

The QR algorithm

- The most common method for solving small (dense) eigenvalue problems. The basic algorithm:

QR without shifts

1. Until Convergence Do:
 2. Compute the QR factorization $A = QR$
 3. Set $A := RQ$
 4. EndDo
- “Until Convergence” means “Until A becomes close enough to an upper triangular matrix”

- Note: $A_{new} = RQ = Q^H(QR)Q = Q^H A Q$
- A_{new} is similar to A throughout the algorithm .
- Convergence analysis complicated – but insight: we are implicitly doing a QR factorization of A^k :

	QR-Factorize:	Multiply backward:	
Step 1	$A_0 = Q_0 R_0$	$A_1 = R_0 Q_0$	
Step 2	$A_1 = Q_1 R_1$	$A_2 = R_1 Q_1$	
Step 3:	$A_2 = Q_2 R_2$	$A_3 = R_2 Q_2$	Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 [Q_0 Q_1 Q_2][R_2 R_1 R_0] &= Q_0 Q_1 A_2 R_1 R_0 \\
 &= Q_0 Q_1 R_1 Q_1 R_1 R_0 \\
 &= \underbrace{(Q_0 R_0)}_A \underbrace{(Q_1 R_1)}_A \underbrace{(Q_2 R_2)}_A = A^3
 \end{aligned}$$

- $[Q_0 Q_1 Q_2][R_2 R_1 R_0] ==$ QR factorization of A^3

➤ Above basic algorithm is never used as is in practice. Two variations:

(1) Use **shift of origin** and

(2) Start by transforming A into an **Hessenberg** matrix

Practical QR algorithms: Shifts of origin

Observation: (from theory): Last row converges fastest. Convergence is dictated by $\frac{|\lambda_n|}{|\lambda_{n-1}|}$

- We will now consider only the real symmetric case.
- Eigenvalues are real.
- $A^{(k)}$ remains symmetric throughout process.
- As k goes to infinity the last column and row (except $a_{nn}^{(k)}$) converge to zero quickly.,,
- and $a_{nn}^{(k)}$ converges to lowest eigenvalue.

$$A^{(k)} = \left(\begin{array}{ccccc|c} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \hline a & a & a & a & a & a \end{array} \right)$$

➤ Idea: Apply QR algorithm to $A^{(k)} - \mu I$ with $\mu = a_{nn}^{(k)}$. Note: eigenvalues of $A^{(k)} - \mu I$ are shifted by μ , and eigenvectors are the same.

QR with shifts

1. Until row a_{in} , $1 \leq i < n$ converges to zero DO:
2. Obtain next shift (e.g. $\mu = a_{nn}$)
3. $A - \mu I = QR$
5. Set $A := RQ + \mu I$
6. EndDo

➤ Convergence (of last row) is cubic at the limit! [for symmetric case]

➤ Result of algorithm:

$$A^{(k)} = \left(\begin{array}{ccccc|c} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{array} \right)$$

➤ Next step: deflate, i.e., apply above algorithm to $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ upper triangular matrix.

Practical algorithm: Use the Hessenberg Form

Recall: Upper Hessenberg matrix is such that

$$a_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } j < i - 1$$

Observation: The QR algorithm preserves Hessenberg form (tridiagonal form in symmetric case). Results in substantial savings.

Transformation to Hessenberg form

➤ Want $H_1 A H_1^T = H_1 A H_1$ to have the form shown on the right

➤ Consider the first step only on a 6×6 matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \star & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ \star & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \end{pmatrix}$$

- Choose a w in $H_1 = I - 2ww^T$ to make the first column have zeros from position 3 to n . So $w_1 = 0$.
- Apply to left: $B = H_1A$
- Apply to right: $A_1 = BH_1$.

Main observation: the Householder matrix H_1 which transforms the column $A(2 : n, 1)$ into e_1 works only on rows 2 to n . When applying the transpose H_1 to the right of $B = H_1A$, we observe that only columns 2 to n will be altered. So the first column will retain the desired pattern (zeros below row 2).

- Algorithm continues the same way for columns 2, ..., $n - 2$.

QR for Hessenberg matrices

- Need the “Implicit Q theorem”

Suppose that $Q^T A Q$ is an unreduced upper Hessenberg matrix. Then columns 2 to n of Q are determined uniquely (up to signs) by the first column of Q .

- In other words if $V^T A V = G$ and $Q^T A Q = H$ are both Hessenberg and $V(:, 1) = Q(:, 1)$ then $V(:, i) = \pm Q(:, i)$ for $i = 2 : n$.

Implication: To compute $A_{i+1} = Q_i^T A Q_i$ we can:

- Compute 1st column of Q_i [== scalar $\times A(:, 1)$]
- Choose other columns so $Q_i =$ unitary, and $A_{i+1} =$ Hessenberg.

➤ W'll do this with Givens rotations:

Example: With $n = 5$:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

1. Choose $G_1 = G(1, 2, \theta_1)$ so that $(G_1^T A_0)_{21} = 0$

$$\text{➤ } A_1 = G_1^T A G_1 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ + & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

2. Choose $G_2 = G(2, 3, \theta_2)$ so that $(G_2^T A_1)_{31} = 0$

$$\blacktriangleright A_2 = G_2^T A_1 G_2 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & + & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

3. Choose $G_3 = G(3, 4, \theta_3)$ so that $(G_3^T A_2)_{42} = 0$

$$\blacktriangleright A_3 = G_3^T A_2 G_3 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & + & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

4. Choose $G_4 = G(4, 5, \theta_4)$ so that $(G_4^T A_3)_{53} = 0$

$$\blacktriangleright A_4 = G_4^T A_3 G_4 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

- Process known as “Bulge chasing”
- Similar idea for the symmetric (tridiagonal) case

The symmetric eigenvalue problem: Basic facts

- Consider the Schur form of a real symmetric matrix A :

$$A = QRQ^H$$

Since $A^H = A$ then $R = R^H$ ➤

Eigenvalues of A are real

and

There is an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of A

In addition, Q can be taken to be real when A is real.

$$(A - \lambda I)(u + iv) = 0 \rightarrow (A - \lambda I)u = 0 \text{ \& } (A - \lambda I)v = 0$$

- Can select eigenvector to be either u or v

The min-max theorem (Courant-Fischer)

Label eigenvalues decreasingly:

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_n$$

The eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix A are characterized by the relation

$$\lambda_k = \max_{S, \dim(S)=k} \min_{x \in S, x \neq 0} \frac{(Ax, x)}{(x, x)}$$

Proof: Preparation: Since A is symmetric real (or Hermitian complex) there is an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n . Express any vector x in this basis as $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i$. Then : $(Ax, x)/(x, x) = [\sum \lambda_i |\alpha_i|^2] / [\sum |\alpha_i|^2]$.

(a) Let S be any subspace of dimension k and let $\mathcal{W} = \text{span}\{u_k, u_{k+1}, \dots, u_n\}$.

A dimension argument (used before) shows that $S \cap \mathcal{W} \neq \{0\}$. So there is a

non-zero x_w in $S \cap \mathcal{W}$. Express this x_w in the eigenbasis as $x_w = \sum_{i=k}^n \alpha_i u_i$.

Then since $\lambda_i \leq \lambda_k$ for $i \geq k$ we have:

$$\frac{(Ax_w, x_w)}{(x_w, x_w)} = \frac{\sum_{i=k}^n \lambda_i |\alpha_i|^2}{\sum_{i=k}^n |\alpha_i|^2} \leq \lambda_k$$

So for any subspace S of dim. k we have $\min_{x \in S, x \neq 0} (Ax, x) / (x, x) \leq \lambda_k$.

(b) We now take $S_* = \text{span}\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$. Since $\lambda_i \geq \lambda_k$ for $i \leq k$, for this particular subspace we have:

$$\min_{x \in S_*, x \neq 0} \frac{(Ax, x)}{(x, x)} = \min_{x \in S_*, x \neq 0} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i |\alpha_i|^2}{\sum_{i=1}^k |\alpha_i|^2} = \lambda_k.$$

(c) The results of (a) and (b) imply that the max over all subspaces S of dim. k of $\min_{x \in S, x \neq 0} (Ax, x) / (x, x)$ is equal to λ_k □

➤ Consequences:


$$\lambda_1 = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{(Ax, x)}{(x, x)} \quad \lambda_n = \min_{x \neq 0} \frac{(Ax, x)}{(x, x)}$$

➤ Actually 4 versions of the same theorem. 2nd version:

$$\lambda_k = \min_{S, \dim(S)=n-k+1} \max_{x \in S, x \neq 0} \frac{(Ax, x)}{(x, x)}$$

➤ Other 2 versions come from ordering eigenvalues increasingly instead of decreasingly.

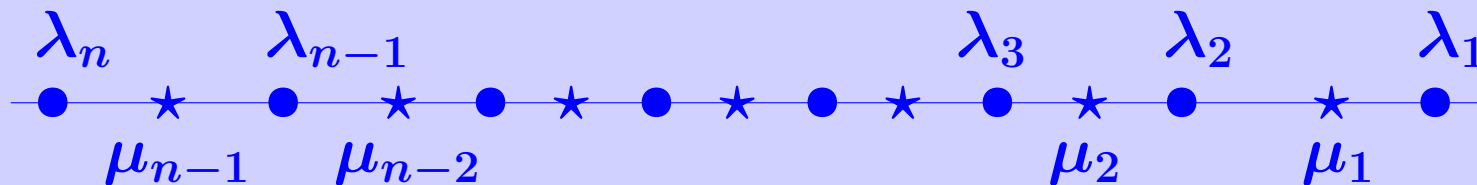
 Write down all 4 versions of the theorem

 Use the min-max theorem to show that $\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1(A)$ - the largest singular value of A .

- Interlacing Theorem: Denote the $k \times k$ principal submatrix of A as A_k , with eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i^{[k]}\}_{i=1}^k$. Then

$$\lambda_1^{[k]} \geq \lambda_1^{[k-1]} \geq \lambda_2^{[k]} \geq \lambda_2^{[k-1]} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{k-1}^{[k-1]} \geq \lambda_k^{[k]}$$

Example: λ_i 's = eigenvalues of A , μ_i 's = eigenvalues of A_{n-1} :




- Many uses.
- For example: interlacing theorem for roots of orthogonal polynomials


The Law of inertia


➤ Inertia of a matrix = $[m, z, p]$ with m = number of < 0 eigenvalues, z = number of zero eigenvalues, and p = number of > 0 eigenvalues.

Sylvester's Law of inertia:

If $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is nonsingular, then A and $X^T A X$ have the same inertia.

 3 Suppose that $A = LDL^T$ where L is unit lower triangular, and D diagonal. How many negative eigenvalues does A have?

 4 Assume that A is tridiagonal. How many operations are required to determine the number of negative eigenvalues of A ?

 5 Devise an algorithm based on the inertia theorem to compute the i -th eigenvalue of a tridiagonal matrix.

 6 What is the inertia of the matrix

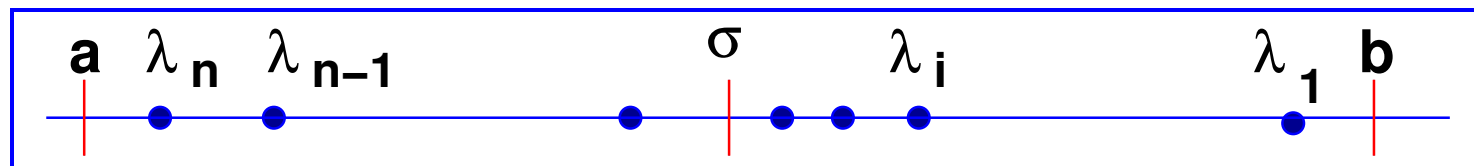
$$\begin{pmatrix} I & F \\ F^T & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where F is $m \times n$, with $n < m$, and of full rank?

[Hint: use a block LU factorization]

Bisection algorithm for tridiagonal matrices:

- Goal: to compute i -th eigenvalue of A (tridiagonal)
- Get interval $[a, b]$ containing spectrum [Gershgorin]:
$$a \leq \lambda_n \leq \dots \leq \lambda_1 \leq b$$
- Let $\sigma = (a + b)/2 =$ middle of interval
- Calculate $p =$ number of positive eigenvalues of $A - \sigma I$
 - If $p \geq i$ then $\lambda_i \in (\sigma, b] \rightarrow$ set $a := \sigma$



- Else then $\lambda_i \in [a, \sigma] \rightarrow$ set $b := \sigma$
- Repeat until $b - a$ is small enough.

The QR algorithm for symmetric matrices

- Most important method used : reduce to tridiagonal form and apply the QR algorithm with shifts.
- Householder transformation to Hessenberg form yields a tridiagonal matrix because

$$HAH^T = A_1$$

is symmetric and also of Hessenberg form ➤ it is tridiagonal symmetric.

Tridiagonal form preserved by QR similarity transformation

Practical method

- How to implement the QR algorithm with shifts?
- It is best to use Givens rotations – can do a shifted QR step without explicitly shifting the matrix..
- Two most popular shifts:

$s = a_{nn}$ and $s =$ smallest e.v. of $A(n - 1 : n, n - 1 : n)$

Jacobi iteration - Symmetric matrices

- Main idea: Rotation matrices of the form

$$J(p, q, \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & c & \dots & s & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & -s & \dots & c & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} p \\ q \end{matrix}$$

$c = \cos \theta$ and $s = \sin \theta$ are so that $J(p, q, \theta)^T A J(p, q, \theta)$ has a zero in position (p, q) (and also (q, p))

- Frobenius norm of matrix is preserved – but diagonal elements become larger ➤ convergence to a diagonal.

- Let $B = J^T A J$ (where $J \equiv J_{p,q,\theta}$).
- Look at 2×2 matrix $B([p, q], [p, q])$ (matlab notation)
- Keep in mind that $a_{pq} = a_{qp}$ and $b_{pq} = b_{qp}$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} b_{pp} & b_{pq} \\ b_{qp} & b_{qq} \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{pp} & a_{pq} \\ a_{qp} & a_{qq} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{pmatrix} \left[\begin{array}{c|c} c a_{pp} - s a_{pq} & s a_{pp} + c a_{pq} \\ \hline c a_{qp} - s a_{qq} & s a_{pq} + c a_{qq} \end{array} \right] \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} c^2 a_{pp} + s^2 a_{qq} - 2sc a_{pq} & (c^2 - s^2) a_{pq} - sc(a_{qq} - a_{pp}) \\ \hline * & c^2 a_{qq} + s^2 a_{pp} + 2sc a_{pq} \end{array} \right]$$

- Want:

$$(c^2 - s^2) a_{pq} - sc(a_{qq} - a_{pp}) = 0$$

$$\frac{c^2 - s^2}{2sc} = \frac{a_{qq} - a_{pp}}{2a_{pq}} \equiv \tau$$

- Letting $t = s/c$ ($= \tan \theta$) → quad. equation

$$t^2 + 2\tau t - 1 = 0$$

- $t = -\tau \pm \sqrt{1 + \tau^2} = \frac{1}{\tau \pm \sqrt{1 + \tau^2}}$

- Select sign to get a smaller t so $\theta \leq \pi/4$.

- Then : $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + t^2}}; \quad s = c * t$

- Implemented in matlab script `jacrot(A,p,q)` – See HW6.

- Define: $\mathbf{A}_O = \mathbf{A} - \text{Diag}(\mathbf{A}) \equiv \mathbf{A}$ 'with its diagonal entries replaced by zeros'
- Observations: (1) Unitary transformations preserve $\|\cdot\|_F$. (2) Only changes are in rows and columns p and q .
- Let $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{J}$ (where $\mathbf{J} \equiv \mathbf{J}_{p,q,\theta}$). Then,

$$a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2 = b_{pp}^2 + b_{qq}^2 + 2b_{pq}^2 = b_{pp}^2 + b_{qq}^2$$


because $b_{pq} = 0$. Then, a little calculation leads to:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{B}_O\|_F^2 &= \|\mathbf{B}\|_F^2 - \sum b_{ii}^2 = \|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 - \sum b_{ii}^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 - \sum a_{ii}^2 + \sum a_{ii}^2 - \sum b_{ii}^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{A}_O\|_F^2 + (a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 - b_{pp}^2 - b_{qq}^2) \\ &= \|\mathbf{A}_O\|_F^2 - 2a_{pq}^2 \end{aligned}$$

➤ $\|A_O\|_F$ will decrease from one step to the next.

7 Let $\|A_O\|_I = \max_{i \neq j} |a_{ij}|$. Show that

$$\|A_O\|_F \leq \sqrt{n(n-1)} \|A_O\|_I$$

8 Use this to show convergence in the case when largest entry is zeroed at each step.