

## Lecture 7 - QR Factorization

### OBJECTIVE:

We introduce the algorithmic idea behind the QR factorization, which is possibly the most important idea in numerical linear algebra.

### ◇ REDUCED QR FACTORIZATION

For many applications, we are interested in successive column spaces of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .

i.e., the spaces spanned by the columns  $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots$  of  $\mathbf{A}$  in succession

$$\langle \mathbf{a}_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2 \rangle \subseteq \langle \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_3 \rangle \subseteq \dots$$

e.g.,  $\langle \mathbf{a}_1 \rangle$  is the 1-D subspace spanned by  $\mathbf{a}_1$

$\langle \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2 \rangle$  is the 2-D subspace spanned by  $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2$ , etc.

*The idea of the QR factorization is to successively construct orthonormal vectors  $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots$  that span these successive spaces.*

Let  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) have full rank  $n$ .

We want to find the sequence  $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots$  of orthonormal vectors such that

$$\langle \mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_j \rangle = \langle \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_j \rangle$$

for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

From Lecture 1, we can see that this amounts to

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & | & \mathbf{a}_2 & | & \dots & | & \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & | & \mathbf{q}_2 & | & \dots & | & \mathbf{q}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \dots & r_{1n} \\ & r_{22} & \dots & r_{2n} \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $r_{kk} \neq 0$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$  so that the  $\mathbf{a}_k$  can be expressed as a linear combination of the  $\mathbf{q}_k$  and vice versa.

Written out

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}_1 &= r_{11}\mathbf{q}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_2 &= r_{12}\mathbf{q}_1 + r_{22}\mathbf{q}_2 \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_n &= r_{1n}\mathbf{q}_1 + r_{2n}\mathbf{q}_2 + \dots + r_{nn}\mathbf{q}_n \end{aligned} \right\} (*)$$

or as a matrix equation

$$\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}\hat{\mathbf{R}},$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{Q}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  has orthonormal columns  
and  $\hat{\mathbf{R}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is upper triangular.

This is called the *reduced QR factorization* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

## ◇ FULL QR FACTORIZATION

Similar to a full SVD, a full QR factorization of  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) appends an additional  $(m - n)$  orthonormal columns to  $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}$  to make it an  $m \times m$  orthogonal matrix.

In the process,  $(m - n)$  rows of zeros are appended to  $\hat{\mathbf{R}}$ , making it an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{R}$

**Note 1.** *In the full QR, the “silent” columns  $\mathbf{q}_j$ ,  $j > n$  are orthogonal to  $\text{range}(\mathbf{A})$ .*

*If  $\mathbf{A}$  has full rank, they form an orthonormal basis for  $\text{range}(\mathbf{A})^\perp$  (the space orthogonal to  $\text{range}(\mathbf{A})$ ) or equivalently,  $\text{null}(\mathbf{A}^T)$ .*

## ◇ GRAM-SCHMIDT ORTHOGONALIZATION

The equations (\*) suggest a method for computing reduced QR factorizations:

Given  $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots$  we can construct  $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots$  and entries  $r_{ij}$  by successive orthogonalization.

This is an old idea called *Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization*.

At step  $j$ , we want a unit vector  $\mathbf{q}_j \in \langle \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_j \rangle$  that is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{j-1}$ .

It turns out we know how to do this from Lecture 2: the vector

$$\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{a}_j - (\mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_j) \mathbf{q}_1 - (\mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{a}_j) \mathbf{q}_2 - \dots - (\mathbf{q}_{j-1}^T \mathbf{a}_j) \mathbf{q}_{j-1}$$

does the trick, except it does not have unit norm.

So, if we divide  $\mathbf{v}_j$  by  $\|\mathbf{v}_j\|_2$ , we get a suitable  $\mathbf{q}_j$ .

This allows us to rewrite (\*) as

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \mathbf{q}_1 &= \frac{\mathbf{a}_1}{r_{11}} \\ \mathbf{q}_2 &= \frac{\mathbf{a}_2 - r_{12}\mathbf{q}_1}{r_{22}} \\ \mathbf{q}_3 &= \frac{\mathbf{a}_3 - r_{13}\mathbf{q}_1 - r_{23}\mathbf{q}_2}{r_{33}} \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_n &= \frac{\mathbf{a}_n - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} r_{in}\mathbf{q}_i}{r_{nn}} \end{aligned} \right\} (**)$$

It is clear the appropriate coefficients  $r_{ij}$  in (\*\*) are

$$r_{jj} = \mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{a}_j \quad i \neq j$$

The coefficients  $r_{jj}$  are chosen for normalization:

$$r_{jj} = \left\| \mathbf{a}_j - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} r_{ij}\mathbf{q}_i \right\|_2$$

Note that the sign of  $r_{jj}$  is not determined!  
By convention, we choose  $r_{jj} > 0$ .

This leads to a factorization  $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}\hat{\mathbf{R}}$  where  $\hat{\mathbf{R}}$  has positive diagonal entries.

Formally, the algorithm just described is called the *classical Gram-Schmidt iteration*.

The reason for “classical” is because this was the way it was originally envisioned and implemented.

However, it turns out to be *UNSTABLE* numerically due to roundoff errors on the computer.

Next lecture, we will cover the *modified Gram-Schmidt iteration* which does the same job but is numerically stable.

#### ALGORITHM 7.1: CLASSICAL GRAM-SCHMIDT (UNSTABLE)

```
for  $j = 1$  to  $n$  do  
     $\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{a}_j$   
    for  $i = 1$  to  $j - 1$  do  
         $r_{ij} = \mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{a}_j$   
         $\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{v}_j - r_{ij} \mathbf{q}_i$   
    end for  
     $r_{jj} = \|\mathbf{v}_j\|_2$   
     $\mathbf{q}_j = \frac{\mathbf{v}_j}{r_{jj}}$   
end for
```

## ◇ EXISTENCE AND UNIQUENESS OF THE QR FACTORIZATION

Bottom line:

All matrices have QR factorizations.

And, if we impose the restriction  $r_{jj} > 0$ , then the QR factorization is unique.

**Theorem 1.** *Every  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) has a full QR factorization (and hence also a reduced QR factorization).*

**Theorem 2.** *Every  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $m \geq n$ ) of full rank has a unique reduced QR factorization  $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}\hat{\mathbf{R}}$  with  $r_{jj} > 0$ .*

## ◇ SOLUTION OF $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ BY QR FACTORIZATION

Suppose we wish to solve  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  for  $\mathbf{x}$ , where  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is nonsingular.

If  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$  is a QR factorization, then

$$\mathbf{QRx} = \mathbf{b}$$



or

$$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{b}$$

The right-hand side is easy to compute once we know  $\mathbf{Q}$ .

Then the solution  $\mathbf{x}$  can be easily solved by the method of back substitution because  $\mathbf{R}$  is upper triangular (solve for  $x_m$  directly, then use it to find  $x_{m-1}$ , etc.).

In summary, to solve  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

1. Compute a QR factorization  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}$
2. Compute  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{b}$
3. Solve  $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  for  $\mathbf{x}$  by back substitution

This is an excellent method for solving linear systems, but, it is not the standard:

Gaussian elimination (or LU factorization) is used in practice because it is twice as fast.

However, we will find a good use for QR soon!