AMS526: Numerical Analysis I (Numerical Linear Algebra)

Lecture 18: Computing SVD; Sensitivity of Eigenvalues; Review for Midterm #2

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Outline

1. Computing SVD (NLA§31)
2. Sensitivity of Eigenvalues (MC§7.2)
3. Review for Midterm #2

Computing the SVD

- Intuitive idea for computing SVD of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$:
  - Form A^*A and compute its eigenvalue decomposition $A^*A = V\Lambda V^*$
  - Let $\Sigma = \sqrt{\Lambda}$, i.e., $\text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots, \sqrt{\lambda_n})$
  - Solve system $U\Sigma = AV$ to obtain U
- This method can be very efficient if $m \gg n$.
- However, it is not very stable, especially for smaller singular values because of the squaring of the condition number
  - For SVD of A, $|\tilde{\sigma}_k - \sigma_k| = O(\epsilon_{\text{machine}}\|A\|)$, where $\tilde{\sigma}_k$ and σ_k denote the computed and exact kth singular value
  - If computed from eigenvalue decomposition of A^*A, $|\tilde{\sigma}_k - \sigma_k| = O(\epsilon_{\text{machine}}\|A\|^2/\sigma_k)$, which is problematic if $\sigma_k \ll \|A\|$
- If one is interested in only relatively large singular values, then using eigenvalue decomposition is not a problem. For general situations, a more stable algorithm is desired.

Computing the SVD

- Typical algorithm for computing SVD are similar to computation of eigenvalues
- Consider $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m\times m}$, then Hermitian matrix $H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A^* \\ A & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ has eigenvalue decomposition

$$H \begin{bmatrix} V & V \\ U & -U \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V & V \\ U & -U \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma & 0 \\ 0 & -\Sigma \end{bmatrix},$$

  where $A = U\Sigma V^*$ gives the SVD. This approach is stable.
- In practice, such a reduction is done implicitly without forming the large matrix
- Typically done in two or more stages:
  - First, reduce to bidiagonal form by applying different orthogonal transformations on left and right,
  - Second, reduce to diagonal form using a variant of QR algorithm or divide-and-conquer algorithm

Outline

Sensitivity of Eigenvalues

- Condition number of matrix X determines sensitivity of eigenvalues

Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$ be a nondefective matrix, and suppose $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$, where X is nonsingular and Λ is diagonal. Let $\delta A \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$ be some perturbation of A, and let μ be an eigenvalue of $A + \delta A$. Then A has an eigenvalue λ such that

$$|\mu - \lambda| \leq \kappa_p(X)\|\delta A\|_p$$

for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$.

- $\kappa_p(X)$ measures how far eigenvectors are from linear dependence
- For normal matrices, condition number $\kappa_2(X) = 1$ and $\kappa_p(X) = O(1)$, so eigenvalues of normal matrices are always well-conditioned

Sensitivity of Eigenvalues

Proof.

Let $\delta\Lambda = X^{-1}(\delta A)X$. Then

$$\|\delta\Lambda\|_p \leq \|X^{-1}\|_p\|\delta A\|_p\|X\|_p = \kappa_p(X)\|\delta A\|_p.$$

Let y be an engenvector of $\Lambda + \delta\Lambda$ associated with μ. Suppose μ is not an eigenvalue of A, so $\mu I - \Lambda$ is nonsingular.
$(\Lambda + \delta\Lambda)y = \mu y \Rightarrow (\mu I - \Lambda)y = (\delta\Lambda)\,y \Rightarrow y = (\mu I - \Lambda)^{-1}(\delta\Lambda)\,y$. Thus

$$\|(\mu I - \Lambda)^{-1}\|_p^{-1} \leq \|\delta\Lambda\|_p.$$

$\|(\mu I - \Lambda)^{-1}\|_p = |\mu - \lambda|^{-1}$, where λ is the eigenvalue of A closest to μ.
Thus,

$$|\mu - \lambda| \leq \|\delta\Lambda\|_p \leq \kappa_p(X)\|\delta A\|_p.$$

□

Left and Right Eigenvectors

- To analyze sensitivity of individual eigenvalues, we need to define left and right eigenvectors
  - $Ax = \lambda x$ for nonzero x then x is *right eigenvector* associated with λ
  - $y^* A = \lambda y^*$ for nonzero y, then y is *left eigenvector* associated with λ
- Left eigenvectors of A are right eigenvectors of A^*

Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ have distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ with associated linearly independent right eigenvectors $x_1, \dots, x_n$ and left eigenvectors $y_1, \dots, y_n$. Then $y_j^* x_i \neq 0$ if $i = j$ and $y_j^* x_i = 0$ if $i \neq j$.

Proof.

If $i \neq j$, $y_j^* A x_i = \lambda_i y_j^* x_i$ and $y_j^* A x_i = \lambda_j y_j^* x_i$. Since $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$, $y_j^* x_i = 0$.
If $i = j$, since $\{x_i\}$ form a basis for $\mathbb{C}^n$, $y_i^* x_i = 0$ together with $y_i^* x_j = 0$ would imply that $y_i = 0$. This leads to a contradiction. $\square$

Sensitivity of Individual Eigenvalues

- We analyze sensitivity of individual eigenvalues that are distinct

Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$ have n distinct eigenvalues. Let λ be an eigenvalue with associated right and left eigenvectors x and y, respectively, normalized so that $\|x\|_2 = \|y\|_2 = 1$. Let δA be a small perturbation satisfying $\|\delta A\|_2 = \epsilon$, and let $\lambda + \delta\lambda$ be the eigenvalue of $A + \delta A$ that approximates λ. Then

$$|\delta\lambda| \leq \frac{1}{|y^* x|}\epsilon + O(\epsilon^2).$$

- $\kappa = 1/|y^* x|$ is condition number for eigenvalue λ
- A simple eigenvalue is sensitive if its associated right and left eigenvectors are nearly orthogonal

Sensitivity of Individual Eigenvalues

Proof.

We know that $|\delta\lambda| \leq \kappa_p(X)\epsilon = O(\epsilon)$. In addition, $\delta x = O(\epsilon)$ when λ is a simple eigenvalue (proof omitted). Because $(A + \delta A)(x + \delta x) = (\lambda + \delta\lambda)(x + \delta x)$, thus

$$(\delta A)\, x + A\,(\delta x) + O(\epsilon^2) = (\delta\lambda)x + \lambda(\delta x) + O(\epsilon^2).$$

Left multiplying by y^* and using equation $y^* A = \lambda y^*$, we obtain

$$y^*\,(\delta A)\,x + O(\epsilon^2) = (\delta\lambda)\,y^* x + O(\epsilon^2)$$

and hence

$$\delta\lambda = \frac{y^*\,(\delta A)\,x}{y^* x} + O(\epsilon^2).$$

Since $|y^*\,(\delta A)\,x| \leq \|y\|_2\,\|(\delta A)\|_2\,\|x\|_2 = \epsilon$, $|\delta\lambda| \leq \frac{1}{|y^* x|}\epsilon + O(\epsilon^2)$. $\square$

Sensitivity of Multiple Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Sensitivity of multiple eigenvalues is more complicated
  - For multiple eigenvalues, left and right eigenvectors can be orthogonal, hence very ill-conditioned
  - In general, multiple or close eigenvalues can be poorly conditioned, especially if matrix is defective
- Condition numbers of eigenvectors are also difficult to analyze
  - If matrix has well-conditioned and well-separated eigenvalues, then eigenvectors are well-conditioned
  - If eigenvalues are ill-conditioned or closely clustered, then eigenvectors may be poorly conditioned

Outline

Algorithms

- QR factorization
  - Classical and modified Gram-Schmidt
  - QR factorization using Householder triangularization
- Solutions of linear least squares
  - Solution using Householder QR and other QR factorization
  - Alternative solutions: normal equation; SVD

Eigenvalue Problem

- *Eigenvalue problem* of $n \times n$ matrix A is $Ax = \lambda x$
- *Characteristic polynomial* is $\det(A - \lambda I)$
- *Eigenvalue decomposition* of A is $A = X \Lambda X^{-1}$ (does not always exist)
- *Geometric multiplicity* of λ is $\dim(\text{null}(A - \lambda I))$, and *algebraic multiplicity* of λ is its multiplicity as a root of p_A, where algebraic multiplicity $\geq$ geometric multiplicity
- *Similar* matrices have the same eigenvalues, and algebraic and geometric multiplicities
- *Schur factorization* $A = QTQ^*$ uses unitary similarity transformations

Eigenvalue Algorithms

- Underlying concepts: power iterations, Rayleigh quotient, inverse iterations, convergence rate
- *Schur factorization* is typically done in two steps
  - Reduction to Hessenberg form for non-Hermitian matrices or reduction to tridiagonal form for hermitian matrices by unitary similarity transformation
  - Finding eigenvalues of Hessenberg or **tridiagonal** form
- Finding eigenvalue of tridiagonal forms
  - QR algorithm with shifts, and their interpretations as (inverse) simultaneous iterations