Lecture 13: Givens Rotations

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Outline

- Givens Rotations
- e Hessenberg via Givens
- Seast Squares: Normal Equations vs QR

Givens Rotations - Rotation Matrices in 2D

- First consider rotating a vector in two dimensions.
- $\bullet\,$ This can be described as multiplication with a 2 \times 2 matrix

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

 That is, a = Rb rotates the vector b counterclockwise by θ as shown in the figure below.



Givens Rotations - Rotation Matrices in 2D

- The columns of $R(\theta)$ are orthonormal: using trigonometric identities we have $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$ and $\cos \theta \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \theta = 0$.
- Hence it is easy to see that $R(\theta)$ is an orthogonal matrix.
- The transpose of the matrix $R(\theta)$ gives a *clockwise* rotation (i.e., the inverse operation).

Givens Rotations - Rotation Matrices in 2D

• As an example, if we want to rotate a vector by $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$ (45 degrees) the rotation matrix is

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

• If
$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 then, $a = Rb = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ as shown in the figure below.



• A **Givens rotation** zeros individual elements "selectively" by an orthogonal matrix operation that performs rotation in the (i,k)-plane only.

Givens rotation matrices have the form

$$G(i, k, \theta)^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & & \\ & c & & -s & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 & & \\ & s & & c & & \\ & & & & & 1 \\ & & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} row(k)$$
$$row(k)$$
$$col(i)$$

where $c = \cos \theta$, $s = \sin \theta$.

- The matrix mostly resembles the identity except for two rows/columns describing a rotation.
- $G(i, k, \theta)$ is always an orthogonal matrix.
- We choose *i*, *k* so that left multiplication by *G*(*i*, *k*, θ) uses the entry on row *i*, to zero out the entry on row *k*, in the column in which we are working.

Explanation of the Following Setup

- Let x, y be vectors in \mathbb{R}^m .
- Both x and y will be columns of the matrix we are about to process:
 - x is the input column, and
 - y is the output column.
- It is implicit that we have already chosen a column on which to work. This provides us with our input, *x*, and shows what *y* we are pursuing.

• Consider $y = G(i, k, \theta)^T x$, then

$$y_j = \begin{cases} cx_i - sx_k & \text{for } j = i \\ sx_i + cx_k & \text{for } j = k \\ x_j & \text{for } j \neq i, k \end{cases}$$

• To force $y_k = 0$ we must let

$$c = \frac{x_i}{\sqrt{x_i^2 + x_k^2}}, \text{ and}$$
$$s = -\frac{x_k}{\sqrt{x_i^2 + x_k^2}}.$$

- Exercise: confirm $y_k = 0$ with the above values of c and s by substituting into the definition of y_j .
- Note that the value of θ itself is not needed when computing $y = G(i, k, \theta)^T x$.
- Also, note that computing the product G(i, k, θ)^TA affects only row(i) and row(k).

Solution to Exercise: Recall that y_k (i.e. y_j , where j = k) is defined by

$$y_k = sx_i + cx_k.$$

So we compute



- To perform a QR factorization we zero entries one at a time working upwards along columns.
- \bullet For example, the process performed on a 4 \times 3 matrix is

Remarks on Matrix Dimensions:

- A is $m \times n$, for some $m \ge n$.
- **2** The G_i s are all $m \times m$.

- We are, step-by-step, turning A into R.
- The output will be a reduced QR factorization: *R* is *m* × *n*; *Q* is *m* × *m*, orthogonal.
- We can recover Q later, from the G's.
- Each rotation is computed based on the current matrix, not based on the original matrix.

Explanation:

- \bigcirc x is a column of our coefficient matrix.
- y is the same column of the coefficient matrix, after we have applied a Givens rotation to zero out the kth entry.
- We construct $G(i, k)^T$, to zero out the k^{th} entry of x. This is why we set $y_k = 0$ to determine what c and s have to be.
- Think of $G(i, k)^T$ as the matrix which carries out the needed rotation in the (i, k)-plane to zero out the k^{th} entry of x.
- Solution As pointed out above, $G(i, k)^T$ affects only rows *i* and *k*.
- Also as pointed out above, to perform a QR factorization we zero entries one at a time, working upwards along columns.

- This should now explain the indices in the diagrams:
 - The first line works upwards through column 1:
 - Perform the Givens rotation on rows 3 and 4 that zeroes out the (4,1) entry of the matrix (G(3,4)^T).
 - Perform the Givens rotation on rows 2 and 3 that zeroes out the (3,1) entry of the matrix (G(2,3)^T).
 - Perform the Givens rotation on rows 1 and 2 that zeroes out the (2,1) entry of the matrix (G(1,2)^T).
 - The second line then does the analogous steps to create the needed zeroes in columns 2 and 3.
 - Note that G(3,4)^T on line 2 is not the same as G(3,4)^T on line 1: they are operating on different columns. The column number is implicit (because we always know which column we are processing). The (i, k) indices refer to the row entries in the current column.

- To obtain Q we let G_{ℓ}^{T} denote the ℓ^{th} Givens rotation.
- We can assemble Q from

$$G_{\ell}^{T}G_{\ell-1}^{T}\cdots G_{2}^{T}G_{1}^{T}A = R,$$

$$\Rightarrow A = G_{1}G_{2}\cdots G_{\ell-1}G_{\ell}R, \quad (G_{i} \text{ orthogonal})$$

$$\Rightarrow Q = G_{1}G_{2}\cdots G_{\ell-1}G_{\ell}, \quad (\text{because } A = QR).$$

- Quick Reminder About Dimensions:
 - **1** A is $m \times n$, for some $m \ge n$.
 - **2** The G_i s are all $m \times m$.
- **Remark:** We do not require *R*'s "diagonal" entries to be positive. So this QR factorization might not agree with the unique QR factorization described in Lecture 10.

Example: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. We will compute a QR

factorization of A, via Givens rotations. Column #1

- There is no need to zero out the (2,1) entry.
- Compute $G(1,3)^T$ to use the (1,1) entry to zero out the (3,1) entry.

$$c = \frac{x_1}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_3^2}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \text{ and }$$

$$s = -\frac{x_3}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_3^2}} \\ = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2}} \\ = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

Hence we get

$$G(1,3)^T = egin{bmatrix} rac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & rac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \ 0 & 1 & 0 \ -rac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & rac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We check that left mulitplying A by $G(1,3)^T$ has the desired effect.

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

This completes Column #1. Column #2

• Compute $G(2,3)^T$ to use the (2,2) entry to zero out the (3,2) entry.

$$c = \frac{x_2}{\sqrt{x_2^2 + x_3^2}}$$
$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{2^2 + \sqrt{2}^2}}$$
$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}}$$
$$= \frac{2\sqrt{6}}{6}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}, \text{ and}$$

$$s = -\frac{x_3}{\sqrt{x_2^2 + x_3^2}} \\ = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2^2 + \sqrt{2}^2}} \\ = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{6}} \\ = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}.$$

Hence we get

$$G(2,3)^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We check that left mulitplying A by $G(2,3)^T$ has the desired effect.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{6} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This completes Column #2.

This gives immediately that $R = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{6} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

We compute Q as the product of the G's in the reverse order:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

One can verify that

$$QR = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{6}}{6} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{6} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A.$$

- In terms of complexity, flops(Givens QR) $\approx 3mn^2 n^3 = 1.5 \times \text{flops}(\text{Householder QR}).$
- So why bother with this the Givens QR if it is slower then Householder QR?
- The reason is because it is more **flexible** than Householder QR.
- Givens QR factorization can be useful when only a few elements need to be eliminated.

Hessenberg via Givens

- For example, consider an **upper Hessenberg** matrix, which has nonzeros only above the first subdiagonal.
- Performing QR factorization on an upper Hessenberg matrix involves the following



Hessenberg via Givens

- That is, we only need to zero out the first subdiagonal entries at a cost of $\approx 3n^2$ flops.
- This is less than if one used Householder QR factorization, which operates columnwise on all the entries below the main diagonal.

- We have now seen three ways to compute the QR factorization (Gram-Schmidt, Householder, Givens).
- Recall that, as explained in Lecture 12, the shape of the output of the Householder QR factorization is different from the shapes of the other outputs.
- However, the steps to solving the least square problem are the same after the A = QR is computed.
- Therefore, the two main approaches to solving least squares problems are using:
 - the normal equations or
 - the QR factorization.
- QR factorization can also be used to (exactly) solve the system Ax = b, when A is square. In this case, we solve $Rx = Q^T b$.

- The drawback of using normal equations $(A^T A x = A^T b)$ when solving for the least squares problems is that is it poorly conditioned!
- Recall that the accuracy of a (square) linear system solution is dictated by the condition number κ(A).
- However, with the normal equations the accuracy depends on $\kappa(A^T A)$ instead of $\kappa(A)$, which is often much worse.
- For example,

$$egin{aligned} & A = egin{bmatrix} 1+10^{-8} & -1\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \kappa(A) = 4 imes 10^8, \ & A^{ au} A = egin{bmatrix} 2+10^{-8}+10^{-16} & -2-10^{-8}\ -2-10^{-8} & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \kappa(A) pprox 16 imes 10^{16}. \end{aligned}$$

- The QR factorization approach to least squares involves solving the system $Rx = Q^T b$.
- Therefore, the solution's accuracy depends on $\kappa(R)$ because

$$\kappa_2(A) = \kappa_2(QR) = \kappa_2(R),$$

since $||Q||_2 = 1$: Q has orthonormal columns.

• **Remark:** For this to make sense, *R* must be square.

- The main point is, we prefer the QR approach, despite its extra cost, because of the potential to encounter ill-conditioned problems (for which the normal equations roughly square the condition number).
- However, the normal equations approach can be used if it is known that A is well-conditioned.