

6.4 The Gram–Schmidt Process

The Gram–Schmidt process is a simple algorithm for producing an orthogonal or orthonormal basis for any nonzero subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . The first two examples of the process are aimed at hand calculation.

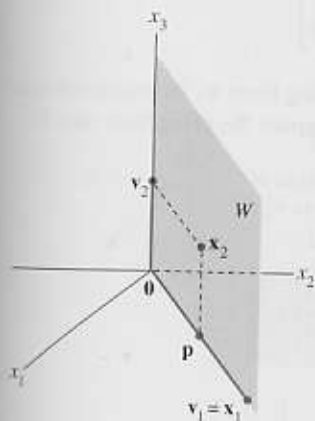


FIGURE 1 Construction of an orthogonal basis $\{v_1, v_2\}$.

EXAMPLE 1 Let $W = \text{Span}\{x_1, x_2\}$, where $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Construct an orthogonal basis $\{v_1, v_2\}$ for W .

Solution The subspace W is shown in Fig. 1, along with x_1, x_2 , and the projection \mathbf{p} of x_2 onto x_1 . The component of x_2 orthogonal to x_1 is $x_2 - \mathbf{p}$, which is in W because it is formed from x_2 and a multiple of x_1 . Let $v_1 = x_1$ and

$$\begin{aligned} v_2 &= x_2 - \mathbf{p} = x_2 - \frac{x_2 \cdot x_1}{x_1 \cdot x_1} x_1 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{15}{45} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Then $\{v_1, v_2\}$ is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors in W . Since $\dim W = 2$, $\{v_1, v_2\}$ is a basis for W . ▮

The next example fully illustrates the Gram–Schmidt process. Study it carefully.

EXAMPLE 2 Let $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ is clearly linearly independent and thus is a basis for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^4 . Construct an orthogonal basis for W .

Solution Step 1. Let $v_1 = x_1$ and $W_1 = \text{Span}\{x_1\} = \text{Span}\{v_1\}$.

Step 2. Let v_2 be the vector produced by subtracting from x_2 its projection onto the subspace W_1 . That is, let

$$\begin{aligned} v_2 &= x_2 - \text{proj}_{W_1} x_2 \\ &= x_2 - \frac{x_2 \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1 \quad \text{Since } v_1 = x_1 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{3}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

As in Example 1, v_2 is the component of x_2 orthogonal to x_1 and $\{v_1, v_2\}$ is an orthogonal basis for the subspace W_2 spanned by x_1 and x_2 .

Step 2' (optional). If appropriate, scale \mathbf{v}_2 to simplify later computations. Since \mathbf{v}_2 has fractional entries, it is convenient to scale it by a factor of 4 and replace $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ by the orthogonal basis

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}'_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 3. Let \mathbf{v}_3 be the vector produced by subtracting from \mathbf{x}_3 its projection onto the subspace W_2 . Use the orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}'_2\}$ to compute the projection onto W_2 :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Projection of} & & \text{Projection of} \\ \mathbf{x}_3 \text{ onto } \mathbf{v}_1 & & \mathbf{x}_3 \text{ onto } \mathbf{v}'_2 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \text{proj}_{W_2} \mathbf{x}_3 = & \frac{\mathbf{x}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1} \mathbf{v}_1 & + \frac{\mathbf{x}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}'_2}{\mathbf{v}'_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}'_2} \mathbf{v}'_2 \\ & = \frac{2}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & + \frac{2}{12} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 2/3 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

Then \mathbf{v}_3 is the component of \mathbf{x}_3 orthogonal to W_2 , namely,

$$\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{x}_3 - \text{proj}_{W_2} \mathbf{x}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 2/3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

See Fig. 2 for a diagram of this construction. Observe that \mathbf{v}_3 is in W , because \mathbf{x}_3 and $\text{proj}_{W_2} \mathbf{x}_3$ are both in W . Thus $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}'_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors (and hence a linearly independent set) in W . Note that W is three-dimensional since it was defined by a basis of three vectors. Hence, by the Basis Theorem in Section 4.5, $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}'_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W .

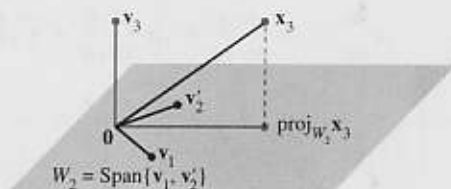


FIGURE 2 The construction of \mathbf{v}_3 from \mathbf{x}_3 and W_2 .

The proof of the next theorem shows that this strategy really works. Scaling of vectors is not mentioned because that is used only to simplify hand calculations.

THEOREM 11 THE GRAM–SCHMIDT PROCESS

Given a basis $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p\}$ for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_1 &= \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{v}_2 &= \mathbf{x}_2 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{v}_3 &= \mathbf{x}_3 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1} \mathbf{v}_1 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2}{\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2} \mathbf{v}_2 \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_p &= \mathbf{x}_p - \frac{\mathbf{x}_p \cdot \mathbf{v}_1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1} \mathbf{v}_1 - \frac{\mathbf{x}_p \cdot \mathbf{v}_2}{\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2} \mathbf{v}_2 - \dots - \frac{\mathbf{x}_p \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}}{\mathbf{v}_{p-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}} \mathbf{v}_{p-1} \end{aligned}$$

Then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W . In addition

$$\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\} = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq k \leq p \quad (1)$$

Proof For $1 \leq k \leq p$, let $W_k = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$. Set $\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1$, so that $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1\} = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1\}$. Suppose that for some $k < p$ we have constructed $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ so that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W_k . Define

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \text{proj}_{W_k} \mathbf{x}_{k+1} \quad (2)$$

Note that $\text{proj}_{W_k} \mathbf{x}_{k+1}$ is in W_k and hence also in W_{k+1} . Since \mathbf{x}_{k+1} is in W_{k+1} , so is \mathbf{v}_{k+1} (because W_{k+1} is a subspace and is closed under subtraction). Furthermore, $\mathbf{v}_{k+1} \neq \mathbf{0}$ because \mathbf{x}_{k+1} is not in $W_k = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$. Hence $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{k+1}\}$ is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors in the $(k+1)$ -dimensional space W_{k+1} . By the Basis Theorem in Section 4.5, this set is an orthogonal basis for W_{k+1} . Hence $W_{k+1} = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{k+1}\}$. When $k+1 = p$, the process stops. ■

Theorem 11 shows that any nonzero subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n has an orthogonal basis, because an ordinary basis $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p\}$ is always available (by Theorem 11 in Section 4.5), and the Gram–Schmidt process depends only on the existence of orthogonal projections onto subspaces of W that already have orthogonal bases.

Orthonormal Bases

An orthonormal basis is constructed easily from an orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$: Simply normalize (i.e., “scale”) all the \mathbf{v}_k . When working problems by hand, this is easier than normalizing each \mathbf{v}_k as soon as it is found (because it avoids unnecessary writing of square roots).

EXAMPLE 3 In Example 1, we constructed the orthogonal basis

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

An orthonormal basis is

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|} \mathbf{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{45}} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|} \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



QR Factorization of Matrices

If an $m \times n$ matrix A has linearly independent columns $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$, then applying the Gram–Schmidt process (with normalizations) to $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ amounts to *factoring* A as described in the next theorem. This factorization is widely used in computer algorithms for various computations, such as solving equations (discussed in Section 6.5) and finding eigenvalues (mentioned in the exercises for Section 5.2).

THEOREM 12 THE QR FACTORIZATION

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with linearly independent columns, then A can be factored as $A = QR$, where Q is an $m \times n$ matrix whose columns form an orthonormal basis for $\text{Col } A$ and R is an $n \times n$ upper triangular invertible matrix with positive entries on its diagonal.

PROOF The columns of A form a basis $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ for $\text{Col } A$. Construct an orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ for $W = \text{Col } A$ with property (1) in Theorem 11. This basis may be constructed by the Gram–Schmidt process or some other means. Let

$$Q = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{u}_n]$$

For $k = 1, \dots, n$, \mathbf{x}_k is in $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$. So there are constants, r_{1k}, \dots, r_{kk} , such that

$$\mathbf{x}_k = r_{1k}\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + r_{kk}\mathbf{u}_k + 0 \cdot \mathbf{u}_{k+1} + \cdots + 0 \cdot \mathbf{u}_n$$

We may assume that $r_{kk} \geq 0$. (If $r_{kk} < 0$, multiply both r_{kk} and \mathbf{u}_k by -1 .) This shows that \mathbf{x}_k is a linear combination of the columns of Q using as weights the entries in the

vector

$$\mathbf{r}_k = \begin{bmatrix} r_{1k} \\ \vdots \\ r_{kk} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

That is, $\mathbf{x}_k = Q\mathbf{r}_k$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$. Let $R = [\mathbf{r}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{r}_n]$. Then

$$A = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{x}_n] = [Q\mathbf{r}_1 \ \cdots \ Q\mathbf{r}_n] = QR$$

The fact that R is invertible follows easily from the fact that the columns of A are linearly independent (Exercise 19). Since R is clearly upper triangular, its nonnegative diagonal entries must be positive. \blacksquare

EXAMPLE 4 Find a QR factorization of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution The columns of A are the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3$ in Example 2. An orthogonal basis for $\text{Col } A = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3\}$ was found in that example:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scale \mathbf{v}_3 by letting $\mathbf{v}_3' = 3\mathbf{v}_3$. Then normalize the three vectors to obtain $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3$, and use these vectors as the columns of Q :

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -3/\sqrt{12} & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1/\sqrt{12} & -2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/2 & 1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/2 & 1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

By construction, the first k columns of Q are an orthonormal basis of $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$. From the proof of Theorem 12, $A = QR$ for some R . To find R , observe that $Q^T Q = I$, because the columns of Q are orthonormal. Hence

$$Q^T A = Q^T (QR) = IR = R$$

and

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ -3/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{12} \\ 0 & -2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3/\sqrt{12} & 2/\sqrt{12} \\ 0 & 0 & 2/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix}$$

NUMERICAL NOTES

1. When the Gram–Schmidt process is run on a computer, roundoff error can build up as the vectors \mathbf{u}_k are calculated, one by one. For j and k large but unequal, the scalar products $\mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{u}_k$ may not be sufficiently close to zero. This loss of orthogonality can be reduced substantially by rearranging the order of the calculations.¹ However, the QR factorization is usually preferred to this modified Gram–Schmidt method because it yields a more accurate orthonormal basis, even though the factorization requires about twice as much arithmetic.
2. To produce a QR factorization of a matrix A , a computer program usually left-multiplies A by a sequence of orthogonal matrices until A is transformed into an upper triangular matrix. This construction is analogous to the left-multiplication by elementary matrices that produces an LU factorization of A .

PRACTICE PROBLEM

Let $W = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2\}$, where $\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \\ -2/3 \end{bmatrix}$. Construct an orthonormal basis for W .

6.4 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–6, the given set is a basis for a subspace W . Use the Gram–Schmidt process to produce an orthogonal basis for W .

1. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 5 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$

2. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

5. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ -7 \\ -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

4. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 14 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$

6. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 9 \\ -9 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

¹See *Fundamentals of Matrix Computations*, by David S. Watkins (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1991), pp. 167–180.

7. Find an orthonormal basis of the subspace spanned by the vectors in Exercise 3.

8. Find an orthonormal basis of the subspace spanned by the vectors in Exercise 4.

Find an orthogonal basis for the column space of each matrix in Exercises 9–12.

$$9. \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 5 & -2 \\ 3 & -7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$10. \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 6 & 6 \\ 3 & -8 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 & 6 \\ 1 & -4 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$11. \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ -1 & 1 & -4 \\ -1 & 4 & -3 \\ 1 & -4 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$12. \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 \\ -1 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 5 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

In Exercises 13 and 14, the columns of Q were obtained by applying the Gram-Schmidt process to the columns of A . Find an upper triangular matrix R such that $A = QR$. Check your work.

$$13. A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 9 \\ 1 & 7 \\ -3 & -5 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, Q = \begin{bmatrix} 5/6 & -1/6 \\ 1/6 & 5/6 \\ -3/6 & 1/6 \\ 1/6 & 3/6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$14. A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 3 \\ 5 & 7 \\ 2 & -2 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, Q = \begin{bmatrix} -2/7 & 5/7 \\ 5/7 & 2/7 \\ 2/7 & -4/7 \\ 4/7 & 2/7 \end{bmatrix}$$

15. Find a QR factorization of the matrix in Exercise 11.

16. Find a QR factorization of the matrix in Exercise 12.

In Exercises 17 and 18, all vectors and subspaces are in \mathbb{R}^n . Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

17. a. If $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W , then multiplying v_3 by a scalar c gives a new orthogonal basis $\{v_1, v_2, cv_3\}$.

b. The Gram-Schmidt process produces from a linearly independent set $\{x_1, \dots, x_p\}$ an orthogonal set $\{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ with the property that for each k , the vectors v_1, \dots, v_k span the same subspace as that spanned by x_1, \dots, x_k .

c. If $A = QR$, where Q has orthonormal columns, then $R = Q^T A$.

18. a. If $W = \text{Span}\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ with $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ linearly independent, and if $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ is an orthogonal set in W , then $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ is a basis for W .

b. If x is not in a subspace W , then $x - \text{proj}_W x$ is not zero.

c. In a QR factorization, say $A = QR$, the columns of Q form an orthonormal basis for the column space of A .

19. Suppose that $A = QR$, where Q is $m \times n$ and R is $n \times n$. Show that if the columns of A are linearly independent, then R must be invertible. [Hint: Study the equation $Rx = 0$ and use the fact that $A = QR$.]

20. Suppose that $A = QR$, where R is an invertible matrix. Show that A and Q have the same column space. [Hint: Given y in $\text{Col } A$, show that $y = Qx$ for some x . Also, given y in $\text{Col } Q$, show that $y = Ax$ for some x .]

21. Given $A = QR$ as in Theorem 12, describe how to find an orthogonal $m \times m$ (square) matrix Q_1 and an invertible $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix R such that

$$A = Q_1 \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The MATLAB `qr` command supplies this “full” QR factorization when $\text{rank } A = n$.

22. [M] Use the Gram-Schmidt process as in Example 2 to produce an orthogonal basis for the column space of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -10 & 13 & 7 & -11 \\ 2 & 1 & -5 & 3 \\ -6 & 3 & 13 & -3 \\ 16 & -16 & -2 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & -5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

23. [M] Use the method of Example 4 to produce a QR factorization of the matrix in Exercise 22.

24. [M] For a matrix program, the Gram-Schmidt process works better with orthonormal vectors. Starting with x_1, \dots, x_p as in Theorem 11, let $A = [x_1 \ \dots \ x_p]$. Suppose that Q is an $n \times k$ matrix whose columns form an orthonormal basis for the subspace W_k spanned by the first k columns of A . Then for x in \mathbb{R}^n , $QQ^T x$ is the orthogonal projection of x onto W_k (Theorem 10 in Section 6.3). If x_{k+1} is the next column of A , then equation (2) in the proof of Theorem 11 becomes

$$v_{k+1} = x_{k+1} - Q(Q^T x_{k+1})$$

(The parentheses above reduce the number of arithmetic operations.) Let $u_{k+1} = v_{k+1}/\|v_{k+1}\|$. The new Q for the next step is $[Q \ u_{k+1}]$. Use this procedure to compute the QR factorization of the matrix in Exercise 22. Write the keystrokes or commands you use.