

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors





Numerical Analysis

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Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, the eigenvalue problem consists in finding a scalar λ (real or complex) and a nonnull vector \mathbf{x} such that

$$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} \tag{1}$$

 λ is called an eigenvalue of A, while \mathbf{x} is the associated eigenvector. The latter is not unique; indeed $\alpha \mathbf{x}$ with $\alpha \neq 0$, are also eigenvectors associated with λ . Should \mathbf{x} be known, λ can be recovered by using the Rayleigh quotient

$$\mathbf{x}^H \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} / \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$$
.

The eigenvalues of A are the roots of the characteristic polynomial of A:

$$p_{\mathcal{A}}(\lambda) = \det(\mathcal{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}).$$

A $n \times n$ matrix has exactly n eigenvalues (real or complex), not necessarily distinct. A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be diagonalizable if there exists a nonsingular matrix $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that $U^{-1}AU = \Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$.



The power method

Let A with real entries and assume that its eigenvalues are ordered

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \ge |\lambda_3| \ge \dots \ge |\lambda_n|. \tag{2}$$

The power method is: Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ be given and set $\mathbf{y}^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)}/\|\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\|$, for k=1,2,... compute

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = A\mathbf{y}^{(k-1)}, \quad \mathbf{y}^{(k)} = \frac{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\|}, \quad \lambda^{(k)} = (\mathbf{y}^{(k)})^H A\mathbf{y}^{(k)}$$

Until $|\lambda^{(k)} - \lambda^{(k-1)}| < \varepsilon |\lambda^{(k)}|$, where ε is the desired tolerance.



Convergence

Since we have assumed that the eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ of A are linearly independent, these eigenvectors form a basis for \mathbb{C}^n . Thus the vectors $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ and $\mathbf{y}^{(0)}$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i, \ \mathbf{y}^{(0)} = \beta^{(0)} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i, \ \text{ with } \beta^{(0)} = 1/\|\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\| \text{ and } \alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

At the first step the power method gives

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}^{(0)} = \beta^{(0)}\mathbf{A}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}\mathbf{x}_{i} = \beta^{(0)}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}\lambda_{i}\mathbf{x}_{i} \qquad \text{and, similarly,}$$

$$\mathbf{y}^{(1)} = \beta^{(1)}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}\lambda_{i}\mathbf{x}_{i}, \qquad \beta^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\| \|\mathbf{x}^{(1)}\|}.$$

At a given step k we will have

$$\mathbf{y}^{(k)} = \beta^{(k)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \lambda_i^k \mathbf{x}_i, \qquad \beta^{(k)} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\| \cdots \|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\|}$$



Convergence

And therefore

$$\mathbf{y}^{(k)} = \lambda_1^k \beta^{(k)} \left(\alpha_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i \frac{\lambda_i^k}{\lambda_1^k} \mathbf{x}_i \right).$$

Since $|\lambda_i/\lambda_1| < 1$ for i = 2, ..., n, the vector $\mathbf{y}^{(k)}$ tends to align along the same direction as the eigenvector \mathbf{x}_1 when k tends to $+\infty$, provided $\alpha_1 \neq 0$.



Convergence

Example 1. Consider the family of matrices

$$A(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 2 & 3 & 13 \\ 5 & 11 & 10 & 8 \\ 9 & 7 & 6 & 12 \\ 4 & 14 & 15 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We want to approximate the eigenvalue with largest modulus by the power method. When $\alpha = 30$, the eigenvalues of the matrix are given by $\lambda_1 = 39.396$, $\lambda_2 = 17.8208$, $\lambda_3 = -9.5022$ and $\lambda_4 = 0.2854$.

The method approximates λ_1 in 22 iterations with a tolerance $\varepsilon = 10^{-10}$ and $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \mathbf{1}^T$.

If $\alpha = -30$ the iterations are 708. The reason is that $|\lambda_2|/|\lambda_1| = 0.9704$ is close to unity: $\lambda_1 = -30.643$, $\lambda_2 = 29.7359$, $\lambda_3 = -11.6806$ and $\lambda_4 = 0.5878$.



The inverse power method

The inverse power method can find the smaller eigenvalue of a non-singular matrix *A*:

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ be given and set $\mathbf{y}^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} / \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\|$, for k = 1, 2, ... compute

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{y}^{(k-1)}, \quad \mathbf{y}^{(k)} = \frac{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\|}, \quad \mu^{(k)} = (\mathbf{y}^{(k)})^H \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{y}^{(k)}$$

Until $|\mu^{(k)} - \mu^{(k-1)}| < \varepsilon |\mu^{(k)}|$, where ε is the desired tolerance.

If A admits n linearly independent eigenvectors, and if also the eigenvalue λ_n of minimum modulus is distinct from the others, then

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \mu^{(k)} = 1/\lambda_n,$$

At each step k we have to solve a linear system of the form $A\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{y}^{(k-1)}$.



The power method with shift

The power method with shift can find the eigenvalue of A near to a given number μ :

Define $A_{\mu}=A-\mu I$, whose eigenvalues are $\lambda(A_{\mu})=\lambda(A)-\mu$. In order to approximate λ_{μ} , we can at first approximate the eigenvalue of minimum length of A_{μ}

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ be given and set $\mathbf{y}^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} / \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\|$, for k = 1, 2, ... compute

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{A}_{\mu}^{-1} \mathbf{y}^{(k-1)}, \quad \mathbf{y}^{(k)} = \frac{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\|}, \quad \lambda_{\mu}^{(k)} = 1/(\mathbf{y}^{(k)})^H \mathbf{A}_{\mu}^{-1} \mathbf{y}^{(k)}$$

Until $|\lambda_{\mu}^{(k)} - \lambda_{\mu}^{(k-1)}| < \varepsilon |\lambda_{\mu}^{(k)}|$, where ε is the desired tolerance. 1 The searched eigenvalue of A is approximated by $\lambda = \lambda_{\mu} + \mu$.



Example 2. For the matrix A(30) of Example 1 we seek the eigenvalue closest to the value 17. We set $\mu = 17$ and apply the power method with shift with a tolerance $tol = 10^{-10}$ and initial guess $x0 = (1,1,1,1)^T$. After 8 iterations the algorithm returns the value $\lambda = 17.82079703055703$. A less accurate knowledge of the *shift* would involve more iterations. For instance, if we set $\mu = 13$ the program returns the value $\lambda = 17.82079703064106$ after 19 iterations.

The value of the shift can be modified during the iterations, by setting $\mu=\lambda^{(k)}$. This yields a faster convergence; however the computational cost grows substantially since now at each iteration the matrix A_{μ} does change and the LU factorization has to be performed at each iteration.



How to compute the shift

We need to locate (more or less accurately) the eigenvalues of A in the complex plane.

Let A be a square matrix of dimension n. The Gershgorin circles $C_i^{(r)}$ and $C_i^{(c)}$ associated with its i-th row and i-th column are respectively defined as

$$C_i^{(r)} = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a_{ii}| \le \sum_{j=1, j \ne i}^n |a_{ij}| \},$$

$$C_i^{(c)} = \{ z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - a_{ii}| \le \sum_{j=1, j \ne i}^n |a_{ji}| \}.$$

 $C_i^{(r)}$ is called the *i*-th row circle and $C_i^{(c)}$ the *i*-th column circle.



All the eigenvalues of a given matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ belong to the region of the complex plane which is the intersection of the two regions formed respectively by the union of the row circles and column circles.

Moreover, should m row circles (or column circles), with $1 \le m \le n$, be disconnected from the union of the remaining n-m circles, then their union contains exactly m eigenvalues.

There is no guarantee that a circle should contain eigenvalues, unless it is isolated from the others. The information provided by Ghersghorin circles are in general quite coarse, thus the previous result can provide only a preliminary guess of the shift.

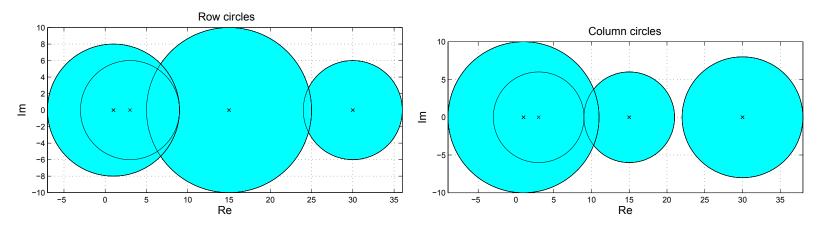
Note that from Proposition, all the eigenvalues of a strictly diagonally dominant matrix are non-null.



Example 3. Below we have plotted the Gershgorin circles associated with the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 15 & -4 & -2 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 & 5 \\ -3 & 5 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The centers of the circles have been identified by a cross.



Row circles (left) and column circles (right) for the matrix of Example

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