## Lanczos Algorithm

Using Householder Reflection

#### Outline

- Introduction
- Review: Householder's QR decomposition
- Similarity transformation using Householder matrices
- Eigenvalues of tri-diagonal matrices
- The algorithm
- Convergence analysis
- Time complexity analysis

## Introduction (1)

- Lanczos algorithm
  - A numerical algorithm for computing eigenvalues of symmetric matrices.
- For computing eigenvalues
  - 1. Using Lanczos iteration to perform tri-diagonalization  $T = V^T A V$ ,

T is a symmetric tri-diagonal matrix and V is an orthonormal column matrix.

- 2. Applying numerical methods to compute the eigenvalues and eigenvector of T.
- 3. If  $\lambda$  and x are an eigenvalue and the corresponding eigenvector of T, then  $\lambda$  is also an eigenvalue of A and y = Vx is the corresponding eigenvector.  $(V^{-1} = V^{T} = V)$

## Introduction (2)

• Matrix **T** is organized as follows

Main diagonal =  $\{a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1}\}$ . The two non-zero off-diagonals =  $\{b_0, b_1, ..., b_{n-2}\}$ 

• The i-th row of T is  $T_0 = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & b_0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix},$   $T_{i.} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & b_{i-1} & a_i & b_i & 0 & \dots \end{bmatrix}, 1 \le i \le n-2,$   $T_{n-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 & b_{n-2} & a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$ 

## Introduction (3)

- The original Lanczos algorithm for the tridiagonalization is numerical unstable.
- We use Householder transformation to perform the job.
- Then, we can use any numerical methods to compute the eigenvalues of T.
- In this lecture, we use
  - Bi-section method and
  - Power method

### Householder Transformation

- Basic terms:
  - Let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , a unit vector and  $P: n \times n$  matrix.
- Householder reflection matrix is defined as:

$$P = I - \frac{2vv^T}{v^Tv},$$
  
- If  $||v|| = 1$ ,  $P = I - 2vv^T$ .

• Basic properties

**P** is symmetric,

$$P^{-1}=P^T=P,$$

**P** is orthogonal. (orthonormal)

**P** can be used in a similarity transformation

$$P^{-1}AP = P^{T}AP = PAP$$

• Similarity transformations are used to simplify A.

#### Householder Matrix

• We are interested in a special P, which projects vector x onto  $e_0$ :

$$Px = \alpha e_0$$

• The matrix P

$$v = x \pm ||x|| e_0$$
, // sign = sign of  $x[0]$ .  
 $P = I - \frac{2vv^T}{v^T v}$ ,

Example

$$x = [3 1 5]^T, ||x|| = \sqrt{35},$$
  
 $v = [3 + \sqrt{35} 1 5]^T,$   
 $P\vec{x} = [\sqrt{35} 0 0]^T.$ 

## Question

- Can we use Householder's matrices to eliminate *A* into a diagonal matrix?
- Answer:
  - We cannot!
  - Similarity transformation  $(PAP) \neq QR$ -decomposition transformation (PA).
    - 2-side operation vs. 1-side operation.
  - For example, if we eliminate the 0-th column below  $A_{00}$  then the entries  $A_{0k}$  of the 0-th row will be modified too.
  - If we eliminate the 0-th row by using P, the entries after  $A_{00}$  will not be eliminated.

# Tri-diagonalization

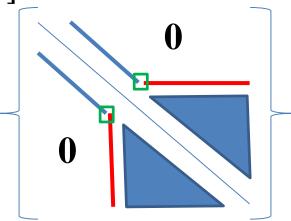
• QR-decomposition  $\approx$  forward elimination using  $H_i$ 

# Eliminating the *j*-th Column

- Let  $A_{.j} = \left[a_{0j}, a_{1j}, \dots, a_{jj}, \dots, a_{n-1,j}\right]^T$  be the j-th column.
- Construct  $H_j$  which eliminates the entry below  $a_{j+1,j}$ .

$$H_j A_{.j} = [a_{0j}, a_{1j}, ..., a_{j+1,j}^*, 0, ..., 0]^T.$$

• The algorithm of creating  $H_j$   $t = [0, ..., 0, a_{j+1,j}, ..., a_{n-1,j}]^T,$   $v_j = t \pm ||t|| e_{j+1},$   $H_j = I - 2(\frac{v_j v_j}{v_j}),$   $A = H_i A.$ 



## Tri-diagonalization Algorithm

```
for(i=0;i \le n-2;i++){//eliminations
  //create vector v[].
  create vector v(A, v, n, i);
  vTv = \langle v, v \rangle:
  //modify columns and rows.
  for(j=i;j <= n-2;j++)
    //Retrieve the j<sup>th</sup> row (or column).
    //Vector t = the current row (or col.).
     create_vector_t(A, t, n, i, j);
     vTt = \langle v, t \rangle;
    //H * t = t - 2\left(\frac{v^T t}{v^T v}\right) v.
     modify\_col(A, i, j); //the j^{th} col.
    modify_row(A, i, j); //the j<sup>th</sup> row
```

```
void create vector v(A, v, n, i) //Creating v[].
 t[1 = \{0\};
 //retrieve the i<sup>th</sup> column below A[i][i]
 for(j=i+1;j \le n-1;j++) \ t[j] = A[j][i];
 //Compute the norm of the vector.
  tTt = inner product(t, t);
  a = sqrt(tTt);
 //t = t + sign(t[j])*e_i;
  if(t[i+1]>=0) t[i+1] = t[i+1] + a;
  else t[i+1] = t[i+1] - a;
void create_vector_t(A, t, n, i, j)
  t[] = \{0\};
 //retrieve the j<sup>th</sup> column
 for(j=i+1;j \le n-1;j++) \ t[j] = A[j][i];
```

# Eigenvalue Computation for Tridiagonal Matrices

- After the tridiagonalization process, A becomes a symmetric tridiagonal matrix T,
  - Having the same eigenvalues.
- T is simple, computing its eigenvalues is not trivial.
- But eigenvalue computing algorithms can be sped-up.

Tri-diagonal Matrix

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & b_0 & & & & & & & & \\ b_0 & a_1 & & & & & & & \\ & 0 & & \ddots & \ddots & & & \\ & 0 & & \ddots & \ddots & & b_{n-2} \\ & 0 & & b_{n-2} & & a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

# The Characteristic Polynomial

$$p_n(\lambda) = det(T - \lambda I).$$

$$P_n(\lambda) = (a_{n-1} - \lambda)p_{n-1}(\lambda) - b_{n-2}^2 p_{n-2(\lambda)}.$$

Where,

$$p_1(\lambda) = a_0 - \lambda, p_0(\lambda) = 1.$$

The characteristic polynomial can be expressed as,
$$\begin{bmatrix}
a_0 - \lambda & b_0 & 0 & 0 \\
b_0 & a_1 - \lambda & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \ddots & \ddots & b_{n-2} \\
0 & b_{n-2} & a_{n-1} - \lambda
\end{bmatrix}$$

Verify the recurrence equation by

$$P_{n}(\lambda) = (a_{n-1} - \lambda)p_{n-1}(\lambda) - b_{n-2}p_{n-2}(\lambda).$$
Where,
$$B_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} s_{0} & t_{0} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_{0} & s_{1} & t_{1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & t_{1} & s_{2} & t_{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & t_{2} & s_{3} & t_{3} \\ -0 & 0 & 0 & t_{3} & s_{4} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\det(B_5) = s_4 \det(B_4) - t_3 \det(C),$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} s_0 & t_0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_0 & s_1 & t_1 & 0 \\ 0 & t_1 & s_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & t_2 & t_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} & & & 0 \\ B_3 & & 0 \\ & & & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & t_2 & t_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\det(C) = t_3 \det(B_3) - t_2 0 = t_3 \det(B_3).$$
  
 
$$\det(B_5) = s_4 \det(B_4) - t_3 t_3 \det(B_3).$$

## Characteristic Polynomial Evaluation

```
double a[], b[]; //\text{keep } T \text{ in 2 arrays}
double p(x, i)
   if(i==0) return (1.0);
   if(i==1) return(a[0]-x);
   t1 = p(x, i-1);
   t2 = p(x, i-2);
   return (a[i-1]-x)*t1 -
              b[i-2]*b[i-2]*t2);
```

```
p_n(\lambda) = (a_{n-1} - \lambda)p_{n-1}(\lambda) - b_{n-2}b_{n-2}p_{n-2}(\lambda).
p_1(\lambda) = a_0 - \lambda,
p_0(\lambda) = 1.
Time complexity = O(n).
```

## Bisection Method for Computing $\lambda$

• Given y < z and  $p_n(y) * p_n(z) < 0$ , we can use bisection method to compute the eigenvalue in [y, z].

```
while(|z-y|>\varepsilon){

\lambda = (y+z)/2.0;
if(p(\lambda,n)*p(y,n)<0.0) z = \lambda;
else y = \lambda;
}
return (\lambda);
```

## Power Method for Computing $\lambda$

• Given a vector x, T\*x can be simplified.

$$y = T * x ::$$

$$y_0 = a_0 x_0 + b_0 x_1,$$

$$y_{n-1} = b_{n-2} x_{n-2} + a_{n-1} x_{n-1},$$

$$y_i = b_{i-1} x_{i-1} + a_i x_i + b_i x_{i+1},$$

$$1 \le i \le n-2.$$

 Thus each iteration of power method can be completed in O(n) steps. The i-th row of T is

$$T_{i.}$$
=  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & b_{i-1} & a_i & b_i & 0 & \dots \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 & b_0 & & & & & & & & & \\ b_0 & a_1 & & & & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & & & & & \\ 0 & & \ddots & \ddots & & & & \\ & & & b_{n-2} & & a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Power Method for Computing $\lambda$

x=Ty is computed by::

$$x_0 = a_0 y_0 + b_0 y_1,$$
  
 $x_{n-1} = b_{n-2} y_{n-2} + a_{n-1} y_{n-1},$   
 $x_i = b_{i-1} y_{i-1} + a_i y_i + b_i y_{i+1},$   
 $1 \le i \le n-2.$ 

```
select y \neq 0;
 x = T * y;
 repeat{
    y = \frac{x}{\|x\|}; //y^{(k)}
    x = T * y; // y^{(k+1)}
    \lambda = \frac{y^T x}{v^T y}; //eigenvalue.
    r = \lambda * y - x;
   //r^{(k)} = \lambda^{(k)} \gamma^{(k)} - A \gamma^{(k)}
\{until(||r|| \leq \varepsilon)\}
```

### Discussion

#### Time complexity

- The tridiagonalization requires O(n<sup>3</sup>) time steps.
- In the bisection method, the time complexity for evaluating  $p_n(\lambda)$  is //in each iteration

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-2) + 1$$
, with  $T(1) = T(0) = 1$ .  $T(n) = O(n^2)$ .

• In total,  $O(\log_2 \frac{1}{\varepsilon})$  iterations are required.

#### Discussion

Using the power method:

- Time complexity for each iteration is O(n).
- We need  $O(\log_{\left|\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_1}\right|} \frac{1}{\varepsilon})$  iterations.
- If the max eigenvalue is much larger than the 2<sup>nd</sup> eigenvalue, power method will be a better method.
  - It also gives us the eigenvector.

### Discussion

#### Using the Jacobi method:

- If we apply Jacobi method after the tridiagonalization, how fast can we solve all the eigenvalues and eigenvectors?
- We can optimize the similarity transformation, since *T* is tridiagonal.
  - For each similarity transformation, the time complexity is O(1), constant time.
  - Can we limit the number of similarity transformations within O(n) times?
  - After a similarity transformation, **T** may be non-tridiagonal.

#### Inverse Power Method

- Since T is tri-diagonal, shift inverse power method can be sped-up.
- For solving

```
x(k+1) = T^{-1} * y(k);

T * x(k+1) = y(k).
```

- The linear system can be solved in O(n) step.
  - Using tridiagonal solver.
- In inverse and shift inverse power method:  $O(n^2)$ .
- In Rayleigh quotient iteration O(n<sup>3</sup>).