

- 3 Eigenvalues: Theory and Algorithms
 - Introduction
 - Eigenvalues and Eigendecomposition
 - Eigenvalue Algorithms: Solving the eigenvalue problem
 - Example: The PageRank Algorithm from Google

November 28, 2022

Recommended reading:

- Lectures 24, 25, 27 in [4]
- Sections 1.6 in [3]
- Sections 6.1, 6.2, 6.4 in [2]
- Kapitel 7 in [1]

Literature:

- [1] R. Rannacher.
Numerik 0 - Einführung in die Numerische Mathematik.
Heidelberg University Publishing, 2017.
- [2] G. Strang.
Introduction to Linear Algebra.
Wellesley-Cambridge Press, 2003.
- [3] G. Strang.
Linear Algebra and Learning from Data.
Wellesley-Cambridge Press, 2019.
- [4] L.N. Trefethen and D. Bau.
Numerical linear algebra.
SIAM, Soc. for Industrial and Applied Math., Philadelphia, 1997.

3 Eigenvalues: Theory and Algorithms

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Eigenvalues and Eigendecomposition

Definition 3.2 (Eigenvalues and -vectors) Let $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ be a matrix. A number $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is called an *eigenvalue* of A , if

$$\exists v \in \mathbb{F}^n, v \neq 0: Av = \lambda v.$$

In that case, v is called an *eigenvector* and (λ, v) an *eigenpair*. The set of all eigenvalues is denoted by

$$\sigma(A) := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}: \lambda \text{ is eigenvalue of } A\}$$

and called the *spectrum of A* .

1) Assume we knew an eigenvalue λ :

2) Assume we had an eigenvector v :

The determinant and eigenvalues

Let $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$. Then:

Lemma 3.4 (Matrix and Eigenvalue Properties)

- i) *Power of a matrix:* $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}, \lambda \in \sigma(A) \Rightarrow \lambda^k \in \sigma(A^k)$ for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$
- ii) *Inverse matrix:* $A \in GL_n(\mathbb{F}), \lambda \in \sigma(A) \Rightarrow \lambda \neq 0, \frac{1}{\lambda} \in \sigma(A^{-1})$
- iii) *Scaling:* $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}, \lambda \in \sigma(A) \Rightarrow \alpha\lambda \in \sigma(\alpha A)$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$
- iv) $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ *hermitian* ($A = A^H$) $\Rightarrow \sigma(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- v) $Q \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ *unitary* ($Q^H Q = I$), $\lambda \in \sigma(Q) \Rightarrow |\lambda| = 1$
- vi) $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ *positive definite (semi-definite)* ($x^H A x > 0 (\geq 0)$) $\Leftrightarrow \forall \lambda \in \sigma(A): \lambda > 0 (\lambda \geq 0)$
- vii) *The eigenvalues of an upper (lower) triangular matrix are sitting on the diagonal.*
- viii) *Similarity transformation:* $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}, T \in GL_n(\mathbb{F}) \Rightarrow \sigma(A) = \sigma(T^{-1}AT)$
- ix) *Shifts:* $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}, (\lambda, v)$ *eigenpair of* $A \Rightarrow \forall s \in \mathbb{F}: (\lambda + s, v)$ *eigenpair of* $A + sI$

Attention: The following rules do not hold in general:

- $\lambda \in \sigma(A), \mu \in \sigma(B) \not\Rightarrow (\lambda + \mu) \in \sigma(A + B)$
- $\lambda \in \sigma(A), \mu \in \sigma(B) \not\Rightarrow (\lambda \cdot \mu) \in \sigma(A \cdot B)$

Proof. Exercise.

Diagonalizing a matrix

Let us first revisit the example from above (see Examples ?? and ??)

In the previous Example ?? the matrix V of eigenvectors turned out to be orthogonal. The next theorem states, that this is true for any real symmetric matrix.

Theorem 3.6 (Eigendecomposition of real symmetric matrices) For any symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, there is an orthogonal matrix $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ (i.e., $Q^\top Q = I$) such that

$$Q^\top A Q = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} =: \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) \quad (= \text{diagonal matrix})$$

and $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, are the eigenvalues of A . The columns of Q are the normalized eigenvectors.

Proof. In the exercises we will prove this statement for the special case that the matrix has n distinct eigenvalues. The general proof is rather technical and can be found in any standard textbook.

→ **Thus:** “knowing the eigenpairs = knowing the matrix”

An immediate consequence of Theorem 3.6 is this:

Corollary 3.7 A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is invertible, if and only if all its eigenvalues are nonzero.

Geometry of the eigendecomposition:

3.3 Eigenvalue Algorithms: Solving the eigenvalue problem

Aim: Solving the *eigenvalue problem* defined by

Given $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$, find eigenpairs (λ_i, v_i) so that, for all $i = 1, \dots, n$,

$$v_i \neq 0 \text{ and } Av_i = \lambda_i v_i.$$

Sometimes we are only interested in a few eigenpairs (λ_i, v_i) (for example the one with largest eigenvalue in magnitude). In this case we call it a *partial* eigenvalue problem.

Overview

1. **A first naive approach: Direct method**

→ only feasible for very small matrices: $n \in \{2, 3, 4\}$

2. **Partial eigenvalue problem: Simple iterative methods (here: The Power Method)**

→ determine a *single* eigenpair

3. **A second advanced approach: General iterative method (here: The QR algorithm)**

→ determine *all* eigenpairs

3.3.1 A first naive approach: Direct method

Recipe:

a) Eigenvalues:

Solving **root finding problem** for the characteristic polynomial

$$\chi_A(\lambda) := \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

yields the eigenvalues λ_i .

b) Eigenvectors:

Solving the homogeneous **linear system**

$$(A - \lambda_i I)v_i = 0$$

for each distinct λ_i , gives the corresponding eigenvectors v_i (or more precisely, eigenspaces).

Example: $n = 2$

Consider a general (2×2) -matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$.

a) **Root finding problem:**

Above, we have derived a closed formula for the determinant of a (2×2) -matrix, which applied to $A - \lambda I$ gives

$$0 = \chi_A(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \left(\begin{pmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ c & d - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \right) = (a - \lambda)(d - \lambda) - cb = \lambda^2 - (a + d)\lambda + (ad - cb)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda_{1/2} = \frac{a + d}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{a + d}{2}\right)^2 - (ad - cb)}.$$

b) **Linear system:**

We then have to solve

$$\begin{pmatrix} a - \lambda_i & b \\ c & d - \lambda_i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1^i \\ v_2^i \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2.$$
$$\rightarrow v^1, v^2$$

Note: For $n = 3$ we can proceed similarly by applying the rule of Sarrus in step a).

Problem:

In practice, for general, potentially very large, matrices the root finding problem is infeasible, because:

A with large dimension $n \Rightarrow \chi_A$ high polynomial degree \Rightarrow high risk of rounding errors

See for example:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Root-finding_algorithms#Roots_of_polynomials

Abel–Ruffini theorem (see related discussion in [4, Theorem 25.1]):

There are no “closed formulas” for the roots of general polynomials with degree higher than 4.

As a consequence:

We cannot solve the eigenvalue problem in finitely many steps.

Instead, any eigenvalue algorithm has to be iterative!

3.3.2 Simple Iterative Method: The Power Iteration

→ basis for PageRank algorithm from Google and the WTF algorithm from Twitter

Theorem 3.10 (Convergence of power iteration) Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a matrix with eigenvalues λ_i for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ which satisfy $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_n|$ and whose eigenvectors form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n . Also, let the sequence of vectors $\{w^k\}_{k=0}^\infty$ be defined by the so-called **power iteration**

$$w^{k+1} := \frac{Aw^k}{\|Aw^k\|_p}, \quad k \geq 0, p \geq 1, \quad \text{with } w^0 \text{ such that } (v^1, w^0)_2 \neq 0,$$

where v^1 is the normalized (i.e., $\|v^1\|_p = 1$) eigenvector corresponding to λ_1 . Then, for $k \rightarrow \infty$, we find $w^k \rightarrow \pm v^1$ and also the so-called Rayleigh quotients

$$\mu_k := \frac{(w^k, Aw^k)_2}{(w^k, w^k)_2} \rightarrow \lambda_1.$$

Proof. See, e.g., [1, Satz 7.3] or [4, Theorem 27.1].

Remark:

- A variant of this approach is given by the so-called **inverse power method**, which can estimate any eigenpair, assumed a good initial guess for the eigenvalue is available.
- The assumption on the eigenvectors is satisfied, e.g., for real symmetric matrices (see Theorem 3.6)
- From the proof idea one finds that the convergence speed is determined by the fraction $\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k$ (potentially very slow)

3.3.3 A second advanced approach: General iterative method

Recall: (Lemma 3.4)

- a) **Similar matrices** have the same eigenvalues:

$$\sigma(A) = \sigma(T^{-1}AT) \quad \text{for } T \in GL_n(\mathbb{F}).$$

- b) **Simple matrices**: Eigenvalues of an upper triangular matrix U (e.g., a diagonal matrix) are found on its diagonal, i.e.,

$$\sigma(U) = \{u_{11}, \dots, u_{nn}\}.$$

Recipe:

- a) Iteratively applying **similarity transformations** $T_k \in GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ to $A =: A_0$ thereby producing a sequence

$$A_k = T_k^{-1}A_{k-1}T_k.$$

- b) Choose T_k so that this sequence converges to a **simple matrix** (triangular or even diagonal)

$$A_\infty := \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k.$$

→ **Question**: Choice of the T_k 's?

Requirements on the transformations T_k :

1. easily constructed from A_{k-1}
2. easy to invert (e.g., orthogonal matrix)
3. $(A_k)_k$ converges to something simple

One Implementation:

- a) The **QR-Algorithm** defines such transformations T_k through

$$A_0 = A$$

for $k = 1, \dots, \infty$:

$$Q_k R_k := A_{k-1}$$

$$A_k := R_k Q_k$$

b) We find: $A_k = \overline{Q}_k^T A \overline{Q}_k \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} U$, where U is (quasi) upper triangular; given as follows:

Theorem 3.11 (QR Algorithm) Consider a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with distinct eigenvalues λ_i for $i = 1, \dots, n$, i.e., $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots > |\lambda_n|$. Then the iterates $A_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ produced by the QR algorithm converge to the diagonal matrix $\Lambda := \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ which consists of the eigenvalues of A , i.e.,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A_k = \Lambda.$$

Proof. See, e.g., [1, Satz 7.8].

Finally: What about the eigenvectors?

One can further show that similar to the power iteration, we find that the columns of

$$\overline{Q}_\infty := \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \overline{Q}_k$$

are normalized eigenvectors of A .

3.3.4 In Practice: Combined Iterative Methods

Problems:

- QR decomposition for general and very large matrices too expensive
- Exact Schur complement is not reached in finitely many steps (= many QR decompositions needed)

However:

- Any matrix can be **reduced** to a Hessenberg matrix (= simple matrix) in *finitely many* steps
- QR decomposition for this type of matrix is cheap

This leads to:

(3) A third state-of-the-art approach: Combined iterative methods

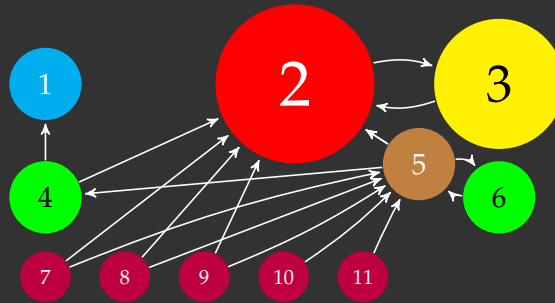
- Similarity transformation via reduction** (e.g., Householder, Wilkinson, Givens) to something simple such as Hessenberg or even tridiagonal
(\rightarrow *finite steps*)
- Similarity transformation via iterative method** (e.g., QR or LR algorithm)
(\rightarrow *potentially infinitely many steps*)
Standard: QR Algorithm (with performance optimized modifications (shifts etc...))
- Determine eigenvalues from the limiting **simple matrix** (and eigenvectors from the similarity transformations).

Common combination in practice: (a) Householder reflection + (b) QR algorithm

\rightarrow Works pretty well for matrices up to 1 mio. columns $n \approx 10^6$

\rightarrow for larger matrices one needs to develop problem-tailored structure exploiting methods

3.4 Example: The PageRank Algorithm from Google



Aim: Rank search engine results according to the *"importance"* of the web pages.

1998: For this purpose, Larry Page and Sergei Brin develop the PageRank algorithm as the basis of the Google empire.

Assumption: *"important"* means more links from other (important) web pages.

→ More details on the sheet and in the video.