

# 1. Introduction

Let  $A$  be a square  $n$  by  $n$  matrix

$x$  a vector

$\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  a scalar

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

eigensystem.  $\lambda$  is called an eigenvalue

$x$  is the eigenvectors

usually  $(\lambda, x)$  is called an eigenpair

Here and later we assume that  $A$  is Hermitian, i.e.  $A^* = A$

i.e. real, symmetric

# 2. Determining Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

$$Ax = \lambda x \Rightarrow (A - I\lambda)x = 0, \text{ where } I \text{ is the identity matrix}$$

This LSE has  $x \neq 0$  solution  $\Leftrightarrow \det(A - I\lambda) = 0$

Since the degree of  $p(\lambda)$  is  $n$   $\Downarrow$   $p(\lambda) = \det(A - I\lambda)$ : characteristic polynomial

$\Downarrow$   
it has  $n$  roots

$\Downarrow$   
A matrix has  $n$  eigenvalues and  $n$  corresponding  $x$  eigenvectors.

The  $n$  eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$$

If all  $\lambda_i > 0 \Rightarrow A$  is positive definite

$\lambda_i \geq 0 \Rightarrow A$  positive semidefinite

So each  $\lambda_i$  has an  $x_i$  eigenvector.

$\hookrightarrow \|x_i\| = 1$  eigenvectors are normal

$\hookrightarrow x_i \cdot x_j = \delta_{ij}$  the eigenvectors are orthogonal

# 3. Methods in general

Eigensolver



Direct solver: transformation method

$\hookrightarrow$  need to store the full matrix

$\hookrightarrow$  never fails to get the eigenvalues (99%)

Iterative solver: starting vector(s)

$\hookrightarrow$  don't need to store a full matrix

$\hookrightarrow$  can be very slow or fail to find eigenvalues

## Important questions:

↳ How many eigenvalues do you need?

↳ all  $\Rightarrow$  direct method

↳ Size of the matrix

↳ if very large  $\Rightarrow$  iterative method

↳ small matrix, but ill-conditioned  $\Rightarrow$  direct better than iterative

## 4. Iterative methods

### 4.1. Power method

Algorithm:

$y$  starting vector;  $y \neq 0$

for  $k=1, 2, \dots$

$$v = \frac{y}{\|y\|}$$

$$y = A \cdot v$$

$$\theta = v \cdot y$$

if  $\|y - \theta v\| < \epsilon$ , stop

end for

Results:  $\theta = \lambda$  eigenvalue

$x = v$  eigenvector

But  $\lambda$  which eigenvalue?

$$y = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_n x_n \quad | A^k \cdot$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^k y &= c_1 A^k x_1 + c_2 A^k x_2 + \dots + c_n A^k x_n = c_1 \lambda_1^k x_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^k x_2 + \dots = \\ &= \lambda_1^k \left( c_1 x_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^k c_i x_i \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{If } \lambda_1 \gg \lambda_i \Rightarrow \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \rightarrow 0, \text{ if } k \rightarrow \infty$$

So power iteration converges to the largest eigenvalue.

If  $A$  sparse  $\Rightarrow A \cdot v$  is very fast

If  $\lambda_1 \gg \lambda_2 \Rightarrow$  the convergence is very fast, otherwise slow.

### 4.2. Further eigenvalues

If we know  $(\lambda_1, x_1)$  eigenpair: choose another a starting vector

$$a \perp x_1: \quad b_1 = a - c_1 x_1, \text{ where } c_1 = a \cdot x_1$$

If we know the first  $m$  eigenpairs:

$$b = a - \sum_{i=1}^m c_i x_i, \text{ where } c_i = a \cdot x_i$$

### 4.3 Interior eigenvalues - shift method.

$$(A - \mu I)v = (\lambda - \mu)v$$

↳ using power method to the shifted matrix, we get the closest  $\lambda$  eigenvalue to  $\mu$ .

If  $\mu$  is a good estimation  $\Rightarrow$  very fast.

### 4.4 Inverse (power) method.

$y$ : starting vector

for  $\epsilon = 1, 2, \dots$

$$v = \frac{y}{\|y\|}$$

$$y = A^{-1} \cdot v$$

$$\theta = v \cdot y$$

if  $\|y - \theta v\| < \epsilon$ , stop

end for

$$\lambda = 1/\theta \text{ and } x = \frac{y}{\theta}$$

Computing  $A^{-1}$  is expensive  $\Rightarrow A \cdot v = y$  LSO  $\Rightarrow$  fast (CGM)

$\lambda_1$  largest  $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda_1}$  smallest, so the inverse method results in the smallest eigenvalue.

Usually very slow!

### 4.5. Rayleigh Quotient iteration

shift the matrix with  $S(x) = \frac{x \cdot A \cdot x}{x \cdot x}$  Rayleigh quotient

$y$ : starting vector;  $S_1 = 0$

for  $\epsilon = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$y = \frac{y}{\|y\|}$$

$$y = (A - S_\epsilon I)^{-1} v$$

$$\theta = \|y\|$$

$$S_{\epsilon+1} = S_\epsilon + \frac{y \cdot v}{\theta}$$

$$v = \frac{y}{\theta}$$

if  $\theta \geq \epsilon$ , stop.

end for

Results:  $\lambda = \theta$

#### 4.6. Lanczos method

$$A \longrightarrow T \text{ tridiagonal matrix } T = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & \\ \beta_1 & \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & & \\ & \beta_2 & \alpha_3 & \beta_3 & \\ & & \beta_3 & \alpha_4 & \beta_4 \\ & & & \beta_4 & \alpha_5 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & & & & \beta_{n-1} & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

eigenvalues of  $T$  are eigenvalues of  $A$ .  
similarity transformation.

$$Q^T A Q = T, \text{ where } Q^T Q = I$$

$\Downarrow$

$$A Q = Q T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ q_{j-1} & & q_j & & q_{j+1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots \\ \beta_{j-1} & & \\ \alpha_j & & \\ \beta_j & & \\ \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A q_j = \beta_{j-1} q_{j-1} + \alpha_j q_j + \beta_j q_{j+1}$$

a) determine  $\alpha_j$  &  $q_j^T$

$$q_j^T A q_j = \beta_{j-1} \underbrace{q_j^T q_{j-1}}_0 + \alpha_j \underbrace{q_j^T q_j}_1 + \beta_j \underbrace{q_j^T q_{j+1}}_0 \Rightarrow \alpha_j = q_j^T A q_j$$

b) determine  $\beta_j$

$$r_j = \beta_j q_{j+1} = A q_j - \beta_{j-1} q_{j-1} - \alpha_j q_j$$

$$\|r_j\| = \beta_j \Rightarrow q_{j+1} = \frac{r_j}{\beta_j}$$

Algorithm:

$r_0$  starting vector,  $\beta_0 = \|r_0\|$

$j = 1, 2, \dots$

$$q_j = \frac{r_{j-1}}{\beta_{j-1}}$$

$$a = A \cdot q_j$$

$$\alpha_j = q_j^T a$$

$$r_j = a - \beta_{j-1} q_{j-1} - \alpha_j q_j$$

$$\beta_j = \|r_j\|$$

if  $\beta_j < \epsilon$  stop

Result  $T = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & \\ \beta_1 & \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \\ & \beta_2 & \alpha_3 & \beta_3 \\ & & \beta_3 & \alpha_4 & \beta_4 \\ & & & \beta_4 & \alpha_5 & \ddots \\ & & & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & & & & & \beta_{n-1} & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$  compute eigenvalues & eigenvectors of  $T$

A eigenvalues = T eigenvalues

A eigenvectors:  $X = Q \cdot S$ , where  $Q = [q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots]$   
S eigenvectors of T matrix.

If we use  $a = A \cdot q_j \Rightarrow$  largest eigenvalue

If we use  $a = A^T q_j$  or  $A \cdot a = q_j \Rightarrow$  smallest eigenvalue.

It is necessary  $Q^T Q = I \Rightarrow$  we need to reorthogonalize the

$$r_j = r_j - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} (q_k^T r_j) q_k$$

## 5, Direct methods

### 5.1. Jacobi method

Similarity transformation with P Jacobi rotation matrix

$$A_{k+1} = P_k^T A_k P_k, \text{ where } P_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \cos \theta & & \sin \theta & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} p \\ q \\ p \\ q \\ q \end{matrix}$$

each step we modify p/q row and column

$$S_k = \sum_{i \neq j} (a_{ij}^k)^2 \rightarrow \text{minimize}$$

Very reliable

### 5.2. Householder method

$$A_{k+1} = P_k^T A_k P_k, \text{ where } P_k = I - 2u_k u_k^T, \text{ where}$$

$u_k$  has an explicit formula

$$\Downarrow$$
$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown & & \\ & \diagdown & \\ & & \diagdown \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{determine the eigenvalues and eigenvectors.}$$

### 5.3. QR method

Each matrix  $A = QR$ , where Q orthogonal

for  $k=1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$A_k = Q_k R_k$$

$$A_{k+1} = R_k Q_k$$

R  $\begin{bmatrix} \diagdown & & \\ & \diagdown & \\ & & \diagdown \end{bmatrix}$  upper triangle matrix

Results.  $A_k$   $\begin{bmatrix} \diagdown & & \\ & \diagdown & \\ & & \diagdown \end{bmatrix}$  are the eigenvalues

Very good for triangle matrix  $\Rightarrow$  QR used in Householder and Lanczos - 5 -