

Computational methods and numerical algorithms: Lecture 7

Wangtao Lu
Zhejiang University

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Chapter 12: Eigenvalues and Singular values

12.1: Power iteration methods

12.2: QR Algorithm

12.3: Singular Value Decomposition

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This chapter, we will discuss numerical algorithms for computing eigenvalues and singular values of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$.

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ be a given square matrix. If $Av = \lambda v$ for a **nonzero** $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and a number $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then we call λ an **eigenvalue** of A and the vector v is the associated **eigenvector**.

Clearly, all m eigenvalues of A are roots of the following degree m polynomial

$$P(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I_m) = 0.$$

However, we cannot use the previous root-finding algorithms to find the eigenvalues based on the following two reasons:

- ▶ Evaluating $P(\lambda)$ is too expensive.
- ▶ Root-finding algorithm is unstable even for trivial cases.

Consider the following diagonal matrix:

$$A = \text{diag}(1, 2, \dots, 20).$$

What is $P(\lambda)$?

Why finding the roots of $P(\lambda)$ is so difficult?

Special case: 2×2 matrices!

For 2×2 matrices,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic Polynomial is

$$P(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \operatorname{tr}(A)\lambda + \det(A) = 0.$$

Eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{\operatorname{tr}(A) \pm \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}^2(A) - 4\det(A)}}{2}.$$

Suppose A has a **dominant eigenvalue** λ , i.e., the magnitude of eigenvalue λ is greater than all other eigenvalues of A . The associated eigenvector v is the so-called **dominant eigenvector**.

We will see that repeatedly multiplying almost any random vector by A yields a sequence of vectors that **converges** to the dominant eigenvector. This is the key step of **Power iteration**.

Example 1. Find the dominant eigenvector of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

by the Power iteration.

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How to make the Power iteration really converges?

To make sure that Power iterations really converge to a vector with finite numbers, we need to normalize the resulting vector after each multiplication.

How to find the dominant eigenvalue once **approximate dominant eigenvector** is available?

Suppose x is an approximate eigenvector and λ is unknown. We need to solve

$$x\lambda = Ax,$$

for λ . How to find λ ?

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We make use of method of normal equations. Specifically, normal equations become

$$x^T x \lambda = x^T Ax,$$

so that

$$\lambda = \frac{x^T Ax}{x^T x}.$$

Normalization plus Rayleigh Quotient constitute the method of Power iteration.

Power iteration

Given initial vector x_0

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$u_{j-1} = x_{j-1} / \|x_{j-1}\|_2 \text{ (Normalization)}$$

$$x_j = Au_{j-1}$$

$$\lambda_j = u_{j-1}^T A u_{j-1} \text{ (Rayleigh Quotient)}$$

end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

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end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

Convergence of Power iteration

Theorem. Let A be an $m \times m$ matrix with real eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ satisfying $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_m|$. Assume that the eigenvectors of A span \mathbb{R}^m . For **almost every initial vector**, Power Iteration converges linearly to an eigenvector associated to λ_1 with convergence rate constant $S = |\lambda_2/\lambda_1|$.

Proof. Let v_1, \dots, v_m be the eigenvectors that form a basis of \mathbb{R}^m . Suppose the initial vector $x_0 = c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_m v_m$. Here, **we assume that $c_1, c_2 \neq 0$** . Applying Power Iteration yields

$$\begin{aligned}Ax_0 &= c_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + c_m \lambda_m v_m \\A^2 x_0 &= c_1 \lambda_1^2 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^2 v_2 + \dots + c_m \lambda_m^2 v_m \\A^3 x_0 &= c_1 \lambda_1^3 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^3 v_2 + \dots + c_m \lambda_m^3 v_m \\&\vdots\end{aligned}$$

Then, we see that at k -th step,

$$\frac{A^k x_0}{\lambda_1^k} = c_1 v_1 + c_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k v_2 + \dots + c_m \left(\frac{\lambda_m}{\lambda_1}\right)^k v_m \rightarrow c_1 v_1, \quad k \rightarrow \infty.$$

The convergence rate depends exactly on the magnitude of λ_2/λ_1 .

Inverse Power Iteration finds an eigenvalue with the smallest magnitude.

Lemma. Let the eigenvalues of the $m \times m$ matrix A be denoted by $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m$. (a) The eigenvalues of the inverse matrix A^{-1} are $\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}, \dots, \lambda_m^{-1}$, assuming that the inverse exists. The eigenvectors are the same as those of A . (b) The eigenvalues of the shifted matrix $A - sI$ are $\lambda_1 - s, \lambda_2 - s, \dots, \lambda_m - s$. and the eigenvectors are the same as those of A .

This Lemma suggests:

Inverse Power Iteration finds an eigenvalue with the smallest magnitude.

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This Lemma suggests:

1. To find **an eigenvalue of A with the smallest magnitude**, we can find **the dominant eigenvalue of A^{-1} with the largest magnitude** so that the Power Iteration applies.

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This Lemma suggests:

1. To find **an eigenvalue of A with the smallest magnitude**, we can find **the dominant eigenvalue of A^{-1} with the largest magnitude** so that the Power Iteration applies.
2. To find **an eigenvalue of A closest to s** , we can find the eigenvalue of $A - sI$ with the smallest magnitude, or we can find **the dominant eigenvalue of $(A - sI)^{-1}$ with the largest magnitude** so that the Power Iteration applies.

Power iteration for dominant eigenvalue

Given initial vector x_0

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$u_{j-1} = x_{j-1} / \|x_{j-1}\|_2$$

$$x_j = A u_{j-1}$$

$$\lambda_j = u_{j-1}^T x_j$$

end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

Inverse Power iteration for eigenvalue closest to s

Given initial vector x_0 and shift s

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$u_{j-1} = x_{j-1} / \|x_{j-1}\|_2$$

$$x_j = (A - sI)^{-1} u_{j-1}$$

$$\lambda_j = u_{j-1}^T x_j$$

end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

Power iteration for dominant eigenvalue

Given initial vector x_0

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

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Inverse Power iteration for eigenvalue closest to s

Given initial vector x_0 and shift s

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$u_{j-1} = x_{j-1} / \|x_{j-1}\|_2$$

$$\text{solve } (A - sI)x_j = u_{j-1} \text{ for } x_j$$

$$\lambda_j = u_{j-1}^T x_j$$

end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

Example 2. Assume that A is a 5×5 matrix with eigenvalues $-5, -2, 1/2, 3/2, 4$. Find the eigenvalues and convergence rate expected when applying (a) Power iteration. (b) Inverse Power iteration with shift $s = 0$. (c) Inverse Power iteration with shift $s = 2$.

Rayleigh Quotient Iteration

Wangtao Lu
Zhejiang University

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Power iteration

Given initial vector x_0

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$u_{j-1} = x_{j-1} / \|x_{j-1}\|_2$$

$$x_j = Au_{j-1}$$

$$\lambda_j = u_{j-1}^T x_j$$

end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

Rayleigh Quotient iteration

Given initial vector x_0

for $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$u_{j-1} = x_{j-1} / \|x_{j-1}\|_2$$

$$\lambda_j = u_{j-1}^T Au_{j-1}$$

$$\text{solve } (A - \lambda_j I)x_j = u_{j-1} \text{ for } x_j$$

end

$$u_j = x_j / \|x_j\|_2.$$

The Power Iteration method only finds a single eigenvalue and its associated eigenvector at a time. Not very efficient. We hope to find all eigenvectors and all eigenvalues simultaneously. This section we will introduce the QR Algorithm to find all eigenvalues at once.

We begin with m pairwise orthogonal initial vectors v_1, \dots, v_m .

Av_1, \dots, Av_m are no longer guaranteed to be orthogonal to one another.

$A^k v_1, \dots, A^k v_m$ all would converge to **the dominant eigenvector**.

To avoid this, we use QR algorithm to orthogonalize the resulting matrix after each multiplication. That is

Set $\overline{Q}_0 = I$.

1. QR factorize $A\overline{Q}_0 = \overline{Q}_1 R_1$.
2. QR factorize $A\overline{Q}_1 = \overline{Q}_2 R_2$.
3. QR factorize $A\overline{Q}_2 = \overline{Q}_3 R_3$

Eventually, we expect that \overline{Q}_k converges to a matrix of all eigenvectors of A , and **the diagonal elements of $\overline{Q}_k^T A \overline{Q}_k$ converge to all eigenvalues!**

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Eventually, we expect that \overline{Q}_k converges to a matrix of all eigenvectors of A , and **the diagonal elements of $\overline{Q}_k^T A \overline{Q}_k$ converge to all eigenvalues!**
Since,

$$\overline{Q}_k \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m\} = A\overline{Q}_k \rightarrow \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m\} = \text{diag}\{\overline{Q}_k^T A \overline{Q}_k\}.$$

Set $Q_0 = I$ and $R'_0 = A$.

1. QR factorize $R'_0 Q_0 = Q_1 R'_1$. We find that

$$A_1 := R'_1 Q_1 = Q_1^T A Q_0 Q_1 = Q_1^{-1} A Q_1,$$

that is, $A_1 \sim A$ so that A_1 and A share the same eigenvalues.

2. Shall we need to perform QR Factorization of AQ_1 ?

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that is, $A_1 \sim A$ so that A_1 and A share the same eigenvalues.

2. Shall we need to perform QR Factorization of AQ_1 ? No, we only need to perform

$$A_1 = R'_1 Q_1 = Q_2 R'_2!$$

we find that

$$A_2 := R'_2 Q_2 = Q_2^T A_1 Q_2 = Q_2^{-1} A_1 Q_2 \sim A_1 \sim A,$$

so that A_2 share the same eigenvalues with A .

3. Repeating the steps, we get a sequence of pairwise similar matrices $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$, and two auxiliary matrices $\{Q_k, R'_k\}_{k=0}^\infty$

Unshifted QR Algorithm

Normalized Simultaneous Iteration:

Set $\overline{Q}_0 = I$.

1. $A\overline{Q}_0 = \overline{Q}_1 R_1$.
2. $A\overline{Q}_1 = \overline{Q}_2 R_2$.
3. $A\overline{Q}_2 = \overline{Q}_3 R_3$.

Relations:

$$\overline{Q}_k = Q_0 Q_1 \cdots Q_k, \quad R_k = R'_k,$$

and

$$A_k = Q_k^T A_{k-1} Q_k = \cdots = (Q_0 Q_1 \cdots Q_k)^T A_0 (Q_0 Q_1 \cdots Q_k) = \overline{Q}_k^T A \overline{Q}_k$$

Eigenvectors: $\overline{Q}_k = Q_0 Q_1 \cdots Q_k$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Eigenvalues: diagonal elements of $\overline{Q}_k^T A \overline{Q}_k = A_k$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Theorem. Assume that A is a **symmetric** $m \times m$ matrix with eigenvalues $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \cdots > |\lambda_m|$. The unshifted QR algorithm converges linearly to the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of A . **As $k \rightarrow \infty$, A_k converges to a diagonal matrix containing the eigenvalues on the main diagonal and $\overline{Q}_k = Q_1 \cdots Q_k$ converges to an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors.**

Example 3. A tie for dominant eigenvector for a symmetric matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 4. A tie for complex eigenvalues:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

A matrix T has **real Schur form** if it is upper triangular, except possibly for 2×2 blocks on the main diagonal.

For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x & x \\ & x & x & x & x \\ & & x & x & x \\ & & x & x & x \\ & & & & x \end{bmatrix}$$

has real Schur form.

Theorem. Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with real entries. Then there exists an orthogonal $n \times n$ matrix Q and an $n \times n$ matrix T in real Schur form such that $A = Q^T T Q$.

Shifted QR Algorithm—preliminary version

Set $Q_0 = I$ and $A_0 = AQ_0$.

1. Choose a proper s_0 . QR factorize $A_0 - s_0I = Q_1R_1$. We find that

$$A_1 = s_0I + R_1Q_1 = Q_1^T s_0I Q_1 + Q_1^T (A_0 - s_0I) Q_1 = Q_1^T (A_0) Q_1,$$

that is, $A_1 \sim A_0$ so that A_1 and A_0 share the same eigenvalues.

2. Choose a proper s_1 . QR factorize

$$A_1 - s_1I = Q_2R_2.$$

we find that

$$A_2 = R_2Q_2 + s_1I = Q_2^T A_1 Q_2 \sim A_1 \sim A_0,$$

so that $A_2 = R_2Q_2$ share the same eigenvalues with A .

3. Repeat the steps, we get a sequence of pairwise similar matrices $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$.

Shifted QR Algorithm—preliminary version

Set $Q_0 = I$ and $A_0 = AQ_0$.

1. Choose a proper s_0 . QR factorize $A_0 - s_0I = Q_1R_1$. We find that

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that is, $A_1 \sim A_0$ so that A_1 and A_0 share the same eigenvalues.

2. Choose a proper s_1 . QR factorize

$$A_1 - s_1I = Q_2R_2.$$

we find that

$$A_2 = R_2Q_2 + s_1I = Q_2^T A_1 Q_2 \sim A_1 \sim A_0,$$

so that $A_2 = R_2Q_2$ share the same eigenvalues with A .

3. Repeat the steps, we get a sequence of pairwise similar matrices $\{A_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$.

How to choose s_k for $k = 1, 2, \dots$ to speed up the shifted QR algorithm?

Suppose at k -th step,

$$A_k = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A_{n-1,n-1}^k & * \\ \hline 0 & a_{nn}^k \end{array} \right]$$

If we choose $s_k = a_{nn}$, then we see

$$A_k - s_k I_n = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A_{n-1,n-1}^k - s_k I & * \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

Shall we QR factorize $A_k - s_k I$? No. If we get A_k with only one nonzero element in the last row, we in fact get an eigenvalue s_k . Next, we can remove the last row and the last column, and then QR factorize

$$A_{n-1,n-1}^k - s_k I_{n-1} = Q_{k+1} R_{k+1} \rightarrow A_{k+1} = R_{k+1} Q_{k+1} + s_k I_{n-1}.$$

Notice, A_{k+1} is of size one less than A_k !

Then, we hope that A_k converges and deflates to a constant!

Shifted QR Algorithm—revised

Set $Q_0 = I$ and $A_0 = AQ_0$.

1. Choose s_1 be the bottom-right entry of A_0 .
 - a. If $A_0 - s_1I$ has a zero or near zero bottom row, **mark s_1 as an eigenvalue and deflate A_0 by deleting the last row and the last column of A_0 .** QR factorize $A_0(1:n-1, 1:n-1) - s_1I = Q_1R_1$.
 - b. Otherwise, QR factorize $A_0 - s_1I = Q_1R_1$.

We find that,

$$A_1 = s_1I + R_1Q_1 \sim A_0(1:n-1, 1:n-1), \text{ or } A_1 \sim A_0.$$

2. Choose s_2 to be the bottom-right entry of A_1 .
 - a. If $A_1 - s_2I$ has a zero or near zero bottom row, **mark s_2 as an eigenvalue and deflate A_1 by deleting the last row and the last column of A_1 .** QR factorize $A_1(1:n-2, 1:n-2) - s_2I = Q_2R_2$.
 - b. Otherwise, QR factorize $A_1 - s_2I = Q_2R_2$.

We find that,

$$A_2 = s_2I + R_2Q_2 \sim A_1(1:n-2, 1:n-2), \text{ or } A_2 \sim A_1.$$

3. Repeat the steps until that $\{A_k\}$ finally is deflated to empty. The shifting parameters when deflation conditions hold are in fact eigenvalues.

The above procedure fails in the following example!

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & & 0 & -1 \\ & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Why?

Complex eigenvalues identification!

Suppose in the previous procedure, we cannot deflate A by Shifted QR algorithms after a number of QR Algorithms.

What should we expect? we expect that the following matrix is produced

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x & x \\ & & & \times & \times \\ & & & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, we deflate A twice by eliminate the last two rows and the last two columns, mark the two eigenvalues of the principal submatrix on the last two rows as eigenvalues of A .

Shifted QR algorithm–Setup Threshold for computing complex eigenvalues

Wangtao Lu
Zhejiang University

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We introduce a variable COUNT and a constant THRESHOLD(e.g., 10000).

0. Let COUNT = 0.
1. Do Shifted QR algorithm by setting the shifting parameter s_1 as the bottom-right entry of A_0 . Let COUNT increase by 1.
2. Repeating shifted QR algorithms k times until $A_k - s_k I$ has a zero bottom row. We encounter two cases:
3. If when $k = \text{THRESHOLD} + 1$, $A_k - s_k I$ still doesn't have a zero bottom row, we deflate A twice and mark the two eigenvalues of the principal submatrix on the last two rows as eigenvalues of A .
- 3'. If $k < \text{THRESHOLD}$, we deflate A_k and mark s_k as an eigenvalue of A .
4. Repeat the above procedures until A_k is deflated to empty.

A failure

The above procedure fails in the following example!

$$\begin{bmatrix} & & 0 & -1 \\ & & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

Why?

Upper Hessenberg form

A matrix $A = (a_{ij})_{n \times n}$ has **Upper Hessenberg form** if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i > j + 1$.

For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x & x \\ x & x & x & x & x \\ & x & x & x & x \\ & & x & x & x \\ & & & x & x \end{bmatrix}$$

has Upper Hessenberg form.

Theorem. Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with real entries. Then there exists an orthogonal $n \times n$ matrix Q and an $n \times n$ matrix B in Upper Hessenberg form such that $A = Q^T B Q$.

Two examples

Example 1. Put

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & -5 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

into Upper Hessenberg form.

Example 2. Put

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

into Upper Hessenberg form.

Hessenberg form for general matrix

Suppose

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & a^T \\ \hline b & A_{n-1,n-1} \end{array} \right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

First, we find the Householder reflector $H_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1 \times n-1}$ s.t.,

$$H_1 b = \begin{bmatrix} \pm \|b\|_2 \\ 0_{n-2,1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then,

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & H_1 \end{array} \right] A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & a^T \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} \|b\|_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & H_1 A_{n-1,n-1} \end{array} \right]$$

. Don't forget that we need to right multiply the above by the transpose to keep the eigenvalues unchanged.

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & H_1 \end{array} \right] A \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & H_1 \end{array} \right]^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & a^T H_1^T \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} \|b\|_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & H_1 A_{n-1,n-1} H_1^T \end{array} \right]$$

Repeating the above procedure, we get the Hessenberg form.

Hessenberg form for general matrix

Suppose

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & a^T \\ \hline b & A_{n-1,n-1} \end{array} \right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

First, we find the Householder reflector $H_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$ s.t.,

$$H_1 b = \begin{bmatrix} \pm \|b\|_2 \\ 0_{n-2,1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then,

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & H_1 \end{array} \right] A = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & a^T \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} \|b\|_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & H_1 A_{n-1,n-1} \end{array} \right]$$

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$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & H_1 \end{array} \right] A \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & H_1 \end{array} \right]^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & a^T H_1^T \\ \hline \begin{bmatrix} \|b\|_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & H_1 A_{n-1,n-1} H_1^T \end{array} \right]$$

Repeating the above procedure, we get the Hessenberg form.

12.3 Singular Value Decomposition

Theorem. For every $m \times n$ matrix A , there are orthonormal sets $\{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ and $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, together with nonnegative numbers $s_1 \geq \dots \geq s_n \geq 0$, satisfying

$$Av_i = s_i u_i, \quad (1)$$

for $1 \leq i \leq \min(m, n)$.

Set $V = [v_1 | v_2 | \dots | v_n]$, $S = \text{diag}\{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$, $U = [u_1 | u_2 | \dots | u_m]$, then we get a **singular value decomposition** of A , i.e.,

$$A = USV^T,$$

where the v_i are called the **right singular vectors** of A , the u_i are called the **left singular vectors** of A , and the s_i are the **singular values** of A . Notice that U and V are **orthogonal matrices**.

How to numerically find the SVD decomposition?

Wangtao Lu
Zhejiang University

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Since

$$A^T A = V S^2 V^T,$$

we can find eigenvalues and eigenpairs of $A^T A$ to get S and V .
Similarly,

$$A A^T = U S^2 U^T,$$

we can find eigenvalues and eigenpairs of $A A^T$ to get S and U .
Numerically unstable!

A more stable way!

To find singular values/vectors of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we can find eigenvalues/eigenvectors of the $(m+n) \times (m+n)$ matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A^T \\ A & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

For example, suppose $[v, w]^T$ denotes a $(m+n)$ -vector such that

$$B \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A^T \\ A & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} v \\ w \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, we get

$$A^T A v = \lambda^2 v.$$

Thus, $|\lambda|$ gives a singular value of A , v gives the associated right singular vector of A .

Chapter 12: Eigenvalues and Singular values

12.1: Power iteration methods

12.2: QR Alogrithm

12.3: Singular Value Decomposition

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Assignment VII

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Zhejiang University

Chapter 12:
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Assignment VII

Assignment VI:

P539, 12.1: Computer Problems, 1.

P548, 12.2: Computer Problems, 1.

Due date: November 18, 2020.

The final exam will be held **11/18/2020 from 8:00 to 11:30** at **XX XXXX**. Exam questions may include:

- ▶ Multiple choices.
- ▶ True or False
- ▶ Problems.

Answers to the above questions must be written in English. Don't worry about grammar mistakes.