

CS4220 PS6

Due: March 27, 2015

1. (Ascher and Greif, Section 8.4 Problem 7) A column-stochastic matrix P is a matrix whose entries are nonnegative and whose column sums are all equal to 1. In practice such matrices are often large and sparse.

Let E be a matrix of the same size as P , say, $n \times n$, all of whose entries are equal to $1/n$, and let α be a scalar, $0 < \alpha < 1$.

- (a) Show that $A(\alpha) = \alpha P + (1 - \alpha)E$ is also a column-stochastic matrix.
- (b) What are the largest eigenvalue and corresponding eigenvector of $A(\alpha)$?
- (c) Show that the second largest eigenvalue of $A(\alpha)$ is bounded in absolute value by α .
- (d) Suppose the dominant eigenvector of $A(\alpha)$ is to be computed using the power method. This vector, if normalized so that its ℓ_1 -norm is equal to 1, is called the stationary distribution vector.
 - i. Show how matrix-vector products with $A(\alpha)$ can be performed in an efficient manner in terms of storage. (Assume n is very large, and recall that E is dense.)
 - ii. Show that if the power method is applied and if $\|v_0\|_1 = 1$, then all subsequent iterates v_k also have a unit ℓ_1 -norm, hence no need to normalize throughout the iteration. (v_0 can also be assumed to be non-negative.)

Solution:

- (a) $A(\alpha) = \alpha P + (1 - \alpha)E$. We know $p_{ij} \geq 0$ and $\sum_i p_{ij} = 1$, and $0 < \alpha < 1$, so each element a_{ij} of matrix A can be expressed as

$$a_{ij} = \alpha p_{ij} + \frac{1 - \alpha}{n} \geq 0. \quad (1)$$

The sum over all elements of any column k of A is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik} = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n p_{ik} + \frac{1 - \alpha}{n}(n) = \alpha + 1 - \alpha = 1. \quad (2)$$

This is true for all columns. By Eqs.(1) and (2), we know A is also a column-stochastic matrix.

(b) • **The Largest Eigenvalue λ_1 of A :**

Since A is column-stochastic, it is obvious the following equation is true:

$$A^T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n a_{i1} \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \sum_{i=1}^n a_{in} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

Let $e = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$, the $n \times 1$ column vector with all elements equal to 1. Eq.(3) can be expressed as

$$A^T e = e, \quad (4)$$

so this equation shows 1 and column vector e are the eigenvalue and eigenvector pair of A^T , respectively. Because A and A^T have the same eigenvalues, 1 is also an eigenvalue of A . Next, we need to use the Gershgorin Disk Theorem in the subsequent argument for the bound of the eigenvalues, so we state the Gershgorin theorem here:

Theorem. (*Gershgorin Disk Theorem*) Let A be any $n \times n$ matrix and λ be any eigenvalue of A . Then for some i , $1 \leq i \leq n$,

$$|\lambda - a_{ii}| \leq \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n |a_{ij}|.$$

Again because A and A^T have exactly the same eigenvalues, we use the column sums when applying the Gershgorin Disk theorem: any eigenvalue λ of A ($n \times n$) must satisfy

$$|\lambda - a_{jj}| \leq \sum_{i=1, i \neq j}^n |a_{ij}|, \quad \text{for some } j, 1 \leq j \leq n. \quad (5)$$

Because A is column-stochastic, and $a_{ij} \geq 0$,

$$\sum_{i=1, i \neq j}^n |a_{ij}| = 1 - |a_{jj}| = 1 - a_{jj},$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\lambda - a_{jj}| &\leq 1 - a_{jj}, \\ -1 + a_{jj} &\leq \lambda - a_{jj} \leq 1 - a_{jj}, \end{aligned}$$

so we have obtained the bounds for any eigenvalues λ of A :

$$-1 \leq -1 + 2a_{jj} \leq \lambda \leq 1, \quad \text{or} \quad |\lambda| \leq 1. \quad (6)$$

By Eqs. (3) and (6) we conclude that the largest eigenvalue of A and A^T is 1, i.e., $\lambda_1 = 1$.

• **The Eigenvector of A Associated with $\lambda_1 = 1$:**

We have shown by Eqs.(3) and (6) that, for A^T , $\lambda_1 = 1$ and the corresponding eigenvector is $e = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$. Although the largest eigenvalue for A is the same ($\lambda_1 = 1$), the eigenvector for matrix A corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 1$ is *not* the same. The eigenvector v of A corresponding to the largest eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 1$ is the solution to the following linear system:

$$(A - I)v = 0. \quad (7)$$

Numerically, we can use the inverse iteration method to find v by specifying a shift very close to 1 (e.g., $\sigma = 0.9999$), then apply the power method to $(A - \sigma I)^{-1}$, instead of A :

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σ = 0.9999
repeat
    v = (A - σI)-1v
    v = v/||v||2
until convergence

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- (c) Show that the second largest eigenvalue of $A(\alpha)$ is bounded in absolute value by α .

Solution: We need the following lemma for a basic property of the eigenvectors of the transposed matrix:

Lemma. *If x_i is an eigenvector of A corresponding to the eigenvalue λ_i , and y_j is an eigenvector of A^T , then $x_i^T y_j = 0$, if $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$.*

Proof. The eigen-equations for A and A^T are

$$Ax_i = \lambda_i x_i, \quad (8)$$

$$A^T y_j = \lambda_j y_j. \quad (9)$$

We transpose Eq.(8) to get

$$x_i^T A^T = \lambda_i x_i^T. \quad (10)$$

Left multiplying Eq.(9) by x_i^T , and right multiplying Eq.(10) by y_j , then subtracting these two equations, now we get

$$x_i^T A^T y_j - x_i^T A^T y_j = 0 = (\lambda_i - \lambda_j) x_i^T y_j,$$

so we have the proof. □

From Eq.(3) we know e is the eigenvector of A^T corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 1$. By the lemma we have just proved we know the eigenvector v_2 corresponding to the second largest eigenvalue λ_2 of A is orthogonal to eigenvector e of A^T corresponding to λ_1 :

$$e^T v_2 = 0, \quad \text{for } \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2. \quad (11)$$

It can easily shown that $E = (1/n)ee^T$, so it leads to the following:

$$Ev_2 = \left(\frac{1}{n}ee^T\right)v_2 = \frac{1}{n}e(e^T v_2) = 0. \quad (12)$$

Consequently, substituting $Ev_2 = 0$ into the eigenequation for $Av_2 = \lambda_2 v_2$ we get

$$Av_2 = [\alpha P + (1 - \alpha)E]v_2 = \alpha P v_2 + (1 - \alpha)Ev_2 = \alpha P v_2 = \lambda_2 v_2, \quad (13)$$

therefore

$$P v_2 = \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\alpha}\right)v_2. \quad (14)$$

This is an eigen-equation for matrix P : v_2 is an eigenvector of P corresponding to the eigenvalue of (λ_2/α) . Since P is a column-stochastic matrix, by the Gershgorin Disk theorem, we have shown earlier in part (b) that the absolute eigenvalue μ of P is bounded by 1 (as we have done in Eq.(6) for A):

$$|\mu| \leq 1. \quad (15)$$

so we get

$$\left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\alpha}\right| \leq 1,$$

and because $0 < \alpha < 1$, we have the the proof that

$$|\lambda_2| \leq \alpha.$$

(d) Suppose the dominant eigenvector of $A(\alpha)$ is to be computed using the power method. This vector, if normalized so that its ℓ_1 -norm is equal to 1, is called the stationary distribution vector.

- i. The matrix-vector product with $A(\alpha)$ can be performed in an efficient manner in terms of storage. (Assume n is very large, and E is dense.)

Answer: For $A(\alpha) = \alpha P + (1 - \alpha)E$, when n is large (say, in the order of billions), the storage of a dense matrix E is a problem. But we can show that we do not have to store E when performing matrix vector products with $A(\alpha)$.

Recall that E is $n \times n$ with all entries equal to $1/n$, so the rank-1 matrix E can be written as

$$E = \frac{1}{n} ee^T, \quad \text{and} \quad A = \alpha P + \frac{1-\alpha}{n} ee^T.$$

Now for computing the matrix vector product $y = Az$, we write

$$y = Az = \alpha Pz + \frac{1-\alpha}{n} ee^T z. \quad (16)$$

In the second term on the right-hand-side of Eq.(16),

$$e^T z = \|z\|_1,$$

so

$$y = \alpha Pz + \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{n} \|z\|_1 \right) e.$$

In other words, in computing $y = Az$, the only matrix-vector product involved is Pz (P is usually sparse). There is *no* need to form or store the dense $n \times n$ matrix E at all (hence it is a big saving when n is huge). Therefore in performing matrix-vector product with A , it can be done very efficiently in terms of storage.

- ii. Show that if the power method is applied and if $\|v_0\|_1 = 1$, then all subsequent iterates v_k also have a unit ℓ_1 -norm, hence no need to normalize throughout the iteration.

Answer: If the power method is used, we need to compute

$$v^{(k+1)} = Av^{(k)} = A(Av^{(k-1)}) = \dots = A^k v_0. \quad (17)$$

Assume v_0 is non-negative, and we have $\|v_0\|_1 = 1$, and note that the ℓ_1 norm of v_0 can be calculated as follows:

$$\|v_0\|_1 = \sum_i |(v_0)_i| = \sum_i (v_0)_i = e^T v_0,$$

The next iterate $v^{(1)}$ according to the power method is

$$v^{(1)} = Av_0 = [\alpha P + (1-\alpha)E] v_0,$$

and its ℓ_1 -norm is

$$\|v^{(1)}\|_1 = e^T (Av_0) = e^T [\alpha P + (1-\alpha)E] v_0. \quad (18)$$

Because P is a column-stochastic matrix, we have $e^T P = e^T$. In addition,

$$E = \frac{1}{n} ee^T,$$

then we have

$$e^T E = \frac{1}{n}(e^T e)e^T = \frac{1}{n}ne^T = e^T. \quad (19)$$

Finally, now we can evaluate Eq.(18) as follows:

$$\|v^{(1)}\|_1 = [\alpha e^T + (1 - \alpha)e^T] v_0 = e^T v_0 = \|v_0\|_1 = 1.$$

By following almost the same argument, we can show it is true that all subsequent iterates have a unit ℓ_1 -norm, i.e., we do not have to normalize iterates $v^{(k)}$ in the power method for finding the eigenvector of A .

2: Simply SVD Consider the iteration

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for k=1:kmax
    u = A*v; s = norm(u); u = u/s;
    v = A'*u; s = norm(v); v = v/s;
end

```

Argue that u , v , and s correspond to the first left and right singular vectors u_1 and v_1 and the dominant singular value σ_1 , assuming $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2$. What is the rate of convergence?

Solution: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix with rank r . The SVD of A is

$$A = U\Sigma V^T. \quad (20)$$

Eq.(20) can also be expressed as

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^T, \quad (21)$$

where u_i is the i -th column vector (left singular vector) of U , v_i the i -th column vector (right singular vector) of V and σ_i the i -th singular value of A , respectively. Taking the transpose of Eq.(21), we have

$$A^T = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i v_i u_i^T, \quad (22)$$

Note that $\sigma_j^2 \equiv \lambda_j$, together with vector v_j , are the “eigenpair” of the symmetric matrix $A^T A$. Hence

$$A^T A v_i = \sigma_i^2 v_i,$$

and the ℓ_2 -norm of $A v_i$ is the corresponding singular value:

$$\|A v_i\|_2 = \sqrt{(A v_i)^T (A v_i)} = \sqrt{v_i^T A^T A v_i} = \sigma_i. \quad (23)$$

Right multiply Eq.(21) by v_i , and keep in mind that V is an orthogonal matrix, hence $v_i^T v_j = 0, i \neq j$, so we get the eigen-equation for A :

$$A v_i = \sigma_i u_i, \quad \text{therefore,} \quad u_i = \frac{A v_i}{\sigma_i} = \frac{A v_i}{\|A v_i\|_2}. \quad (24)$$

Similarly, right multiply Eq.(22) by u_i , we get the eigen-equation for A^T :

$$A^T u_i = \sigma_i v_i, \quad \text{therefore,} \quad v_i = \frac{A^T u_i}{\sigma_i} = \frac{A^T u_i}{\|A^T u_i\|_2}. \quad (25)$$

Note that $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ have exactly the same eigenvalues and the same singular values $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$.

Now the iteration of the given code can be understood in the light of Eqs.(24) and (25),

```

1  for k=1:kmax
2      u = A*v; s = norm(u); u = u/s;
3      v = A'*u; s = norm(v); v = v/s;
4  end
```

Starting from an initialization of $v = v^{(0)}$, line 2 in the code carries out Eq.(24), while line 3 carries out Eq.(25) in a loop. Note that normalizations of the iterates are included in Eqs.(24) and (25). Combining the two steps together, we have the following relation per iteration:

$$v^{(k)} = \frac{A^T A v^{(k-1)}}{\|A v^{(k-1)}\|_2 \cdot \|A^T A v^{(k-1)}\|_2}. \quad (26)$$

We also have found that each of the two steps in the SVD iteration process is very similar to the power method: lines 2 and 3 will respectively converge to “ \rightarrow ” the dominant eigenvectors (left and right) and the dominant eigenvalue/singular value according to Eqs.(24), (25) and (23):

- $u \rightarrow u_1$, the first left eigenvector;
- $v \rightarrow v_1$, the first right eigenvector; and
- $s \rightarrow \sigma_1$ the largest singular value of A .

For studying the convergence rate, we can express the k -th SVD iteration in Eq.(26) as

$$v^{(k)} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1^{2k}} (A^T A)^k v^{(0)}. \quad (27)$$

Since U and V are orthogonal matrices, by direct multiplication we have

$$A^T A = \left(\sum_i \sigma_i v_i u_i^T \right) \left(\sum_j \sigma_j u_j v_j^T \right) = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i^2 v_i v_i^T, \quad (28)$$

and we can easily show

$$(A A^T)^k = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i^{2k} v_i v_i^T. \quad (29)$$

Let the initial vector $v^{(0)}$ be spanned in terms of the orthonormal basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$

$$v^{(0)} = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_r v_r, \quad (30)$$

we then substitute Eqs.(29), (30) into Eq.(27). Most of the terms in the product are zero because, again, $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$ is an orthonormal basis, and finally we get

$$\begin{aligned} v^{(k)} &= \left[v_1 v_1^T + \left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)^{2k} v_2 v_2^T + \dots + \left(\frac{\sigma_r}{\sigma_1} \right)^{2k} v_r v_r^T \right] (c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_r v_r) \\ &= c_1 v_1 + c_2 \left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)^{2k} v_2 + \dots + c_r \left(\frac{\sigma_r}{\sigma_1} \right)^{2k} v_r. \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

Provided $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2$, Eq.(31) reveals that the convergence rate of the SVD iteration is proportional to $(\sigma_2/\sigma_1)^{2k}$.

3: Subspace iteration Implement orthogonal iteration on a m -dimensional space (see the book, page 239). Your function should have the interface

function [V,R] = p6subspace(A, m, maxiter, rtol)

and should iterate until either **maxiter** iterations have been reached or until the approximation $V^{(k)}$ satisfies the tolerance

$$\|AV^{(k)} - V^{(k)}R^{(k)}\|_F < \text{rtol}.$$

You should start your iteration with a random orthogonal basis, which you can compute with the line

[V,R] = **qr(randn(n,m), 0);**

Solution: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, starting initially with an arbitrary orthogonal matrix ($n \times m$)

$$V^{(0)} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1^{(0)} & v_2^{(0)} & \dots & v_m^{(0)} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m},$$

subspace iteration is a basic algorithm to compute m eigenvectors simultaneously by the following iteration:

$$\begin{aligned} X^{(k)} &= AV^{(k-1)}, \\ V^{(k)}R^{(k)} &= X^{(k)}, \quad \% \text{ QR decomp of } X^{(k)} \end{aligned}$$

During the iteration, we have to keep columns of the iterate $V^{(k)}$ linearly independent to prevent they all converge to the dominant eigenvector (corresponding to the largest eigenvalue). So the common approach is to run a QR decomposition of $X^{(k)}$ in the iteration before moving to the next iteration level $(k+1)$. The iteration continues until either the **maxit** iterations have been reached or until the approximation matrix $V^{(k)}$ satisfies

$$\|AV^{(k)} - V^{(k)}R^{(k)}\|_F < \text{rtol}.$$

The code is listed as follows:

```

function [V, R] = p6subspace(A, m, maxiter, rtol)
% [V, R] = p6subspace(A, m, maxiter, rtol)
% Perform m-dimensional subspace iteration for matrix A,
% returning V (eigen matrix) and the upper triangular matrix R.
%
% The iterations continue till either the tolerance (rtol) has
% been satisfied or the maxiter iterations have been reached.
%
% Convergence criterion (using the Frobenius norm):
%  $\|AV_k - V_k R_k\|_F < \text{rtol}$ 
%
n=length(A);
% pre-allocate V and X matrices (n by m):
V = zeros(n,m);
X = zeros(n,m);
% initialization : V_0:
[V, R]=qr(randn(n,m),0);

k=1;
while (k < maxiter)
    X = A*V;
    % To get V at the next level k+1 by QR decomp
    [V, R]=qr(X,0);
    % Schur's projection step
    %Aproj=V'*(A*V);
    %[U,T]=schur(Aproj);
    %V=V*U;
    DIF F=A*V - X;
    residual=norm(DIF F,'fro');
    if rem(k,10)==0
        disp(sprintf(' \nresidual=%g, k=%d', residual, k))
    end
    if ( residual < rtol )
        return
    end
    k=k+1;
end
end

```