

$A - \lambda I$ is not invertible

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

determinant

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & a_{22} - \lambda & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & a_{mm} - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{set } \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} =$$

example

characteristic polynomial

$$|A - \lambda I| = \text{poly}_n(\lambda) = 0$$

At most n

\exists we allow $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$

At least one λ exists

At least one eigenvector
for each distinct eigen.

X Not unique (can multiply
by any constant)

Eigenvectors are directions
(not vectors)

Matrix notation

$$\bar{X} = [x_1 \mid x_2 \mid \dots \mid x_m]$$

↑ ↑ ↑
linearly independent

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \emptyset \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \dots \\ \emptyset & & & \lambda_m \end{bmatrix}$$

↑
capital λ

$$A x_i = \lambda_i x_i, \quad i=1, \dots, m$$

$$\underline{A} \bar{X} = \bar{X} \Lambda$$

$$1 \leq m \leq n$$

$\exists s \quad m = n \quad ? \quad \times$ not in general

Every λ has an algebraic multiplicity α and a geometric multiplicity β (how many linearly independent eigenvectors)

$$1 \leq \beta \leq \alpha$$

If $m = n$ we call that matrix non-defective or diagonalizable matrix

$m = n \quad \overline{X} \text{ is } [n \times n]$

$\Rightarrow \overline{X}$ is invertible
Eigenvectors span all of \mathbb{R}^n

Assume A is non-defective

$$X^{-1} A X = \Lambda$$

similarity transform

$A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
linear map

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$$

$$Ay = A \sum_i a_i x_i =$$

$$= \sum_i a_i (A x_i) =$$

$$= \sum_i (a_i \lambda_i) x_i$$

In basis formed by eigenvectors
 A is diagonal with λ_i 's
 on the diagonal

If x_i 's are orthogonal
 then matrix is called
 unitarily diagonalizable

$X \rightarrow U$ orthogonal matrix

$$\|x_i\| = 1$$

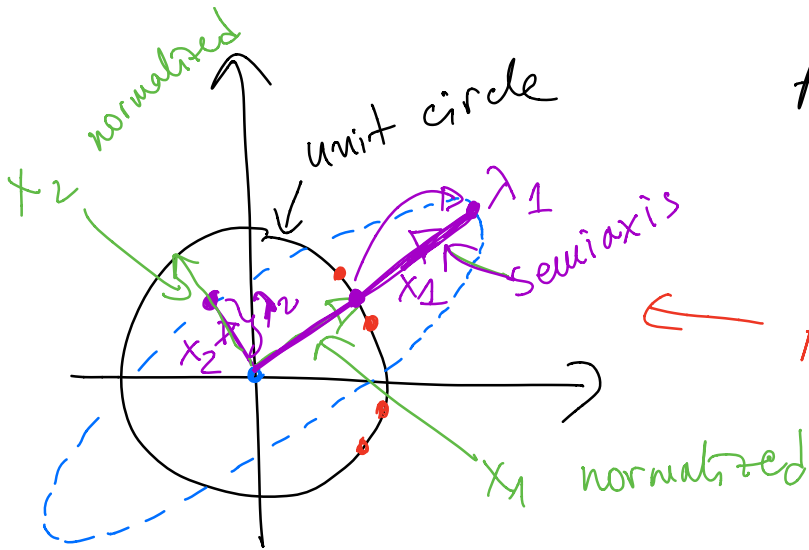
If and only if
 $U^*U = I$
 $UU^* = I$

$$U^{-1} = U^*$$

complex conjugate transpose

$$A = U \Lambda U^*$$

Assume A can be factorized like this



$A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$
& unitarily diagonalizable

$\leftarrow A$ is Hermitian / symmetric

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= U \Lambda U^* \\
 A^* &= (U \Lambda U^*)^* = \\
 &= (U^*)^* \Lambda^* U^* \\
 &= U \Lambda^* U^*
 \end{aligned}$$

If $A^* = A$ Hermitian matrix or symmetric if in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cancel{U} \Lambda^* \cancel{U^*} &= \cancel{U} \Lambda \cancel{U^*} \\
 \Rightarrow \Lambda^* &= \Lambda
 \end{aligned}$$

eigenvalues are real

Theorem: If $A^* = A$ then
A is unitarily diagonalizable
and eigenvalues are real

From now on assume
A is Hermitian

If A is not unitarily
diagonalizable, numerically
best to use Schur
decomposition

any matrix } $A = U T U^*$
 ↑
 upper triangular
Eigenvalues on diagonal of T

Eigenvalues

A. DONEV, Spring 2021

$$\underbrace{|A - \lambda I| = 0}$$

$$\text{poly}_n(\lambda) = 0$$

Abel's theorem says no closed-form solution for $n \geq 5$

All eigenvalue methods must be iterative / approximate

Sidenote: In fact, solving polynomial eqs is done using eigenvalues (matlab's roots)

Two cases:

① We only want a few
eigenvectors - with smallest
or largest $|\lambda|$

Google's Page Rank algorithm
finds the eigenvector with the
largest eigenvalue
(Power Method)

② All eigenvectors (next Wed,
pre-recorded)
QR algorithm

Power - method

$$A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$$

$$A^2 = X \Lambda \Lambda X^{-1}$$

$$= X \Lambda^2 X^{-1}$$

$$A^n = X \Lambda^n X^{-1}, \quad n \geq 1 \text{ integer}$$

Eigenvalues of A^n are $(\lambda_i)^n$, and eigenvectors are the same.

As $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\Lambda^n = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & & \\ & \dots & \\ & & \lambda_n^n \end{bmatrix}$$

Largest eigenvalue in modulus will dominate Λ^n

Aside:

$$A^{\bar{n}} \quad ?$$

$$\bar{\lambda}^{\bar{n}}$$

$$\pi^{3/4} = (\pi^3)^{1/4} = x$$

$$x^4 = \pi^3$$

$$\ln(\pi^\pi) = \pi \ln(\pi)$$

$$\pi^\pi = e^{\pi \ln \pi}$$

$$A \cdot A = O(n^3) \text{ FLOPS}$$

$$\begin{matrix} A & \cdot & X & = & O(n^2) \text{ FLOPS} \\ [n \times n] & & [n \times 1] & & \end{matrix}$$

$$(A \dots (A \cdot (A \cdot (A \cdot (A \cdot X))))))$$

$$= A^n X$$

\uparrow this can be computed without forming A

Choose a random vector q_0
 compute $x_n = A^n q_0$

$$x_n = \overbrace{X}^n \underbrace{\wedge X^{-1}}_a q_0$$

$$\overbrace{X}^{-1} q_0 = a$$

$$\overbrace{X} a = q_0$$

\overrightarrow{a} is $\overrightarrow{q_0}$ expressed in the eigenbasis of A

$$x_n = X \left(\wedge^n a \right)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = ?$$

$$\Lambda^n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_3 \geq \lambda_4 \dots$
strict inequality

$$\Lambda^n a \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n a_1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n a_1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \cdot (\lambda_1^n a_1)$$

$$x_n \rightarrow \left(\lambda_1^n a_1 \right) x_1$$

$$\frac{x_n}{\|x_n\|} \rightarrow x_1$$

aside

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$x_n \rightarrow x_1$
 how about λ_1

$$\underline{A x_n} \approx \lambda_1 x_n$$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{(A x_n)_{1,2,3,\dots,n}}{(x_n)_{1,2,3,\dots,n}}$$

Rayleigh quotient

$$\begin{aligned}
 X_n \cdot A X_n &= X_n^T A X_n \rightarrow \\
 &= X_1^T (\lambda_1 X_1) \\
 &= \lambda_1 (X_1^T X_1) \\
 &= \lambda_1
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda_1 \approx X_n \cdot (A X_n)$$

If X_n is normalized

$$\lambda_1 \approx \frac{X_n \cdot (A X_n)}{X_n \cdot X_n}$$

$$\min_{x \neq 0} \frac{X^T A X}{X^T X} = \lambda_{\min}$$

$$\max_{x \neq 0} \frac{X^T A X}{X^T X} = \lambda_{\max}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\lambda_1| \leq |\lambda_{\max}|$$

Algorithm (Power method)

1) Choose random q_0

$$\tilde{q}_k = A q_{k-1}$$

(One matrix
vector
multiply)

$$q_k = \frac{\tilde{q}_k}{\|\tilde{q}_k\|}$$

$$\lambda_k = q_k^T A q_k$$

$$r_k = \|A q_k - \lambda_k q_k\|_2$$

residual

Stop if $r_k < \epsilon \cdot \lambda_k$

10^{-9}

This guarantees 9 digits in λ
If $\epsilon = 10^{-9}$

$$\vec{q}_0 = \overline{X} \vec{a}$$

$$q_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$$

$$a_i \neq 0 \quad \forall i$$

(why we choose q_0 random)

$$\vec{q}_n = A^n \vec{q}_0 = A^n \sum a_i x_i$$

$$= \sum a_i (A^n x_i) =$$

$$= a_i \left(\lambda_i^n x_i \right)$$

$$= \sum (a_i \lambda_i^n) x_i$$

$$\tilde{q}_n = \sum a_i \lambda_1^n \cdot \left(\frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^n x_i$$

$$\delta = \left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right| \quad \delta < 1$$

$$\tilde{q}_n \rightarrow a_1 \lambda_1^n x_1 + O(\delta^n)$$

↑ normalize it

$$\| q_n - (\pm x_1) \| = O(\delta^n)$$

linearly convergent

$$q_n \rightarrow x_1 + O(\delta) x_2 + O(\delta) x_3 + \dots$$

$$\lambda_n = q_n \cdot (A q_n)$$

$$= \underbrace{x_1 \cdot (A x_1)}_{\lambda_1} + O(\delta^2) \sum_{i \neq 1} x_i \cdot (A x_i)$$

$$\lambda_n = \lambda_1 + O(\delta^2)$$

$$\|\lambda_n - \lambda_1\| = O(\delta^{2n})$$

Eigenvalue is more accurate

If $\delta \ll 1$, iteration
(power method) converges very
fast, especially for eigenvalue

Eigenvalue algorithms converge
well (rapidly) iff eigenvalues are
(well) separated

In Matlab

(QR method)

$$[X, \Lambda] = \text{eig}(A)$$

all eigs & vectors

$O(n^3)$ but expensive

(much more than LU)

$$[X, \Lambda] = \text{eigs}(A, n, \text{eig})$$

a few of
eigs, vectors

sparse

(Power method)

QR algorithm for eigenvalues

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A = QR \\ \begin{array}{l} \uparrow \\ \text{unitary} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \leftarrow \\ \text{upper triangular} \end{array} \\ \text{Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization} \\ O(n^3) \text{ FLOPS} \end{array} \right.$$

Similarity transformations

$$A_k \xrightarrow{\text{iteration}} A_{k+1}$$

Assume
 A is
symmetric

$$A_n = A$$

$$A_{k+1} = P_k^{-1} A_k P_k$$

← similarity
transformation

$$\text{or } P_k A_k P_k^{-1}$$

↑
invertible

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A_{h+1} \text{ has the same} \\ \text{eigenvalues as } A_k \end{array} \right.$

$$A_{h+1} = P_h^{-1} A_k P_h$$

$$A_k = X_k \Lambda_k X_k^*$$

\uparrow^k unitary \nwarrow^k diagonal (eigenvalues)

$$A_{h+1} = \left(P_h^{-1} X_k \right) \Lambda_k \left(X_k^{-1} P_h \right)$$

$$X_{k+1} = P_h^{-1} X_k$$

$$X_{k+1}^{-1} = X_k^{-1} P_h$$

$$\Rightarrow A_{h+1} = X_{k+1} \Lambda_k X_{k+1}^{-1}$$

eigenvalue decomposition

$$A_{k+1} = X_{k+1} \Lambda X_{k+1}^{-1}$$

↑
has the same eigenvalues as A

We want

(?) $A_k \longrightarrow$ diagonal matrix

QR method $A_1 = A$

Algorithm!

$$A_k = Q_k R_k$$

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

↙ swap order

$$A_{k+1} = Q_k^{-1} A_k Q_k$$

(i.e.) $P_k \equiv Q_k^{-1}$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} Q_k & Q_k \end{pmatrix} R_k Q_k = P_k Q_k$$

↑
identity

$$A_k \rightarrow \Lambda \quad \text{(diagonal matrix of eigenvalues)}$$

$$Q_1 Q_2 \dots Q_k = \prod_{i=1}^k Q_i \rightarrow X$$

s.t. $A = X^{-1} \Lambda X$

Why it works? $A = X^{-1} \Lambda X$

computes the same sequence as QR

$$A_k = X^{-1} \Lambda X$$

$$= Q_k R_k \quad \leftarrow \text{eigenvectors as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

$$A_k = Q_k^* A Q_k \quad \leftarrow \text{simil. trans.}$$

similar matrices: same eigenvalues

$A_k \rightarrow$ diagonal matrix

$$A = QR$$

↑ orthonormal basis for
range / column space of A