# Numerical Analysis Hilary Term 2025 Lecture 3: QR Factorization

So far the linear systems we treated had the same number of equations as unknowns (variables), so the problem was Ax = b for a square matrix A. Very often in practice, we have more equations that we would like to satisfy than variables to fit them. It is then usually impossible to obtain a solution to Ax = b; a common approach is then to try minimise the difference between Ax and b. If we choose to minimise the Euclidean length of the vector, this leads to a *least-squares problem*:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|Ax - b\|, \qquad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \ b \in \mathbb{R}^m, \ m \ge n,$$
(1)

where  $||y|| := \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + \cdots + y_m^2} = \sqrt{y^T y}$ . Least-squares problems (also known as *overdetermined* systems) are ubiquitous in applied mathematics and data science; linear regression is a basic example.

Our approach to solving the least-squares problem (1) is to find another factorisation that is suitable for rectangular matrices. In particular, we will use the QR-factorisation, which is the focus of this lecture.

# Orthogonal matrices and sets

**Definition:** a square real matrix Q is **orthogonal** if  $Q^{\top} = Q^{-1}$ . This is true if, and only if,  $Q^{\top}Q = I = QQ^{\top}$ .

**Example:** The permutation matrices P in LU factorisation with partial pivoting are orthogonal.

**Proposition.** The product of orthogonal matrices is an orthogonal matrix.

**Proof.** If S and T are orthogonal,  $(ST)^{\top} = T^{\top}S^{\top}$  so

$$(ST)^{\top}(ST) = T^{\top}S^{\top}ST = T^{\top}(S^{\top}S)T = T^{\top}T = I.$$

**Definition:** The scalar (dot)(inner) product of two vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$x^{\top}y = y^{\top}x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ where } x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Definition:** Two vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are **orthogonal** if  $x^{\top}y = 0$ . A set of vectors  $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_r\}$  is an **orthogonal set** if  $u_i^{\top}u_j = 0$  for all  $i, j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, r\}$  such that  $i \neq j$ . If an orthogonal set  $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_r\}$  additionally satisfies  $||u_i|| = 1$  for  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, r\}$ , then we say that the set is **orthonormal**.

Lemma. The columns of an orthogonal matrix Q form an orthonormal set, which is

moreover an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Proof.** Suppose that  $Q = [q_1 \ q_2 \ \cdots \ q_n]$ , i.e.,  $q_j$  is the *j*th column of Q. Then

$$I = Q^{\top}Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_1^{\top} \\ q_2^{\top} \\ \vdots \\ q_n^{\top} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \cdots & q_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1^{\top}q_1 & q_1^{\top}q_2 & \cdots & q_1^{\top}q_n \\ q_2^{\top}q_1 & q_2^{\top}q_2 & \cdots & q_2^{\top}q_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_n^{\top}q_1 & q_2^{\top}q_n & \cdots & q_n^{\top}q_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Comparing the (i, j)th entries yields

$$q_i^{\top} q_j = (Q^{\top} Q)_{ij} = I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j, \\ 1 & i = j. \end{cases}$$

Note that the columns of an orthogonal matrix are of length 1 as  $q_i^{\top} q_i = 1$ , so they form an orthonormal set.

To see that it forms a basis, let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be any vector. One has  $x = QQ^T x = Qc$  where  $c = Q^T x$ , so  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i q_i$ .

**Lemma.** If  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is orthogonal, then ||Pu|| = ||u|| for all  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . **Proof.**  $||Pu||^2 = (Pu)^\top Pu = u^\top (P^\top P)u = u^\top u = ||u||^2$ .

**Definition:** The **outer product** of two vectors x and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the *n*-by-*n* matrix

$$xy^{\top} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & x_1y_2 & \cdots & x_1y_n \\ x_2y_1 & x_2y_2 & \cdots & x_2y_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_ny_1 & x_ny_2 & \cdots & x_ny_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

More usefully, if  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$(xy^{\top})z = xy^{\top}z = x(y^{\top}z) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i z_i\right)x.$$

#### Householder reflector

**Definition:** For  $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $w \neq 0$ , the **Householder** reflector  $H(w) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the matrix

$$H(w) = I - \frac{2}{w^{\top}w}ww^{\top}.$$

In particular, H(w)x reflects  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  over the plane  $\mathcal{P}$  containing the origin that is normal to w. To see this, let  $\{w, z_1, \ldots, z_{n-1}\}$  be an orthogonal set (note that such a set exists by e.g. Gram-Schmidt). Then, we have

$$x = \alpha_0 w + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i z_i$$

for some coefficients  $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ . The reflection of x over  $\mathcal{P}$  is then the vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by

$$y = -\alpha_0 w + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i z_i$$

(To convince yourself that this is correct notion of reflection, consider the case n = 2,  $w = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{\top}$  and  $z = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{\top}$ .) Moreover, there holds

$$H(w)x = \alpha_0 \left( I - \frac{2}{w^\top w} w w^\top \right) w + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i \left( I - \frac{2}{w^\top w} w w^\top \right) z_i$$
$$= \alpha_0 \left( w - \frac{2}{w^\top w} w (w^\top w) \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i \left( z_i - \frac{2}{w^\top w} w \underbrace{(w^\top z_i)}_{=0} \right)$$
(2)
$$= -\alpha_0 w + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i z_i$$
$$= y,$$

where we used that w is orthogonal to  $z_i, i \in \{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ .

The next two propositions concern some basic properties of H(w). **Proposition.** H(w) is a symmetric orthogonal matrix.

**Proof.** Symmetry is straightforward to verify. For orthogonality,

$$H(w)H(w)^{\top} = \left(I - \frac{2}{w^{\top}w}ww^{\top}\right)\left(I - \frac{2}{w^{\top}w}ww^{\top}\right)$$
$$= I - \frac{4}{w^{\top}w}ww^{\top} + \frac{4}{(w^{\top}w)^2}w(w^{\top}w)w^{\top}$$
$$= I.$$

**Proposition.** The eigenpairs (eigenvalues, eigenvectors) of H(w) are (-1, w) and  $(1, z_i)$  for  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ . Consequently,  $\det(H(w)) = -1$ .

**Proof.** In line (2), we computed that H(w)w = -w and  $H(w)z_i = z_i$ .

The next result shows that, given a vector  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists a plane with normal  $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$  so that the reflection of u over this plane coincides with the  $x_1$  axis.

**Lemma.** Given  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists a  $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$H(w)u = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (3)

If  $u = [\beta \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]^{\top}$ , then  $\alpha = -\sqrt{u^{\top}u}$ . Otherwise,  $\alpha = \pm \sqrt{u^{\top}u}$  depending on the choice of w.

**Remark**: Let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  denote the RHS of (3). Since H(w) is an orthogonal matrix for any  $w \in \mathbb{R}, w \neq 0$ , it is necessary for the validity of the equality H(w)u = v that  $v^{\top}v = u^{\top}u$ , i.e.,  $\alpha^2 = u^{\top}u$ ; hence we the only possible choice is  $\alpha = \pm \sqrt{u^{\top}u}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  denote the RHS of (3). For any fixed  $\gamma \neq 0$ , we define  $w := \gamma(u - v)$ . Note that our choice of  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  ensures that  $w \neq 0$  (particularly in the case that  $u = [\beta \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]$ ). Recall that  $u^{\top}u = v^{\top}v$  because H(w) is orthogonal. Thus,

$$w^{\top}w = \gamma^{2}(u-v)^{\top}(u-v) = \gamma^{2}(u^{\top}u - 2u^{\top}v + v^{\top}v)$$
$$= \gamma^{2}(u^{\top}u - 2u^{\top}v + u^{\top}u) = 2\gamma u^{\top}(\gamma(u-v))$$
$$= 2\gamma w^{\top}u,$$

and so

$$H(w)u = \left(I - \frac{2}{w^{\top}w}ww^{\top}\right)u = u - \frac{2w^{\top}u}{w^{\top}w}w = u - \frac{1}{\gamma}w = u - (u - v) = v,$$

which completes the proof.

### Constructing the QR factorisation for square matrices

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Our goal is now to apply a sequence of Householder reflections to reduce A to an upper triangular matrix.

Applying the lemma with u being the first column of A, we obtain

$$H(w)A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \times \cdots & \times \\ 0 & & \\ \vdots & B & \\ 0 & & \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } \times = \text{general entry.}$$

Similarly for B, we can find  $\hat{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  such that

$$H(\hat{w})B = \begin{bmatrix} \beta & \times \cdots & \times \\ \hline 0 & & \\ \vdots & C & \\ 0 & & \end{bmatrix},$$

and then

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \\ \vdots & \\ 0 & \end{bmatrix} H(w)A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \times & \times & \cdots & \times \\ 0 & \beta & \times & \cdots & \times \\ 0 & 0 & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \\ 0 & 0 & \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & H(\hat{w}) \end{bmatrix} = H(w_2), \quad \text{where} \quad w_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \hat{w} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

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Thus, if we continue in this manner for the n-1 steps, we obtain

$$\underbrace{H(w_{n-1})\cdots H(w_3)H(w_2)H(w)}_{Q^{\top}}A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \times & \cdots & \times \\ 0 & \beta & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \gamma \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that for readability, we are abusing notation: Each  $w_i$  depends on the columns of the matrix from the previous step. The matrix  $Q^{\top}$  is orthogonal as it is the product of orthogonal (Householder) matrices, so we have constructively sketched the proof of the following result:

**Theorem.** Given any square matrix A, there exists an orthogonal matrix Q and an upper triangular matrix R such that A = QR.

# Notes:

- 1. The existence of the QR factorisation can also be established using the Gram–Schmidt Process.
- 2. If u is already of the form  $[\alpha \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]^{\top}$ , we do not need to use a reflection and can use the identity matrix I in place of H.
- 3. Householder reflectors can be applied to a vector in O(n) flops; 4n (if  $w^{\top}w$  does not need to be computed each application) or 6n-1 (if  $w^{\top}w$  is computed each application) to be precise. To see this, note that  $Hv = (I-2ww^T)v = v-2w(w^Tv)/(w^{\top}w)$ . Using this, the QR factorisation can be computed in  $O(n^3)$  flops. You should verify that the constant for QR is greater than  $\frac{2}{3}$ , the constant on the  $n^3$  term for the flops for LU. Thus, QR is asymptotically more expensive than LU.

# QR factorisation of rectangular matrices

Now suppose that A is not square:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with  $m \neq n$ .

(a) If m < n, then we can apply the product of m-1 Householder matrices (of dimension  $m \times m$ ) to obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \times & \cdots & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix} = A = QR = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \times & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \cdots & \times \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \times & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and the omitted entries in R are all zero (below the main diagonal).

(b) Let m > n. One option is the *full QR* factorisation, obtained by applying n - 1

Householder reflections:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \times & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix} = A = Q_F R_F = Q_F \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \times & \cdots & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \times \\ & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \times \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $Q_F \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and  $R_F \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . The matrix  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the first *n* rows of  $R_F$ .

(c) Let m > n. The other option is the *thin QR* factorisation, obtain by selecting the first *n* columns of  $Q_F$  and the upper triangular matrix *R* from (b):

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \times & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix} = A = QR = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \times \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \times & \cdots & \times \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \times \\ & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \times \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Note that Q has orthonormal columns since the matrix  $Q_F$  in (b) is orthogonal. In particular, we can write  $Q_F = [Q \ Q_{\perp}]$ , where  $Q_{\perp} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (m-n)}$  has orthonormal columns.