

# Power Method

Project for Numerical Methods in Calculus and Linear Algebra

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## Why do we need the Power Method?

- The eigenvalues of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  are obtained by solving its characteristic equation

$$\lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + c_{n-2}\lambda^{n-2} + \cdots + c_0 = 0.$$

- For large  $n$ , this polynomial is high degree: difficult to solve and sensitive to rounding.
- Often we only need the eigenvalue with the **largest absolute value**.
- This eigenvalue is called the **dominant eigenvalue**.

Power Method = simple iterative way to approximate this dominant eigenvalue and its eigenvector.

## Dominant eigenvalue and eigenvector

Let  $A$  have eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ .

### Dominant eigenvalue

$\lambda_1$  is dominant if

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_i| \quad \text{for all } i = 2, \dots, n.$$

### Dominant eigenvector

Any eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda_1$  is called a **dominant eigenvector** of  $A$ .

### Not always!

Some matrices do *not* have a dominant eigenvalue, e.g.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Here the largest absolute values are repeated.

## Example: finding dominant eigenvalue and eigenvector

Consider

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -12 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Characteristic polynomial:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = (\lambda + 1)(\lambda + 2).$$

- Eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1 = -1$ ,  $\lambda_2 = -2$ .
- Dominant eigenvalue:  $\lambda_{\text{dom}} = -2$  since  $|-2| > |-1|$ .
- A corresponding eigenvector (solve  $(A + 2I)x = 0$ ):

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This is our “target” eigenpair that the Power Method should approximate.

## Basic idea of the Power Method

- Assume  $A$  has a unique dominant eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  with eigenvector  $e_1$ .
- Take any non-zero starting vector  $x_0$ .
- Form the sequence

$$x_k = Ax_{k-1} = A^k x_0.$$

- When we expand  $x_0$  in the eigenvector basis of  $A$ , the term with  $\lambda_1^k$  dominates as  $k$  grows.
- So  $x_k$  points more and more in direction of  $e_1$ .

*Repeated multiplication reveals the “strongest direction” of the matrix.*

## Power Method algorithm

$A$  is a real matrix  $n \times n$  with distinct real eigenvalues

Assume:

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \cdots > |\lambda_n|$$

$\lambda_1$  = dominant eigenvalue

$e_1$  = dominant eigenvector

## Method

Given matrix  $A$  and starting vector  $x_0 \neq 0$ :

Repeatedly multiply the initial vector by the matrix:

$$x_0, Ax_0, A^2x_0, A^3x_0, \dots$$

$x_0$  can be expressed as a linear combination of the eigenvectors of  $A$ :

$$x_0 = c_1 e_1 + c_2 e_2 + \cdots + c_n e_n$$

$$x_1 = Ax_0 = c_1 \lambda_1 e_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 e_2 + \cdots + c_n \lambda_n e_n$$

$$x_p = A^p x_0 = c_1 \lambda_1^p e_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^p e_2 + \cdots + c_n \lambda_n^p e_n$$

Key idea:

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \cdots > |\lambda_n|$$

$$\left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^p$$

shrinks to 0 as  $p \rightarrow \infty$ , for all  $i \geq 2$

So

$$x_p \approx c_1 \lambda_1^p e_1$$

and

$$x_{p+1} \approx \lambda_1 x_p,$$

## Example: iterations for the $2 \times 2$ matrix

Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -12 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Iteration $x_k$	Vector $x_{k+1}$
$x_0$	$\begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$
$x_1$	$\approx \begin{bmatrix} 28 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$
$\dots$	$\dots$
$x_4$	$\approx \begin{bmatrix} -280 \\ -94 \end{bmatrix}$
$x_5$	$\approx \begin{bmatrix} 568 \\ 190 \end{bmatrix}$
$x_6 \approx 190$	$\begin{bmatrix} 2.99 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Direction of  $x_k$  moves towards eigenvector  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

## Rayleigh quotient: from eigenvector to eigenvalue

### The idea

If  $x$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then

$$Ax = \lambda x \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^\top Ax = \lambda x^\top x \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lambda = \frac{x^\top Ax}{x^\top x}.$$

### Rayleigh quotient

$$R(x) = \frac{x^\top Ax}{x^\top x}.$$

If  $x$  is close to a dominant eigenvector, then  $R(x)$  is close to the dominant eigenvalue

So, after running the Power Method, we can plug the last  $x_k$  into  $R(x_k)$  to approximate  $\lambda_{\text{dominant}}$

## Example: approximating the eigenvalue

Continue with matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -12 \\ 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Suppose after several iterations we get

$$x \approx \begin{bmatrix} 2.99 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R(x) = \frac{x^\top A x}{x^\top x}.$$

- Numerically this gives a value very close to  $-2$ , which is the dominant eigenvalue.

Power Method  $\Rightarrow$  dominant  $x$ ; Rayleigh quotient  $\Rightarrow$  dominant  $\lambda$ .

## Scaling

Without scaling entries of  $x_k = A^k x_0$  may grow very large

Two common ways to scale:

- ① **Normalize by length:**  $x_{k+1} = y_{k+1} / \|y_{k+1}\|$ .
- ② **Normalize by maximum component:** multiply the result vector by the reciprocal of the largest absolute value inside the vector all components stay between  $-1$  and  $1$ .

Scaling does not change the direction, only the length, so it shows the proportion between the values of the vector.

# When does the Power Method converge?

## Convergence (informal statement)

Assume:

- $A$  is diagonalizable;
- there is a unique dominant eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  with eigenvector  $v_1$ ;
- starting vector  $x_0$  has a non-zero component in direction  $v_1$ .

Then

$A^k x_0$  becomes closer and closer to a multiple of  $v_1$ .

So the scaled Power method converges to the dominant eigenvector.

## How fast does it converge?

Let eigenvalues be ordered by magnitude:

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq \cdots \geq |\lambda_n|.$$

The previous equation for the power method:

$$x_p = A^p x_0 = c_1 \lambda_1^p e_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^p e_2 + \cdots + c_n \lambda_n^p e_n$$

Written a bit differently:

$$x_p = c_1 \lambda_1^p e_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n c_i \lambda_i^p e_i = \lambda_1^p \left[ c_1 e_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n c_i \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^p e_i \right].$$

Then the speed of convergence depends on the ratio

$$\rho = \frac{|\lambda_2|}{|\lambda_1|}.$$

- If  $\rho$  is small (e.g. 0.1), convergence is **fast**.
- If  $\rho$  is close to 1 (e.g. 0.9), convergence is **slow**.

Intuition: terms with  $\lambda_2^k$  die out like  $\rho^k$ .

## Example: comparing rates

### Matrix A

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1 = 6, \lambda_2 = -1$ .

Ratio:  $|\lambda_2|/|\lambda_1| = 0.17$

**Fast** convergence: only few iterations needed.

Same algorithm, very different speed because the eigenvalues are spaced differently.

### Matrix B

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1 = 10, \lambda_2 = 9$ .

Ratio:  $|\lambda_2|/|\lambda_1| = 0.9$

**Slow** convergence: many iterations needed.

# Real-Life Implementations: PageRank & Beyond

## Power Method in Practice

- Used in systems that need to identify the most influential elements within very large networks
- Efficient for very large and sparse matrices because it only requires matrix-vector multiplication

### Google PageRank (most famous example)

- Models a “random surfer” on the web.
- Transition matrix represents link structure; damping ( $d = 0.15$ ) allows random jumps.
- PageRank vector = dominant eigenvector of the Google matrix  $\widetilde{M}$ .
- Computed via the Power Method:

$$v_{k+1} = \widetilde{M}v_k$$

- Scales to billions of webpages due to sparsity.

## Other Uses

- Recommendation systems (YouTube, TikTok, Amazon): Personalized PageRank on user-item graphs.

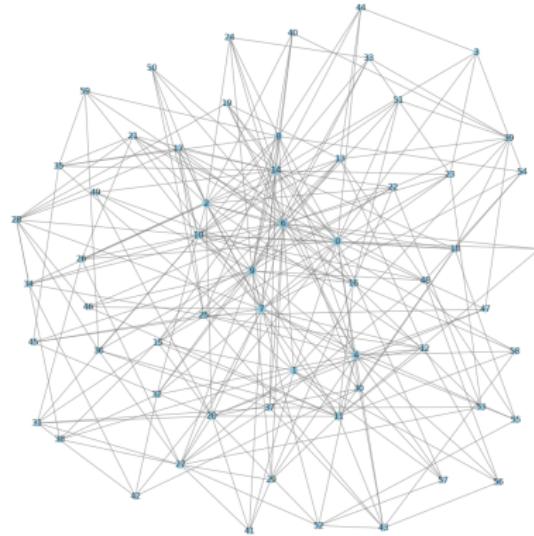


Figure: Google PageRank

## Summary

- Dominant eigenvalue: eigenvalue with largest absolute value.
- Power Method:
  - repeatedly multiplies by  $A$ ,
  - scales vectors to control size,
  - converges to the dominant eigenvector.
- Rayleigh quotient turns an approximate eigenvector into an approximate eigenvalue.
- Convergence is guaranteed under reasonable assumptions and is faster when  $|\lambda_2|/|\lambda_1|$  is small.

**Takeaway:** simple algorithm, powerful for large problems when one eigenpair is enough.