

CS 450: Numerical Analysis¹

Eigenvalue Problems

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¹*These slides have been drafted by Edgar Solomonik as lecture templates and supplementary material for the book “Scientific Computing: An Introductory Survey” by Michael T. Heath ([slides](#)).*

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- ▶ A matrix A has eigenvector-eigenvalue pair (eigenpair) (λ, \underline{x}) if

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

• αx is also an eigenvector

• $\lambda, X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, x \in X, Ax = \lambda x$

↑ eigenspace, $\dim(X) \leq$ multiplicity of λ

when '=' then the matrix is diagonalizable, otherwise, it is defective

- ▶ Each $n \times n$ matrix has up to n eigenvalues, which are either real or complex

• if we have $\lambda = a + bi$

even if the matrix is real

then we also have $\lambda = a - bi$

• for diagonalizable matrices, $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$
 X_1, \dots, X_k

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \dim(X_i) = \underbrace{\dim(A)}_n$$

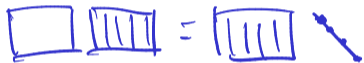
Eigenvalue Decomposition

$$A^T = A \quad A^H = A \quad X^{-1} x_i = e_i, \quad P e_i = \lambda_i e_i$$

► If a matrix A is diagonalizable, it has an *eigenvalue decomposition*

$$A x_i = x_i \cdot \lambda_i$$

$$A X = X D$$



$$A = \underbrace{X}_{\text{real}} \underbrace{D}_{\text{diagonal } d_{ii} = \lambda_i} X^{-1} \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ x_1 & \dots & x_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

if A is symmetric, $x^{-1} = x^H$
 $Ax = \lambda x$ Hermitian $A^H = A$
 $x^T A = \lambda x^T$

(u, v, σ)

$$A v = \sigma u$$

$$A^T u = \sigma v$$

► A and B are *similar*, if there exist Z such that $A = Z B Z^{-1}$

↑ similarity transformation ↑

$$B = X D X^{-1}, \quad A = (Z X) D (X^{-1} Z^{-1})$$

orthogonal (unitary) Z , i.e., $Z^{-1} = Z^H$ then

A and B are unitarily similar

$$B = A^H$$

$$b_{ij} = a_{ji}^*$$

$$2 \cdot 3i = (2 + 3i)^H$$

Similarity of Matrices

	A	$B = ZAZ^{-1}$ similarity $\leftarrow Z$	B
	matrix		reduced form
real			
<u>Symmetric</u>	positive definite SPD	orthogonal	diagonal, positive $b > 0$
<u>$\lambda > 0$</u>	<u>real symmetric</u>	orthogonal	real tridiagonal $[\Rightarrow]$ real diagonal
	<u>Hermitian</u>	unitary	real diagonal
<u>$A^H = A$</u>	<u>normal</u>	unitary	diagonal
<u>$A^H A = A A^H$</u>	<u>real</u>	orthogonal	real Hessenberg $[\Rightarrow]$
	diagonalizable	invertible	diagonal
	arbitrary	<u>unitary</u> invertible	triangular (Schur form) bidiagonal (Jordan normal form)

Canonical Forms

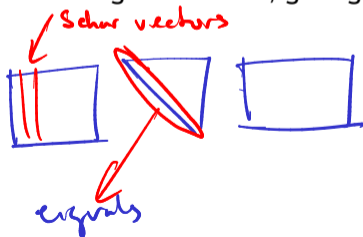
- ▶ Any matrix is *similar* to a bidiagonal matrix, giving its *Jordan form*:

$$A = X \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & J_k \end{bmatrix} X^{-1} \quad J_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ Any diagonalizable matrix is *unitarily similar* to a triangular matrix, giving its *Schur form*:

$$A = Q^T \overset{\text{triangular}}{\downarrow} Q^H$$

↑
unitary



Eigenvectors from Schur Form

- ▶ Given the eigenvectors of one matrix, we seek those of a similar matrix:

$$Tx = \lambda x \quad A = Q D Q^M$$

$$T = X D X^{-1} \quad \text{eigvecs}(A) = QX$$

- ▶ Its easy to obtain eigenvectors of triangular matrix T :

$\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \triangleright \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Ax = \lambda x$

$0 = (Ax - \lambda x) = (A - \lambda I)x$

$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right] (A - \lambda I)x = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & \dots & u_{13} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ u_{31} & \dots & u_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -u_{11}x_1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = u_{11}(-u_{11}^{-1}x_1) + 1 = 0$

(Note: The diagram shows a triangular matrix with elements u_{ij} and a vector x . A red circle highlights the element 1 in the vector, and a red arrow points from it to the equation $1 = 0$ in the final step. A green circle highlights the u_{11} element in the matrix, and a green arrow points from it to the term $-u_{11}^{-1}x_1$ in the equation.)

Rayleigh Quotient

- For any vector x , the **Rayleigh quotient** provides an estimate for some eigenvalue of A :

$$\lambda = \|Av\| / \|v\|$$

↑ real scalar (positive)

$$p_A(x) = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$$

↗ $Av = \lambda v$ eigenpair (λ, v)

$$p_A(v) = \lambda, \quad p_A(\alpha v) = \lambda$$

$$\{ p : p = p_A(x) \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{R}^n \} \rightarrow \text{field of values}$$

$$\leq \sigma_{\max}$$

$y = Ax$, $p_A(x)$ is a good estimate of the eigenvalue associated with a vector near x , since it's the

solution

$$x \alpha = y$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{?}{\approx} \begin{bmatrix} \cdot \\ \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

normal eqs

$$x^T x \alpha = x^T y \leftarrow Ax$$

$$\alpha = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x} = p_A(x)$$

Perturbation Analysis of Eigenvalue Problems

- Suppose we seek eigenvalues $D = X^{-1}AX$, but find those of a slightly perturbed matrix $D + \delta D = \hat{X}^{-1}(A + \delta A)\hat{X}$:

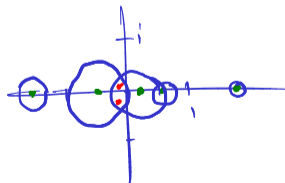
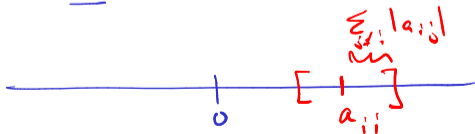
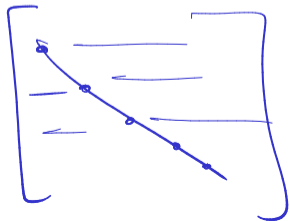
$$X^{-1}(A + \delta A)X = D + X^{-1}\delta AX = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|X^{-1}\delta AX\| \leq \|X^{-1}\| \cdot \|\delta A\| \cdot \|X\| = \kappa(X) \|\delta A\|$$

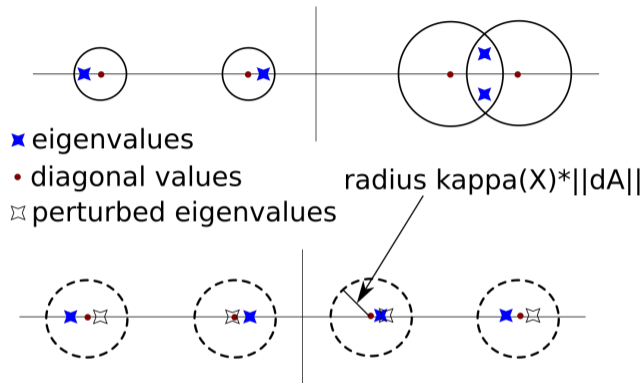
- Gershgorin's theorem allows us to bound the effect of the perturbation on the eigenvalues of a (diagonal) matrix:

Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, let $r_i = \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$, define the Gershgorin disks as

$$D_i = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a_{ii}| \leq r_i\}.$$



Gershgorin Theorem Perturbation Visualization



- ▶ Top corresponds to Gershgorin disks on complex plane of 4-by-4 real matrix.
- ▶ Bottom part corresponds to bounds on Gershgorin disks of $\mathbf{X}^{-1}(\mathbf{A} + \delta\mathbf{A})\mathbf{X}$, which contain the eigenvalues \mathbf{D} of \mathbf{A} and the perturbed eigenvalues $\mathbf{D} + \delta\mathbf{D}$ of $\mathbf{A} + \delta\mathbf{A}$ provided that $\|\delta\mathbf{A}\|$ is sufficiently small.

Conditioning of Particular Eigenpairs

- ▶ Consider the effect of a matrix perturbation on an eigenvalue λ associated with a right eigenvector x and a left eigenvector y , $\lambda = y^H A x / y^H x$

- ▶ A more accurate eigenvalue approximation than Rayleigh quotient for a normalized perturbed eigenvector (e.g., iterative guess) $\hat{x} = x + \delta x$, can be obtained with an estimate of both eigenvectors (also $\hat{y} = y + \delta y$),

Power Iteration

- ▶ *Power iteration* can be used to compute the largest eigenvalue of a real symmetric matrix A :

- ▶ The error of power iteration decreases at each step by the ratio of the largest eigenvalues:

Inverse and Rayleigh Quotient Iteration

Activity: Inverse Iteration with a Shift

Activity: Rayleigh Quotient Iteration

- ▶ *Inverse iteration* uses LU/QR/SVD of A to run power iteration on A^{-1}

- ▶ *Rayleigh quotient iteration* provides rapid convergence to an eigenpair

Deflation

- ▶ Power, inverse, and Rayleigh-quotient iteration compute a single eigenpair, to obtain further eigenpairs, can perform *deflation*

Direct Matrix Reductions

- ▶ We can always compute an orthogonal similarity transformation to reduce a general matrix to *upper-Hessenberg* (upper-triangular plus the first subdiagonal) matrix H , i.e. $A = QHQ^T$:

- ▶ In the symmetric case, Hessenberg form implies tridiagonal:

Simultaneous and Orthogonal Iteration

Demo: Orthogonal Iteration

Activity: Orthogonal Iteration

- ▶ *Simultaneous iteration* provides the main idea for computing many eigenvectors at once:

- ▶ Orthogonal iteration performs QR at each step to ensure stability

QR Iteration

- ▶ QR iteration reformulates orthogonal iteration for $n = k$ to reduce cost/step,

- ▶ Using induction, we assume $\mathbf{A}_i = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}_i^T \mathbf{A} \hat{\mathbf{Q}}_i$ and show that QR iteration obtains $\mathbf{A}_{i+1} = \hat{\mathbf{Q}}_{i+1}^T \mathbf{A} \hat{\mathbf{Q}}_{i+1}$

QR Iteration Complexity

- ▶ QR iteration is accelerated by first reducing to upper-Hessenberg or tridiagonal form:

Solving Tridiagonal Symmetric Eigenproblems

A variety of methods exists for the tridiagonal eigenproblem:

- ▶ QR iteration

- ▶ Divide and conquer

Solving the Secular Equation for Divide and Conquer

To solve the eigenproblem at each step, the divide and conquer method needs to diagonalize a rank-1 perturbation of a diagonal matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{D} + \alpha \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T.$$

Introduction to Krylov Subspace Methods

- ▶ *Krylov subspace methods* work with information contained in the $n \times k$ matrix

$$\mathbf{K}_k = [\mathbf{x}_0 \quad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{A}^{k-1}\mathbf{x}_0]$$

- ▶ The matrix $\mathbf{K}_n^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}_n$ is a *companion matrix* \mathbf{C} :

Krylov Subspaces

- ▶ Given $\mathbf{Q}_k \mathbf{R}_k = \mathbf{K}_k$, we obtain an orthonormal basis for the Krylov subspace,

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{x}_0) = \text{span}(\mathbf{Q}_k) = \{p(\mathbf{A})\mathbf{x}_0 : \text{deg}(p) < k\},$$

where p is any polynomial of degree less than k .

- ▶ The Krylov subspace includes the $k - 1$ approximate dominant eigenvectors generated by $k - 1$ steps of power iteration:

Krylov Subspace Methods

- ▶ The $k \times k$ matrix $\mathbf{H}_k = \mathbf{Q}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_k$ minimizes $\|\mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_k - \mathbf{Q}_k \mathbf{H}_k\|_2$:

- ▶ \mathbf{H}_k is Hessenberg, because the companion matrix \mathbf{C}_k is Hessenberg:

Rayleigh-Ritz Procedure

Demo: Arnoldi vs Power Iteration

Activity: Computing the Maximum Ritz Value

- ▶ The eigenvalues/eigenvectors of H_k are the *Ritz values/vectors*:

- ▶ The Ritz vectors and values are the *ideal approximations* of the actual eigenvalues and eigenvectors based on only H_k and Q_k :

Arnoldi Iteration

- ▶ Arnoldi iteration computes $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}_n$ directly using the recurrence $\mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{q}_j = h_{ij}$, where \mathbf{q}_l is the l th column of \mathbf{Q}_n :

- ▶ After each matrix-vector product, orthogonalization is done with respect to each previous vector:

Lanczos Iteration

- ▶ Lanczos iteration provides a method to reduce a symmetric matrix to a tridiagonal matrix:

- ▶ After each matrix-vector product, it suffices to orthogonalize with respect to two previous vectors:

Cost Krylov Subspace Methods

- ▶ The cost of matrix-vector multiplication when the matrix has m nonzeros

- ▶ The cost of orthogonalization at the k th iteration of a Krylov subspace method is

Restarting Krylov Subspace Methods

- ▶ In finite precision, Lanczos generally loses orthogonality, while orthogonalization in Arnoldi can become prohibitively expensive:

- ▶ Consequently, in practice, low-dimensional Krylov subspace methods are constructed repeatedly using carefully selected new starting vectors:

Generalized Eigenvalue Problem

- ▶ A generalized eigenvalue problem has the form $Ax = \lambda Bx$,
- ▶ When A and B are symmetric and B is SPD, we can perform Cholesky on B , multiply A by the inverted factors, and diagonalize it:
- ▶ Alternative canonical forms and methods exist that are specialized to the generalized eigenproblem.