

CX1104: Linear Algebra for Computing

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}}_{A \quad m \times n} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}}_{x \quad n \times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}}_{b \quad m \times 1}$$

Chap. No : **6.3.1**

Lecture : **Orthogonality**

Topic : **Gram–Schmidt for QR**

Concept : **Motivation and Review of Concepts**

Instructor: **A/P Chng Eng Siong**

TAs: **Zhang Su, Vishal Choudhari**

Introducing $A = QR$

QR decomposition, given A ($m \times n$) matrix, we can decompose it into the product of 2 matrixes,

$$A = QR$$

- Properties of Q :
 - $C(Q) == C(A)$
 - $Q^T Q = I$, i.e Q has orthonormal column (BUT not necessary square)
 - $Q Q^T =$ projection matrix into col (A)
- R is a square upper triangle matrix and Depending if
 - A has independent col, then R is invertible,
 - A has dependent col, then R is NOT-invertible.

Warning: Theorem 12 is for A Having independent column.

THEOREM 12

The QR Factorization

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with linearly independent columns, then A can be factored as $A = QR$, where Q is an $m \times n$ matrix whose columns form an orthonormal basis for $\text{Col } A$ and R is an $n \times n$ upper triangular invertible matrix with positive entries on its diagonal.

$$A = [\mathbf{x}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{x}_n] = [Q\mathbf{r}_1 \quad \cdots \quad Q\mathbf{r}_n] = QR$$

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ $Q =$ columns are orthonormal

$R =$ Upper Triangle and invertible

Motivation for QR

It has many applications, e.g,
solving least squares:

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= y \\ QRx &= y \\ Q^T QRx &= Q^T y \end{aligned}$$

$$Rx = Q^T y$$

Is can be easily solved because R is upper triangle
(If R is not invertible, it will be more involved, see least squares chapter)

There are at least 3 approaches to realise QR decomposition,
we will only introduce Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization to get Q first

<https://www.math.ucla.edu/~yanovsky/Teaching/Math151B/handouts/GramSchmidt.pdf>

<https://towardsdatascience.com/can-qr-decomposition-be-actually-faster-schwarz-rutishauser-algorithm-a32c0cde8b9b>

What does having same column space mean? $C(Q) == C(A)$

When we can convert

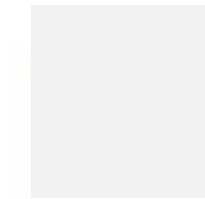
$$Ax = b$$

To

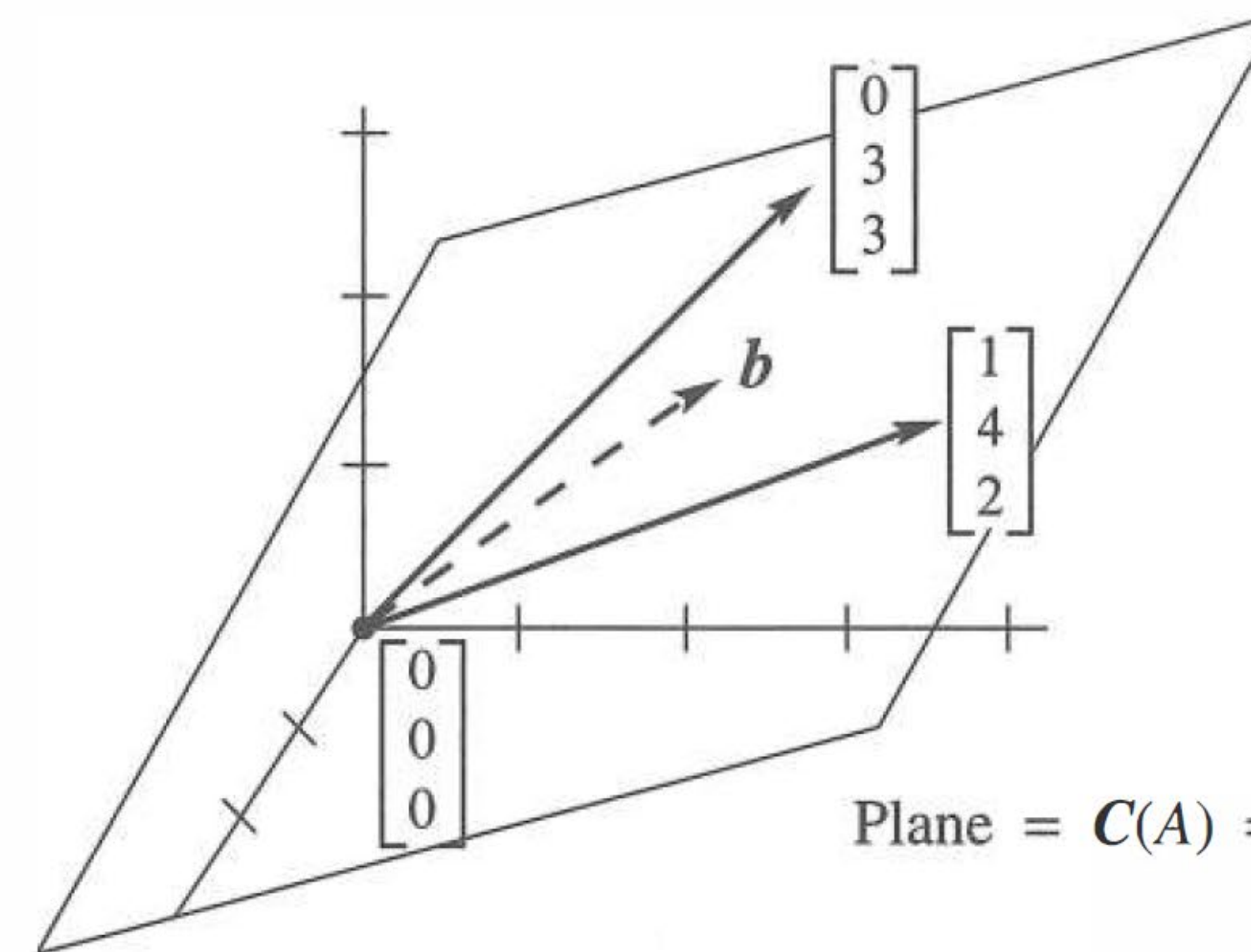
$$QRx = b$$

Then finding the solution x is easier and more efficient especially when A is large sized (e.g thousands of rows and columns)

The found solution x will be the same.



Chapter 3. Vector Spaces and Subspaces



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b = .4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + .3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Ax = b \text{ has } x = \begin{bmatrix} .4 \\ .3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 3.2: The column space $C(A)$ is a plane containing the two columns. $Ax = b$ is solvable when b is on that plane. Then b is a combination of the columns.

Interpretation: since $C(Q) == C(A)$,

then Columns of Q are orthonormal basis for $\text{range}(A)$, since $Q^T Q = I$

Revision: Projecting y onto an orthogonal vs orthonormal basis

THEOREM 8

The Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem
Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then each \mathbf{y} in \mathbb{R}^n can be written uniquely in the form

$$\mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z} \tag{1}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is in W and \mathbf{z} is in W^\perp . In fact, if $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is any orthogonal basis of W , then

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_p}{\mathbf{u}_p \cdot \mathbf{u}_p} \mathbf{u}_p \tag{2}$$

and $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$.

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The vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ in (1) is called the **orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto W** and often is written as $\text{proj}_W \mathbf{y}$. See Figure 2. When W is a one-dimensional subspace, the formula for $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ matches the formula given in Section 6.2.

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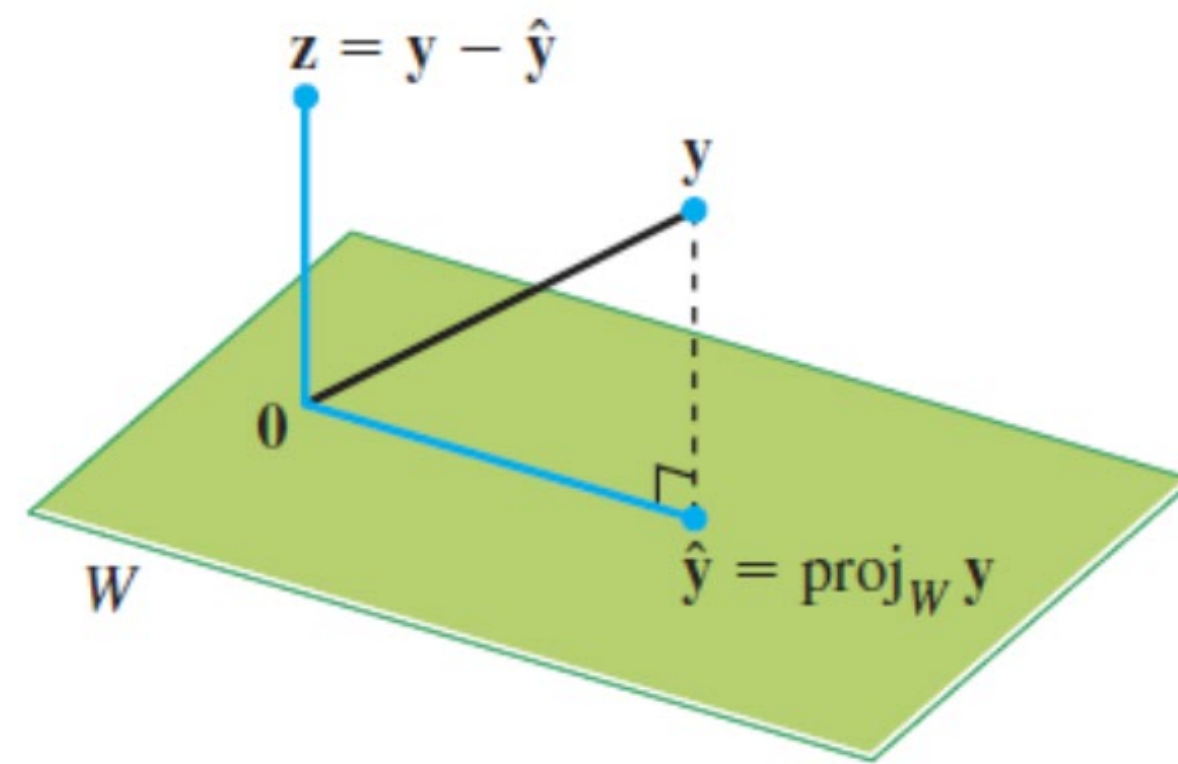


FIGURE 2 The orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto W .

THEOREM 10

The final theorem in this section shows how formula (2) for $\text{proj}_W \mathbf{y}$ is simplified when the basis for W is an orthonormal set.

If $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is an orthonormal basis for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , then

$$\text{proj}_W \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) \mathbf{u}_1 + (\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_2) \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + (\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_p) \mathbf{u}_p \tag{4}$$

If $U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_p]$, then

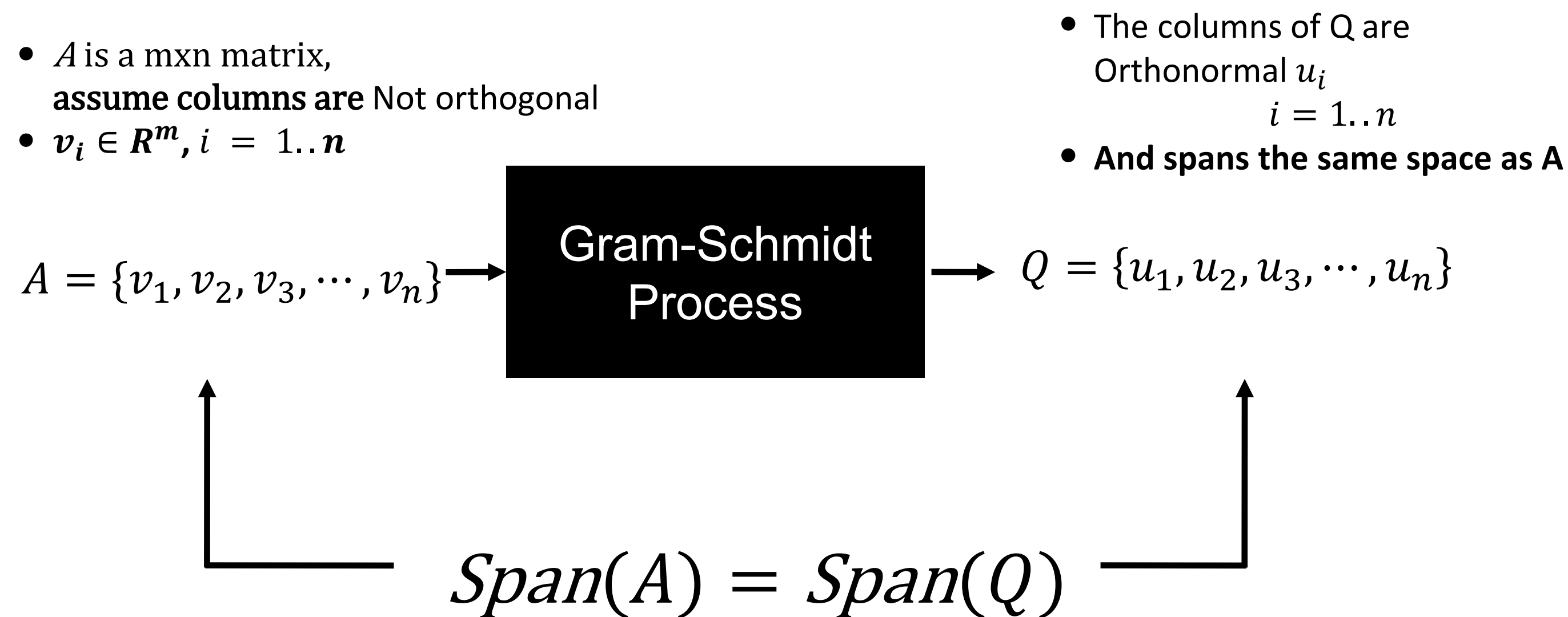
$$\text{proj}_W \mathbf{y} = U U^T \mathbf{y} \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{y} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n \tag{5}$$

PROOF Formula (4) follows immediately from (2) in Theorem 8. Also, (4) shows that $\text{proj}_W \mathbf{y}$ is a linear combination of the columns of U using the weights $\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_p$. The weights can be written as $\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{y}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p^T \mathbf{y}$, showing that they are the entries in $U^T \mathbf{y}$ and justifying (5). ■

How to find Q from A?

What does Gram-Schmidt Process Do?

It orthogonalises a set of vectors!



Note: Q spans the same m -dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^m as that of A

Ref: <http://www.seas.ucla.edu/~vandenbe/133A/lectures/gr.pdf> Slide 6.7

See Matlab: <https://www.mathworks.com/help/matlab/ref/qr.html>

(economy QR factorization vs full QR decomposition)

More explanations of full vs economy qr : http://www.ece.northwestern.edu/local-apps/matlabhelp/techdoc/math_anal/mat_li23.html