

CS375 HW11

Ryan Scherbarth

November 2024

1. Since we spent a week or two learning to solve nonlinear equations, one might assume that finding the characteristic polynomial of a matrix and then using one of our root-finding methods would be a good approach for finding the eigenvalues. In this problem, we illustrate one reason why this is generally a bad idea. Assume that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) What is the characteristic polynomial of A ?

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= 0 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

We find the determinant: $\det(A - \lambda I) = (1 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda) - \epsilon * \epsilon = (1 - \lambda)^2 - \epsilon^2$.

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= (1 - \lambda)^2 - \epsilon^2 && \text{this first line is good} \\ &= 1 - 2\lambda + \lambda^2 - \epsilon^2 \\ &= \lambda^2 - 2\lambda + (1 - \epsilon)^2 \end{aligned}$$

So the characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + (1 - \epsilon)^2 = 0$.

(b) **Calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A (by hand).**

To find the eigenvalues we can set the characteristic polynomial of A to 0 and solve;

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + (1 - \epsilon^2) &= 0 \\ \lambda &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4 + 4\epsilon^2}}{2} \\ \lambda &= 1 \pm \epsilon\end{aligned}$$

So $\lambda_1 = 1 + \epsilon$, and $\lambda_2 = 1 - \epsilon$.

To find the eigenvector for λ_1 , we solve $(A - \lambda_1 I) = 0$;

$$\begin{aligned}A - (1 + \epsilon)I &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 - (1 + \epsilon) & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 - (1 + \epsilon) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -\epsilon & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & -\epsilon \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} -\epsilon & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & -\epsilon \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} &= 0\end{aligned}$$

We then get the equation $-\epsilon x + \epsilon y = 0$, which shows $x = y$, therefore $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$.

For λ_2 we have $\lambda_2 = 1 - \epsilon$.

$$\begin{aligned}A - (1 - \epsilon)I &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 - (1 - \epsilon) & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 - (1 - \epsilon) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & \epsilon \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & \epsilon \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} &= 0\end{aligned}$$

We get the equation $\epsilon x + \epsilon y = 0$, which shows $x = -y$, so our eigenvector is $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^T$.

- (c) Now let $\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_m}{4}}$, where ϵ_m is machine epsilon. Verify that $\epsilon \gg \epsilon_m$. Use the Matlab command for finding the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial, *charpoly*, and the Matlab command for finding the roots of a polynomial, *roots*, at the Matlab prompt. The function *charpoly* returns the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial in the correct order for *roots*, i.e., it returns $[a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0]$, where a_i is the coefficient for λ^i in the characteristic polynomial.

Matlab script:

```
epsilon_m = eps;
epsilon = sqrt(epsilon_m / 4);

fprintf('eps = %.16f\n', epsilon);
fprintf('eps_m = %.16f\n', epsilon_m);
fprintf('eps >> eps_m: %d\n', epsilon > epsilon_m);

A = [1, epsilon; epsilon, 1];
char_poly = charpoly(A);
disp(char_poly);

eigenvalues = roots(char_poly);
disp(eigenvalues);
```

Our matlab code calculates $\text{char_poly} = [1 \quad -2 \quad 1]$, and the eigenvalues to be $\text{roots}(\text{char_poly}) = [1 \quad 1]^T$. Here, we see the difference of ϵ appear, where we round our eigenvalues down to 1's compared to the values we found in part a, $[1 + \epsilon \quad 1 - \epsilon]^T$. We see with sufficiently small ϵ Matlab just drops those values off and rounds to 1.

- (d) **Do your answers from parts a and b disagree? If so, explain why (use *format long* so that you are able to see by how much they disagree).**

Our answers do agree in parts a and b. In both cases, we are able to simplify our eigenvalues down to $[1 \quad 1]^T$, and the characteristic polynomial coefficients to be $[1 \quad -2 \quad 1]^T$. Despite this I still tried setting *format long* and rerunning the matlab script to check, but in checking $\text{abs}(\text{eigenvalues}(1) - \text{eigenvalues}(2)) < \epsilon_m$ I see that they are numerically identical there as well.

- (e) Write a Matlab function `[eval, evec] = power_method(A, x, tol)` which takes in a matrix A , initial vector for power iteration x , and a tolerance tol , and returns an approximation to the largest eigenvalue $eval$ and the corresponding normalized eigenvector $evec$ using the normalized power method. Use the following criterion for the convergence of power method iteration:

$$|\lambda^{(k)} - \lambda^{(k-1)}| < tol$$

$$\|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}\|_2 < tol$$

where $x^{(k)}$ is the approximation to the eigenvector after the k th iteration. where $\lambda^{(k)}$ is the approximation to the eigenvalue after the k th iteration.

```
function [eval, evec] = power_method(A, x, tol)
    diff_lambda = Inf;
    diff_x = Inf;
    x = x / norm(x, 2);
    lambda_prev = 0;

    while diff_lambda > tol || diff_x > tol
        y = A * x;
        x_new = y / norm(y, 2);
        lambda = y' * x;

        diff_x = norm(x_new - x, 2);
        diff_lambda = abs(lambda - lambda_prev);

        x = x_new;
        lambda_prev = lambda;
    end
    eval = lambda;
    evec = x;
end
```

- (f) Keeping $\epsilon = \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon_m}}{4}$ use your function `power_method` and the initial guess $x = [3; 4]$ to find the largest eigenvalue of A . Report your approximate eigenvalue. Try doing this with $tol = 10^{-8}, 10^{-9}, 10^{-10}$. Depending on the tolerance, running your script could take a few minutes (not for credit: what does the ratio of the true eigenvalues have to do with it?

```
for 10-8, 1.0000000035762784
for 10-9, 1.0000000035885637
for 10-10, 1.0000000037239478
```

We see that the theoretical largest eigenvalue is increasing as make the tolerance smaller (meaning we want more accuracy).

our ratio is $r = \frac{1-\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}$, which sets the rate at which we converge. We see that we have a ratio where the numerator is decreasing and the denominator is increasing. When r is close to 1 it means we have a small ϵ , so smaller tolerances require more iterations to get a more accurate result.

2. So far we've only discussed using the power method to find the largest eigenvalue of a matrix. In this problem, we will see how to find the next largest eigenvalue.

- (a) Assume a symmetric positive definite matrix A has distinct eigenvalues ($\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$). Let λ_1 denote the largest eigenvalue and \vec{v}_1 be an associated eigenvector. Show that

$$B = A - \frac{\lambda_1}{(\vec{v}_1)^T \vec{v}_1} \vec{v}_1 (\vec{v}_1)^T$$

has the same eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A , except that λ_1 is replaced by 0, i.e. $B\vec{v}_1 = 0$.

Hint: It can be shown that the eigenvectors of A are orthogonal, i.e. $(\vec{v}_i)^T \vec{v}_j = 0$ when $i \neq j$. You can assume this fact, but make sure to explain how you are using it.

Hint: Be careful with order of vector products. The term $(\vec{v}_1)^T \vec{v}_1$ is just a dot product and produces a scalar. However, $\vec{v}_1 (\vec{v}_1)^T$ is an outer product that produces a matrix.

Let \vec{v}_1 be the eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ_1 s.t. $A\vec{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1$. We plug \vec{v}_1 into B :

$$\begin{aligned} B\vec{v}_1 &= \vec{v}_1 \left(A - \frac{\lambda_1}{\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1} \vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_1^T \right) \\ &= A\vec{v}_1 - \frac{\lambda_1}{\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1} (\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1) \vec{v}_1 & A\vec{v}_1 &= \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ &= \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 - \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Let \vec{v}_i for any $i \neq 1$ be some other eigenvector of A where the eigenvalue λ_i . We can plug this value into B now:

$$\begin{aligned} B\vec{v}_i &= \vec{v}_i \left(A - \frac{\lambda_1}{\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1} \vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_1^T \right) \\ &= A\vec{v}_i - \frac{\lambda_1}{\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1} (\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_i) \vec{v}_1 \\ &= A\vec{v}_i \\ &= \lambda_i \vec{v}_i \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $B\vec{v}_i = \lambda_i \vec{v}_i$ all the other eigenvalues and eigenvectors remain the same when $i \neq 1$.

- (b) Use the previous formula to modify your function *power_method* to find the second largest eigenvalue of the A from the previous problem,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note, the largest eigenvalue of B will be the second largest eigenvalue of A .

```
function [eval, evec] = power_method(A, x, tol)
    diff_lambda = Inf;
    diff_x = Inf;
    x = x / norm(x, 2);
    lambda_prev = 0;

    while diff_lambda > tol || diff_x > tol
        y = A * x;
        x_new = y / norm(y, 2);
        lambda = y' * x;

        diff_x = norm(x_new - x, 2);
        diff_lambda = abs(lambda - lambda_prev);

        x = x_new;
        lambda_prev = lambda;
    end

    lambda1 = lambda;
    v1 = x;
    v1_norm_sq = v1' * v1;
    B = A - (lambda1 / v1_norm_sq) * (v1 * v1');

    diff_lambda = Inf;
    diff_x = Inf;
    x = x / norm(x, 2);
    lambda_prev = 0;

    while diff_lambda > tol || diff_x > tol
        y = B * x;
        x_new = y / norm(y, 2);
        lambda = y' * x;

        diff_x = norm(x_new - x, 2);
        diff_lambda = abs(lambda - lambda_prev);

        x = x_new;
        lambda_prev = lambda;
    end

    eval = lambda;
    evec = x;
end
```

output?-t

3. Numeric Differentiation

- (a) Use a Taylor series expansion to show that

$$\frac{f(a+h) - f(a-h)}{2h} = f'(a) + O(h^2)$$

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(a) + \frac{h^3}{6}f^{(3)}(a) + O(h^4)$$

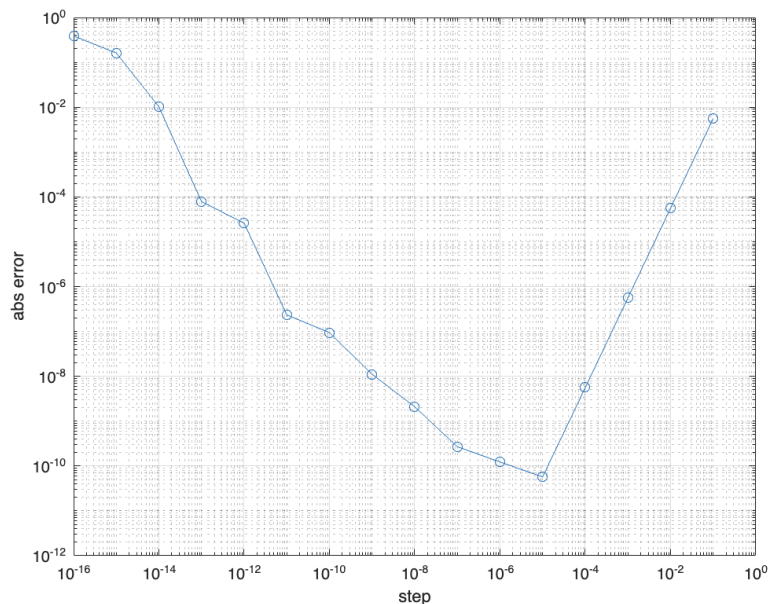
$$f(a-h) = f(a) - hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(a) - \frac{h^3}{6}f^{(3)}(a) + O(h^4)$$

$$f(a+h) - f(a-h) = 2hf'(a) + \frac{2h^3}{6}f^{(3)}(a) + O(h^4)$$

$$\frac{f(a+h) - f(a-h)}{2h} = f'(a) + \frac{h^2}{6}f^{(3)}(a) + O(h^3)$$

The leading term is $\frac{h^2}{6}$ so we can simplify using Big-O notation to $O(h^2)$.

- (b) Let $f(x) = \cos(1.5x)$ and $a = 1$. Plot (using the appropriate scaling, i.e. choose the best option between *plot*, *semilogy*, or *loglog*), the absolute error in the approximation of $f'(a)$ by the finite difference in part a, for $h = \text{logspace}(-1, -16, 16)$. Explain your results.



We see the abs error decreases up to the point of a step size of 10^{-5} range, and then we start increasing in error again as we approach 10^0 . With very small values we get rounding truncation errors that cause a large error, so it is expected for this to improve as we increase the size of our numbers from that starting point.

I chose a *loglog* plot because it shows the relationship between powers changing. In this case, our graph is broken up into a number of straight lines, each of the slopes of those straight lines, x , representing to the power, h^x .

- (c) **The error in b arises from two sources of error: truncation error due to the finite Taylor series approximation and rounding errors due to floating point operations**

- i. **Show that the truncation error is bounded by $C_1 h^2$ for some constant C_1 .**

$$\frac{f(a+h) - f(a-h)}{2h} = f'(a) + \frac{h^2}{6} f^{(3)}(a) + O(h^4)$$

We can represent the truncated error as the difference between the finite difference approx and the true value;

$$\frac{h^2}{6} f^{(3)}(a) + O(h^4)$$

We have a bound that $f^{(3)}(a) \leq C$ for some constant, which means we can say

$$\text{Truncation err} \leq \frac{Ch^2}{6} \leq C_1 h^2$$

- ii. **Show that the rounding error is bounded by $\frac{C_2 \epsilon}{h}$ where ϵ is the machine precision or machine epsilon and C_2 is some constant.**

Let $\ell(x)$ represent the value we actually compute each time, where $\ell(x) = f(x)(1 + g_x)$ where g_x is some value smaller than ϵ . We will then have

$$\frac{\ell(a+h) - \ell(a-h)}{2h} = \frac{f(a+h) - f(a-h)}{2h} (1 + g_x) + O\left(\frac{\epsilon}{h}\right)$$

it is not clear how you get

Again in this case, our rounded error will be bound by the quickest growing term, $\frac{C_2 \epsilon}{h}$. We see the numerator remains relatively constant, while dividing by a small h amplifies it.

- iii. **The total error is the sum of the two errors. Add them and write out the expression for the error in your finite difference approximation.**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{trunc error:} & \leq C_1 h^2 \\ \text{rounding err} & \leq \frac{C_2 \epsilon}{h} \\ \text{total err:} & \leq C_1 h^2 + \frac{C_2 \epsilon}{h} \end{aligned}$$

The first term is dominated by the values of h^2 , and the second term is dominated for small values of h . The difference here is why the total error gives us a sort of V shape as we transfer from one dominating to the other.

- (d) Use calculus to show that the optimal h to use in the approximation in b, (i.e. the one that gives the smallest error) is $h_{opt} \approx C_{\epsilon^{\frac{1}{3}}}$, where C is some constant. (Hint: Minimize the expression for the total error in c-iii.

$$E(h) = C_1 h^2 + \frac{C_2^\epsilon}{h}$$

$$0 = 2C_1 h - \frac{C_2^\epsilon}{h^2}$$

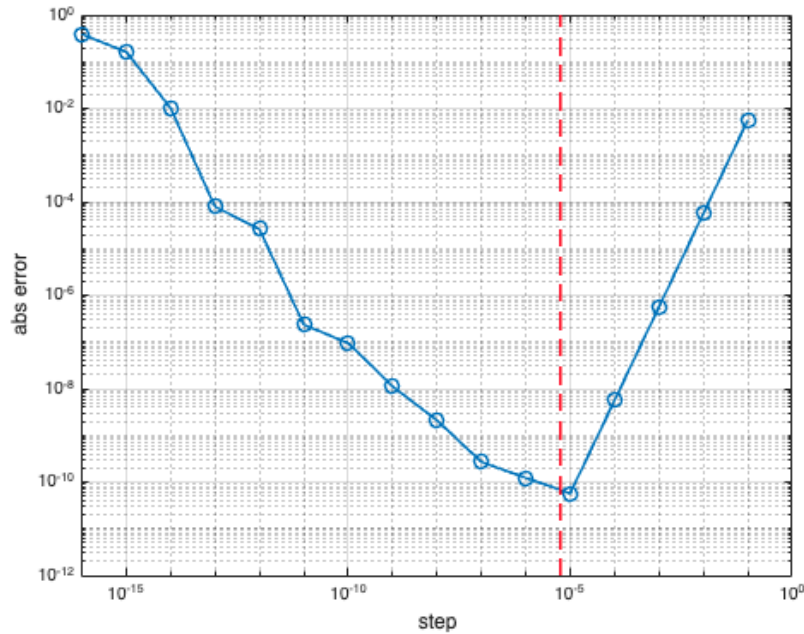
$$h^3 = \frac{C_2^\epsilon}{2C_1}$$

$$h = \left(\frac{C_2^\epsilon}{2C_1}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

check your typesetting...

Representing h this way we can show that we want to minimize C . The final $h_{opt} \approx C_{\epsilon^{\frac{1}{3}}}$. The optimal h that will minimize the error depends on the precision we are using and the constant. That is what will ultimately bound our either truncation or rounding errors.

- (e) Does this result agree with the data you plotted in b? Plote a line at $\epsilon^{\frac{1}{3}}$ by using the matlab command `line([power(eps($\frac{1}{3}$),power(eps, $\frac{1}{3}$)), [get(gcf,'ylim')])`.



So we see the solution we found above by minimizing our error function does agree with the graph we've created, where we properly identify our minimum value.