

Existence of Eigendecomposition

Question: **Not** every $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ (or $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$) admits an eigendecomposition

Counter example: Consider

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The characteristic polynomial is $p(\lambda) = -\lambda^3$, so $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{I}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}^T)^\perp = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Any $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3 \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ are linearly dependent

Therefore, any \mathbf{V} satisfying $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda$ is singular

Existence of Eigendecomposition (cont'd)

Fact: Eigenvectors associated with distinct eigenvalues are linearly independent

- If all the eigenvalues of **A** are distinct, i.e.,

$$\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j, \quad \text{for all } i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\} \text{ with } i \neq j,$$

then **A** admits an eigendecomposition

$$\sum_i \mu_i = n$$

λ_i distinct

Theorem

A admits an eigendecomposition if and only if $\mu_i = \gamma_i$ for each eigenvalue λ_i

Given λ_i , \dim of eigenspace $= \delta_i = \mu_i \Rightarrow \exists \mu_i$ linearly indep. eigenvectors
+ Fact $\Rightarrow n$ linearly indep. eigenvectors associated with λ_i

Proof of the Fact

Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ be all the distinct eigenvalues of A
 v_1, \dots, v_k be the corresponding eigenvectors

Our goal is to show v_1, \dots, v_k are linearly indep.

For simplicity assume to the contrary that

$$v_k = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} v_{k-1} \quad (*) \quad \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{k-1} \text{ not all zero}$$

and v_1, \dots, v_{k-1} are linearly indep.

$$A v_k \stackrel{(*)}{=} \alpha_1 \underbrace{A v_1}_{\lambda_1 v_1} + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} \underbrace{A v_{k-1}}_{\lambda_{k-1} v_{k-1}} = \alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} \lambda_{k-1} v_{k-1} \quad (1)$$

$$A v_k = \lambda_k v_k \stackrel{(*)}{=} \alpha_1 \lambda_k v_1 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} \lambda_k v_{k-1} \quad (2)$$

$$(1) - (2) \Rightarrow 0 = \alpha_1 \underbrace{(\lambda_1 - \lambda_k)}_{\neq 0} v_1 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1} \underbrace{(\lambda_{k-1} - \lambda_k)}_{\neq 0} v_{k-1}$$

$$\text{Since } v_1, \dots, v_{k-1} \text{ linearly indep.}, \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_{k-1} = 0 \stackrel{(*)}{\Rightarrow} v_k = 0$$

Contradiction!

Matrix Computations

Chapter 4: Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, and Eigendecomposition

Section 4.2 Schur Decomposition

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Schur Decomposition

Theorem

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{C}$. The matrix \mathbf{A} admits a decomposition

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{U}^H$$

similarity transformation
 \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{T} similar

$$\mathbf{U}^H \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^H = \mathbf{I}$$

for some unitary $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and some upper triangular $\mathbf{T} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with $t_{ii} = \lambda_i$ for all i . If \mathbf{A} is real and $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are all real, \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{T} can be taken as real.

- The above decomposition is called the **Schur decomposition**
- Suppose $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{U}^H$ for some unitary \mathbf{U} and upper triangular \mathbf{T} , but it's unknown whether $t_{ii} = \lambda_i$. Indeed, $t_{ii} = \lambda_i$ has to be true:

$$\det(\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}) = \det(\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{T}) = \prod_{i=1}^n (\lambda - t_{ii})$$

- Any square matrix is similar to an upper triangular matrix whose diagonal entries are its eigenvalues and the “triangularizer” is unitary

Proof of Schur Decomposition

Lemma

special similarity transformation for block triangular matrices

Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be block upper triangular in the form of

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{11} & \mathbf{X}_{12} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{X}_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{X}_{11} \in \mathbb{C}^{k \times k}$, $\mathbf{X}_{22} \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-k) \times (n-k)}$, $0 \leq k < n$. There exists a unitary $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ s.t.

$$\mathbf{U}^H \mathbf{X} \mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{11} & \mathbf{Y}_{12} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{Y}_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Y}_{22} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{\lambda} & \times \\ \mathbf{0} & \times \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{(n-k) \times (n-k)}, \quad \bar{\lambda} \in \mathbb{C}$$

Proof of lemma:

Let $\bar{\lambda}$ be any eigenvalue of \mathbf{X}_{22} and let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{C}^{n-k}$ be a corresponding eigenvector.

Similar to the proof of $\mu_i \geq \sigma_i$ in Sec 4.1, $\exists \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_{n-k}$ s.t. $\mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{v} \quad \mathbf{q}_2 \dots \mathbf{q}_{n-k}]$ is unitary. Then,

$$\mathbf{Q}^H \mathbf{X}_{22} \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{\lambda} & * \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix} \quad (\star)$$

Proof of Schur Decomposition (cont'd)

Let $U = \begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & Q \end{bmatrix}$ unitary. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} U^H X U &= \begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & Q^H \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ 0 & X_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & Q \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ 0 & Q^H X_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & Q \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & \boxed{X_{12} Q}^{Y_{12}} \\ 0 & \boxed{Q^H X_{22} Q}^{Y_{22}} \end{bmatrix} \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Recursively apply the lemma to obtain Schur decomposition.

Proof of Schur Decomposition (cont'd)

Let $A^{(0)} = A$. For each $i = 1, \dots, n-1$, let

$$A^{(i)} = (U^{(i)})^H A^{(i-1)} U^{(i)}$$

where $U^{(i)}$ is unitary and obtained by applying the lemma with $X = A^{(i-1)}$ and $k = i-1$.

($i=1$: $X = X_{22} = A$)

Thus, $A^{(i)}$, $i = 1, \dots, n-1$ takes the form $\begin{bmatrix} T_{ii} & * \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}$ with T_{ii} upper triangular, and $A^{(n-1)}$ is upper triangular

$$T = A^{(n-1)} = \underbrace{(U^{(n-1)})^H \dots (U^{(2)})^H (U^{(1)})^H A U^{(1)} U^{(2)} \dots U^{(n-1)}}_{U^H U}$$

Let $U = U^{(1)} \dots U^{(n-1)} \Rightarrow T = U^H A U$.

Computations of Schur Decomposition

- The proof of Schur Decomposition indicates how to compute the Schur factors \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{T}
- From the lemma in the proof, we need two sub-algorithms to construct \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{T}
 - An algorithm for computing an eigenvector of a given matrix (the power method, will be studied later)
 - An algorithm that finds a unitary matrix \mathbf{Q} s.t. its first column is given (QR decomposition)
- There are other computationally more efficient methods for computing the Schur factors (key: QR decomposition)

Discussion

- The Schur decomposition is a powerful tool
- For example, we can use it to show that for *any* square \mathbf{A} (with or without eigendecomposition), $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$, $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$
because \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{T} are similar
- We can also use it to prove the convergence of the power method (later) when eigendecomposition does not exist
- An enhancement of the Schur decomposition: Every square matrix \mathbf{A} is also similar to a block diagonal (indeed upper triangular and tri-diagonal) matrix \mathbf{J} called **Jordan canonical form**



$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{SJS}^{-1}, \quad \mathbf{S} \text{ is nonsingular}$$

- We can apply the Schur decomposition to the proof of Jordan canonical form by showing that the Schur factor \mathbf{T} is similar to \mathbf{J} (non-trivial)

A Consequence of Schur Decomposition

Proposition

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ s.t. the n eigenvalues of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ are distinct and

$$\|\mathbf{A} - \tilde{\mathbf{A}}\|_F^2 \leq \varepsilon.$$

Implication: For any square \mathbf{A} , we can always find $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ that is arbitrarily close to \mathbf{A} and admits an eigendecomposition

Proof (construction of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$):

- Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{U}^H$ be the Schur decomposition of \mathbf{A} . Let $\mathbf{D} = \text{Diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ where d_1, \dots, d_n are chosen such that (1) $|d_i| \leq (\frac{\varepsilon}{n})^{1/2}$ for all i and (2) $t_{11} + d_1, \dots, t_{nn} + d_n$ are distinct
- Let $\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{U}(\mathbf{T} + \mathbf{D})\mathbf{U}^H$ *Schur decomposition of $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$*
- We have $\|\mathbf{A} - \tilde{\mathbf{A}}\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{U}^H\|_F^2 = \|\mathbf{D}\|_F^2 \leq \varepsilon$

Matrix Computations

Chapter 4: Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, and Eigendecomposition

Section 4.3 Hermitian matrices and the Variational Characterizations of Eigenvalues

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Hermitian Matrices

Recall that

- A square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be **Hermitian** if $a_{ij} = a_{ji}^*$ for all i, j with $i \neq j$, or equivalently, if $\mathbf{A}^H = \mathbf{A}$
- We denote the set of all $n \times n$ complex Hermitian matrices by \mathbb{H}^n
- By definition, a real symmetric matrix is also Hermitian, i.e., $\mathbb{S}^n \subset \mathbb{H}^n$
- When we say that a matrix is Hermitian, we often imply that the matrix is complex—a real Hermitian matrix is simply real symmetric

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors of Hermitian Matrices

Property

The following properties hold for $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{H}^n$:

1. The n eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} are real
2. Suppose $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k\}$ is the set of all distinct eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} , and let \mathbf{v}_i be any eigenvector associated with λ_i . Then $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are orthogonal
3. There exists an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^n consisting of the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} $\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}$ has n orthonormal eigenvectors

Any n linearly independent eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} may NOT be orthonormal

Corollary: For any $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$, there exist n real orthonormal eigenvectors



Proof of the Property

Idea: Use invariant subspace

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, a subspace $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ with

$$\mathbf{x} \in S \implies \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \in S$$

is said to be an **invariant subspace** for \mathbf{A}

E.g., any eigenvector of \mathbf{A} spans a 1-dimensional invariant subspace

Let v be an eigenvector of A and $S = \text{span}\{v\}$.

$$x \in S \iff x = \alpha v \text{ for some scalar } \alpha$$

$$Ax = \alpha Av = \alpha \lambda v \in S$$

E.g., any k eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} spans an invariant subspace for \mathbf{A}

Let v_1, \dots, v_k be eigenvectors of A and $S = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$.

$$x \in S \iff x = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k v_k$$

$$Ax = \alpha_1 Av_1 + \dots + \alpha_k Av_k = \alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_k \lambda_k v_k \in S$$

Fact: If \mathcal{Z} is a nonzero invariant subspace for \mathbf{A} , then \mathbf{A} has an eigenvector in \mathcal{Z}

- A Consequence of the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Proof of the Property (cont'd)

Property 1: Let λ_1 be an eigenvalue of A with eigenvector $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $\|x\|_2 = 1$.

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_1 \cdot \underbrace{x^H x}_{\|x\|_2^2 = 1} = x^H (\lambda_1 x) = x^H A x$$

$$\lambda_1^* = (x^H A x)^* = (x^H A x)^H = x^H A^H x \stackrel{A \in \mathbb{H}^n}{=} x^H \underbrace{A}_{\lambda_1} x$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$