Lecture 12: Householder QR factorizations

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Outline

- Householder Triangularization
- e Householder QR Factorization Algorithm
- **③** Example: Householder Reflector
- Example: QR Factorization via Householder

Householder QR factorizations - Introduction

- Recall that in this course we consider three common algorithms for QR factorization:
 - Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization,
 - Householder reflections,
 - Givens rotations.
- Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization was discussed in Lecture 11.
- This lecture will introduce the idea of Householder reflections for building the QR factorization.
- A final approach of Givens rotations will be presented in the next lecture.

Householder QR factorizations - Introduction

- Note that the QR factorization we produce here is similar, but not identical, to the one we produced last time:
 - R is $m \times n$ and Q is square, instead of the other way around, and
 - Negative entries can occur on R's "diagonal".

• Note that Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization is a "triangular orthogonalization" process. In matrix form, Gram-Schmidt can be written as right-multiplication by triangular matrices that make the columns of A orthonormal (see end of Lecture 8 of Trefethen & Bau)

$$A\underbrace{R_1R_2\cdots R_n}_{\hat{R}^{-1}} = \hat{Q}$$

• Householder reflections instead provide an "orthogonal triangularization" process. The matrix A is made to be triangular (R) by applying orthogonal matrices Q_j , i.e.,

$$\underbrace{Q_n\cdots Q_2Q_1}_{Q^{-1}}A=R.$$

Hence, the premise of Householder reflections (aka triangularization) is to find the orthogonal matrices $Q_j \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$. This method is similar to *LU*-factorization, as each Q_j will zero the lower entries of column *j*.

We will build orthogonal matrices of the following form

$$Q_j = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & F \end{bmatrix} \begin{cases} j-1 \text{ rows, already done,} \\ m-(j-1) \text{ rows, still to be done.} \end{cases}$$

where F is the **Householder reflector** matrix. F reflects a vector x across a (specific) hyperplane H to produce a vector **along the axis**.

See Figure 1 for a visualization of applying the Householder reflector (note $e_1 = [1, 0, ..., 0]^T$).

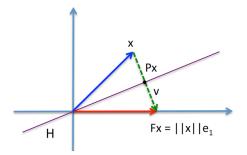


Figure: Applying the Householder reflector F to the vector x, which reflects x across the hyperplane H.

$$x + v^- = - \|x\|e_1 \Leftrightarrow v^- = -\|x\|e_1 - x.$$

After reflection, the output vector has the same magnitude as x, and is parallel to e_1 . It depends on both of x and e_1 . At step j, we start with x, and reflect onto the subspace spanned by $\{e_1, \ldots e_j\}$. We find the Householder reflector matrix F, to perform the reflection, as follows.

Suppose

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix},$$

Find F such that

$$Fx = \begin{bmatrix} \|x\| \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \|x\|e_1.$$

- The *F* reflects *x* across the hyperplane *H* orthogonal to $v = ||x||e_1 x$.
- That is because we want to produce a new vector of the same length as x, aligned with the axis e_1 (so all but the first entry are zeros).

• The **orthogonal projection** *P* of *x* **onto** the hyperplane *H* (orthogonal to the vector *v*) is

$$Px = x - \left(\left(\frac{v}{\|v\|} \right)^T x \right) \frac{v}{\|v\|} = x - v \left(\frac{v^T x}{v^T v} \right).$$

- Note that this orthogonal projection *P* is similar to the steps in Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization.
- Idea: Subtract out the component of x along v.

• To **reflect** x across H (instead of projecting onto H) we must go twice as far in the same direction (see Figure 1)

$$Fx = x - 2v \left(\frac{v^T x}{v^T v}\right).$$

• Therefore, the Householder reflector F is given by

$$F = I - 2\left(\frac{vv^{T}}{v^{T}v}\right)$$

where $v = ||x||e_1 - x$.

Remark that we could instead reflect to the point along the axis with a **negative** sign. That is, reflect to $-||x||e_1$ instead of $||x||e_1$, which gives

$$F_{\mathbf{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} -\|x\|\\0\\dots\\0\end{bmatrix} = -\|x\|e_1.$$

Either choice zeros out the desired entries of the active column. We just get a different v as shown in Figure 2.

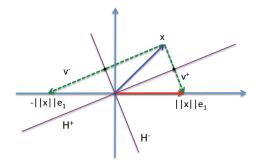


Figure: The two alternative Householder reflections.

- Reflecting to either of $||x||e_i$ or $-||x||e_i$ will zero the remainder of the desired column.
- Which Householder reflector F should we choose?
- For numerical stability, we want the *F* that reflects *x* farther away from itself.
- Thus,
 - if $x_1 > 0$ we choose the negative one, $-\|x\|e_1$,
 - if $x_1 < 0$ we choose the positive one, $||x||e_1$.
- This gives v = -sign(x₁)||x||e₁ x, or more simply (because only direction is important, and either choice gives the same F) sign(x₁)||x||e₁ + x.
- This choice of v avoids subtracting nearby quantities, which can introduce cancellation error.
- Therefore, choosing the *F* that reflects *x* farther away is more numerically stable.

Alternative Derivation

- We will show an alternate derivation of Householder triangularization.
- Consider a reflection operator $F = I 2 \frac{vv^T}{v^T v}$ for an arbitrary vector v.
- We want to find v such that Fx ∈ span{e₁} to zero the lower entries in column 1.
- Let $Fx \in \text{span}\{e_1\}$, in other words,

$$F_{X} = x - \frac{2vv^{T}x}{v^{T}v} = x - \left[\frac{2(v^{T}x)}{(v^{T}v)}\right]v \in \operatorname{span}\{e_{1}\}.$$

- Observe v ∈ span{e₁, x} by construction, since Fx ∈ span{e₁}.
- Write $Fx = c_2 e_1$ for some scalar c_2 .
- Hence,

$$c_2 e_1 = x - c_1 v$$

$$\Rightarrow v = \hat{c}_1 x + \hat{c}_2 e_1,$$

(for scalars $\hat{c_1}$ and $\hat{c_2}$) which means $v \in \text{span}\{e_1, x\}$.

- We will write v for \hat{v} from now on.
- Then,

$$v^{T}x = (x + \alpha e_{1})^{T}x$$

= $x^{T}x + \alpha e_{1}^{T}x$
= $x^{T}x + \alpha \underbrace{x_{(1)}}_{\text{scalar}}$

and

$$v^{\mathsf{T}}v = (x + \alpha e_1)^{\mathsf{T}}(x + \alpha e_1)$$
$$= x^{\mathsf{T}}x + 2\alpha x_{(1)} + \alpha^2.$$

Plugging into Fx to determine α , we have

$$Fx = x - 2\left(\frac{v^{T}x}{v^{T}v}\right)(x + \alpha e_{1}),$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{2v^{T}x}{v^{T}v}\right)x - \left(2\alpha\frac{v^{T}x}{v^{T}v}\right)e_{1},$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{2(x^{T}x + \alpha x_{(1)})}{x^{T}x + 2\alpha x_{(1)} + \alpha^{2}}\right)x - \left(2\alpha\frac{v^{T}x}{v^{T}v}\right)e_{1},$$

$$= \left(\frac{x^{T}x + 2\alpha x_{(1)} + \alpha^{2} - 2x^{T}x - 2\alpha x_{(1)}}{x^{T}x + 2\alpha x_{(1)} + \alpha^{2}}\right)x - \left(2\alpha\frac{v^{T}x}{v^{T}v}\right)e_{1},$$

$$= \underbrace{\left(\frac{\alpha^{2} - x^{T}x}{x^{T}x + 2\alpha x_{(1)} + \alpha^{2}}\right)x}_{\text{must be 0}} - \left(2\alpha\frac{v^{T}x}{v^{T}v}\right)e_{1}.$$

Since $Fx \in \text{span}\{e_1\}$ the first term must be zero, so $\alpha^2 - x^T x = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha = \pm ||x||.$

Hence,

$$v = x \pm ||x||e_1$$
 and $Fx = \mp ||x||e_1$,

as we saw last time.

Algorithm 1 gives the QR factorization of A via Householder triangularization.

 $\label{eq:algorithm} Algorithm \ 1 \ : \ \mbox{Householder QR factorization algorithm}$

for
$$k = 1, 2, ..., n$$

 $x = A(k : m, k)$ \triangleright Get current column
 $v_k = \text{sign}(x_1) ||x|| e_1 + x$ \triangleright Form the reflection vector
 $v_k = \frac{v_k}{||v_k||}$ \triangleright Normalize
for $j = k, k + 1, ..., n \triangleright$ Apply F to active lower-right block
 $A(k : m, j) = A(k : m, j) - 2v_k(v_k^T A(k : m, j))$
end for
end for

- The notation used follows Matlab, i.e., $A(k : m, j) = j^{\text{th}}$ column of A from row k to row m.
- The algorithm converts A into R (upper "triangular") using Householder reflections F.
- Note that one could **further** vectorize the inner loop (more efficient in Matlab) to the matrix operation

$$A(k:m,k:n) = A(k:m,k:n) - 2v_k(v_k^T A(k:m,k:n)).$$

- Algorithm 1 does not construct *Q*, only the vectors *v_k*. Why is this not a problem in practice?
- We often do not need Q but just the products $Q^T b$ or Qx (e.g., for least squares we solve $Rx = Q^T b$). Since

$$Q^{\mathsf{T}} = Q_n Q_{n-1} \dots Q_2 Q_1,$$

$$Q = Q_1^{\mathsf{T}} Q_2^{\mathsf{T}} \dots Q_{n-1}^{\mathsf{T}} Q_n^{\mathsf{T}},$$

we can efficiently (in O(mn) flops) compute $Q^T b$ or Qx using just the v_k 's to apply the appropriate reflections (see Algorithms 2 and 3). Note the parentheses, we compute $v(v^T b)$ rather than $(vv^T)b$ to avoid forming the matrix vv^T .

Algorithm 2 : Implicit $Q^T b$	Algorithm 3 : Implicit Qx
for $k = 1, 2,, n$	for $k = n, n - 1,, 1$
b(k : m) = b(k : m) -	x(k : m) = x(k : m) -
$2v_k \left(v_k^T b(k:m) \right)$	$2v_k\left(v_k^T x(k:m)\right)$
end for	end for

- Explicitly building the matrix Q may sometimes be necessary.
- So how **could** we use these implicit products to recover *Q* itself?
- We compute the product QI = Q by applying Q to the columns of the identity matrix I (e₁, e₂,...), i.e., q₁ = Qe₁, q₂ = Qe₂,....
- For the reduced QR factorization

$$A = \hat{Q}\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \\ \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \begin{bmatrix} \\ \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}.$$

• So \hat{Q} is given by just the first *n* columns of *I*

$$\hat{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ Qe_1 & Qe_2 & \cdots & Qe_n \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

Complexity of Householder-Based QR Work is dominated by inner loop

$$A(k:m,j) = A(k:m,j) - 2v_k \left(v_k^T A(k:m,j)\right)$$

Tallying the cost gives:

- $v_k^T A(k:m,j) \approx 2(m-k+1)$ flops (dot product),
- $2v_k(v_k^T A(k:m,j)) \approx (m-k+1)$ flops (scalar multiply),
- $A(k:m,j) 2v_k (v_k^T A(k:m,j)) \approx (m-k+1)$ flops (subtraction).

So it approximately costs 4(m - k + 1) flops per inner step, which is done (n - k + 1) times (*j*-loop). This totals to 4(m - k + 1)(n - k + 1) flops per outer iteration. The outer *k*-loop runs from 1 to *n*, which means the total flops can be approximated by

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} 4(m-k+1)(n-k+1) \approx 2mn^2 - \frac{2}{3}m^3.$$

Note that this does **not** include forming Q.

- For m = n (square), flops(Householder) $\approx \frac{4}{3}n^3 = 2 \times \text{flops}(\text{LU}).$
- Recall from Lecture 11 that Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization cost $\approx 3 \times flops(LU).$
- So Householder triangularization is faster than Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization.

• Given
$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 find the Householder reflector F and the product Fx .

• Answer: We see that $||x|| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 2^2} = 3$. Therefore

$$v = \pm ||x||e_1 + x = \pm 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} -2\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

• We choose $v = \operatorname{sign}(x_1) ||x||e_1 + x = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ for its numerical stability.}$

its numerical stability.

$$\frac{vv^{T}}{v^{T}v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ [4 & 2 & 2] \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 24 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 16 & 8 & 8 \\ 8 & 4 & 4 \\ 8 & 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F = I - 2\left(\frac{vv^{T}}{v^{T}v}\right)$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ so that}$$

$$F_{X} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Since we are computing exactly, we are not forced to consider numerical stability.
- We re-compute everything with the other possible choice, namely $v = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\ 2\\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\frac{vv^{T}}{v^{T}v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1\\ [-2 & 2 & 2] \begin{bmatrix} -2\\ 2\\ 2\\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2\\ 2\\ 2\\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 12 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -4 & -4\\ -4 & 4 & 4\\ -4 & 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1\\ -1 & 1 & 1\\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$F = I - 2\left(\frac{vv^{T}}{v^{T}v}\right)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{2}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ so that}$$

$$Fx = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Perform QR factorization using Householder reflections on the matrix

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

Step 1:
$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $v_{-} = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix}$, $v_{+} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\-2\\-2 \\-2 \end{bmatrix}$
(sign of v is irrelevant, since we only use vv^{T} and $v^{T}v$.) Ordinarily
we would use v_{-} , but let's use v_{+} for variety.
Then $F_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{-2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{-2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = Q_{1}$ and (by multiplying)
 $Q_{1}A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 0 & -3 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$

Example: QR Factorization via Householder Step 2: $x = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$ and so $v = x + sign(x_1) ||x|| e_1$ $= \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} + (-1) \cdot 5 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$

which lets us calculate

$$F_{2} = I - \frac{2vv^{T}}{v^{T}v}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{2}{80} \begin{bmatrix} 64 & 32\\ 32 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 4\\ 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-3}{5} & \frac{-4}{5}\\ \frac{-4}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore
$$Q_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & F_2 \\ 0 & F_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{-3}{5} & \frac{-4}{5} \\ 0 & \frac{-4}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

So $Q_2(Q_1A) = R = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (by multiplying)

Therefore

$$A = Q_1^{-1}Q_2^{-1}R$$

= $Q_1^T Q_2^T R$ By orthogonality
= $Q_1 Q_2 R$ by symmetry
= QR

Orthogonality does not imply symmetry, but those Q's were constructed to be symmetric, $I - \frac{2vv^T}{v^Tv}$.

$$Q = Q_1 Q_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{-2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{-2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{-3}{5} & \frac{-4}{5} \\ 0 & \frac{-4}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{15} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -14 & -2 \\ 10 & 5 & -10 \\ 10 & 2 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$