

2 QR algorithm

We saw in the previous lectures that a Schur factorization of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ directly gives us the eigenvalues. More precisely, if we can compute P and U such that

$$A = PUP^*,$$

where $P^*P = I$ and U is upper triangular, then the eigenvalues of A are given by the diagonal elements of U .

We will now introduce the QR-method, which is sometimes called the QR-algorithm or Francis's QR-steps [4]. The goal of the method is to compute a Schur factorization by means of similarity transformations. The total complexity of the algorithm is essentially $O(n^3)$, which can only be achieved in practice after several improvements are appropriately taken into account. Most of this chapter is devoted to improving the basic QR-method. The fundamental results for the convergence are based on connections with the power method and simultaneous iteration and will be covered later in the course.

Although the QR-method can be successfully adapted to arbitrary complex matrices, we will here for brevity concentrate the discussion on the case where the matrix has only real eigenvalues.

The QR method developed by Francis in 1960's [4] is classified as one of the top-ten developments in computation in the 20th century. The performance and robustness is still actively improved within the numerical linear algebra research community.

2.1 Basic variant of QR-method

As the name suggests, the QR-method is tightly coupled with the QR-factorization. Consider for the moment a QR-factorization of the matrix A ,

$$A = QR$$

where $Q^*Q = I$ and R is upper triangular. We will now reverse the order of multiplication product of Q and R and eliminate R ,

$$RQ = Q^*AQ. \quad (2.1)$$

Since Q^*AQ is a similarity transformation of A , RQ has the same eigenvalues as A . More importantly, we will later see that by repeating this process, the matrix RQ will become closer and closer to upper



triangular, such that we eventually can read off the eigenvalues from the diagonal. That is, the QR-method generates a sequence of matrices A_k initiated with $A_0 = A$ and given by

$$A_k = R_k Q_k,$$

where Q_k and R_k represents a QR-factorization of A_{k-1} ,

$$A_{k-1} = Q_k R_k.$$

Idea of *basic QR-method*: compute a QR-factorization and reverse the order of multiplication of Q and R .

Algorithm 1 Basic QR algorithm

Input: A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

Output: Matrices U and T such that $A = UTU^*$.

Set $A_0 := A$ and $U_0 = I$

for $k = 1, \dots$ **do**

 Compute QR-factorization: $A_{k-1} =: Q_k R_k$

 Set $A_k := R_k Q_k$

 Set $U_k := U_{k-1} Q_k$

end for

Return $T = A_\infty$ and $U = U_\infty$

Although the complete understanding of convergence of the QR-method requires theory developed in later parts of this course, it is instructive to already now formulate the character of the convergence. Let us assume the eigenvalues are distinct in modulus and ordered as $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots > |\lambda_n|$. Under certain assumptions, the elements of the matrix A_k below the diagonal will converge to zero according to

$$|a_{ij}^{(k)}| = \mathcal{O}(|\lambda_i/\lambda_j|^k) \text{ for all } i > j. \quad (2.2)$$

Example (basic QR-method)

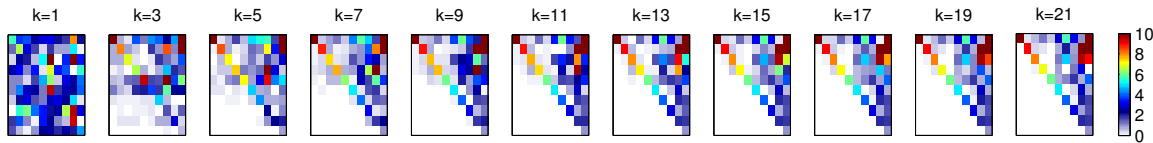
We conduct a simple matlab experiment to illustrate the convergence. To that end we construct a matrix with eigenvalues $1, 2, \dots, 10$ and run the basic QR-method.

```
D=diag(1:10);
rand('seed',0);
S=rand(10); S=(S-0.5)*2;
A=S*D*inv(S);
for i=1:100
    [Q,R]=qr(A);
    A=R*Q
```

end

```
norm(sortrows(diag(A)) - sortrows(diag(D)))
```

In the last step, this program returns $5 \cdot 10^{-5}$, suggesting that we do find reasonably accurate eigenvalues. This is confirmed by the fact that the matrix A does indeed approach an upper triangular matrix, which can be seen in the following illustration of A_k .



Moreover, the illustration suggests that A_k approaches a triangular matrix where the diagonal elements are ordered by (descending) magnitude. Since the diagonal elements of a triangular matrix are the eigenvalues, our observation is here $a_{11}^{(k)} \rightarrow \lambda_1 = 10$, $a_{22}^{(k)} \rightarrow \lambda_2 = 9, \dots$, $a_{10}^{(k)} \rightarrow \lambda_{10} = 1$ (which we will be able to show later in this course).

We can also observe the convergence claimed in (2.2) by considering the quotient of the elements below the diagonal of two consecutive iterations. Let A_{20} and A_{21} be the matrices generated after $k = 20$ and $k = 21$ iterations. In MATLAB notation we have

```
>> A21./A20
ans =
  1.0002  0.9313  1.0704  0.9854  1.0126  0.9929  0.9952  0.9967  1.2077 -1.0087
  0.9118  1.0003  0.9742  1.0231  0.8935  1.0534  1.0614  1.0406  1.0082 -0.9828
  0.8095  0.8917  1.0003  2.7911  1.4191  0.9689  0.9999  0.9508  0.9941 -1.0260
  0.7005  0.7718  0.8676  0.9992  0.9918  1.0509  0.2971  1.0331  0.8996 -0.2654
  0.5959  0.6746  0.7411  0.8436  1.0001  1.0022  0.9901  1.0007  0.9650 -1.0036
  0.5013  0.5602  0.6303  0.7224  0.8309  0.9997  1.0349  0.9901  0.9993 -1.0113
  0.4005  0.4475  0.4993  0.5904  0.6669  0.7908  1.0000  1.0035  1.0022 -0.9996
  0.3007  0.3344  0.3738  0.4355  0.5002 -1.9469  0.7460  0.9998  1.0006 -1.0007
  0.2002  0.2227  0.2493  0.2899  0.3332  0.4044  0.4994  0.6660  1.0003 -0.9994
 -0.1001 -0.1119 -0.1259 -0.1426 -0.1669 -0.1978 -0.2500 -0.3332 -0.5000  1.0000
```

The elements below the diagonal in the output are consistent with (2.2) in the sense that the (i, j) element of the output is

$$|a_{i,j}^{(21)} / a_{i,j}^{(20)}| \approx |\lambda_i / \lambda_j|, \quad i \geq j + 1.$$

Downsides with the basic QR-method

Although the basic QR-method in general converges to a Schur factorization when $k \rightarrow \infty$, it is not recommended in practice.

Disadvantage 1. One step of the basic QR-method is relatively expensive. More precisely,

the complexity of one step of the basic QR-method = $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.

The basic QR-method is often slow, in the sense that the number of iterations required to reach convergence is in general high. It is in general expensive in the sense that the computational effort required per step is high.



Hence, even in an overly optimistic situation where the number of steps would be proportional to n , the algorithm would need $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$ operations.

Disadvantage 2. Usually, many steps are required to have convergence; certainly much more than n . In fact, the basic QR-method can be arbitrarily slow if the eigenvalues are close to each other. It is often slow in practice.

2.2 *The two-phase approach*

The disadvantages of the basic QR-method suggest that several improvements are required to reach a competitive algorithm. The Hessenberg matrix structure will be crucial for these improvements.

Definition 2.2.1 A matrix $H \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called a Hessenberg matrix if its elements below the lower off-diagonal are zero,

$$h_{i,j} = 0 \text{ when } i > j + 1.$$

The matrix H is called an unreduced Hessenberg matrix if additionally $h_{i,i+1} \neq 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$.

Structure of a Hessenberg matrix:

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \times \\ \times & \ddots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \times \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

Our improved QR-method will be an algorithm consisting of two phases, illustrated as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Phase 1}} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Phase 2}} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times \\ & & & & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

Phase 1. (Section 2.2.1). In the first phase we will compute a Hessenberg matrix H (and orthogonal U) such that

$$A = UHU^*$$

Unlike the Schur factorization ($A = UTU^*$ where T is upper triangular) such a reduction can be done with a finite number of operations.

Phase 2. (Section 2.2.2). In the second phase we will apply the basic QR-method to the matrix H . It turns out that several improvements can be done when applying the basic QR-method to a Hessenberg matrix such that the complexity of one step is $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$, instead of $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ in the basic version.

2.2.1 Phase 1. Hessenberg reduction

In the following it will be advantageous to use the concept of Householder reflectors.

Definition 2.2.2 A matrix $P \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ of the form

$$P = I - 2uu^* \quad \text{where } u \in \mathbb{C}^n \text{ and } \|u\| = 1$$

is called a Householder reflector.

Some properties of Householder reflectors:

- A Householder reflector is always hermitian $P = P^*$
- Since $P^2 = I$, a Householder reflector is always orthogonal and $P^{-1} = P^* = P$
- If u is given, the corresponding Householder reflector can be multiplied by a vector in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ operations:

$$Px = x - 2u(u^*x) \quad (2.3)$$

Householder reflectors satisfying $Px = \alpha e_1$

We will now explicitly solve this problem: Given a vector x , construct a Householder reflector such that Px is a multiple of the first unit vector. This tool will be used several times throughout this chapter.

Lemma 2.2.3 Suppose $x \in \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{0\}$ and let $\rho = \pm 1$ and $\alpha := \rho\|x\|$. Let

$$u = \frac{x - \alpha e_1}{\|x - \alpha e_1\|} = \frac{z}{\|z\|}, \quad (2.4)$$

where

$$z := x - \alpha e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \rho\|x\| \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, the matrix $P = I - 2uu^T$ is a Householder reflector and

$$Px = \alpha e_1.$$

Proof The matrix P is a Householder reflector since u is normalized. From the definition of z and α we have $z^T z = (x - \alpha e_1)^T (x - \alpha e_1) = 2(\|x\|^2 - \rho\|x\|x_1)$. Similarly, $z^T x = \|x\|^2 - \rho\|x\|x_1$. Hence

$$uu^T x = \frac{z}{\|z\|} \frac{z^T}{\|z\|} x = \frac{z^T x}{z^T z} z = \frac{1}{2} z$$

and $(I - 2uu^T)x = x - z = \alpha e_1$, which is the conclusion of the lemma.

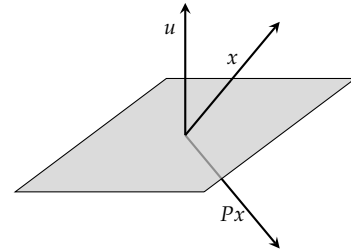


Figure 2.1: A Householder reflector is a “reflector” in the sense that the multiplication of P with a vector gives the mirror image with respect to the (hyper) plane perpendicular to u .

The choice of u in (2.4) is the normal vector of a plane such that the mirror image of x is in the direction of the first unit vector.



In principle, ρ can be chosen freely (provided $|\rho| = 1$). The choice $\rho = -\text{sign}(x_1)$, is often better from the perspective of round-off errors. With this specific choice of ρ , Lemma 2.2.3 also holds in complex arithmetic.

Repeated application of Householder reflectors

By carrying out $n - 2$ orthogonality transformations with (cleverly constructed) Householder reflectors we will now be able to reduce the matrix A to a Hessenberg matrix.

In the first step we will carry out a similarity transformation with a Householder reflector P_1 , given as follows

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0^T \\ 0 & I - 2u_1u_1^T \end{bmatrix}. \tag{2.5}$$

Note: $I - 2u_1u_1^T \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$ is the Householder reflector associated with $u_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{n-1}$ and $P_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ in (2.5) is the Householder reflector associated with $[0, u_1^T] \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

The vector u_1 will be constructed from elements of the matrix A . More precisely, they will be given by (2.4) with $x^T = [a_{21}, \dots, a_{n1}]$ such that the associated Householder reflector satisfies

$$(I - 2u_1u_1^T) \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{bmatrix} = \alpha e_1.$$

Hence, multiplying A from the left with P_1 inserts zeros in desired positions in the first column,

$$P_1A = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

In order to have a similarity transformation, we must also multiply from the right with P_1^* . Recall that $P_1^* = P_1$ since Householder reflectors are Hermitian. Because of the non-zero structure in P_1 the non-zero structure is unchanged and we have a matrix P_1AP_1 which is similar to A and has desired zero-entries,

$$P_1AP_1^* = P_1AP_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}.$$

In the first step of the Hessenberg reduction: A similarity transformation is constructed such that $P_1AP_1^*$ has the desired (Hessenberg) zero-structure in the first column.



The process can be repeated and in the second step we set

$$P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0^T \\ 0 & 1 & 0^T \\ 0 & 0 & I - 2u_2u_2^T \end{bmatrix}$$

where u_2 is constructed from the $n - 2$ last elements of the second column of $P_1AP_1^*$.

$$P_1AP_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{mult. from left with } P_2} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{mult. from right with } P_2} \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} = P_2P_1AP_1P_2$$

After $n - 2$ steps we have completed the Hessenberg reduction since

$$P_{n-2}P_{n-3}\dots P_1AP_1P_2\dots P_{n-2} = H,$$

where H is a Hessenberg matrix. Note that $U = P_1P_2\dots P_{n-1}$ is orthogonal and $A = UHU^*$ and H have the same eigenvalues.

The complete algorithm is provided in Algorithm 2.2.1. In the algorithm we do not explicitly compute the orthogonal matrix U since it is not required unless also eigenvectors are to be computed. In every step in the algorithm we need $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ operations and consequently

$$\text{the total complexity of the Hessenberg reduction} = \mathcal{O}(n^3).$$

Algorithm 2 Reduction to Hessenberg form

Input: A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

Output: A Hessenberg matrix H such that $H = U^*AU$.

for $k = 1, \dots, n - 2$ **do**

 Compute u_k using (2.4) where $x^T = [a_{k+1,k}, \dots, a_{n,k}]$

 Compute P_kA : $A_{k+1:n,k:n} := A_{k+1:n,k:n} - 2u_k(u_k^*A_{k+1:n,k:n})$

 Compute $P_kAP_k^*$: $A_{1:n,k+1:n} := A_{1:n,k+1:n} - 2(A_{1:n,k+1:n}u_k)u_k^*$

end for

Let H be the Hessenberg part of A .

The Hessenberg reduction in Algorithm 2.2.1 is implemented by overwriting the elements of A . In this way less memory is required.

2.2.2 Phase 2. Hessenberg QR-method

In the second phase we will apply the QR-method to the output of the first phase, which is a Hessenberg matrix. Considerable improvements of the basic QR-method will be possible because of the structure.

Let us start with a simple example:

```
>> A=[1 2 3 4; 4 4 4 4;0 1 -1 1; 0 0 2 3]
A =
    1    2    3    4
    4    4    4    4
    0    1   -1    1
    0    0    2    3
>> [Q,R]=qr(A);
>> A=R*Q
A =
    5.2353   -5.3554   -2.5617   -4.2629
   -1.3517    0.2193    1.4042    2.4549
         0    2.0757    0.6759    3.6178
         0         0    0.8325    0.8696
```

The code corresponds to one step of the basic QR method applied to a Hessenberg matrix. Note that the result is also a Hessenberg matrix. This observation is true in general. (The proof is postponed.)

Theorem 2.2.4 *If the basic QR-method (Algorithm 2.1) is applied to a Hessenberg matrix, then all iterates A_k are Hessenberg matrices.*

We will now explicitly characterize a QR-step for Hessenberg matrices, which can be used in all subsequent QR-steps.

Fortunately, the QR-decomposition of a Hessenberg matrix has a particular structure which indeed be characterized and exploited. To this end we use the concept of Givens rotations.

Definition 2.2.5 *Let $c^2 + s^2 = 1$. The matrix $G(i, j, c, s) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ corresponding to a Givens rotation is defined by*

$$G(i, j, c, s) := I + (c - 1)e_i e_i^T - s e_i e_j^T + s e_j e_i^T + (c - 1)e_j e_j^T = \begin{bmatrix} I & & & & \\ & c & & -s & \\ & & I & & \\ & & & c & \\ & s & & & I \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

We note some properties of Givens rotations:

- $G(i, j, c, s)$ is an orthogonal matrix.
- $G(i, j, c, s)^* = G(i, j, c, -s)$
- The operation $G(i, j, c, s)x$ can be carried out by only modifying two

A basic QR-step preserves the Hessenberg structure. Hence, the basic QR-method also preserves the Hessenberg structure.

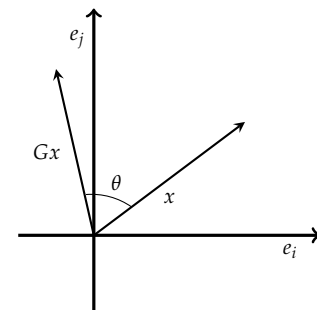


Figure 2.2: A Givens rotation $G = G(i, j, \cos(\theta), \sin(\theta))$ is a “rotation” in the sense that the application onto a vector corresponds to a rotation with angle θ in the plane spanned by e_i and e_j .



elements of x ,

$$G(i, j, c, s) \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{i-1} \\ x_i \\ x_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{j-1} \\ x_j \\ x_{j+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{i-1} \\ cx_i - sx_j \\ x_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{j-1} \\ sx_j + cs_i \\ x_{j+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.7)$$

The QR-factorization of Hessenberg matrices can now be explicitly expressed and computed with Givens rotations as follows.

Theorem 2.2.6 Suppose $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is a Hessenberg matrix. Let H_i be generated as follows $H_1 = A$

$$H_{i+1} = G_i^T H_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1$$

where $G_i = G(i, i+1, (H_i)_{i,i}/r_i, (H_i)_{i+1,i}/r_i)$ and $r_i = \sqrt{(H_i)_{i,i}^2 + (H_i)_{i+1,i}^2}$ and we assume $r_i \neq 0$. Then, $H_n = R$ is upper triangular and

$$A = (G_1 G_2 \dots G_{n-1}) H_n = QR$$

is a QR-factorization of A .

Proof It will be shown that the matrix H_i is a reduced Hessenberg matrix where the first $i-1$ lower off-diagonal elements are zero. The proof is done by induction. The start of the induction for $i=1$ is trivial. Suppose H_i is a Hessenberg matrix with $(H_i)_{k+1,k} = 0$ for $k = 1, \dots, i-1$. Note that the application of G_i only modifies the i th and $(i+1)$ st rows. Hence, it is sufficient to show that $(H_{i+1})_{i+1,i} = 0$. This can be done by inserting the formula for G in (2.6),

$$\begin{aligned} (H_{i+1})_{i+1,i} &= e_{i+1}^T G_i^T H_i e_i \\ &= e_{i+1}^T [I + (c_i - 1)e_i e_i^T + (c_i - 1)e_{i+1} e_{i+1}^T \\ &\quad - s_i e_{i+1} e_i^T + s_i e_i e_{i+1}^T] H_i e_i \\ &= (H_i)_{i+1,i} + (c_i - 1)(H_i)_{i+1,i} - s_i (H_i)_{i,i} \\ &= c_i (H_i)_{i+1,i} - s_i (H_i)_{i,i} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.2.6 implies that the Q -matrix in a QR-factorization of a Hessenberg matrix can be factorized as a product of $n-1$ Givens rotations.

Use the definition of $c_i = (H_i)_{i,i}/r$ and $s_i = (H_i)_{i+1,i}/r$

By induction we have shown that H_n is a triangular matrix and $H_n = G_{n-1}^T G_{n-2} \dots G_1^T A$ and $G_1 \dots G_{n-1} H_n = A$.

■

The theorem gives us an explicit form for the Q matrix. The theorem also suggests an algorithm to compute a QR-factorization by applying the Givens rotations and reaching $R = H_n$. Since the application of a Givens rotator can be done in $\mathcal{O}(n)$, we can compute QR-factorization of a Hessenberg matrix in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ with this algorithm. In order to carry

Idea Hessenberg-structure exploitation: Use factorization of Q -matrix in terms of product of Givens rotations in order to compute RQ with less operations.

out a QR-step, we now reverse the multiplication of Q and R which leads to

$$A_{k+1} = RQ = Q^* A_k Q = H_n G_1 \cdots G_{n-1}$$

The application of $G_1 \cdots G_{n-1}$ can also be done in \mathcal{O} and consequently

$$\text{the complexity of one Hessenberg QR step} = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$$

The algorithm is summarized in Algorithm 2.2.2. In the algorithm $[c, s] = \text{givens}(a, b)$ returns $c = a/\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and $s = b/\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

Algorithm 3 Hessenberg QR algorithm

Input: A Hessenberg matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

Output: Upper triangular T such that $A = UTU^*$ for an orthogonal matrix U .

Set $A_0 := A$

for $k = 1, \dots$ **do**

 // One Hessenberg QR step

$H = A_{k-1}$

for $i = 1, \dots, n-1$ **do**

$[c_i, s_i] = \text{givens}(h_{i,i}, h_{i+1,i})$

$H_{i:i+1,i:n} = \begin{bmatrix} c_i & s_i \\ -s_i & c_i \end{bmatrix} H_{i:i+1,i:n}$

end for

for $i = 1, \dots, n-1$ **do**

$H_{1:i+1,i:i+1} = H_{1:i+1,i:i+1} \begin{bmatrix} c_i & -s_i \\ s_i & c_i \end{bmatrix}$

end for

$A_k = H$

end for

Return $T = A_\infty$

2.3 Acceleration with shifts and deflation

In the previous section we saw that the QR-method for computing the Schur form of a matrix A can be executed more efficiently if the matrix A is first transformed to Hessenberg form.

The next step in order to achieve a competitive algorithm is to improve the convergence speed of the QR-method. We will now see that the convergence can be dramatically improved by considering a QR-step applied to the matrix formed by subtracting a multiply of the identity matrix. This type of acceleration is called *shifting*.

First note the following result for singular Hessenberg matrices.



Lemma 2.3.1 Suppose $H \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is an irreducible Hessenberg matrix. Let $QR = H$ be a QR-decomposition of H . If H is singular, then the last diagonal element of R is zero,

$$r_{n,n} = 0.$$

As a justification for the shifting procedure, suppose for the moment that λ is an eigenvalue of the irreducible Hessenberg matrix H . We will now characterize the consequence of shifting H , applying one step of the QR-method and subsequently reverse the shifting:

$$H - \lambda I = QR \quad (2.8a)$$

$$\tilde{H} = RQ + \lambda I \quad (2.8b)$$

By rearranging the equations, we find that

$$\tilde{H} = RQ + \lambda I = Q^*(H - \lambda I)Q + \lambda I = Q^*HQ.$$

Hence, similar to the basic QR-method, one shifted QR step (2.8) also corresponds to a similarity transformation. They do however correspond to different similarity transformations since the Q -matrix is generated from the QR-factorization of $H - \lambda I$ instead of H .

The result of (2.8) has more structure.

Lemma 2.3.2 Suppose λ is an eigenvalue of the Hessenberg matrix H . Let \tilde{H} be the result of one shifted QR-step (2.8). Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{h}_{n,n-1} &= 0 \\ \tilde{h}_{n,n} &= \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

Proof The matrix $H - \lambda I$ is singular since λ is an eigenvalue of H . From Lemma 2.3.1 we have that $r_{n,n} = 0$. The product RQ in (2.8b) implies that the last row of RQ is zero. Hence, $\tilde{h}_{n,n} = \lambda$ and $\tilde{h}_{n,n-1} = 0$. ■

Since \tilde{H} has the eigenvalue λ , we conclude that the variant of the QR-step involving shifting in (2.8), generates an exact eigenvalue after one step.

Rayleigh quotient shifts

The shifted QR-method can at least in theory be made to give an exact eigenvalue after only one step. Unfortunately, we cannot choose perfect shifts as in (2.8) since we obviously do not have the eigenvalues of the matrix available. During the QR-method we do however have estimates of the eigenvalues. In particular, if the off diagonal elements of H are sufficiently small, the eigenvalues may be estimated by the

The R -matrix in the QR-decomposition of a singular unreduced Hessenberg matrix has the structure

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The shifted QR-step (2.8), where λ is an eigenvalue of H , generates a reduced hessenberg matrix with structure

$$\tilde{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times & \times \\ & & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}.$$

The name *Rayleigh quotient shifts* comes from the fact that there is a connection with the Rayleigh quotient iteration.

diagonal elements. In the heuristic called the *Rayleigh quotient shift* we select the last diagonal element of H as a shift,

$$\sigma_k = h_{n,n}^{(k-1)}.$$

The shifted algorithm is presented in Algorithm 2.3. The steps involving a QR factorization can also be executed with Givens rotations as in Section 2.2.2. The algorithm features a type of deflation; instead of carrying out QR-steps on $n \times n$ matrices, once $n - m$ eigenvalues have converged we iterate with a matrix of size $m \times m$.

Deflation here essentially means that once an eigenvalue is detected to be of sufficient accuracy, the iteration is continued with a smaller matrix from which the converged eigenvalue has (in a sense) been removed.

Algorithm 4 Hessenberg QR algorithm with Rayleigh quotient shift and deflation

Input: A Hessenberg matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

Set $H^{(0)} := A$

for $m = n, \dots, 2$ **do**

$k = 0$

repeat

$k = k + 1$

$\sigma_k = h_{m,m}^{(k-1)}$

$H_{k-1} - \sigma_k I =: Q_k R_k$

$H_k := R_k Q_k + \sigma_k I$

until $|h_{m,m-1}^{(k)}|$ is sufficiently small

 Save $h_{m,m}^{(k)}$ as a converged eigenvalue

 Set $H^{(0)} = H_{1:(m-1),1:(m-1)}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{C}^{(m-1) \times (m-1)}$

end for

2.4 Further reading

The variant of the QR-method that we presented here can be improved considerably in various ways. Many of the improvements already carefully implemented in the high performance computing software such as LAPACK [1]. If the assumption that the eigenvalues are real is removed, several issues must be addressed. If A is real, the basic QR method will in general only converge to a real Schur form, where R is only block triangular. In the acceleration with shifting, it is advantageous to use double shifts that preserve the complex conjugate structure. The speed can be improved by introducing deflation at an early, see aggressive early deflation cite-kressner. Various aspects of the QR-method is given more attention in the text-books. In [3] the QR-method is presented including further discussion of connections with the LR-method and numerical stability. Some of the presentation above was inspired by the online material of a course at ETH Zürich [2]. The book of Watkins [5] has a recent comprehensive discussion of



the QR-method, with a presentation which does not involve the basic QR-method.

2.5 Bibliography

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