

Projection of vector \vec{v} on direction of vector \vec{u}

If \vec{u} and \vec{v} are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and $\vec{u} \neq \vec{0}$,
there exist unique vectors \vec{v}_\perp and \vec{v}_\parallel satisfying following:

- $\vec{v} = \vec{v}_\perp + \vec{v}_\parallel$
- $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_\perp = 0$
- $\vec{v}_\parallel = s \vec{u}$, where s is a scalar

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} &= \\ \vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v}_\perp + \vec{v}_\parallel) &= \\ \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_\perp + \vec{u} \cdot (s \vec{u}) &= \\ 0 + s (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}) &= \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{so } s = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}}$$

$$\bullet \vec{v}_\parallel = \left(\frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} \right) \vec{u}$$

$$\bullet \vec{v}_\perp = \vec{v} - \left(\frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} \right) \vec{u}$$



Projection of vector \vec{v} on columns of $U = [\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_r]$

This is the same construction as projection of \vec{v} on one vector \vec{u}
The only difference is that we replace one direction \vec{u} by r directions $\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_r$

Suppose

- $U = [\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_r]$
- $\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_r \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and are linearly independent
- $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

There exist unique vectors \vec{v}_\perp and \vec{v}_\parallel such that:

- $\vec{v} = \vec{v}_\perp + \vec{v}_\parallel$
- $U^T \vec{v}_\perp = \vec{0}$

(in other words, \vec{v}_\perp is orthogonal to every column of U or every row of U^T)

- $\vec{v}_\parallel = U \vec{c}$, where $\vec{c} \in \mathbb{R}^r$

(\vec{c} is similar to scalar s used on previous page)

Then

$$U^T \vec{v} = U^T (\vec{v}_\perp + \vec{v}_\parallel) = U^T \vec{v}_\perp + U^T (U \vec{c}) = \vec{0} + (U^T U) \vec{c}$$

So \vec{c} satisfies

$$(U^T U) \vec{c} = U^T \vec{v}$$

Therefore

$$\vec{c} = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \vec{v}$$

And projection of \vec{v} on columns of U is

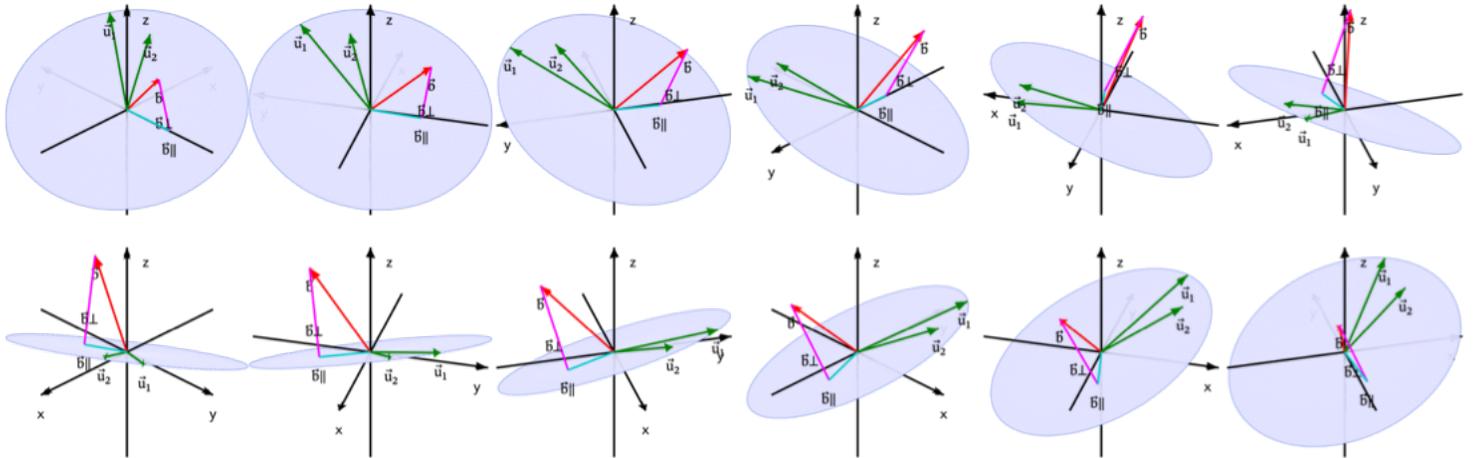
$$\vec{v}_\parallel = U \vec{c} = U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \vec{v}$$

So the projection matrix onto $\text{span}(\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_r)$ is

$$P = U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T$$

The same orthogonality principle appeared earlier in the 'Four Subspaces' chapter
where we were solving an inconsistent system $A \vec{x} = \vec{b}$
where \vec{b} was outside the column space(A)

and used the same fundamental conditions and derivation sequence:



- $\vec{v} = \vec{v}_\perp + \vec{v}_\parallel$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

- $\vec{b} = \vec{b}_\perp + \vec{b}_\parallel$

- $U^T \vec{v}_\perp = \vec{0}$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

- $A^T \vec{b}_\perp = \vec{0}$

- $A^T A \vec{x} = A^T (\vec{b} - \vec{b}_\perp) = A^T \vec{b} - A^T \vec{b}_\perp = A^T \vec{b}$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

- $U^T U \vec{c} = U^T \vec{v}$

- $\vec{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{b}$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

- $\vec{c} = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \vec{v}$

While the previous page stopped at solving the normal equation

$$\vec{c} = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T \vec{v}$$

this one takes one more step to derive corresponding projection matrix

$$P = U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T$$



Idempotency of projection matrix $P = U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T$

P is idempotent which means
it acts once even when applied repeatedly:

$$P^2 = U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T =$$

$$U (U^T U)^{-1} \left((U^T U) (U^T U)^{-1} \right) U^T =$$

$$U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T$$



Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

On the previous page, we saw an example of
projection of vector \vec{v} onto the direction of vector \vec{u} and derived the following:

$$\vec{v}_{\perp} = \vec{v} - \left(\frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} \right) \vec{u}$$

Applying this construction repeatedly allows us to make vectors orthogonal one
by one

This time, instead of \vec{v} and \vec{u} , we have a set of vectors $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$

We will build new vectors $\vec{q}_1, \dots, \vec{q}_r$ such that:

- each \vec{q}_i is orthogonal to all previous \vec{q}_j
- each \vec{q}_i is a linear combination of $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_i$

We build the next orthogonal vector by subtracting projections onto all previously built orthogonal vectors

For $i = 1 \dots n$

Start with $\vec{q}_i = \vec{a}_i$

Then subtract the projection of \vec{a}_i onto \vec{q}_1 , then onto \vec{q}_2 , and so on, up to \vec{q}_{i-1} (note that we are subtracting carefully chosen multiples of previous columns)

In one line:

$$\vec{q}_i = \vec{a}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \left(\left(\frac{\vec{q}_j \cdot \vec{a}_i}{\vec{q}_j \cdot \vec{q}_j} \right) \vec{q}_j \right)$$

If \vec{q}_i becomes $\vec{0}$, then \vec{a}_i did not add a new direction it was already a combination of previous vectors, we skip it

Finally, we normalize each non-zero \vec{q}_i to get unit vectors:

$$\vec{e}_i = \frac{\vec{q}_i}{\|\vec{q}_i\|}$$

- $\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_r$ are orthonormal and span the same space as $\vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n$
 - \vec{e}_1 points in the same direction as \vec{a}_1
- $r =$ number of linearly independent columns in the original set

same as $\text{rank}(A = [\vec{a}_1 \dots \vec{a}_n])$



Structure of matrix Q

On the previous page, we demonstrated an algorithm that

- takes vectors $\vec{a}_1 \dots \vec{a}_n$
- generates a set of vectors \vec{e} such that
 - \vec{e}_i is orthogonal to \vec{e}_j
 \Leftrightarrow
 $\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j = 0$ for any $i \neq j$
 - each \vec{e}_i is a unit vector
 \Leftrightarrow
 $\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_i = 1$
- number of generated vectors $r = \text{rank} (A = [\vec{a}_1 \dots \vec{a}_n])$

We assemble an $m \times r$ matrix $Q = [\vec{e}_1 \dots \vec{e}_r]$

Because the columns \vec{e}_i are orthonormal, their dot products form the identity matrix

The (i,j) entry of $Q^T Q$ equals
 $\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j$

But

$$\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$

$$\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_i = 1$$

Therefore

- $Q^T Q = I_r$
- $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ if $r = m$



Properties of Q defined as $Q^T Q = I$

① Multiplication by Q preserves length:
 $|\vec{v}| = |Q \vec{v}|$ for any \vec{v} of appropriate size

- $|\vec{v}|^2 = \vec{v}^T \vec{v}$
- $|Q \vec{v}|^2 = (Q \vec{v})^T (Q \vec{v}) = \vec{v}^T Q^T Q \vec{v} = \vec{v}^T \vec{v}$

② Multiplication by Q preserves angles

Suppose \vec{u} and \vec{v} are unit vectors of appropriate size
then angle between them is $\arccos(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v}$$

Will compare it to $(Q \vec{u})^T (Q \vec{v}) = \vec{u}^T Q^T Q \vec{v} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v}$

Since multiplication by Q preserves lengths,
angle preservation extends to any non-unit vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v}

Geometric view:

- If Q is square,

it preserves distances and angles and therefore acts as reflection or rotation

- If Q is tall with orthonormal columns ($Q^T Q = I$), then multiplication by Q is an isometric embedding: it preserves lengths and angles of vectors in its domain

⑤ Special role of square orthogonal matrices

Recall that orthogonality is the strongest geometric form of linear independence as orthogonal directions share zero overlap

- If Q is square and satisfies $Q^T Q = I$, $Q^{-1} = Q^T$,
- Q is invertible in the most stable geometric way as it preserves lengths and angles
 - Q is invertible in the most stable numerical way as inversion requires only a transpose and does not amplify numerical error



Determinant of square Q

Claim: if $Q^T Q = I$, then $|Q| = \{-1, 1\}$

Proof:

- $|AB| = |A| |B|$
- $Q Q^T = I$
- $|I| = 1$

Taking determinant of $Q Q^T = I$:

$$|Q Q^T| = |I| = 1$$

Determinant of a product equals product of determinants:

$$|Q| |Q^T| = 1$$

$$|Q^T| = |Q|$$

↓

$$|Q|^2 = 1$$

↓

$$|Q| = \{-1, 1\}$$

- This aligns with Q preserving length and angles
 - The converse is not true:
preserving volume alone does not imply preserving lengths or angles



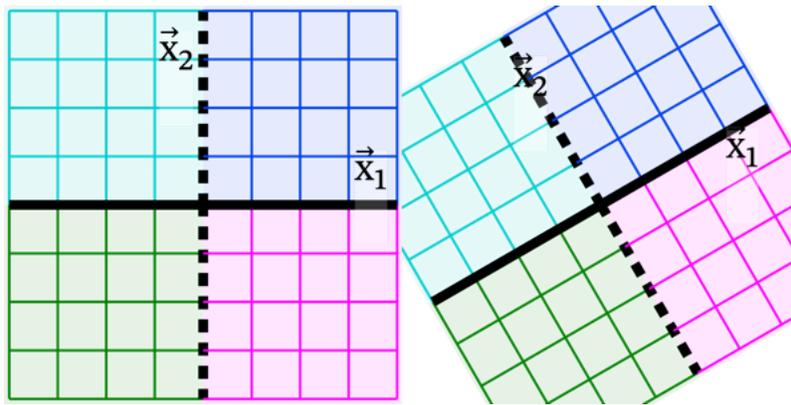
Combined rotation and reflection

In the chapter on linear transformations,
we showed examples of rotation & reflection matrices

Here, will show rotation matrix $Q(\text{rot}) =$

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline \frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{array} \right]$$

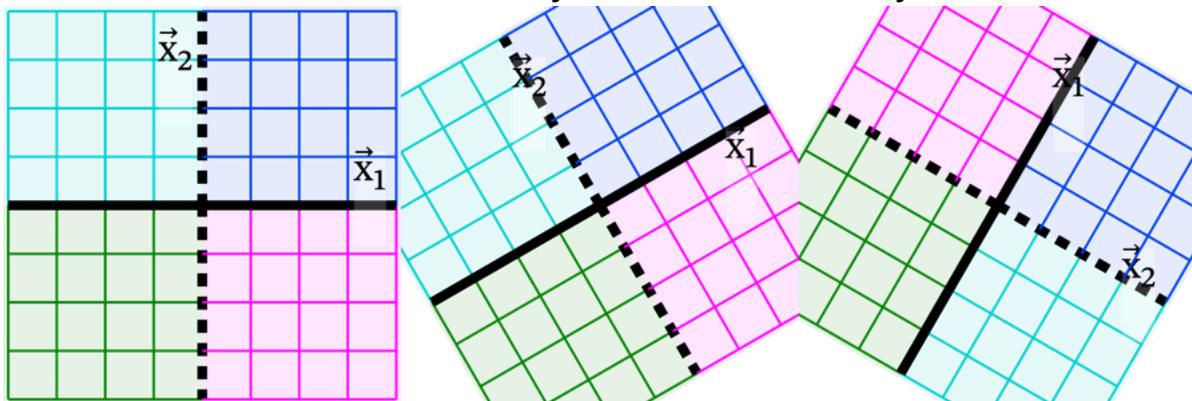
Transformation by $Q(\text{rot})$:



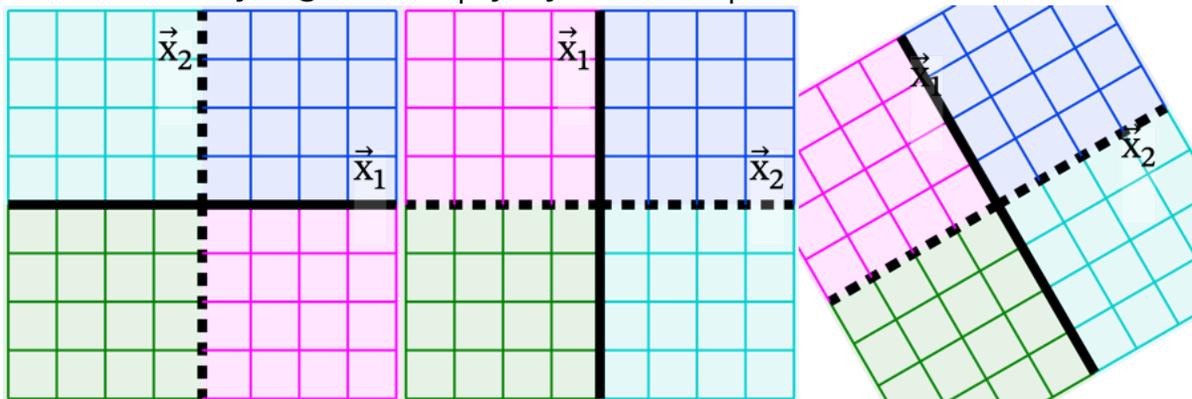
Will left-multiply $Q(\text{rot})$ by reflection matrix $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $|P| = -1$

- P , by itself, reflects across line $(1, 1)$
- left-multiplication by P permutes rows of $Q(\text{rot})$

Transformation by $Q(\text{rot})$, followed by P



or, alternatively, right-multiply by P , which permutes columns of $Q(\text{rot})$



The two multiplication sequences produce different rotation-reflection matrices
with $\text{Det} = -1$



Transformation by a 'tall' Q ($m > n$)

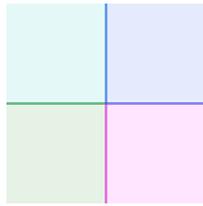
Previously, we explored how a random 3×2 matrix A
transformed \mathbb{R}^2 into \mathbb{R}^3 , distorting lengths and angles

Now will consider an example of a 3×2 matrix $Q = [\vec{q}_1 \mid \vec{q}_2]$ satisfying

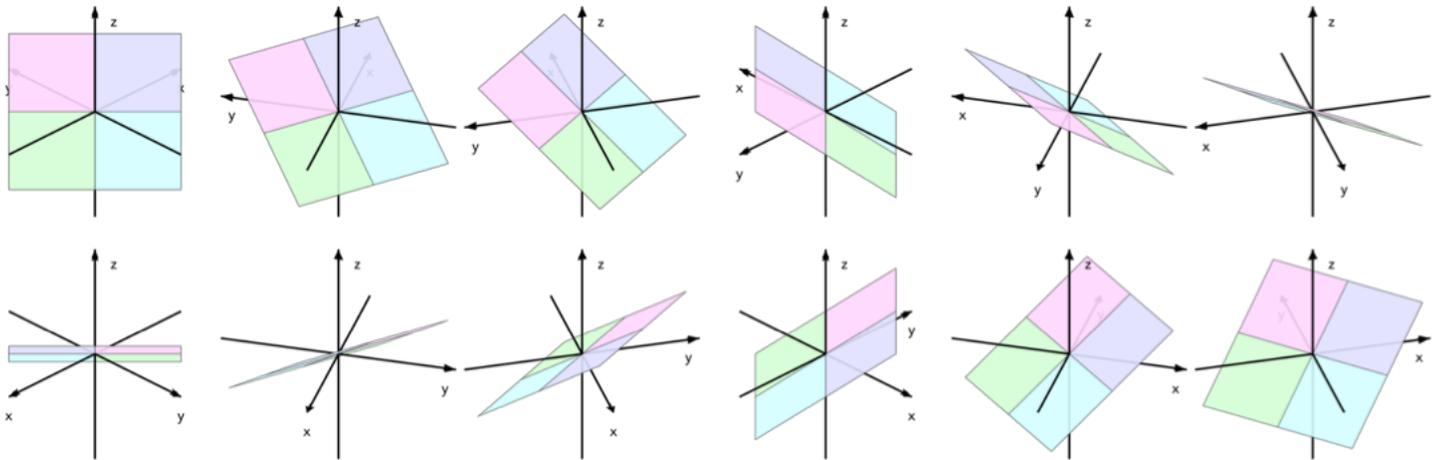
- $|\vec{q}_1| = |\vec{q}_2| = 1$
- $\vec{q}_1 \cdot \vec{q}_2 = 0$
- $Q^T Q = I_2$
- $|Q \vec{x}| = |\vec{x}|$
- $(Q \vec{u})^T (Q \vec{v}) = \vec{u}^T \vec{v}$

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

Q acts on a unit square



and embeds it in \mathbb{R}^3 without distortion (isometric embedding)



- Q embeds \mathbb{R}^2 isometrically into a plane spanned by \vec{q}_1 & \vec{q}_2 inside \mathbb{R}^3
 - left-multiplication by Q^T reverses this embedding:
 - $Q^T(Q \vec{x}) = \vec{x}$
 - $(QQ^T \neq I_3)$
- QQ^T is the orthogonal projection onto the embedded plane (details to follow)



Matrix $Q^T Q$

Assume $Q = [\vec{e}_1 \dots \vec{e}_r]$ has orthonormal columns, so
 $Q^T Q = I_r$

Earlier we derived the formula for projection of a vector on a matrix

$$P = U (U^T U)^{-1} U^T$$

substitute $U = Q$:

$$P(\text{orthogonal}) = Q (Q^T Q)^{-1} Q^T = Q I_r Q^T = Q Q^T$$

- $P(\text{orthogonal}) = Q Q^T$ is the orthogonal projection onto $\text{span}(\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_r)$
Matrix P is $n \times n$ with rank r

- $P(\text{orthogonal})$ is symmetric:

$$P(\text{orthogonal})^T = (Q Q^T)^T = Q Q^T = P$$

- $P(\text{orthogonal})$ is idempotent, as is any projection matrix P :

acts once even when applied repeatedly:

$$P^2 = (Q Q^T)(Q Q^T) = Q (Q^T Q) Q^T = Q Q^T = P$$



Structure of matrix R

On the previous page, we demonstrated how to

- Take matrix $A = [\vec{a}_1 \dots \vec{a}_n]$
- Obtain matrix $Q = [\vec{e}_1 \dots \vec{e}_r]$ where
 - $\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$
 - $\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_i = 1$
 - $\vec{e}_j \cdot \vec{a}_i = 0$ for all $j > i$ (eq 1)
- r = number of linearly independent columns in A
 - from above, Q satisfies $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ condition

Next, will derive matrix $R = Q^{-1} A = Q^T A$

Note that this is equivalent to $A = QR$ (the decomposition we are constructing)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \\ \vec{e}_2^T \\ \vec{e}_3^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

From equation 1, zeros appear everywhere below diagonal:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ 0 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ 0 & 0 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A = QR$ with orthonormal Q and upper-triangular R with following dimensions:

- $A: m \times n$
- $Q: m \times r$
- $R: r \times n$

Diagonal entries of R

From the orthogonal decomposition

- $\vec{a}_i = (\text{old directions}) + \vec{u}_i$
- $\vec{u}_i \perp (\text{old directions})$

only \vec{u}_i contributes to the dot product with itself,
so $\vec{a}_i \cdot \vec{u}_i = \vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_i > 0$

Since \vec{e}_i is the normalized version of \vec{u}_i ,

$$r_{ii} = \vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{a}_i = \|\vec{u}_i\| \geq 0$$

- $r_{ii} > 0$ if \vec{a}_i adds a new independent direction

- $r_{ii} = 0$ if \vec{a}_i lies in the span of previous columns

Looking ahead

In the QR iteration for eigenvalues,
each step factors $A = QR$ and forms the next matrix as RQ
If diagonal entries of R were allowed to be negative,
columns of Q could flip sign from step to step,
causing artificial oscillations in the iteration

Requiring $r_{ii} \geq 0$ fixes the orientation of each orthogonal direction
and makes the QR iteration behave consistently



Geometric view of QR factorization
(full column rank)

Consider matrix $A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$

$$\vec{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad |\vec{a}_1| = \sqrt{2}$$



$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Projection of \vec{a}_2 on \vec{e}_1 : $\text{proj} = (\vec{a}_2 \cdot \vec{e}_1) \vec{e}_1 = (\sqrt{2}) \vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\vec{u}_2 = \vec{a}_2 - \text{proj} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\vec{u}_2| = \sqrt{2}$$

(\vec{u}_2 is the component of \vec{a}_2 orthogonal to \vec{e}_1)

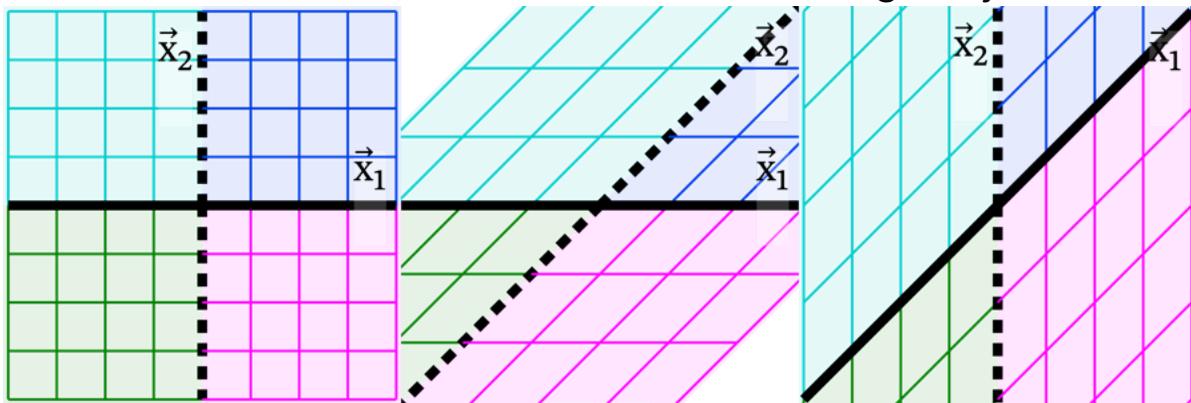
$$\vec{e}_2 = \frac{\vec{u}_2}{|\vec{u}_2|} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q = [\vec{e}_1 | \vec{e}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R = Q^T A = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, as Q and R are derived, we can look at images and see how this factorization decouples deformation from rotation:

1. original grid
2. hierarchical distortion of the grid by R
(meaning of hierarchical will be discussed on the next page)
3. rotation or reflection of the deformed grid by Q



Alternative geometric view
(full column rank)

Recall that earlier we viewed a linear transformation in two ways:

- transforming the geometry while keeping coordinates fixed
- keeping the geometry fixed while changing the coordinate system

QR factorization admits the same dual interpretation

① Transformation interpretation

was shown on the previous page as a sequence:

- deformation by R
- rigid motion (rotation or reflection) by Q

② Basis replacement

QR factorization extracts orthonormal vectors from the columns of A

These vectors form the columns of Q

Suppose the columns of A form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 (or \mathbb{R}^n):

- Q will contain the new orthonormal basis for the same space
- R will record the original columns of A expressed in this new basis

This is equivalent to

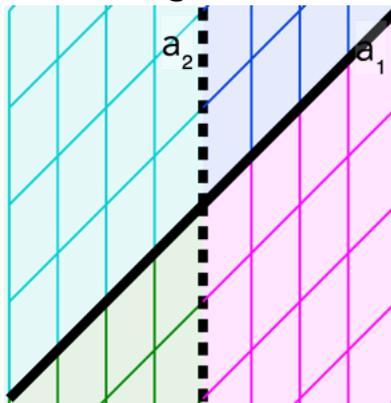
$$Q^T A = R$$

Consider the same matrix shown on the previous page:

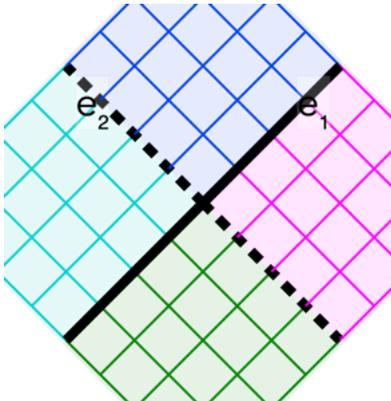
$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$Q = [\vec{e}_1 \mid \vec{e}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

\mathbb{R}^2 with columns of A serving as coordinate system or basis



\mathbb{R}^2 with orthonormal columns of Q serving as basis



(Gram-Schmidt algorithm works so that first orthonormal direction comes from the first column of A , therefore e_1 has the same direction as a_1)

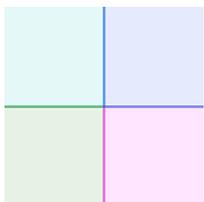


QRF of a 3×2 matrix

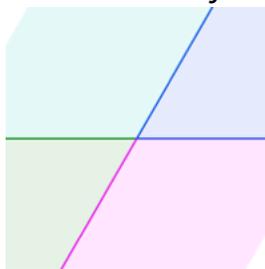
QR factorization of a rank-2 3×2 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0.5 \times \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -0.5 \times \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ 0 & \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

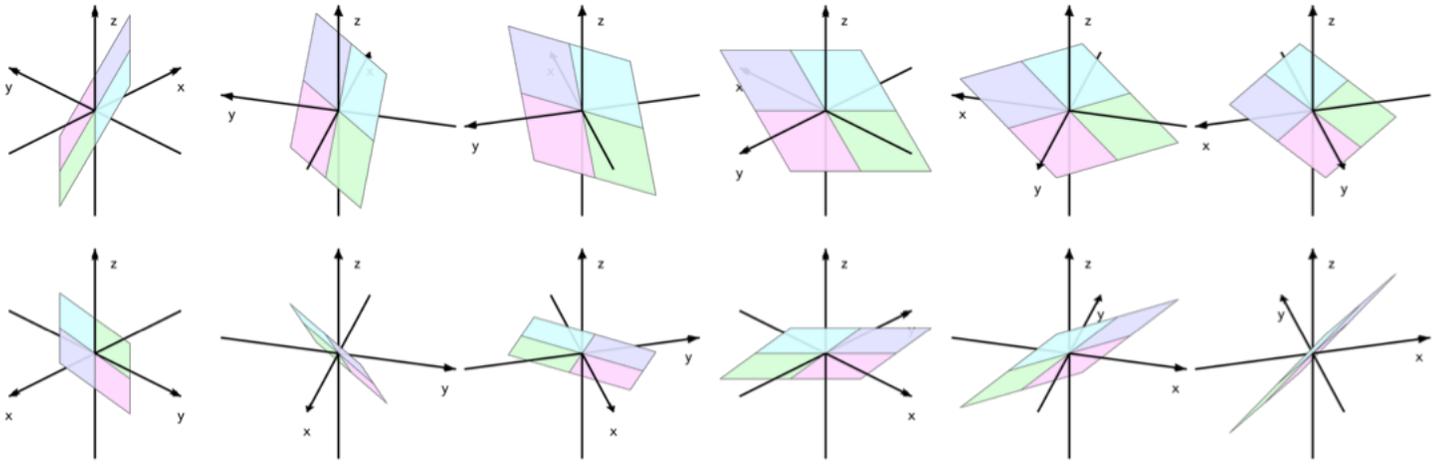
We visualize its domain \mathbb{R}^2 as a 4-color unit square



- ① The 2×2 upper-triangular matrix R deforms the square (shear followed by scaling)



- ② The 3×2 orthonormal matrix Q isometrically embeds the deformed grid into \mathbb{R}^3 , so the image shows composite transformation by $A = QR$



'Hierarchy' of R

Recall our derivation of R as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \\ \vec{e}_2^T \\ \vec{e}_3^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

From equation 1, zeros appear everywhere below diagonal:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_1 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_1^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ 0 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_2 & \vec{e}_2^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \\ 0 & 0 & \vec{e}_3^T \cdot \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Upper triangular R encodes a hierarchy of dependencies

Each new output direction can only use the directions that came before it

For standard basis vectors $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3$ we have

$$R \vec{e}_1 \in \text{span}(\vec{e}_1)$$

$$R \vec{e}_2 \in \text{span}(\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2)$$

$$R \vec{e}_3 \in \text{span}(\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3)$$

Meaning of hierarchy as forward transformation:

- vector \vec{e}_1 scales only
- vector \vec{e}_2 shears towards \vec{e}_1 and scales
- vector \vec{e}_3 shears towards \vec{e}_1 & \vec{e}_2 and scales

Same hierarchy when solving $R \vec{x} = \vec{b}$ as backward transformation:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ \hline 0 & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ \hline 0 & 0 & r_{33} \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x}_1 \\ \vec{x}_2 \\ \vec{x}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b}_1 \\ \vec{b}_2 \\ \vec{b}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note the order of dependence:

- forward for space transformation
 - backward for solving



Uniqueness of QR factorization

Each orthogonal direction lies on a line with two possible orientations, so each column of Q could be flipped while preserving orthogonality

However, the Gram–Schmidt construction produces
non-negative diagonal entries of R

This sign convention removes the \pm ambiguity

Thin QR constructs an orthonormal basis
for the column space of A
and enforces an upper triangular R

Therefore, under these requirements,
the thin QR factorization is unique
even when A is rank-deficient

