

# CS 513 Assignment 5

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## 1

### 1.1

We start with LU-factorization first. We only need to know the number of negative eigenvalues on the diagonal of  $U$  matrices after decomposition, so we only need to update the diagonal elements. If we denote the resulting upper triangular matrices from the LU decomposition of  $A$  and  $A - I$  as  $U_0$  and  $U_1$ , the diagonal elements of  $U_0$  are -1, 2 and 1.5, and the those of  $U_1$  are -2, 0.5 and -1. Thus there is one eigenvalue of  $A$  in  $(0, 1)$ .

Now, let's calculate the determinants of the principal minors of  $A$  and  $A - I$  to achieve the same goal. The determinants of the principal minors of  $A$  are -1, -2, and -5, and those of  $A - I$  are -2, -1, and 1. Considering the implicit 1 at the beginning of the sequence, the number of negative eigenvalues of  $A$  and  $A - I$  are 1 and 2. Thus, there is 1 eigenvalue of  $A$  in the interval of  $(0, 1)$ .

### 1.2

In the LU approach, we calculated  $1 - 1^2/(-1) = 2$  and  $2 - 1^2/2 = 1.5$  for  $A$  and  $0 - 1^2/(-2) = 0.5$  and  $1 - 1^2/0.5 = -1$  for  $A - I$ : a total of 2 multiplications and 2 divisions were carried out for each matrix. The formula used to update the diagonal elements is  $U_{k,k} = A_{k,k} - A_{k,k-1}^2/U_{k-1,k-1}$ . In general, for a  $m \times m$  tridiagonal matrix, to update the diagonal elements apart from the first one,  $m - 1$  multiplications,  $m - 1$  divisions, and  $m - 1$  subtractions need to be carried out.

When calculating the determinants, if we set  $d(0) = 1$  and  $d(1) = A_{1,1}$ , the recurrent formula is  $d(k) = A_{k,k} \times d(k-1) - A_{k,k-1}^2 \times d(k-2)$ . For  $k = 2, \dots, m$ , we use the recurrent formula to calculate the determinants

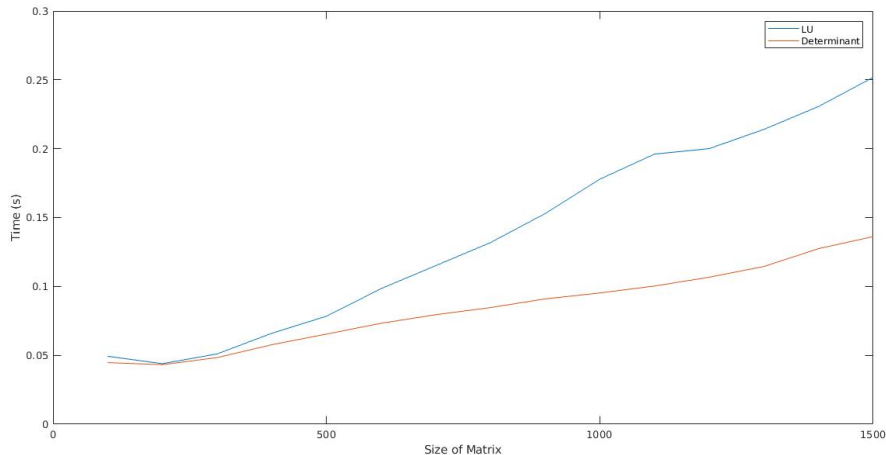


Figure 1: plot of time consumed to find the number of eigenvalues between 0 and 1 for symmetric tridiagonal matrices of different sizes. The time shown is the total of operating on 1,000 matrices of each size. Calculations were carried out on a relatively old platform (Core i7-2620M with 6 MB RAM) and with MATLAB R2017b.

of the corresponding minors: a total of  $3(m - 1)$  multiplications and  $m - 1$  subtractions are needed.

If we deem the cost of division as the same as that of multiplication, we might come to the conclusion that LU-factorization is a better algorithm. However, on most machines, floating-point division, which can cost as many as more than 10 clock cycles, is about 3–5 times slower than multiplication; thus, we expect the determinant approach to have better performance. In addition, doing LU-factorization without pivoting always risks encountering zero or small diagonal entries: another point for determinants!

### 1.3

Figure 1 shows that both methods generally have linear complexity for random symmetric tridiagonal matrices. The determinant method is more efficient, compared to LU-factorization, which agrees with our analysis above.

## 2

### 2.1

The cardinality of  $\sigma(A)$  is  $n$ , because in each of the pairwise disjoint disks there is one (and only one) eigenvalue of  $A$ , which add up to give  $n$  distinct eigenvalues. In addition, for each of the eigenvalues, both the corresponding algebraic and geometric multiplicity is 1.

### 2.2

The proposition is true, because for each of the eigenvalues of  $A$ , the algebraic multiplicity is equal to geometric multiplicity, which is a sufficient (and necessary) condition for  $A$  to be diagonalizable.

### 2.3

The claim is correct, and we can prove it by contradiction: If the imaginary part of an eigenvalue of a real matrix  $A$  is not zero, namely  $Av = \lambda v$ ,  $\lambda = x + iy$ ,  $y \neq 0$ , then we can take the complex conjugate of the equation to write  $A\bar{v} = \bar{\lambda}\bar{v}$ , namely  $\bar{\lambda}$  will also be an eigenvalue of  $A$ . Since all of the Gershgorin disks of  $A$  are centered on the real axis, if  $\lambda = x + iy$  is in one of the disks,  $\bar{\lambda} = x - iy$  will also be in the same disk. However, we know from preceeding discussions that in each of the Gershgorin disks there can be only one eigenvalue of  $A$ ; hence we know that all of the eigenvalues of  $A$  must be real.

### 2.4

This is not true. The following is a counterexample: with a simple matrix whose Gershgorin disks are obvious disjoint:

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

and the input vector  $x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ , the sequence  $\{A^n x\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  oscillates back and forth between  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ , which clearly does not converge.

### 3

The algorithms for power iteration and inverse power iteration are shown below. Note that all of the norms refer to  $l_2$ -norm.

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**Algorithm 1** Power iteration to find the two dominant eigenvalues of  $A$

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 $v = \text{random } m \times m \text{ vector s.t. } \|v\| = 1$   
 $\lambda = \langle v, Av \rangle$   
while  $\frac{\|Av - \lambda v\|}{\|Av\|} \geq \epsilon$  do  
     $v = Av$  normalized  
     $\lambda = \langle v, Av \rangle$   
end while  
 $w = v - e_1$  normalized  
 $B = (I - 2ww^T)A(I - 2ww^T)$   
 $B_1 = B(2 : \text{end}, 2 : \text{end})$   
 $v_1 = \text{random } (m - 1) \times (m - 1) \text{ vector s.t. } \|v_1\| = 1$   
 $\lambda_1 = \langle v_1, B_1 v_1 \rangle$   
while  $\frac{\|B_1 v_1 - \lambda_1 v_1\|}{\|B_1 v_1\|} \geq \epsilon$  do  
     $v_1 = B_1 v_1$  normalized  
     $\lambda_1 = \langle v_1, B_1 v_1 \rangle$   
end while
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**Algorithm 2** Inverse iteration to find the two smallest (in modulus) eigenvalues of  $A$

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 $v$  = random  $m \times m$  vector s.t.  $\|v\| = 1$ 
QR factorize  $A$  to get  $Q, R$ 
Solve  $Qy = v$  for  $y$ 
Solve  $Ru = y$  for  $u$ 
 $\zeta = v^T u$ 
while  $\frac{\|u - \zeta v\|}{\|u\|} \geq \epsilon$  do
     $v = u$  normalized
    Solve  $Qy = v$  for  $y$ 
    Solve  $Ru = y$  for  $u$ 
     $\zeta = \langle v, u \rangle$ 
end while
 $\lambda = \frac{1}{\zeta}$ 
 $w = v - e_1$  normalized
 $B = (I - 2ww^T)A(I - 2ww^T)$ 
 $B_1 = B(2 : \text{end}, 2 : \text{end})$ 
 $v_1$  = random  $(m - 1) \times (m - 1)$  vector s.t.  $\|v_1\| = 1$ 
QR factorize  $B_1$  to get  $Q_1, R_1$ 
Solve  $Q_1 y_1 = v_1$  for  $y_1$ 
Solve  $R_1 u_1 = y_1$  for  $u_1$ 
 $\zeta_1 = \langle v_1, u_1 \rangle$ 
while  $\frac{\|u_1 - \zeta_1 v_1\|}{\|u_1\|} \geq \epsilon$  do
     $v_1 = u_1$  normalized
    Solve  $Q_1 y_1 = v_1$  for  $y_1$ 
    Solve  $R_1 u_1 = y_1$  for  $u_1$ 
     $\zeta_1 = \langle v_1, u_1 \rangle$ 
end while
 $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{\zeta_1}$ 

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$\lambda_{\text{actual}}$	$\lambda_{\text{power}}$	$\lambda_{\text{inverse}}$
6.1165	6.1152	N/A
-1.2866	-1.2886	N/A
-0.1153	N/A	-0.1154
-0.3441	N/A	-0.3451

When we were deflating the matrices, we found the first column of the

matrix  $B = HAH$  has non-zero elements in entries below the first one, and this makes the rigorousness of our deflation process dubious. Even though the second eigenvalue turns out to be acceptable, we would expect the error to accumulate if we go on to deflate the matrix again. This can be avoided if we set a more stringent criterion for accepting the eigenvalue, say, with  $\epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-10}$ .

## 4

### 4.1

Answer: the diagonal and first and second superdiagonal entries of  $R$  are potentially non-zero, and  $Q$  is tridiagonal. The explanation is the following:

Because  $A$  is symmetric tridiagonal, *i.e.*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & & & \\ b & c & d & & \\ & d & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & x & y \\ & & & y & z \end{bmatrix},$$

when we're eliminating the subdiagonal entries of  $A$  with Householders,  $H_k$  needs only to alter the  $k$ th and  $k+1$ th rows. As a result, in the region above the diagonal, only the  $(k, k+2)$  entry risks becoming nonzero from zero in the  $k$ th step. After  $m-1$  steps, the only entries in  $R$  that can be nonzero are ones on the diagonal, first superdiagonal and second superdiagonal.

$Q = \prod_{k=1}^{m-1} H_k$  is the same as the resulting matrix after applying the operations, as detailed above, on the identity matrix: in each step nonzero elements are introduced in sub- and super-diagonal positions. After  $m-1$  steps, it's obvious that  $Q$  is tridiagonal.

### 4.2

Because  $A = QR = H_{m-1}H_{m-2}\cdots H_2H_1R$ ,  $RQ$  can be written as

$$RQ = RH_{m-1}\cdots H_1$$

The effect of  $H_{m-1}$  on  $R$  is 'messing up' the last two columns while leaving other columns unchanged. Thus, in the lower triangular part of  $RH_{m-1}$ , the only nonzero entry is  $(RH_{m-1})_{m,m-1}$ . Similarly, the effect of  $H_{m-2}$  on  $RH_{m-1}$  is altering the  $m-1$ th and  $m-2$ th columns while keeping others intact<sup>1</sup>, and the only nonzero entries below diagonal now are at  $(m, m-1)$

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<sup>1</sup>For a general  $H_{m-2}$  operated from the right, the last three columns will be altered, and after  $m-1$  operations the resulting matrix is no Hessenberg. However, since we started with a tridiagonal matrix in QR factorization, the  $k$ th Householder need only to change the  $k$ th and  $k+1$ th rows when operating from the left (or columns from the right); hence we have this nice property.

and  $(m-1, m-2)$ . After  $m-1$  operations of Householder matrices from the right, all of the subdiagonal entries will potentially be nonzero, and the resulting matrix,  $RQ$ , is a Hessenberg matrix.

In addition, we can write  $R$  as

$$R = Q'A = H_{m-1} \cdots H_1 A,$$

so that  $RQ = Q'AQ$ . Because  $A$  is symmetric,  $Q'AQ$  must be symmetric as well. Thus,  $RQ$  is a symmetric Hessenberg matrix, which is tridiagonal.