

CS475 / CS675

Lecture 17: June 28, 2016

QR Algorithm and
Reduction to Hessenberg
Reading: [TB] Chapt 28

Simultaneous iteration vs QR algorithm

- QR algorithm can be viewed as simultaneous iteration with $\hat{Q}^{(0)} = I$ and $p = n$.
- We can drop the hats on $\hat{Q}^{(k)}, \hat{R}^{(k)}$
- $\underline{Q}^{(k)} = Q$'s from simultaneous iteration,
 $\overline{Q}^{(k)} = Q$'s from QR algorithm

Simultaneous iteration revisited

- Simultaneous iteration can be written as:

$$\underline{Q}^{(0)} = I$$

For $k = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\underline{Z}^{(k)} \leftarrow A \underline{Q}^{(k-1)}$$

$$\underline{Q}^{(k)} \underline{R}^{(k)} \leftarrow \underline{Z}^{(k)}$$

$$\underline{A}^{(k)} = \left(\underline{Q}^{(k)} \right)^T A \underline{Q}^{(k)}$$

$$\underline{R}^{(k)} = \underline{R}^{(k)} \underline{R}^{(k-1)} \dots \underline{R}^{(1)}$$

} New matrices for proof purpose

end

QR algorithm revisited

- QR algorithm can be written as:

$$A^{(0)} = A$$

For $k = 1, 2, \dots$

$$Q^{(k)} R^{(k)} \leftarrow A^{(k-1)}$$

$$A^{(k)} \leftarrow R^{(k)} Q^{(k)}$$

$$\underline{Q}^{(k)} = Q^{(1)} Q^{(2)} \dots Q^{(k)}$$

$$\underline{R}^{(k)} = R^{(k)} R^{(k-1)} \dots R^{(1)}$$

} New matrices for proof purpose

end

Equivalence

- Theorem: The two algorithms generate identical sequences of matrices $\underline{R}^{(k)}$, $\underline{Q}^{(k)}$ and $A^{(k)}$ and they are

$$(1) \quad A^k = \underline{Q}^{(k)} \underline{R}^{(k)}$$

$$(2) \quad A^{(k)} = \left(\underline{Q}^{(k)} \right)^T A \underline{Q}^{(k)}$$

Equivalence

- Proof: by induction. The case $k = 0$ is trivial since $A^0 = \underline{Q}^{(0)} = \underline{R}^{(0)} = I$ and $A^{(0)} = A$. Suppose it is true for $k - 1$.

Simultaneous iteration:

Equivalence

- Proof continued...
QR algorithm:

Convergence of the QR algorithm

(1) \implies QR algorithm effectively computes Q, R factors of A^k i.e., orthonormal basis for A^k

(2) \implies The diagonal of $A^{(k)}$ are Rayleigh quotients of column vectors of $\underline{Q}^{(k)}$

- As columns of $\underline{Q}^{(k)} \rightarrow$ eigenvectors, the Rayleigh quotients \rightarrow eigenvalues

Convergence of the QR algorithm

- $A_{ij}^{(k)} = \left(\underline{q}_i^{(k)} \right)^T A \left(\underline{q}_j^{(k)} \right)$
 - Here $\underline{q}_i^{(k)}$, $\underline{q}_j^{(k)}$ are columns i and j of $\underline{Q}^{(k)}$
 - Eventually $\underline{q}_j^{(k)} \rightarrow q_j$, $\underline{q}_i^{(k)} \rightarrow q_i$, $A \underline{q}_j^{(k)} \approx \lambda_j q_j$
 - Therefore $A_{ij}^{(k)} \approx \lambda_j q_i^T q_j = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$
- $\therefore A^{(k)}$ converges to a diagonal matrix

Convergence of the QR algorithm

- Theorem: Assume $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots > |\lambda_n|$ and Q has all nonsingular leading principal minors. As $k \rightarrow \infty$, $A^{(k)}$ converges linearly to $\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ and $\underline{Q}^{(k)}$ converges at the same rate to Q . The rate of convergence is

$$C = \max_k \left| \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{\lambda_k} \right|$$

Example

- $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = A^{(0)}$

Example

- $A = \begin{bmatrix} 21 & 7 & -1 \\ 5 & 7 & 7 \\ 4 & -4 & 20 \end{bmatrix} = A^{(0)}$

Practical QR

- It is expensive to compute the QR factorization of a square matrix $\left(\frac{4}{3}n^3 \text{ flops}\right)$
- In practice, we first reduce A to a Hessenberg matrix if $A \neq A^T$ and to a tridiagonal matrix if $A = A^T$
- The resulting QR factorization would be $O(n^2)$ if $A \neq A^T$ and $O(n)$ if $A = A^T$

Reduction to Hessenberg or Tridiagonal

- The matrix can be nonsymmetric in general
- Why Hessenberg? Why not triangular?

Reduction to Hessenberg or Tridiagonal

- Be less ambitious and choose Q_1^T that leaves 1st row unchanged

Reduction to Hessenberg or Tridiagonal

- In general:

$$Q = Q_1 Q_2 \dots Q_{n-2} \text{ and } Q^T A Q = \text{upper Hessenberg}$$

- Complexity:

- Flops(Reduction to Hessenberg) $\approx \frac{10}{3} n^3$

- Flops(Reduction to tridiagonal) $\approx \frac{4}{3} n^3$