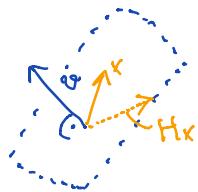


Householder matrices, $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$H = H(\omega) = I - \frac{2}{\omega^T \omega} \omega \omega^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

is a reflection on the hyperplane $\perp \omega$



$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ map to αx , mult. of unit vector

$$\omega = x - \sqrt{x^T x} e_1$$

A

$$\begin{bmatrix} * & \dots & * \\ * & \dots & * \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ * & \dots & * \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H A H^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} * & * & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ * & * & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & * & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & & & * \end{bmatrix}$$

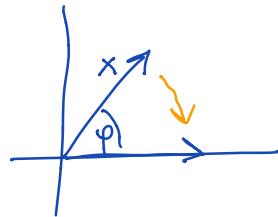
Plane rotations, Givens rotations (§ 5.3)

Besides reflections, rotations are also orthogonal transformations

In 2D, a rotation has the form

$$R(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & \sin \varphi \\ -\sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c^2 + s^2 = 1$$



$$\text{Properties: } R(\varphi)^T = R(-\varphi)$$

$$R(\varphi) R(-\varphi) = I$$

Plane rotations in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$R^{kl} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & 1 & c_{1..1} & s_{1..1} \\ & & & -s_{1..1} & c_{1..1} \\ l & & & & \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

$$Rx = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{k-1} \\ cx_k + sx_e \\ \vdots \\ -sx_k + cx_e \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

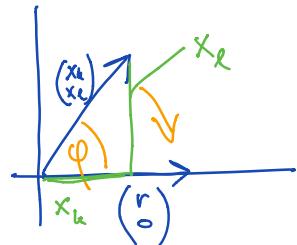
Can we choose φ (and thus c, s) such that
 $-sx_k + cx_e = 0$

$$\begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_k \\ x_e \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$r = \sqrt{x_k^2 + x_e^2}$$

$$c = \cos(\varphi) = \frac{x_k}{r}$$

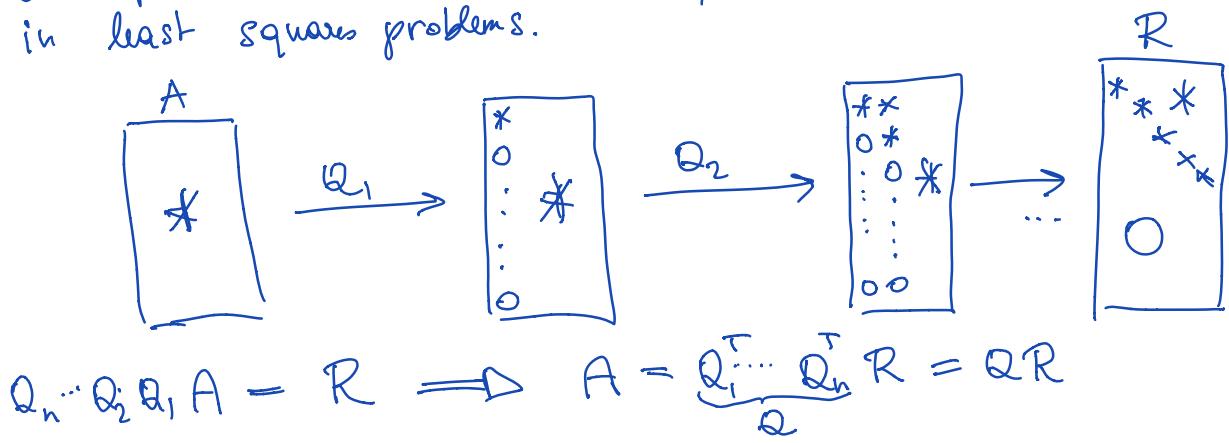
$$s = \sin(\varphi) = \frac{x_e}{r}$$



$$\begin{pmatrix} * & \dots & * \\ * & & \\ * & & \\ * & & \\ * & \dots & * \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(5,4) \text{ from left}} \begin{pmatrix} r & \dots & * \\ * & \dots & * \\ * & & \\ * & & \\ 0 & * & \dots & * \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(5,4) \text{ from right}} \begin{pmatrix} * & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{(4,3) \text{ left \& right}} \begin{pmatrix} r & * & * & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Both, Householder & Givens can be used to compute QR-factorizations of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $m \geq n$ as occurring in least squares problems.



The QR algorithm for eigenvalues of tridiagonal matrices (§5.7)

$A = \begin{bmatrix} & & \\ \diagdown & & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, symmetric, tri-diagonal
The QR algorithm computes matrices $A^{(k)}$
 $k=0, 1, 2, \dots$ starting from $A^{(0)} = A$:

for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

- compute QR decomposition of $A^{(k)}$, $A^{(k)} = QR$
- $A^{(k+1)} = RQ$

end

This algorithm converges to a diagonal matrix that contains the eigenvalues of A

First: Eigenvalues of $A = A^{(0)}, A^{(1)}, \dots$ are the same because:

$$A^{(k+1)} = RQ$$
$$= Q^T A^{(k)} Q$$
$$\underline{A^{(k)} = QR \Rightarrow Q^T A^{(k)} = R}$$

\Rightarrow so they have the same eigenvalues as this is only a similarity transform.