}}$  with  $\tilde{\mathbf{R}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

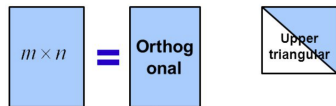


Figure 1: Reduced QR Factorization

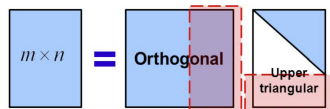


Figure 2: Full QR Factorization

## One of the Top 10 Algorithms in the 20th Century<sup>1</sup>

Given a rectangular matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  can be factorized into the form

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$$

where

- ▶  $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is an orthogonal matrix
- ▶  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is upper-triangular

## Reduced QR Factorization

For  $m > n$ , the reduced QR factorization given by

- ▶  $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has orthonormal columns
- ▶  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is upper-triangular
- ▶ also called 'economic' QR factorization in some cases

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<sup>1</sup><https://doi.ieeecomputersociety.org/10.1109/MCISE.2000.814652>

- ▶ a matrix  $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is called a **reflection matrix** if

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{P},$$

where  $\mathbf{P}$  is an orthogonal projector.

- ▶ interpretation: denote  $\mathbf{P}^\perp = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}$ , and observe

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{P}^\perp\mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{P}^\perp\mathbf{x}.$$

The vector  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}$  is a reflected version of  $\mathbf{x}$ , with  $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{P}^\perp)$  being the “mirror”

- ▶ a reflection matrix is orthogonal:

$$\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{H} = (\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{P})(\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{P}) = \mathbf{I} - 4\mathbf{P} + 4\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{I} - 4\mathbf{P} + 4\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$$

► **Problem:** given  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , find an orthogonal  $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  such that

$$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} = \beta \mathbf{e}_1, \quad \text{for some } \beta \in \mathbb{R}.$$

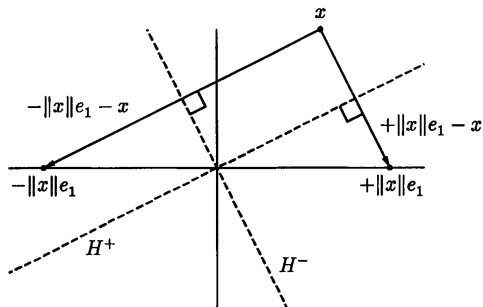


Figure 3: Householder reflection

- **Householder reflection:** let  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Let

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{I} - \frac{2}{\|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T,$$

which is a reflection matrix with  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T / \|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2$

- it can be verified that (try)

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{x} \mp \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \mathbf{e}_1 \implies \mathbf{H} \mathbf{x} = \pm \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \mathbf{e}_1;$$

the sign above may be determined to be the one that maximizes  $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2$ , for the sake of numerical stability

- let  $\mathbf{H}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  be the Householder reflection w.r.t.  $\mathbf{a}_1$ . Transform  $\mathbf{A}$  as

$$\mathbf{A}^{(1)} = \mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \dots & \times \\ 0 & \times & \dots & \times \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \times & \dots & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

- let  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-1) \times (m-1)}$  be the Householder reflection w.r.t.  $\mathbf{A}_{2:m,2}^{(1)}$  (marked red above). Transform  $\mathbf{A}^{(1)}$  as

$$\mathbf{A}^{(2)} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{=\mathbf{H}_2} \mathbf{A}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \dots & \times \\ \mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_2 \mathbf{A}_{2:m,2}^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \dots & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \dots & \times \\ \vdots & 0 & \times & \dots & \times \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \times & \dots & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

- by repeatedly applying the trick above, we can transform  $\mathbf{A}$  as the desired

$\mathbf{R}$

$$\mathbf{A}^{(0)} = \mathbf{A}$$

for  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$

$$\mathbf{A}^{(k)} = \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)}, \text{ where}$$

$$\mathbf{H}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{k-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k \end{bmatrix},$$

$\mathbf{I}_k$  is the  $k \times k$  identity matrix;  $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}_k$  is the Householder reflection of  $\mathbf{A}_{k:m,k}^{(k-1)}$

end

- ▶  $\mathbf{H}_k$  introduces zeros under the diagonal of the  $k$ -th column
- ▶ the above procedure results in

$$\mathbf{A}^{(n-1)} = \mathbf{H}_{n-1} \cdots \mathbf{H}_2 \mathbf{H}_1 \mathbf{A}, \quad \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)} \text{ taking an upper triangular form}$$

- ▶ by letting  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A}^{(n-1)}$ ,  $\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{H}_{n-1} \cdots \mathbf{H}_2 \mathbf{H}_1)^T$ , we obtain the full QR
- ▶ a popularly used method for QR decomposition



You are supposed to read

- ▶ Lloyd N. Trefethen and David Bau III. *Numerical Linear Algebra*, SIAM, 1997.

Lecture 6, 8, 11

- ▶ Gene H. Golub and Charles F. Van Loan. *Matrix Computations*, Johns Hopkins University Press, 2013.

Chapter 5.1 – 5.3