# QR Decomposition: Computation and Applications 

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## Motivation

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Given a system $A \vec{x}=\vec{b}$ which is inconsistent, how to find the optimal choice of $\vec{x}$ to minimize some objectives.

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One way of formalizing this is the following notion.

## Definition

A vector $\vec{x}^{*}$ is a least square solution if for all $\vec{x}$, we have

$$
\left\|A \vec{x}^{*}-\vec{b}\right\| \leq\|A \vec{x}-\vec{b}\|
$$

The value of $A \vec{x}^{*}$ is the least square approximation to $\vec{b}$.

## The projection method

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(i) Compute the $Q R$ factorization of $A$ to find an orthonormal basis for $\operatorname{Im}(A)$ (columns of $Q$ ).
(ii) The least squared approximation is $Q Q^{T} \vec{b}$ by the projection formula.

## The projection method

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(i) Compute the $Q R$ factorization of $A$ to find an orthonormal basis for $\operatorname{Im}(A)$ (columns of $Q$ ).
(ii) The least squared approximation is $Q Q^{T} \vec{b}$ by the projection formula.
(iii) The least squared solution satisfies $A \vec{x}^{*}=Q Q^{T} \vec{b}$, which implies that

$$
R \vec{x}^{*}=Q^{T} \vec{b}
$$

Solve this by back-substitution.

## The normal equation

There is also a direct approach.

## Theorem

(1) The least squared solutions to $A \vec{x}=\vec{b}$ are exactly the solutions to the normal equation

$$
A^{T} A \vec{x}=A^{T} \vec{b}
$$

(2) $\operatorname{ker}\left(A^{T} A\right)=\operatorname{ker}(A)$.
(3) If $\operatorname{ker}(A)=\{\overrightarrow{0}\}$, then the least squared solution is unique, and the least squared approximation is

$$
A\left(A^{T} A\right)^{-1} A^{T} \vec{b}
$$

## Why use QR?

The normal equation typically behaves much worse numerically compared to the original equation.

## Why use QR?

$A$ is the first $m$ columns of a ill-conditioned $80 \times 80$ matrix. $\vec{b}$ is a randomly chosen vector in $\mathbb{R}^{80}$.


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$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
10^{8} & -10^{8} \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right], \quad A^{T} A=10^{16}\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -1 \\
-1 & 1
\end{array}\right]+10^{-16}\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right]\right)
$$

The $10^{-16}$ term is below standard machine precision, so $A^{T} A$ looks singular to the computer.

## Gram-Schmidt algorithm

## Idea

Project $\vec{v}_{i}$ to the orthogonal complement of the subspace spanned by the vectors which come before it.

Problem: only have projection formula if we have an orthonormal basis.
Solution: compute the orthonormal basis inductively!

## Extended Gram-Schmidt

Input: $n \times m$ matrix $A$ with linearly independent columns $\vec{v}_{1}, \cdots, \vec{v}_{m}$. Output: The $Q R$ decomposition of $A$.

## Pseudocode

$Q:=[] ;$
For $(i=1 ; i \leq m ; i++)\{$
For $(j=1 ; j<i ; j++): r_{j i}=\vec{u}_{j}^{T} \vec{v}_{i} ; / /$ Projection coefficients
$\vec{v}_{i}^{\perp}:=\vec{v}_{i}-\left(r_{1 i} \vec{u}_{1}+\cdots+r_{i-1, i} \vec{u}_{i-1}\right) ; / /$ Compute projection
$r_{i i}:=\left\|\vec{v}_{i}^{\perp}\right\| ; / /$ Normalizing constant
$\vec{u}:=\frac{1}{r_{i i}} \vec{v}_{i}^{\perp} ; / /$ Normalize
Append $\vec{u}$ to $Q$;
\}

## Why not Gram-Schmidt

Key issue: in high dimension space, two randomly chosen vectors are nearly orthogonal.

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Key issue: in high dimension space, two randomly chosen vectors are nearly orthogonal.
$\Longrightarrow \vec{v}_{i}^{\perp}$ is near $\overrightarrow{0}$, and its computation involves subtracting two numbers which are close.
$\Longrightarrow$ Deterioration of accuracy.

## Why not Gram-Schmidt

$A=Q R$ is $80 \times 80$ with rapidly decaying diagonal entries in $R$.
This graph shows the diagonal entries computed using the Gram-Schmidt.


## Better algorithms


#### Abstract

Idea Do a fancy row reduction using orthogonal matrices.


## Better algorithms

## Idea

Do a fancy row reduction using orthogonal matrices.

More precisely, repeatedly left-multiplying by orthogonal matrices to create zeroes in $A$ :

$$
Q_{1} A=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
* & * & * \\
0 & * & * \\
0 & * & *
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Better algorithms

## Idea

Do a fancy row reduction using orthogonal matrices.

More precisely, repeatedly left-multiplying by orthogonal matrices to create zeroes in $A$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
Q_{2} Q_{1} A=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
* & * & * \\
0 & * & * \\
0 & 0 & *
\end{array}\right) \\
A=Q_{1}^{T} Q_{2}^{T} R
\end{gathered}
$$

## Householder reflection

## Problem

Given $\vec{x}$ and $\vec{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ of the same length, find an orthogonal matrix $Q$ such that $Q \vec{x}=\vec{y}$.

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## Observation

Let $\vec{u}$ be a non-zero vector, then the reflection across the hyperplane $\vec{u}^{\perp}$ is

$$
H_{\vec{u}}=I_{n}-2 \frac{\vec{u} \vec{u}^{T}}{\|\vec{u}\|^{2}}
$$

## Householder reflection

## Given $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of equal length, let $\vec{u}=\vec{x}-\vec{y}$,

## Householder reflection

Given $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of equal length, let $\vec{u}=\vec{x}-\vec{y}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{\vec{u}}(\vec{x}) & =\vec{x}-2 \frac{\vec{u}^{T} \vec{x}}{\vec{u}^{\top} \vec{u}} \vec{u} \\
& =\vec{x}-2 \frac{\|\vec{x}\|^{2}-\vec{y}^{T} \vec{x}}{2\left(\|\vec{x}\|^{2}-\vec{y}^{\top} \vec{x}\right)} \vec{u} \\
& =\vec{x}-\vec{u} \\
& =\vec{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

We have shown that orthogonal matrices act transitively on vectors of the same length.

## Householder reflection

Input: $n \times n$ matrix $A$
Output: The $Q R$ decomposition of $A$

## Pseudocode

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { For }(i=1 ; i \leq m ; i++)\{ \\
& \quad \vec{u}:=A[i: n, i]-\vec{e}_{1} ; \\
& Q_{i}:=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
l_{i} & 0 \\
0 & H_{\vec{u}}
\end{array}\right) ; \\
& \quad A:=Q_{i} A ; \\
& \} \\
& R:=A ; \\
& Q:=Q_{1}^{T} Q_{2}^{T} \cdots Q_{n}^{T} ;
\end{aligned}
$$

## Complexity

Reflection of a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ :

- $n$ for dot product.
- $n$ for scalar multiplication.
- $n$ for subtraction.

Computing vector norm takes $n$ operations.
Total complexity:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 4(n-i)^{2} \simeq \frac{4}{3} n^{3}
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$$

This is comparable to Gram-Schmidt, but the algorithm is stable (with some tweaks).

## Givens rotation

Can also kill off entries one by one using plane rotations

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
I_{i} & & & & \\
& c & \cdots & s & \\
& \vdots & l_{j-i-1} & \vdots & \\
& -s & \cdots & c & \\
& & & & I_{n-j-1}
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$$

Each rotation takes $O(n)$ operations to perform, so if $A$ is sparse, this can be much faster (with good application order).

