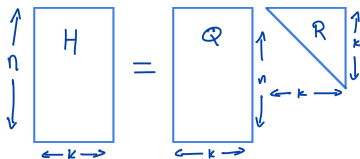


8: Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

- successive orthogonalization
- Gram-Schmidt algorithm (classic)
- Projection onto a subspace

QR factorization

recall the **reduced** QR factorization (p.7-13) of a tall matrix: $A = QR$



- Q 's columns, $\{q_i\}_{i=1}^k$, form an **orthonormal set**
- if $\text{rank}(A) = k$, the factorization is unique and $r_{ii} > 0$
- when $n = k$, Q is **orthogonal**, i.e., $Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I$
- it was shown (p.7-20) that $\{q_i\}_{i=1}^k$ provide an orthonormal basis for $\text{range}(A)$
- workhorse of numerical linear algebra – how do we compute Q and R ?

Successive orthogonalization

given a tall matrix A , find a sequence of vectors that span the column **spaces** of A

$$A = [a_1 \quad a_2 \quad a_3 \quad \dots \quad a_n]$$

define a growing set of matrices

$$A^{(1)} = a_1, \quad A^{(2)} = [a_1 \quad a_2], \quad A^{(3)} = [a_1 \quad a_2 \quad a_3], \quad \dots, \quad A^{(n)} = A$$

further, define $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ as the subspace spanned by columns a_1, a_2, a_3 , then

$$\langle a_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle \subseteq \dots$$

QR factorization can be thought of as constructing an orthonormal sequence of vectors, $\{q_i\}_{i=1}^n$, that span the above spaces

$$\langle q_1, q_2, \dots, q_j \rangle = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle, \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

Column interpretation

$A = QR$ expressed in terms of the columns (c.f. p.4-19)

$$\begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \dots & r_{1n} \\ r_{22} & \dots & r_{2n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ r_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- a_1, \dots, a_k expressed as **linear combinations** of q_1, \dots, q_k

$$a_1 = r_{11}q_1$$

$$a_2 = r_{12}q_1 + r_{22}q_2$$

$$a_3 = r_{13}q_1 + r_{23}q_2 + r_{33}q_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_n = r_{1n}q_1 + r_{2n}q_2 + \dots + r_{nn}q_n$$

(2)

the sequence of equations (2) suggests a sequential process for computing q_i

Objective: at iteration j

- find $q_j \in \langle a_1, \dots, a_j \rangle$ such that $q_j \perp q_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, j - 1$, with $\|q_j\|_2 = 1$

Idea:

- suppose $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$ is an **orthonormal set** and v is arbitrary
- form a new vector r

$$r = v - (q_1^T v)q_1 - (q_2^T v)q_2 - \dots - (q_n^T v)q_n \quad (3)$$

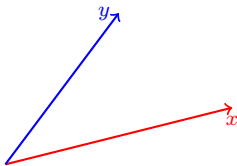
- it follows that $r \perp \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$, to verify, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} q_i^T r &= q_i^T v - (q_1^T v)(q_i^T q_1) - \dots - (q_n^T v)(q_i^T q_n) \\ &= q_i^T v - (q_i^T v)(q_i^T q_i) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Projection

vector-on-vector projection

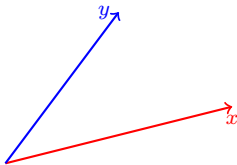
given two non-zero vectors x and y find the scalar multiple of x that is closest to y



Projection

vector-on-vector projection

given two non-zero vectors x and y find the scalar multiple of x that is closest to y

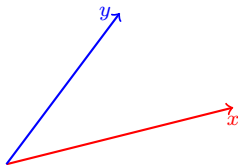


- denote the projected vector as $\mathbf{proj}_x y$, we the projection of y onto x

$$\mathbf{proj}_x y = \left(\frac{y^T x}{x^T x} \right) x$$

- the projection is **orthogonal**

derivation of the projection



formulate as an unconstrained optimization problem:

$$\underset{\alpha}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|y - \alpha x\|_2^2$$

- 1 expand the objective function

$$\|y - \alpha x\|_2^2 = y^T y - 2\alpha y^T x + \alpha^2 x^T x$$

- 2 differentiate with respect to α and set to zero

$$-2y^T x + 2\alpha x^T x = 0$$

- 3 rearrange to get $\alpha = \frac{y^T x}{x^T x}$

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

the iterates in eq. (2) combined with the idea on p. 8-5 suggest a method for computing Q and R

Objective

at iteration j produce $q_j \in \langle a_1, \dots, a_j \rangle$ with $q_i \perp q_j$ for $i = 1, \dots, j-1$ with $\|q_j\|_2 = 1$

- adapting (3) to this setting, gives

$$v_j = a_j - (q_1^T a_j)q_1 - (q_2^T a_j)q_2 - \dots - (q_{j-1}^T a_j)q_{j-1}$$

- it has already been shown that $v_j \perp \{q_1, \dots, q_{j-1}\}$
- to make $\|v_j\|_2 = 1$, normalize by multiplying by $1/\|v_j\|_2$

- rewriting this procedure iteratively, we have

$$q_1 = \frac{a_1}{r_{11}}$$

$$q_2 = \frac{a_2 - r_{12}q_1}{r_{22}}$$

$$q_3 = \frac{a_3 - r_{13}q_1 - r_{23}q_2}{r_{33}}$$

\vdots

$$q_n = \frac{a_n - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} r_{in}q_i}{r_{nn}}$$

- from which it is clear that

$$r_{ij} = q_i^T a_j \quad (i \neq j) \quad \text{and} \quad r_{jj} = \left\| a_j - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} r_{ij}q_i \right\|_2$$

Classical Gram-Schmidt

Data: a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n

/ columns of A */*

Result: q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n and r_{ij}

/ columns of Q, non-zero R elements */*

for $j = 1$ **to** n **do**

$v_j = a_j$

for $i = 1$ **to** $j - 1$ **do**

$r_{ij} = q_i^T a_j$

$v_j = v_j - r_{ij}q_i$

/ orthogonal but orthormormal yet */*

end

$r_{jj} = \|v_j\|_2$

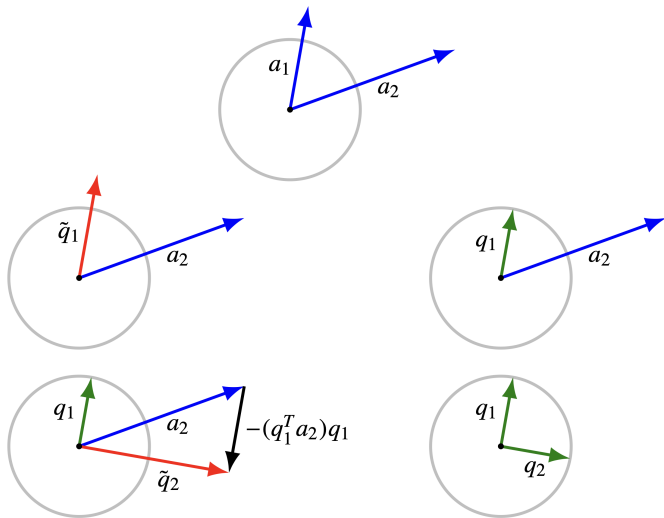
$q_j = v_j / r_{jj}$

/ normalize */*

end

- referred to as “classical Gram-Schmidt” to differentiate from “modified Gram-Schmidt”
- classical Gram-Schmidt is numerically unstable

Example



[Image from Boyd & Vandenberghe, Ch.5]

Numerical example

recall example from p.7-14

$$A = [a_1 \quad a_2 \quad a_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 & 2 \\ -1 & -5 & -4 \\ -1 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Iteration 1:

$$v_1 = a_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad r_{11} = \|v_1\|_2 = 2, \quad q_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_j = a_j - \underbrace{(q_1^T a_j)}_{r_{12}} q_1 - \underbrace{(q_2^T a_j)q_2 - \dots - (q_{j-1}^T a_j)q_{j-1}}_{=0}$$

Iteration 2: (Phase 1: produce an orthogonal vector v_2)

$$v_2 = a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad r_{12} = q_1^T a_2 = 3,$$

$$v_2 \leftarrow v_2 - r_{12}q_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{3}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = 3.5 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_j = a_j - \underbrace{(q_1^T a_j)}_{r_{12}} q_1 - \underbrace{(q_2^T a_j)q_2 - \dots - (q_{j-1}^T a_j)q_{j-1}}_{=0}$$

Iteration 2: (Phase 1: produce an orthogonal vector v_2)

$$v_2 = a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad r_{12} = q_1^T a_2 = 3,$$

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Iteration 2: (Phase 2: normalize v_2)

$$r_{22} = \|v_2\|_2 = 7 \quad \implies \quad q_2 = \frac{v_2}{7} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_j = a_j - \underbrace{(q_1^T a_j)}_{r_{13}} q_1 - \underbrace{(q_2^T a_j)}_{r_{23}} q_2 - \dots - \underbrace{(q_{j-1}^T a_j)}_{=0} q_{j-1}$$

Iteration 3: (Phase 1: produce an orthogonal vector v_3)

$$v_3 = a_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad r_{13} = q_1^T a_3 = 5, \quad r_{23} = q_2^T a_3 = 1$$

$$v_3 \leftarrow v_3 = r_{13}q_1 - r_{23}q_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_j = a_j - \underbrace{(q_1^T a_j)}_{r_{13}} q_1 - \underbrace{(q_2^T a_j)}_{r_{23}} q_2 - \dots - \underbrace{(q_{j-1}^T a_j)}_{=0} q_{j-1}$$

Iteration 3: (Phase 1: produce an orthogonal vector v_3)

$$v_3 = a_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad r_{13} = q_1^T a_3 = 5, \quad r_{23} = q_2^T a_3 = 1$$

$$v_3 \leftarrow v_3 = r_{13}q_1 - r_{23}q_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Iteration 3: (Phase 2: normalize v_3)

$$r_{33} = \|v_3\|_2 = \sqrt{2} \quad \implies \quad q_3 = \frac{v_3}{\sqrt{2}} = - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Complexity analysis

computing a QR factorization using Gram-Schmidt takes $\sim 2mn^2$ flops

- each inner loop requires $j - 1$ inner products of n -vectors

$$q_1^T a_j, \quad q_2^T a_j, \quad \dots, \quad q_{j-1}^T a_j$$

$(j - 1)(2n - 1)$ flops

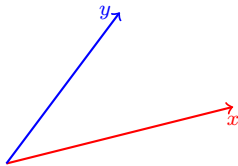
- $j - 1$ multiplications for $r_{ij}q_i$: $n(j - 1)$ flops
- subtracting $j - 1$ vectors from v_i : $n(j - 1)$ flops
- total flop count for one inner loop is

$$(j - 1)(2n - 1) + 2n(j - 1) = (4n - 1)(j - 1)$$

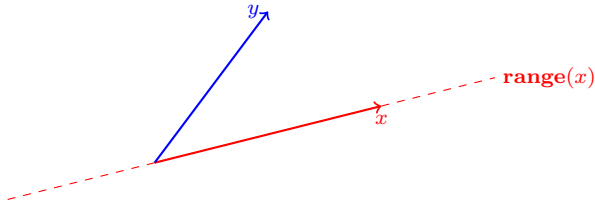
- computing $\|v_j\|_2$ is approximately $2n$ flops
- normalizing a vector is approximately n flops
- summing over all $j = 1, \dots, k$ iterations gives the stated result

Projection revisited

recall the setup of projecting one vector onto another



looking for a point αx close to y , instead, look for a point in **range**(x)



generalize this to arbitrary subspaces

Projectors

a **projector** is a square matrix P that satisfies $P^2 = P$

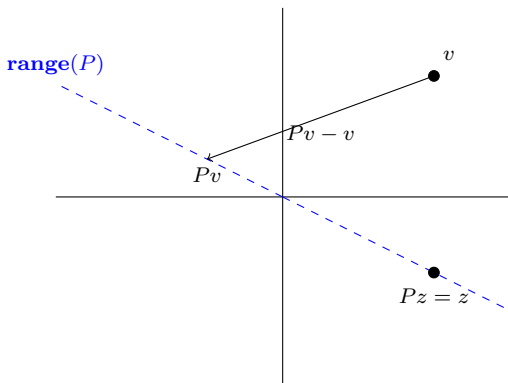
- if we were to shine a light onto the subspace $\mathbf{range}(P)$ from the right direction, then Pv is the shadow projected by the vector v
- if $v \in \mathbf{range}(P)$, then it lies on its own shadow and so Pv returns v , let $v = Px$ for some x , then

$$Pv = P^2x = Px = v$$

- from where does the light shine when $v \neq Pv$?

Projection onto a subspaces

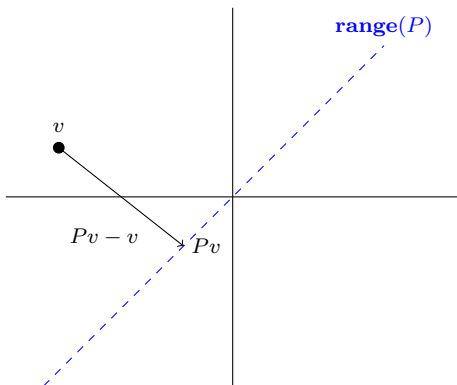
geometric interpretation



- $Pz = z$ because $z \in \text{range}(P)$
- $P(Pv) = P^2v = Pv$ because $Pv \in \text{range}(P)$
- $P(Pv - v) = 0$, i.e., $Pv - p \in \text{null}(P)$

Orthogonal projectors

an **orthogonal projector** is a square matrix P such that $P^2 = P$ and $P = P^T$



- do not confuse an **orthogonal projector** with an **orthogonal matrix**

Complementary projectors

if P is a projector (not necessarily orthogonal), then so is $I - P$

$$(I - P)^2 = I - 2P + P^2 = I - P$$

- $I - P$ is called a complementary projector
- projects onto $\text{null}(P)$ - to see this, think about $Pv - v$ from p.8-18

Vector decomposition

let $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$ be a set of orthonormal vectors in \mathbb{C}^m and let v be an arbitrary vector

$$v = r + \sum_{i=1}^n (q_i^* v) q_i = r + \sum_{i=1}^n (q_i q_i^*) v$$

- r is the part of v that is orthogonal to $\{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$
- actually, r is orthogonal to $\text{span}(q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$

if q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n is a basis for \mathbb{C}^m , then

- $n = m$ and $r = 0$
- v is decomposed into m orthogonal components in the direction q_i :

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^m (q_i^* v) q_i = \sum_{i=1}^m (q_i q_i^*) v$$

Projection with an orthonormal basis

Let $A = QR$, where A is tall with linearly independent columns, then

$$P = QQ^* \text{ projects onto } \mathbf{range}(A)$$

recall that v can be expressed as

$$v = r + \sum_{i=1}^n (q_i q_i^*) v$$

then we have

$$v = \underbrace{(I - P)v}_{\text{orthog. } \mathbf{range}(Q)} + \underbrace{Pv}_{\in \mathbf{range}(Q)}$$

and finally, note that that $\mathbf{range}(Q) = \mathbf{range}(A)$ (p. 7-20)

Further topics

- orthogonal subspaces
- numerical stability