

QR Factorization

Classical Gram-Schmidt

Modified Gram-Schmidt

Householder Triangularization

Eigensystems

How to compute QR factorization?

$$\underline{A} = \underline{\hat{Q}} \underline{\hat{R}} \leftrightarrow \text{Partial QR factorization}$$

$m \times n \quad m \times n \quad n \times n$

$$\underline{A} = \underline{Q} \underline{R} \leftrightarrow \text{Full QR factorization}$$

$m \times n \quad m \times m \quad m \times n$

$$\underline{\hat{Q}}^T \underline{\hat{Q}} = \underline{\hat{Q}} \underline{\hat{Q}}^T = \underline{I}$$

$$\underline{Q}^T \underline{Q} = \underline{Q} \underline{Q}^T = \underline{I} \Rightarrow \underline{Q}^T = \underline{Q}^{-1}$$

Classical Gram-Schmidt Algorithm \rightarrow

projection based, not stable numerically
(round off error)

Modified Gram-Schmidt

Recall that projection can be written as a
matrix-vector product \Rightarrow

$$\underline{q}_1 = \frac{\underline{P}_1 \underline{q}_1}{\|\underline{P}_1 \underline{q}_1\|}, \quad \underline{q}_2 = \frac{\underline{P}_2 \underline{q}_2}{\|\underline{P}_2 \underline{q}_2\|}, \text{ etc.}$$

$$\| \underline{P}_1 \underline{q}_1 \|, \| \underline{P}_2 \underline{q}_2 \|, \text{ etc.}$$

for some \underline{P}_j

Let $\hat{\underline{Q}}_{j-1}$ be the $m \times (j-1)$ matrix of the first $j-1$ columns of $\hat{\underline{Q}}$

where

$$\hat{\underline{Q}} = [\underline{q}_1 \ \underline{q}_2 \ \cdots \ \underline{q}_n]$$

$$\hat{\underline{Q}}_{j-1} = [\underline{q}_1 \ \underline{q}_2 \ \cdots \ \underline{q}_{j-1}]$$

Then

$$\underline{P}_j = \underline{I} - \hat{\underline{Q}}_{j-1} \hat{\underline{Q}}_{j-1}^T \rightarrow \text{matrices of}$$

the form $\underline{I} - \underline{v} \underline{v}^T$ project onto the perpendicular space of \underline{v}

Thus, \underline{P}_j is nothing but the repeated perpendicular projections of each prior vector in \hat{Q} or

$$\underline{P}_j = \underline{P}_{\perp q_{j-1}} \underline{P}_{\perp q_{j-2}} \cdots \underline{P}_{\perp q_2} \underline{P}_{\perp q_1}$$

with $\underline{P}_1 = \underline{I}$

Each $\underline{P}_{\perp q_j}$ projects onto the space perpendicular to q_j

Modified Gram-Schmidt uses these ideas to reverse the order of operations, such that

Algorithm: Modified G-S

for $i = 1 : n$

$$\underline{v}_i = \underline{q}_i$$

end

[:]

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    end

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for i = 1:n

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$$r_{ii} = \|\underline{v}_i\|$$

$$\underline{q}_i = \underline{v}_i / r_{ii}$$

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    for j = i+1:n

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$$r_{ij} = \underline{q}_i^T \underline{v}_j$$

$$\underline{v}_j = \underline{v}_j - r_{ij} \underline{q}_i$$

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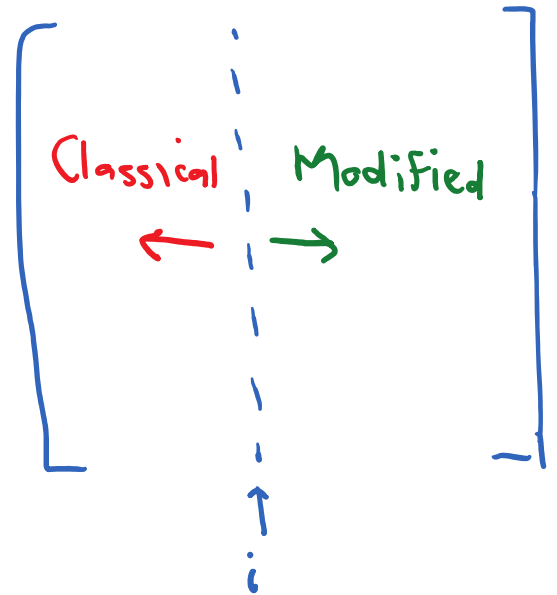
    end

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end

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Reduces effects
of roundoff error

Operation count for Modified G-S is identical
to Classical G-S : $\mathcal{O}(2mn^2)$

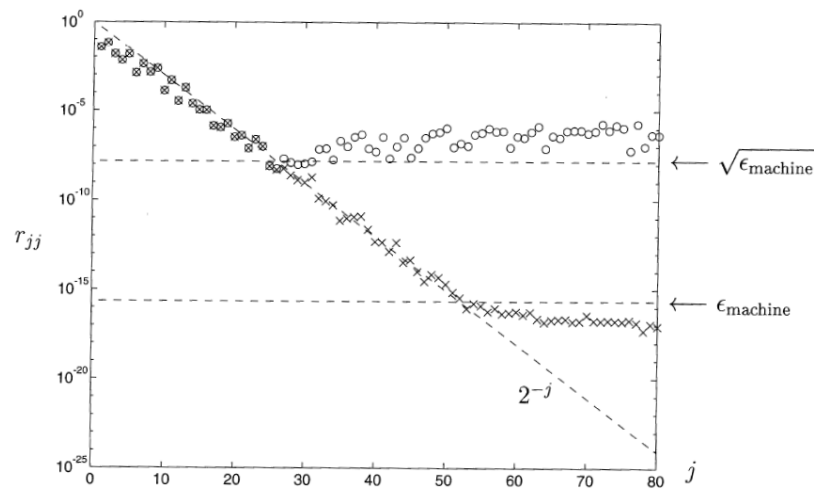


Figure 9.1. Computed r_{jj} versus j for the QR factorization of a matrix with exponentially graded singular values. On this computer with about 16 digits of relative accuracy, the classical Gram-Schmidt algorithm produces the numbers represented by circles and the modified Gram-Schmidt algorithm produces the numbers represented by crosses.

Trefethen & Bau (1997)

Householder Triangularization

Look at G-S again

In G-S each operation to compute a column of \hat{Q} is an upper triangular matrix multiplication

$$\underline{A} \underline{R}_1 \underline{R}_2 \dots \underline{R}_n = \hat{Q} \Rightarrow \underline{A} = \hat{Q} \hat{R}$$

$$\underbrace{\hat{R}^{-1}}$$

This is called Triangular Orthogonalization:

R gives Q

One can do the reverse: repeated applications

of Q give R

$$\underbrace{Q_n Q_{n-1} \dots Q_2 Q_1}_{\hat{Q}^T} A = \hat{R} \Rightarrow A = \hat{Q} \hat{R}$$

This is called Orthogonal Triangularization

Q gives R

For this, we need to find the Q_k

The main idea is to find a matrix \underline{Q}_k that zeros out the values below a diagonal while preserving all prior zeros

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x \\ x & x & x \\ x & x & x \\ x & x & x \end{bmatrix} & \xrightarrow{\underline{Q}_1} & \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x \\ 0 & x & x \\ 0 & x & x \end{bmatrix} & \xrightarrow{\underline{Q}_2} & \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} & \xrightarrow{\underline{Q}_3} & \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \underline{A} & & \underline{Q}_1 \underline{A} & & \underline{Q}_2 \underline{Q}_1 \underline{A} & & \underline{Q}_3 \underline{Q}_2 \underline{Q}_1 \underline{A}
 \end{array}$$

One more requirement: Each \underline{Q}_k must be unitary

$$\underline{Q}_k^T \underline{Q}_k = \underline{Q}_k \underline{Q}_k^T = \underline{I}$$

Choose the following block matrix

$$\underline{Q}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{I} & \underline{0} \\ \underline{0} & \underline{F} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\underline{I} \in (k-1) \times (k-1)$ identity matrix

$\underline{F} \in (m-k+1) \times (m-k+1)$

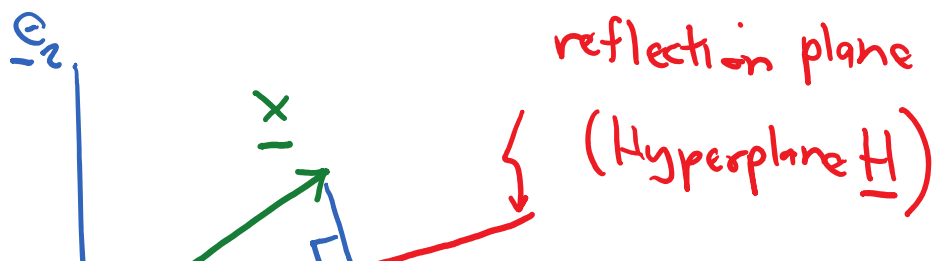
Householder reflector matrix

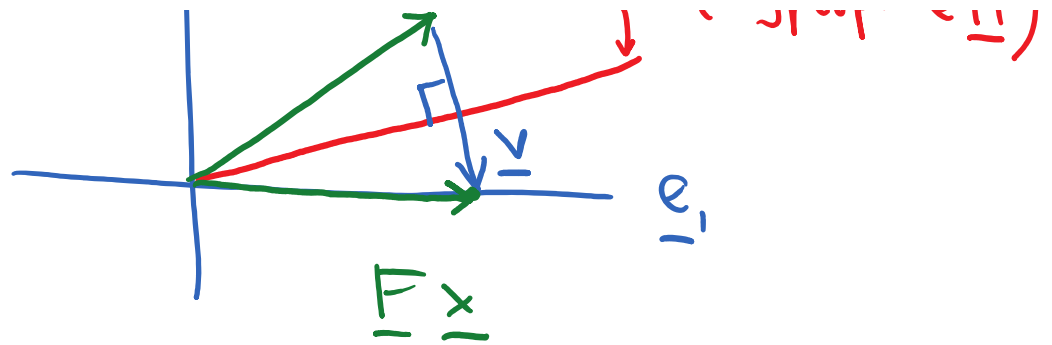
\underline{F} is a specific type of operation, defined as follows:

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{F} \Rightarrow \underline{F}\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \|\underline{x}\|_2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1$$

$$\underline{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

How does this appear in \mathbb{R}^d ?





Hyperplane : A plane with a dimension one less than the embedding plane

(in \mathbb{Z}^d , H is \mathbb{Z}^{d-1} ; in \mathbb{R}^d , H is \mathbb{R}^{d-1} , ...)

To determine this projection, look at the "error" vector between $\underline{F}\underline{x}$ and \underline{x} .

Let

$$\underline{v} = \underline{F}\underline{x} - \underline{x} = \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1 - \underline{x}$$



Is defined once \underline{x} is defined

The key is that \underline{v} is perpendicular to the hyperplane H (see diagram above in \mathbb{Z}^d)

To develop \underline{F} , project a vector \underline{y} onto

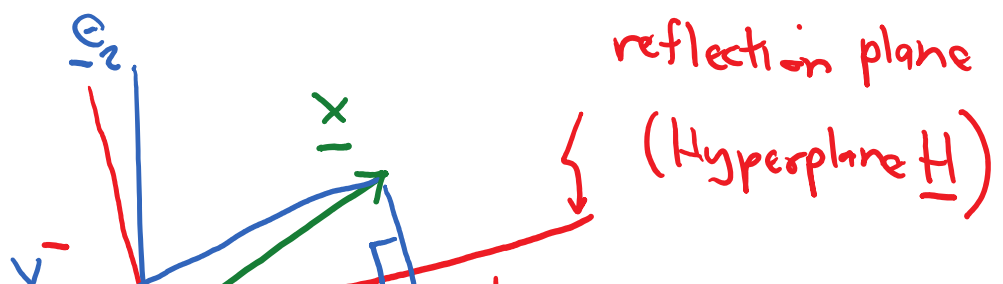
\underline{H} :

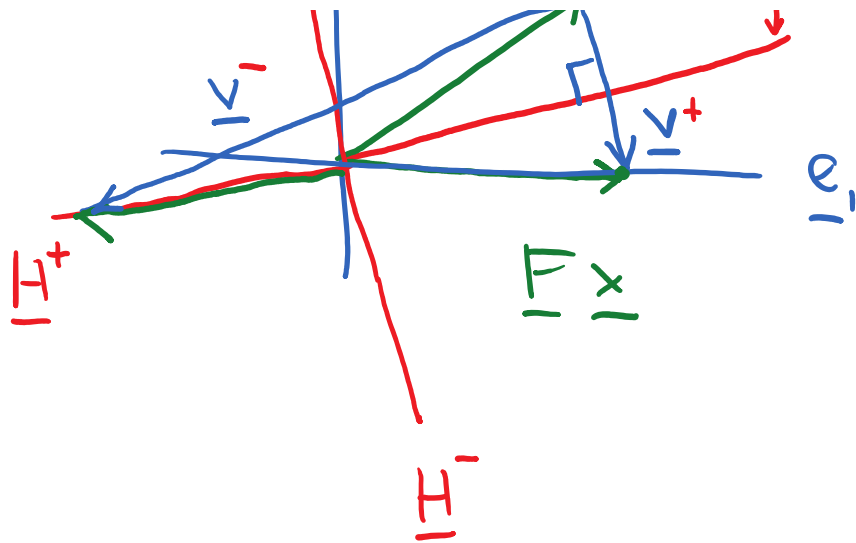
$$\underline{P} \underline{y} = \left(\underline{I} - \frac{\underline{v} \underline{v}^T}{\underline{v}^T \underline{v}} \right) \underline{y} = \underline{y} - \underline{v} \left(\frac{\underline{v}^T \underline{y}}{\underline{v}^T \underline{v}} \right)$$

However, we actually need to go twice as far (see diagram above)

$$\underline{F} \underline{y} = \underbrace{\left(\underline{I} - \frac{2 \underline{v} \underline{v}^T}{\underline{v}^T \underline{v}} \right)}_{\underline{F}} \underline{y} = \underline{y} - 2 \underline{v} \left(\frac{\underline{v}^T \underline{y}}{\underline{v}^T \underline{v}} \right)$$

Note: Householder reflectors are not unique
(see \underline{H}^+ and \underline{H}^- below)





$$\underline{v}^+ = + \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1 - \underline{x}$$

$$\underline{v}^- = - \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1 - \underline{x}$$

Mathematically, choice does not matter

Numerically, choice does matter & we
want large $\|\underline{v}\|$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Set } \underline{v} = -\text{sign}(x_1) \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1 - \underline{x}$$

$$\text{w/ } \text{sign}(x) = 1 \text{ if } x > 0$$

and x_1 = first component of \underline{x}

After clearing the \ominus :

$$\underline{v} = \text{sign}(x_1) \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1 + \underline{x}$$

Algorithm: Householder \mathbb{Q} R

for $k=1:n$

$$\underline{x} = \underline{A}(k:m, k)$$

$$\underline{v}_k = \text{sign}(x_1) \|\underline{x}\|_2 \underline{e}_1 + \underline{x}$$

$$\underline{v}_k = \underline{v}_k / \|\underline{v}_k\|_2$$

$$\underline{A}(k:m, k:n) = \underline{A}(k:m, k:n)$$

$$- 2 \underline{v}_k (\underline{v}_k^T \underline{A}(k:m, k:n))$$

end

After these steps, \underline{A} will be upper triangular

Note: Here $\hat{\underline{Q}}$ is never computed

To find $\hat{\underline{Q}}$ do the following, first define the operation of $\hat{\underline{Q}} \underline{x}$

for $k = n:-1:1$

$$\underline{x}(k:m) = \underline{x}(k:m) - \underline{z}_{\underline{v}_k} (\underline{v}_k^T \underline{x}(k:m))$$

end

To find $\hat{\underline{Q}}$ apply this operation to the identity matrix

$$\underline{Q} \underline{I} = \underline{Q} = [\underline{Q} \underline{e}_1 \quad \underline{Q} \underline{e}_2 \quad \dots]$$

$$\text{with } \underline{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \underline{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ i \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

QR Factorizations

Triangular Orthonormalization ($\hat{R} \rightarrow \hat{Q}$)

Gram-Schmidt (Classical + Modified)

Orthogonal Triangularization ($\hat{Q} \rightarrow \hat{R}$)

Householder Reflections

Givens Rotations (easier parallelization)

To motivate, consider the solutions to the following ordinary differential equation (ODE)

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = ay \quad \text{for } a = \text{constant}$$

Aside:
 $\frac{dy}{dt} = ay + bt$

Independent variable: t

Homogeneity: Yes

Dependent variable: $y = y(t)$

Linearity: Yes

Order: 1

Solution is $y(t) = Ce^{at}$

Check: $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(Ce^{at}) = aCe^{at} = ay(t)$

What happens if we have a set of two ODEs?

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = ay_1, \quad \frac{dy_2}{dt} = by_2$$

Then $y_1(t) = C_1 e^{at}, \quad y_2(t) = C_2 e^{bt}$

However, if instead we have

✓ uncoupled

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = ay_2, \quad \frac{dy_2}{dt} = by_1$$

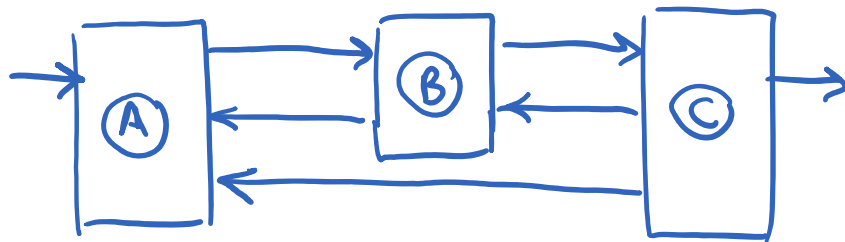
These ODEs are coupled. We need y_1 to solve for y_2 and vice versa

This is quite common in applications!

① Chemical reactions



② Flow between tanks



③ Series of springs

... k_1 k_2



Generalize into the following for two dependent variables $y_1(t) + y_2(t)$

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = a_{11}y_1 + a_{12}y_2$$

with constants

$$\frac{dy_2}{dt} = a_{21}y_1 + a_{22}y_2$$

$a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{21}, a_{22}$

Let

$$\underline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\underline{y}}{dt} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{dy_1}{dt} \\ \frac{dy_2}{dt} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \frac{d\underline{y}}{dt} = \underline{A} \underline{y}$$

Assume a solution

$$y_1 = x_1 e^{\lambda t}, \quad y_2 = x_2 e^{\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \quad \lambda t \quad , \quad \lambda$$

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = \lambda x_1 e^{\lambda t}, \quad \frac{dy_2}{dt} = \lambda x_2 e^{\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{d\mathbf{y}}{dt} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cancel{\lambda x_1 e^{\lambda t}} \\ \cancel{\lambda x_2 e^{\lambda t}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cancel{x_1 e^{\lambda t}} \\ \cancel{x_2 e^{\lambda t}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

Eigensystem
of \mathbf{A}

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \lambda \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

Frequently appears in applications

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

λ : Eigenvalue

\mathbf{x} : Eigenvector