

Ma221 Lecture 9

Eigenvalue Problems

Goals:

Canonical Forms (recall Jordan,
why Schur form better)

Variations on eigenvalue *problems*
(not just one matrix...)

Perturbation theory
(can I trust the answer?)

Algorithms (for a single
nonsymmetric matrix)

Recommended on webpage:

Templates for Solution of Algebraic
Eigenvalue Problems

Recall definitions for $n \times n$ A

Def: $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$ is
characteristic polynomial,
n roots are eigenvalues

Def: If λ eigenvalue, a non-zero
null vector $x : (A - \lambda I)x = 0$
must exist, i.e. $Ax = \lambda x$,
 x is a right e-vector

Analogously $\exists y^* (A - \lambda I) = 0$
or $y^* A = \lambda y^*$
 y^* is left e-vector

Def: S nonsingular and $B = SAS^{-1}$
 S is a similarity transform
 A and B are similar

Lemma: A and B similar \Rightarrow have
same e-vals, e-vecs are related
by multiplying by S

proof $Ax = \lambda x$ iff $\underbrace{SAS^{-1}}_B Sx = \lambda Sx$

$$\text{or } B(S\alpha) = \lambda(S\alpha)$$

$$y^* A = \lambda y^* \text{ iff } y^* S^{-1} S A S^{-1} = \lambda y^* S^{-1}$$

$$\text{or } (y^* S^{-1}) B = \lambda (y^* S^{-1})$$

Goal: Transform A to a simpler similar B , whose evals and e-vecs are "easy"

Simplest: B diagonal, then e-vals are $B(i,i)$ and e-vecs = $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_i$

Lemma: if $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i$ for $i=1$ to n and $S = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is nonsingular, i.e. \exists n linearly independent e-vecs.

$$\text{Then } A = S \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} S^{-1}.$$

Conversely if $A = S \Lambda S^{-1}$ where Λ diagonal, then columns of S are e-vecs, $\lambda_i = \Lambda(i,i)$ are e-vals.

proof: $A = S \Lambda S^{-1}$ iff

$$AS = S \Lambda \quad \text{iff}$$

$$AS[:,i] = S[:,i] \lambda_i \quad \text{for all } i$$

But we can't always "diagonalize" A ,
for 2 reasons:

may be mathematically impossible
(recall Jordan form)

may be numerically unstable
(even if it exists)

Recall Jordan: For any A
there is a similar $J = SAS^{-1}$
such that $J = \text{diag}(J_1, \dots, J_k)$
where each J_i is a Jordan Block

$$J_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Up to permuting order of J_i , unique
Different J_i can have same λ
eg $A = I$, Only one right/left-evec

per Jordan Block:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} c \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So a matrix has n independent e-vectors iff has n 1×1 Jordan Blocks, called diagonalizable, otherwise defective. The number of times λ appears is called its multiplicity.

Why not Compute Jordan Form?

Consider slightly perturbed 2×2 identity matrix:

$$(1) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1+e \end{bmatrix} : (1, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}) \text{ and } (1+e, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ e \end{bmatrix})$$

$$(2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & e \\ e & 1 \end{bmatrix} : (1+e, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}) \text{ and } (1-e, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix})$$

evecs rotated 45°

$$(3) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & e \\ 0 & 1+e^2 \end{bmatrix} : (1, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}) \text{ and } (1+e^2, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ e \end{bmatrix})$$

evecs nearly parallel

$$(4) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & e \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}: \left(1, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

only one evec

$$(5) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}: \left(1, \text{anything} \right) \text{ and } \left(1, \text{anything} \right)$$

When e-vals are nearly multiple,
Jordan form very ill-conditioned

Best we can hope for is
backward stability: Getting
exact e-vals and e-vecs for a
slightly perturbed $A+E$, $\|E\| = O(\epsilon) \|A\|$

Ma221 Lecture 9 Segment 2

Backward Stable approach
to computing e-vals and e-vecs

Chap 3: Multiplying by orthogonal matrices is backward stable

$$\text{fl}(Q_k(Q_{k-1}(\dots(Q_1 A)\dots))) = Q(A+E)$$

where $Q Q^T = I$, $\|E\| = O(\epsilon) \|A\|$

Apply to computing orthogonal similarity

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fl}(Q_k(\dots(Q_2(Q A Q_1^T) Q_2^T)\dots Q_k^T)) \\ = Q(A+E)Q^T \quad Q Q^T = I \\ \|E\| = O(\epsilon) \|A\| \end{aligned}$$

If we restrict to orthog (unitary) similarities, how close to Jordan form can we get?

Thm (Schur Canonical Form):

Given any $n \times n$ A there is a unitary Q s.t. $Q^H A Q = T$ upper triangular with e vals are $T(i,i)$, which can appear in any order

Computing e-vects of T : just triangular solve:

$$\begin{matrix} i-1 \\ 1 \\ n-i \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} i-1 & i & n-i \\ \left[\begin{array}{ccc} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ & T(i,i) & T_{23} \\ & & T_{33} \end{array} \right] \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \\ \\ \\ \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{matrix} = T(i,i) \begin{matrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{matrix}$$

$$T_{11} x_1 + T_{12} x_2 + T_{13} x_3 = T(i,i) x_1$$

$$T(i,i) x_2 + T_{23} x_3 = T(i,i) x_2$$

$$T_{33} x_3 = T(i,i) x_3$$

If one $T(i,i)$ on diagonal, then

only x_3 that satisfies

$$T_{33} x_3 = T(i,i) x_3 \text{ is } x_3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow T(i,i) x_2 = T(i,i) x_2$$

choose $x_2 = 1$

$$\Rightarrow T_{11} x_1 + T_{12} = T(i,i) x_1$$

$$(T_{11} - T(i,i) I) x_1 = -T_{12}$$

if $T(i,i)$ only appears once,
nonsingular triangular system,
else singular, as expected

What does LAPACK (Matlab) do if

there are multiple eigenvalues: always returns something, try $\text{eig}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}\right)$ see what happens.

proof of Schur form: Induction

let x be unit right evec $Ax = \lambda x$, $\|x\|_2 = 1$

Let $Q = [x, Q']$ be unitary matrix

$$\begin{aligned} Q^H A Q &= \begin{bmatrix} x^H \\ Q'^H \end{bmatrix} A \begin{bmatrix} x & Q' \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} x^H A x & x^H A Q' \\ Q'^H A x & Q'^H A Q' \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda x^H x & x^H A Q' \\ \lambda Q'^H x & Q'^H A Q' \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & x^H A Q' \\ 0 & Q'^H A Q' \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

apply induction to $Q'^H A Q' = U^H T U$

T upper triangular, U unitary

$$Q^H A Q = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & x^H A Q' \\ 0 & U^H T U \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & U^* \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \lambda & x^* A Q' U^* \\ \hline & T \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & U \end{array} \right] \\
 \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & U \end{array} \right]}_{\text{unitary}} Q^* & A Q \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & U^* \end{array} \right]}_{\text{inverse}} = \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c|c} \lambda & x^* A Q' U^* \\ \hline 0 & T \end{array} \right]}_{\text{upper triangular as desired}}
 \end{aligned}$$

what about real matrices with complex evals?

Ma 221 Lecture 9 Segment 3

Schur Form for Real Matrices

Real A can have complex evals

(unless, say, $A = A^T$, see Chap 5)

so Schur form could be complex.

But if A real, prefer all real

computations:

reduce # flops

less memory

make sure complex evals, evcs

appear in complex
conjugate pairs

Instead of triangular T ,
use block triangular T :

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \dots & T_{1k} \\ & T_{22} & \dots & T_{2k} \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & T_{kk} \end{bmatrix}$$

evals of T are the union of evals
of all T_{ii} (HW 4.1). Show any
real matrix orthogonally similar
to block triangular T where each *diagonal*
block either 1×1 (real eval) or
 2×2 (2 complex conjugate evals)

Thm (Real Schur Canonical Form) Given
real $n \times n$ A , \exists real orthog Q such that
 $Q A Q^T$ is block upper triangular
with 1×1 and 2×2 blocks

Generalize evec to "invariant subspace"

Def: $V = \text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_m\} = \text{span}(X)$, $X = [x_1, \dots, x_m]$

be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . It is invariant
if $A \cdot V = \text{span}(AX) \subseteq V$

Ex: $V = \text{span}\{x\} = \{\alpha x \text{ for all scalars } \alpha\}$
where $Ax = \lambda x$

$$\begin{aligned} A \cdot V &= \{A(\alpha x) \mid \alpha\} \\ &= \{\alpha \lambda x \mid \forall \alpha\} \subseteq V \\ & (= V \text{ unless } \lambda = 0) \end{aligned}$$

Ex $V = \text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_k\} = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i \mid \forall \alpha_i \right\}$
where $Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i$

$$\begin{aligned} AV &= \left\{ A \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i \mid \forall \alpha_i \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \lambda_i x_i \mid \forall \alpha_i \right\} \\ &\subseteq V \end{aligned}$$

Lemma: $V = \text{span}\{x_1, \dots, x_m\} = \text{span}(X)$ where

$\text{dimension}(V) = m$. Then there is
an $m \times m$ B such that $A \cdot X = X \cdot B$

The evals of B are evals of A .

pf: existence of B follows from def:

$$Ax_i \text{ in } V \Rightarrow \exists \text{ scalars } B(1,i) \dots B(m,i)$$

...

such that $Ax_c = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i B(j,i)$ i.e. $AX = XB$

$$By = \lambda y \quad A(Xy) = XBy = \lambda(Xy)$$

i.e. Xy evec of A , eval λ

Lemma: Let $V = \text{span}(X)$ be m -dimensional invariant subspace of A as above,

$$AX = XB. \quad X = QR, \quad \text{Let } [Q, Q']$$

be square and orthog

$$[Q, Q']^T \cdot A \cdot [Q, Q'] = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$A_{11} = R \cdot B \cdot R^{-1}$ has same evals as B

proof: $[Q, Q']^T A [Q, Q']$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} Q^T A Q & Q^T A Q' \\ Q'^T A Q & Q'^T A Q' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AQ = AXR^{-1} = XBR^{-1} = QRBR^{-1}$$

$$\text{so } A_{11} = Q^T AQ = Q^T QRBR^{-1} = RBR^{-1}$$

$$A_{21} = \underbrace{Q'^T Q}_{0} RBR^{-1} = 0$$

Proof of Real Schur Form:

Induction: if $Ax = \lambda x$,
where x, λ are real, reduce
to $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ problem as in
proof of Schur form (all arith real)

If x, λ complex: look at real
and imaginary parts of $Ax = \lambda x$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{re}(x) \\ \operatorname{im}(x) \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{re}(\lambda) & \operatorname{im}(\lambda) \\ -\operatorname{im}(\lambda) & \operatorname{re}(\lambda) \end{bmatrix}$$

$AX = BX$: first col is $\operatorname{re}(Ax = \lambda x)$
second col is $\operatorname{im}(Ax = \lambda x)$

X in invariant subspace

evals of B are λ and $\bar{\lambda}$

so use lemma to do orthog similarity

to get $\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$

evals of A_{11} are λ and $\bar{\lambda}$

Ma221 Lecture 9 Segment 4

Review other eigenproblems that can arise. In Lecture 1, showed that ODEs can give rise to more general eigenproblems:

(1) ODE: $x'(t) = Kx(t) \rightarrow$

If $K \cdot x(0) = \lambda \cdot x(0)$ then $x(t) = e^{\lambda t} x(0)$, similar if $x(0)$ is linear comb. of evecs

(2) When $Mx''(t) + Kx(t) = 0$
and $\lambda^2 Mx(0) + Kx(0) = 0$ then
 $x(t) = e^{\lambda t} x(0)$

"generalized eigenproblem"
for (M, K) , with eval λ^2
and evec $x(0)$. Usual
det of eval becomes
 $\det(\lambda' M + K) = 0$, $\lambda' = \lambda^2$

$$(3) \quad Mx''(t) + Dx'(t) + Kx(t) = 0$$

\Rightarrow "nonlinear eigenproblem"

$$\lambda^2 Mx(0) + \lambda Dx(0) + Kx(0) = 0$$

can be reduced linear problem
of twice the size

$$(4) \quad x'(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$

"linear control system"

how to choose $u(t)$ to "control"
 $x(t)$ turns into singular
eigenproblem for rectangular

$$[B, A] \text{ and } [0, I]$$

All ideas of Chap 4 (eval, evecs,
Jordan form, Schur form, algorithms)
generalize to these cases, see
Chap 4.5 for details; continue
discussion for J matrix

Perturbation Theory: how can I trust my answer

Goal: Backward Stability: right answer (evals) for a slightly wrong problem $A+E$, $\|E\| = O(\epsilon)\|A\|$

Last time: showed if evals are close evcs very sensitive (disappear, be nonunique, for $A=I$)

To describe perturbations in evals:

Def: Epsilon pseudo spectrum of A is set of all evals of all matrices within distance ϵ of A :

$$\Lambda_\epsilon(A) = \{ \lambda : (A+E)x = \lambda x \text{ for some } x \neq 0 \text{ and } \|E\|_2 \leq \epsilon \}$$

Ideal case: $\Lambda_\epsilon(A)$ = union of disks of radius ϵ around evals of A (attained by adding $\epsilon \cdot I$ to A) true for $A=A^H$ (Chap 5)

Worst case: (Trefethen + Reichel)

Given any simply connected $R \subseteq \mathbb{C}$,

any $x \in R$

any $\varepsilon > 0$

there exists A
with one eval at x

$\Lambda_\varepsilon(A)$ nearly fills out R

i.e. evals can be very sensitive

proof: use Riemann Mapping Thm



Ex: Perturb $n \times n$ Jordan Block, $\lambda = 0$
with $J(n, 1) = \varepsilon$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ \varepsilon & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rho(\lambda) = \lambda^n - \varepsilon = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$\lambda = \sqrt[n]{\varepsilon}$ uniformly spaced
on circle of radius $\sqrt[n]{\varepsilon}$

$$\varepsilon = 10^{-16} \quad n = 16 \quad \text{radius} = 1$$

- (1) evals **are not** always differentiable
functions of A (slope of $\varepsilon^{1/n}$ is ∞ at $\varepsilon = 0$)
- (2) expect sensitive evals when (nearly)
multiple, as was case for evcs

Condition number of simple (non multiple)
eval:

Thm: λ simple eval of A

$$Ax = \lambda x \quad y^H A = \lambda y^H, \quad \|x\|_2 = \|y\|_2 = 1$$

If we perturb A to $A+E$, then

λ perturbed to $\lambda + \delta\lambda$

$$\delta\lambda = \frac{y^H E x}{y^H x} + O(\|E\|^2)$$

$$|\delta\lambda| \leq \frac{\|E\|_2}{|y^H x|} + O(\|E\|^2)$$

$$= \sec(\theta) \|E\|_2 + O(\|E\|^2)$$

where θ = angle between x and y

i.e. $\sec(\theta)$ is condition number

proof: Subtract $Ax = \lambda x$ from

$$(A+E)(x+\delta x) = (\lambda + \delta\lambda)(x + \delta x)$$

$$\underbrace{Ax + A\delta x + Ex + E\delta x}_{\text{cancel}} = \lambda x + \lambda\delta x + \delta\lambda x + \delta\lambda\delta x$$

ignore second order terms: $E\delta x, \delta\lambda\delta x$

$$A\delta x + Ex = \lambda\delta x + \delta\lambda x$$

multiply by y^H

$$\underbrace{y^H A \delta x + y^H E x}_{\text{(cancel)}} = \lambda y^H \delta x + \delta \lambda y^H x$$

$$\delta \lambda = \frac{y^H E x}{y^H x}$$

Note: $y^H x = 0$ for Jordan Block!
 $x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Special case: A real symmetric (Hermitian or normal ($AA^H = A^H A$)): all evecs are orthonormal

Cor: If A normal, perturbing A to $A+E$
 $\Rightarrow |\delta \lambda| \leq \|E\| + o(\|E\|^2)$, i.e. condition number = 1

Proof: $A = Q \Lambda Q^H$ is eigendecomposition

Q unitary, $AQ = Q\Lambda$
 \Rightarrow right evecs are also $\uparrow Q$

$Q^H A = \Lambda Q^H \Rightarrow$ left evecs also columns of Q

Later, Chap 5, for Hermitian A,

if $A+E$, E also Hermitian

$$|\delta \lambda| \leq \|E\|_2 \quad (\text{no } o(\|E\|^2) \text{ term})$$

Extend to eliminate $O(\|E\|^2)$ in general

Thm (Bauer-Fike) A has all simple
evals, call them λ_i , with evcs x_i, y_i
with $\|x_i\|_2 = \|y_i\|_2 = 1$. Then for any E
the evals of $A+E$ lie in the union
of disks D_i , with centers λ_i and
radius $n \cdot \|E\|_2 / |y_i^H x_i|$

Note: bound n times larger than
asymptotic result. If 2 disks
overlap, only guarantee is that 2 evals
lie in union $D_i \cup D_j$ (analogous if
multiple disks overlap) (see proof in book)

Ma221 Lecture 9 Segment 5

Algorithms for

Nonsymmetric Eigenproblem

Ultimate Algorithm: Hessenberg QR

takes nonsymmetric A , computes
Schur form $A = QTQ^H$ in $O(n^3)$ flops.

Build up to it via simpler algorithms
that are also used, e.g. to find just
a few evals/evecs of large sparse
matrices. Hessenberg QR also building
block, because we "approximate" large
sparse matrix by small dense matrix
on which we use Hessenberg QR (Chap 7)

Plan:

Power Method: Just repeated
multiplication of x by A , converges
to evec for eval of largest magnitude

Inverse Iteration: Apply power
method to $B = (A - \sigma I)^{-1}$ which has
same evecs as A , largest eval in
magnitude corresponds to eval of A

closest to σ ("shift"). So by choosing σ appropriately, can converge to any eval/vec

Orthogonal Iteration: Extends power method from one evec to whole invariant subspace

QR Iteration: Combine Inverse Iteration and Orthogonal Iteration

lots of other techniques, to get complexity down to $O(n^2)$, real Schur form, reduce movement, discuss later

Power Method:

$$i = 0$$

repeat

$$y_{i+1} = Ax_i$$

$$x_{i+1} = y_{i+1} / \|y_{i+1}\|_2 \dots \text{approx evec}$$

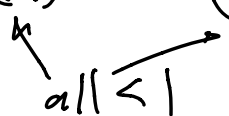
$$\lambda'_{i+1} = x_{i+1}^T A x_{i+1} \dots \text{approx eval}$$

$$i = i + 1$$

until convergence

Consider $A = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$
 where $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots$, generalize later

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= A^i x_0 / \|A^i x_0\|_2 \\ &= [\lambda_1^i x_0(1), \lambda_2^i x_0(2), \dots] / \| \cdot \|_2 \\ &= \lambda_1^i [x_0(1), \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^i x_0(2), \left(\frac{\lambda_3}{\lambda_1}\right)^i x_0(3) \dots] / \| \cdot \|_2 \end{aligned}$$



 all < 1

as i grows converges to $[1, 0, \dots, 0]$
 as desired, even for λ_1

error is $O\left(\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^i\right)$, assuming $x_0(1) \neq 0$

Now suppose A diagonalizable $A = S \Lambda S^{-1}$

$$A^i = S \Lambda^i S^{-1} = S \text{diag}(\lambda_1^i, \lambda_2^i, \dots, \lambda_n^i) S^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^i x_0 &= S [\lambda_1^i z_1, \lambda_2^i z_2, \dots] & z &= S^{-1} x_0 \\ &= \lambda_1^i S [z_1, \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^i z_2, \dots] \\ &\rightarrow \lambda_1^i S [z_1, 0, \dots, 0] \\ &= z_1 \lambda_1^i S(:, 1), \text{ multiple of evec for } \lambda_1 \end{aligned}$$

For this to converge at good rate,
need (1) $|\frac{d_2}{d_1}| < 1$, smaller the better

can't count on this, eg
if A orthogonal, then
all $|d_i| = 1$, no convergence

(2) z_1 non-zero, pick x_0 randomly
chance z_1 tiny very small

How to achieve $|d_1| \gg |d_2|$?

Inverse Iteration: power method
on $B = (A - \sigma I)^{-1}$

$i = 0$

repeat

$$y_{i+1} = (A - \sigma I)^{-1} x_i$$

$$x_{i+1} = \frac{y_{i+1}}{\|y_{i+1}\|_2} \dots \text{approx evec}$$

$$\lambda'_{i+1} = x_{i+1}^T A x_{i+1} \dots \text{approx eval}$$

$i = i + 1$

unt il convergence

evecs of B same as for A
evals of B are $\frac{1}{\lambda_i - \sigma}$,

Suppose σ closest to λ_k

Do same analysis as above with vector

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} [(\lambda_k - \sigma) / (\lambda_1 - \sigma)]^i \frac{z_1}{z_k} \\ [(\lambda_k - \sigma) / (\lambda_2 - \sigma)]^i \frac{z_2}{z_k} \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ [(\lambda_k - \sigma) / (\lambda_n - \lambda)]^i \frac{z_n}{z_k} \end{array} \right] k^{\text{th}} \text{ component}$$

If we can make σ much closer to λ_k than any other λ_i , can converge as fast as we want. Where do we get σ ? Algorithm computes estimate of λ_k . This makes convergence quadratic, even cubic in some cases.

Ma 221 Lecture 9 Segment 6

Last time: power method and inverse iteration; extend power method from one vector to multiple vectors.

Orthogonal Iteration:

given Z_0 , $n \times p$ orthog matrix

$i \geq 0$
repeat
 $Y_{i+1} = A Z_i$

factor $Y_{i+1} = Z_{i+1} R_{i+1} \dots$ QR decomp
 $\dots Z_{i+1}$ spans an approximate
invariant subspace

$i = i+1$
until convergence

$p=1$, same as power method

Similar to some randomized algs.
when Z_0 chosen randomly.

Informal Analysis:

$A = S \Lambda S^{-1}$ diagonalizable

$|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_p| > |\lambda_{p+1}| \geq \dots$
↑ needed for
convergence

$\text{span}(Z_{i+1}) \approx \text{span}(Y_{i+1}) = \text{span}(A Z_i)$

$\dots \text{span}(A^i Z_0)$ by induction

$= \text{span}(S \Lambda^i S^{-1} Z_0)$

$$\begin{aligned}
& S \Lambda^i S^T z_0 \\
&= S \cdot \lambda_p^i \operatorname{diag} \left(\underbrace{\left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_p}\right)^i, \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_p}\right)^i, \dots, 1}_{\geq 1}, \underbrace{\left(\frac{\lambda_{p+1}}{\lambda_p}\right)^i, \dots}_{< 1} \right) S^{-T} z_0 \\
&= S \cdot \lambda_p^i \begin{bmatrix} V_i \\ W_i \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

V_i multiplied by $\left(\frac{\lambda_x}{\lambda_p}\right)^i$, $\left(\frac{\lambda_x}{\lambda_p}\right) \geq 1$

W_i multiplied by $\left(\frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_p}\right)^i$, $\left(\frac{\lambda_k}{\lambda_p}\right) < 1$

$W_i \rightarrow 0$, V_i grows, keeps full rank if V_0 full rank

$A^i z_0 \rightarrow \lambda_p^i S \begin{bmatrix} V_i \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ = linear combination of leading p columns of S
 i.e. first p eigenvectors,
 desired invariant subspace

Note that first $k < p$ columns of Z_i are the same as though we started with first k columns of Z_0 because k^{th} column of Q, R in QR decompt of A only depends on first k columns

\Rightarrow Orthogonal Iterative gives first p invariant subspaces, assuming $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots$

Why not let $p=n$, $Z_0=I$, compute
 n invariant subspaces, if $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots$
 (A real \Rightarrow complex eigenvalues have $|\lambda_i| = |\lambda_i^*|$
 doesn't work)

Then Run Orthogonal Iteration
 on A with $Z_0=I$, $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots$
 and all submatrices $S(l:k, l:k)$ all
 have full rank, then $A_i \rightarrow Z_i^T A Z_i$
 (similar to A) converges to Schur form,
 i.e. upper triangular, evals on diagonal

proof: by previous analysis, for each k ,
 span of first k columns of Z_i
 converge to invariant subspace
 spanned by first k evecs of A

$$Z_i = \begin{bmatrix} \overset{k}{Z_{i1}} & \overset{n-k}{Z_{i2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Z_i^H A Z_i = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{i1}^H \\ Z_{i2}^H \end{bmatrix} A \begin{bmatrix} Z_{i1} & Z_{i2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} Z_{i1}^H A Z_{i1} & Z_{i1}^H A Z_{i2} \\ Z_{i2}^H A Z_{i1} & Z_{i2}^H A Z_{i2} \end{bmatrix}$$

converges to 0

$A Z_i$ converges to $Z_i B$, where B $k \times k$
since $Z_i \rightarrow$ invariant subspace

$$Z_i^H A Z_i \rightarrow \underbrace{Z_i^H Z_i}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ by orthogonality of } Z_i} B \rightarrow 0$$

block upper triangular for all k
 \Rightarrow upper triangular, Z_i unitary
 \Rightarrow Schur form
(matlab demo: see typed notes for code)

Math 221 Lecture 9 Segment 7

power method \Rightarrow Orthogonal Iteration
 \Rightarrow QR Iteration \Rightarrow add inverse iteration

\rightarrow lets us converge to any eigenvalue
for which we have an approximation
(to be supplied by algorithm)

QR: given $A_0 = A$

$i = 0$

repeat

factor $A_i = Q_i R_i$

$A_{i+1} = R_i Q_i$

$i = i + 1$

until convergence

$$A_{i+1} = R_i Q_i = Q_i^T Q_i R_i Q_i = Q_i^T A_i Q_i$$

$\Rightarrow A_{i+1}$ and A_i orthog similar

Thm: A_i from QR iteration identical to $Z_i^T A Z_i$ from orthog. iteration
 $\Rightarrow A_i$ converges to Schur form if all eigenvalues have different magnitudes

proof: Induction: assume $A_i = Z_i^T A Z_i$
 One step of Orthog It \rightarrow

$$A Z_i = Z_{i+1} R_{i+1} \dots \text{QR decomp}$$

$$A_i = Z_i^T A Z_i = \underbrace{Z_i^T Z_{i+1}} \cdot \underbrace{R_{i+1}}$$

= orthog \cdot triangular

= QR decomp of A_i by uniqueness

$$Z_{i+1}^T A Z_{i+1} = Z_{i+1}^T A Z_i Z_i^T Z_{i+1}$$

$$= (Z_{i+1}^T A Z_i) (Z_i^T Z_{i+1})$$

$$= R_{i+1} \cdot (Z_i^T Z_{i+1})$$

$$= \underline{R \cdot Q} \quad \text{where } QR = Z_i^T A Z_i$$

$$= A_{i+1}$$

i.e. we have taken one step of QR iteration

Add inverse iteration

QR iteration with a shift: given $A_0 = A$

$i \geq 0$

repeat

choose shift σ_i near an eigenvalue

$$\text{factor } A_i - \sigma_i I = Q_i R_i$$

$$A_{i+1} = R_i Q_i + \sigma_i I$$

$$i = i+1$$

until convergence

Lemma: A_i and A_{i+1} orthog. similar

pf: $A_{i+1} = R_i Q_i + \sigma_i I$

$$= Q_i^T Q_i R_i Q_i + \sigma_i I$$

$$= Q_i^T (A_i - \sigma_i I) Q_i + \sigma_i I$$

$$= Q_i^T A_i Q_i$$

If R_i nonsingular we can write

$$A_{i+1} = R_i Q_i + \sigma_i I$$

$$= R_i Q_i R_i^{-1} R_i + \sigma_i I$$

$$= R_i (A_i - \sigma_i I) R_i^{-1} + \sigma_i I \quad \text{cancel}$$

$$= R_i A_i R_i^{-1}$$

If σ_i exact eval of A , QR iteration with shift converges in 1 step:

$A_i - \sigma_i I$ singular $\Rightarrow R_i$ singular

\Rightarrow some diagonal entry of R_i is 0

Suppose that $R_i(n, n) = 0$

\Rightarrow whole last row of R_i is 0

\Rightarrow last row of $R_i Q_i$ is 0

\Rightarrow last row of $A_{i+1} = R_i Q_i + \sigma_i I$

is zero except $A_{i+1}(n, n) = \sigma_i$



\Rightarrow continue working on

leading $n-1 \times n-1$ submatrix

If σ_i not exact eval, declare

convergence if $A_{i+1}(n, 1:n-1)$

small enough ($\leq \alpha \epsilon \cdot \|A\| \Rightarrow$

backward stable)

Previous analysis \Rightarrow expect $A_{i+1}(n, (i+1))$
to shrink by factor

$$|\lambda_k - \sigma_i| / \min_{j \neq k} |\lambda_j - \sigma_i|$$

This is implicitly inverse iteration

Suppose eval is real

$$A_i - \sigma_i I = Q_i R_i$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_i^T (A_i - \sigma_i I) = R_i$$

\Rightarrow if σ_i were exact eval, \Rightarrow

$$R_i(n, n) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

last row of $Q_i^T (A_i - \sigma_i I)$ is 0

\Rightarrow last col of Q_i is left vec

of A_i for eval σ_i

Now suppose σ_i just close to an eval

$$A_i - \sigma_i I = Q_i R_i$$

$$(A_i - \sigma_i I)^{-1} = R_i^{-1} Q_i^T$$

$$(A_i - \sigma_i I)^{-T} = Q_i R_i^{-T}$$

$$(A_i - \sigma_i I)^T R_i^T = Q_i$$

\square

take last column of both sides

$(A_i - \sigma_i I)^T e_n$ and last col of Q_i
are parallel \Rightarrow last col of Q_i

given by one step of inverse iteration
starting with e_n

\Rightarrow last col of Q_i closer to vec of A_i^T

\Rightarrow last col of $A_i^T Q_i$ closer to λ last col
of Q_i

\Rightarrow last col of $Q_i^T A_i^T Q_i$ closer to λe_n

\Rightarrow last row of $Q_i^T A_i Q_i$ closer to λe_n^T

i.e. tiny in first $n-1$ entries
close to λ on diagonal



where do we get approx eval?

Ma221 Lecture 9 Segment 8

where do we get shift σ_i
an approximate eigenvalue?

Since we expect $A_i(n,n) \rightarrow \text{eval}$
use $\sigma_i = A_i(n,n)$

Get asymptotic quadratic convergence

$$\|A_i(n, 1:n-1)\| = \epsilon \ll 1$$

$$|A_i(n,n) - \lambda_k| = O(\epsilon)$$

By previous analysis

$\|A_i(n, 1:n-1)\|$ will get multiplied by

$$|\lambda_k - \sigma_i| / \min_{j \neq i} |\lambda_j - \sigma_i| = O(\epsilon)$$

so on next iteration

$$\|A_i(n, 1:n-1)\| = O(\epsilon^2)$$

(matlab demo - see typed notes for code)

Ma221 Lecture 9 Segment 9

Making QR iteration Practical

- 1) Each iteration costs one QR fact. + 1 matmul = $O(n^3)$. Constant # of iterations per eval \Rightarrow cost $O(n^4)$
Want total cost of $O(n^3)$
- 2) How to shift to converge to complex eval of real matrix, i.e. real Schur form?
- 3) How to decide convergence?
- 4) How to minimize data movement?

Answers:

(1) preprocess $A = QHQ^T$ where Q orthog and H upper Hessenberg



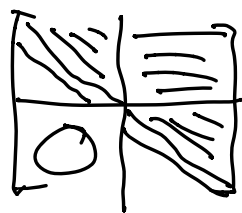
zero below first subdiagonal

QR iteration on H keeps it upper Hessenberg \Rightarrow cost = $O(n^2)$
 \Rightarrow cost $O(n)$ iterations = $O(n^3)$

If $A = A^T$, then $H = H^T \Rightarrow H$ tridiagonal
 \Rightarrow cost one QR iteration $O(n)$ (Chap 5)

(2) Real Schur form: since evs of real matrices either real or complex conjugate pairs, take 2 consecutive QR iterations with shifts σ and $\bar{\sigma}$; merging these 2 iterations, all imaginary parts cancel, final result real; avoid computing any imaginary parts

(3) Converged? look at any subdiagonal $H(i+1, i)$, set to zero when $= O(\epsilon) \|H\|$; splits matrix into block upper Hessenberg form



apply QR iteration to diagonal blocks

If block 1×1 or 2×2 , done, part of final real Schur form

(4) How to reduce data movement?

No known way to attain $O\left(\frac{n^3}{\text{fast mem size}}\right)$ for QR iterations

Many improvements (SIAM Linear Algebra Prize 2003, Byers/Mathria/Braman) used in LAPACK. reduces communication by constant factor, doesn't hit lower bound

There are non-QR based algorithms that do hit lower bound in theory, do $O(n^3)$ flops, (randomized algorithms) but constant in $O(n^3)$ much larger than QR iteration, so not yet practical ("Minimizing communication for Eigenproblems and SVD" at bebop.cs.berkeley.edu)

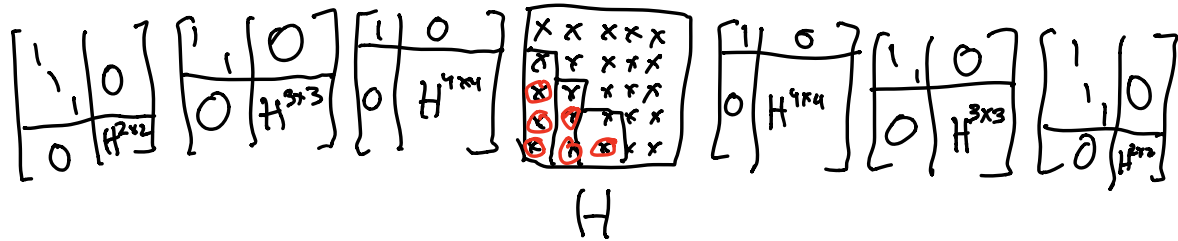
Ma221 Lecture 9 Segment 10

More detail on Hessenberg QR

How to reduce $A = QHQ^T$
 $H = Q^T A Q$



Analogous to QR



Code:

for $i = 1$ to $n-2$... zero out $A(i+1:n, i)$

$v = \text{House}(A(i+1:n, i))$

$A(i+1:n, i:n) = A(i+1:n, i:n) - 2v(v^T A(i+1:n, i:n))$

$A(1:n, i+1:n) = A(1:n, i+1:n) - 2(A(1:n, i+1:n) \cdot v) \cdot v^T$

Cost: $\frac{10}{3} n^3 + O(n^2)$ just for H

or $\frac{14}{3} n^3 + O(n^2)$ to get Q

Lot more than LU or QR, cheapest part of algorithm

When $A = A^T$ then Hessenberg $H = Q^T A Q$

also symmetric \Rightarrow tridiagonal T

process called tridiagonal reduction
(used in Chap 5)

SVD: similar, but different orthog matrices on left and right:

$$Q_1 A Q_2^T = B = \begin{bmatrix} \times & & & \\ & \times & & \\ & & \times & \\ & & & \times \end{bmatrix} \text{ bidiagonal}$$

$$Q_{L1} Q_{L2} Q_{L3} Q_{L4} \left(\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times & \times \end{array} \right) Q_{R1}^T Q_{R2}^T Q_{R3}^T$$

QR iteration on upper Hessenberg matrix

Lemma: Hessenberg form is maintained by QR iteration

proof A upper Hessenberg $\Rightarrow A - \sigma I$ is too

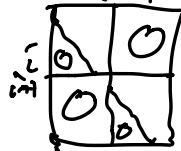
$A - \sigma I = QR$, Q upper Hessenberg
(i^{th} column of Q linear combination of columns $1 \dots i$ of $A - \sigma I$)

then $R \cdot Q = \begin{bmatrix} \times & & & \\ & \times & & \\ & & \times & \\ & & & \times \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \times & & & \\ & \times & & \\ & & \times & \\ & & & \times \end{bmatrix}$ also upper Hessenberg

How to do one step of QR iteration with shift on $H = A - \sigma I$ in $O(n^2)$, not $O(n^3)$

Def: an upper Hessenberg matrix unreduced if all $H(i+1, i)$ nonzero.

Other wise, if $H(i+1, i) = 0$, matrix is block upper triangular



run QR on 2 diagonal blocks separately

Implicit Q Thm: suppose $Q^T A Q$ upper Hessenberg and unreduced. Then columns 2 through n of Q are uniquely determined (up to factor ± 1) by column 1 of Q

1 step of QR iteration in $O(n^2)$ flops:

$A - \sigma I = QR$, so first column of Q proportional to 1st column of A :

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{(1,1)} - \sigma \\ A_{(2,1)} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Let Q_1 be Givens rotation s.t.

first col of Q $\rightarrow Q_1^T \begin{bmatrix} A(1,1)-\sigma \\ A(2,1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$Q_1^T A Q_1 = Q_1^T \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ \oplus & x & x & x \\ \oplus & x & x & x \\ & & x & x \end{bmatrix} Q_1$$

"belge"

$$\left[\left[\left[\begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ \oplus & x & x & x \\ \oplus & x & x & x \\ & & x & x \end{bmatrix} \right] \right] \right]$$

"chasing the belge"

all \neq zero \Rightarrow upper Hessenberg

cost $\approx O(n^2)$

Proof of Implicit Q Theorem

Let q_i be column i of Q

$$Q^T A Q = H \Rightarrow A Q = Q H$$

Column 1: $A q_1 = H(1,1) \cdot q_1 + H(2,1) \cdot q_2$
 \Rightarrow determines $H(1,1), H(2,1), q_2$ via QR on

$$[q_1, A q_1] = [q_1, q_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & H(1,1) \\ 0 & H(2,1) \end{bmatrix}$$

More generally suppose we have q_1, q_2, \dots, q_i
and columns $l: i-1$ of H . Get next column

$$Aq_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} q_j H(j, i) \quad \text{from } AQ = QH$$

$$q_j^T Aq_i = H(j, i) \quad \text{for } j=1 \text{ to } i$$

$$Aq_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} q_j H(j, i) = q_{i+1} H(i+1, i)$$

gives us q_{i+1} and $H(i+1, i)$.

This is in LAPACK `xGEEES` (Schur form) or `xGEEV` (for evecs),
used in `eig()` in Matlab