

2.3.6 QR Decomposition

Each real symmetric $N \times N$ matrix A can be decomposed into

$$A = Q \cdot R, \quad (2.98)$$

where Q is an orthonormal $N \times N$ matrix ($Q \cdot Q^T = \mathbb{1}$) and where R is an (upper) triangular matrix,

$$\boxed{A} = \boxed{Q} \cdot \boxed{R}.$$

The matrix Q can be obtained either from the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure applied to the columns of A , or it can be obtained via a sequence of Householder transformations that successively remove the column entries below the diagonal of A .

In index representation, the equation $A = Q \cdot R$ reads

$$a_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^j q_{ik} r_{kj}. \quad (2.99)$$

Seeing the $A = (\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_N)$ and $Q = (\vec{q}_1, \vec{q}_2, \dots, \vec{q}_N)$ as matrices composed of column vectors, then the vectors $\vec{a}_i = (a_{i1}, \dots, a_{iN})^T$ can be seen as linear combination of the vectors $\vec{q}_i = (q_{i1}, \dots, q_{iN})^T$, and vice versa.

The desired similarity transformation becomes

$$A \longrightarrow Q^{-1} \cdot A \cdot Q = Q^T \cdot A \cdot Q = R \cdot Q, \quad (2.100)$$

where we have used $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ (Q is orthogonal) for the first step, and $R = Q^T \cdot A$ in the second. From (2.46) we conclude that this mapping leaves the eigenvalues unchanged.

The transformation (2.100) can be repeated several times to transform the matrix A into the desired form. In many cases, the sequence

$$A_s = Q_s \cdot R_s \longrightarrow A_{s+1} = R_s \cdot Q_s = Q_s^T \cdot A_s \cdot Q_s$$

converges to an upper triangular matrix (Schur form of A). Then we can simply read off the eigenvalues on the diagonal.

Note, are all eigenvalues of A different (non-degenerate) then the sequence A_{s+1} converges to an upper triangular matrix. Are some eigenvalues equal (their absolute

value), then there remains a block of order M on the diagonal, where M is the degree of degeneracy of the eigenvalue.

The effort is

N^3 for general matrices,

N^2 for matrices in Hessenberg form (2.97),

N for tridiagonal matrices. This is the reason, why the QR method is often combined with the Householder transformation.

The overall procedure is as follows:

First, one calculates the QR decomposition $A = Q \cdot R$.

Then, one does the RQ transformation $A' = R \cdot Q = Q^T \cdot A \cdot Q$.

Because R is (∇), A' can simply be obtained by back-substitution.

The remaining question is how to do the first step in this procedure, how to calculate the QR decomposition. As mentioned before, this can be achieved either by Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization, or by a Householder transformation.

Calculation with the Gram-Schmidt method:

As discussed in Section 2.3.1, we can always obtain an orthogonal set of column vectors for a quadratic matrix of full rank with the help of the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization method.

We start with the matrix $A = (\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_N)$ with the column vectors

$$\vec{a}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{1N} \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{a}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{21} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{2N} \end{pmatrix} \quad \dots \quad \vec{a}_N = \begin{pmatrix} a_{N1} \\ a_{N2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{NN} \end{pmatrix},$$

and recall the projection operator (2.36),

$$\text{Proj}_{\vec{e}} \vec{v} = \frac{\langle \vec{e}, \vec{v} \rangle}{\langle \vec{e}, \vec{e} \rangle} \vec{e} \quad \text{with} \quad \langle \vec{e}, \vec{a} \rangle = \vec{e}^T \cdot \vec{a} = \sum_i^N e_i a_i. \quad (2.101)$$

With that, we can define a new orthogonal base:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{u}_1 &= \vec{d}_1 & \& \quad \vec{e}_1 &= \frac{\vec{u}_1}{\|\vec{u}_1\|} \\
 \vec{u}_2 &= \vec{d}_2 - \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_1} \vec{d}_2 & \& \quad \vec{e}_2 &= \frac{\vec{u}_2}{\|\vec{u}_2\|} \\
 \vec{u}_3 &= \vec{d}_3 - \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_1} \vec{d}_3 - \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_2} \vec{d}_3 & \& \quad \vec{e}_3 &= \frac{\vec{u}_3}{\|\vec{u}_3\|} \\
 & \vdots & & & \\
 \vec{u}_i &= \vec{d}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_j} \vec{d}_i & \& \quad \vec{e}_i &= \frac{\vec{u}_i}{\|\vec{u}_i\|}
 \end{aligned}$$

Resorting gives us

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{d}_1 &= \|\vec{u}_1\| \vec{e}_1 \\
 \vec{d}_2 &= \|\vec{u}_2\| \vec{e}_2 + \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_1} \vec{d}_2 \\
 \vec{d}_3 &= \|\vec{u}_3\| \vec{e}_3 + \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_1} \vec{d}_2 + \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_2} \vec{d}_3 \\
 &\vdots \\
 \vec{d}_i &= \|\vec{u}_i\| \vec{e}_i + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \text{Proj}_{\vec{e}_j} \vec{d}_i,
 \end{aligned}$$

or more elegantly from $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{e}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{d}_1 &= \vec{e}_1 \|\vec{u}_1\| \\
 \vec{d}_2 &= \vec{e}_1 \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_2 \rangle + \vec{e}_2 \|\vec{u}_2\| \\
 \vec{d}_3 &= \vec{e}_1 \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_3 \rangle + \vec{e}_2 \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_3 \rangle + \vec{e}_3 \|\vec{u}_3\| \\
 \vec{d}_4 &= \vec{e}_1 \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_4 \rangle + \vec{e}_2 \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_4 \rangle + \vec{e}_3 \langle \vec{e}_3, \vec{d}_4 \rangle + \vec{e}_4 \|\vec{u}_4\| \\
 &\vdots \\
 \vec{d}_N &= \vec{e}_1 \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_N \rangle + \vec{e}_2 \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_N \rangle + \vec{e}_3 \langle \vec{e}_3, \vec{d}_N \rangle + \dots + \vec{e}_N \|\vec{u}_N\|.
 \end{aligned}$$

This means, that the right-hand side of (2.98) is

$$Q \cdot R = (\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_N) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \|\vec{u}_1\| & \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_2 \rangle & \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_3 \rangle & \dots & \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_N \rangle \\ & \|\vec{u}_2\| & \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_3 \rangle & \dots & \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_N \rangle \\ & & \|\vec{u}_3\| & \dots & \langle \vec{e}_3, \vec{d}_N \rangle \\ & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & & \|\vec{u}_N\| \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.102)$$

Because of $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{d}_i \rangle = \|\vec{d}_i\|$ and $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{d}_j \rangle = 0$ for $i > j$ we get the simple expression

$$R = Q^T \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_1 \rangle & \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_2 \rangle & \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_3 \rangle & \dots & \langle \vec{e}_1, \vec{d}_N \rangle \\ & \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_2 \rangle & \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_3 \rangle & \dots & \langle \vec{e}_2, \vec{d}_N \rangle \\ & & \langle \vec{e}_3, \vec{d}_3 \rangle & \dots & \langle \vec{e}_3, \vec{d}_N \rangle \\ & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & & \langle \vec{e}_N, \vec{d}_N \rangle \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2.103)$$

Calculation of the matrices Q and R with the Householder method:

Recall from Section 2.3.5 the projection matrix (2.86),

$$P = \mathbb{1} - 2 \vec{w} \cdot \vec{w}^T \quad \text{with} \quad \vec{w} = \frac{\vec{x} - \|\vec{x}\| \vec{e}_1}{\|\vec{x} - \|\vec{x}\| \vec{e}_1\|}.$$

For the $N \times N$ matrix $A = (\vec{x}_1, \vec{d}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_N)$ and $\vec{x} = \vec{d}_1$ we have after the first step

$$P_1 \cdot A = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} \|\vec{d}_1\| & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ A' \\ \end{array} \right). \quad (2.104)$$

The second Householder step give us

$$P_2 \cdot (P_1 A) = \left(\begin{array}{c|cc|cc} \|\vec{d}_1\| & * & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & \|\vec{d}_2\| & * & \dots & * \\ 0 & 0 & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & & & \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ A'' \\ \end{array} \right). \quad (2.105)$$

The upper triangular matrix R is then simply the result of the sequence

$$R = P_N P_{N-1} \dots P_2 P_1 A, \quad (2.106)$$

while the orthogonal matrix Q follows as

$$Q = P_1^T P_2^T \dots P_{N-1}^T P_N^T. \quad (2.107)$$

From $P_i^T P_i = \mathbb{1}$ it immediately follows that $Q \cdot R = A$.