

## ALGORITHMS FOR EIGENVALUE PROBLEMS

- The QR algorithm
- Practical QR algorithms: use of Hessenberg form and shifts
- The symmetric QR method
- The Power method

➤ Convergence analysis complicated – but insight: we are implicitly doing a QR factorization of  $A^k$ :

	QR-Factorize:	Multiply backward:	
Step 1	$A_0 = Q_0 R_0$	$A_1 = R_0 Q_0$	
Step 2	$A_1 = Q_1 R_1$	$A_2 = R_1 Q_1$	
Step 3:	$A_2 = Q_2 R_2$	$A_3 = R_2 Q_2$	Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 [Q_0 Q_1 Q_2][R_2 R_1 R_0] &= Q_0 Q_1 A_2 R_1 R_0 \\
 &= Q_0 (Q_1 R_1) (Q_1 R_1) R_0 \\
 &= Q_0 A_1 A_1 R_0, \quad A_1 = R_0 Q_0 \rightarrow \\
 &= \underbrace{(Q_0 R_0)}_A \underbrace{(Q_0 R_0)}_A \underbrace{(Q_0 R_0)}_A = A^3
 \end{aligned}$$

- $[Q_0 Q_1 Q_2][R_2 R_1 R_0] ==$  QR factorization of  $A^3$
- This helps analyze the algorithm (details skipped)

## The QR algorithm

➤ The most common method for solving small (dense) eigenvalue problems. The basic algorithm:

QR algorithm (basic)

1. Until Convergence Do:
2.     Compute the QR factorization  $A = QR$
3.     Set  $A := RQ$
4. EndDo

➤ “Until Convergence” means “Until  $A$  becomes close enough to an upper triangular matrix”

➤ Note:  $A_{new} = RQ = Q^H(QR)Q = Q^H A Q$

➤  $A_{new}$  is Unitarily similar to  $A \rightarrow$  Spectrum does not change

## Practical QR algorithms: Shifts of origin

➤ Above basic QR algorithm never used as is in practice. Two variations:

- (1) Use shift of origin and
- (2) Start by transforming  $A$  into an Hessenberg matrix

Observation: (from theory): Last row converges fastest. Convergence is dictated by

$$\frac{|\lambda_n|}{|\lambda_{n-1}|}$$

where we assume:  $|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2| \geq \dots \geq |\lambda_{n-1}| > |\lambda_n|$ .

➤ For simplicity we will consider the situation when all eigenvalues are real.

➤ As  $k \rightarrow \infty$  the last row (except  $a_{nn}^{(k)}$ ) converges to zero quickly ..

➤ .. and  $a_{nn}^{(k)}$  converges to eigenvalue of smallest magnitude.

$$A^{(k)} = \left( \begin{array}{ccccc|c} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \hline a & a & a & a & a & a \end{array} \right)$$

➤ Idea: Apply QR algorithm to  $A^{(k)} - \mu I$  with  $\mu = a_{nn}^{(k)}$ . Note: eigenvalues of  $A^{(k)} - \mu I$  are shifted by  $\mu$  (eigenvectors unchanged). → Shift matrix by  $+\mu I$  after iteration.

#### QR algorithm with shifts

1. Until row  $a_{in}$ ,  $1 \leq i < n$  converges to zero DO:
2. Obtain next shift (e.g.  $\mu = a_{nn}$ )
3.  $A - \mu I = QR$
5. Set  $A := RQ + \mu I$
6. EndDo

➤ Convergence (of last row) is cubic at the limit! [for symmetric case]

14-5 GvL 8.1-8.2.3 – EigenPart3

### Practical algorithm: Use the Hessenberg Form

Recall: Upper Hessenberg matrix is such that

$$a_{ij} = 0 \text{ for } i > j + 1$$

Observation: QR algorithm preserves Hessenberg form (and tridiagonal symmetric form). Results in substantial savings:  $O(n^2)$  flops per step instead of  $O(n^3)$

Transformation to Hessenberg form

➤ Want  $H_1 A H_1^T = H_1 A H_1$  to have the form shown on the right

➤ Consider the first step only on a  $6 \times 6$  matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \star & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ \star & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \\ 0 & \star & \star & \star & \star & \star \end{pmatrix}$$

14-7 GvL 8.1-8.2.3 – EigenPart3

➤ Result of algorithm:

$$A^{(k)} = \left( \begin{array}{ccccc|c} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{array} \right)$$

➤ Next step: deflate, i.e., apply above algorithm to  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  upper block.

14-6 GvL 8.1-8.2.3 – EigenPart3

➤ Choose a  $w$  in  $H_1 = I - 2ww^T$  to make the first column have zeros from position 3 to  $n$ . So  $w_1 = 0$ .

➤ Apply to left:  $B = H_1 A$

➤ Apply to right:  $A_1 = B H_1$ .

**Main observation:** the Householder matrix  $H_1$  which transforms the column  $A(2:n, 1)$  into  $e_1$  works only on rows 2 to  $n$ . When applying the transpose  $H_1$  to the right of  $B = H_1 A$ , we observe that only columns 2 to  $n$  will be altered. So the first column will retain the desired pattern (zeros below row 2).

➤ Algorithm continues the same way for columns 2, ...,  $n-2$ .

14-8 GvL 8.1-8.2.3 – EigenPart3

## QR algorithm for Hessenberg matrices

- Need the “Implicit Q theorem”

Suppose that  $Q^T A Q$  is an unreduced upper Hessenberg matrix. Then columns 2 to  $n$  of  $Q$  are determined uniquely (up to signs) by the first column of  $Q$ .

- In other words if  $V^T A V = G$  and  $Q^T A Q = H$  are both Hessenberg and  $V(:, 1) = Q(:, 1)$  then  $V(:, i) = \pm Q(:, i)$  for  $i = 2 : n$ .

**Implication:** To compute  $B = Q^T A Q$  we can:

- Compute 1st column of  $Q$  [= scalar  $\times A(:, 1)$ ]
- Choose other columns so  $Q$  = unitary, and  $B$  = Hessenberg.

- We'll do this with Givens rotations:

**Example:** With  $n = 5$  :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

1. Choose  $G_1 = G(1, 2, \theta_1)$  so that  $(G_1^T A_0)_{21} = 0$

$$\text{➤ } A_1 = G_1^T A G_1 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ + & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

2. Choose  $G_2 = G(2, 3, \theta_2)$  so that  $(G_2^T A_1)_{31} = 0$

$$\text{➤ } A_2 = G_2^T A_1 G_2 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & + & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

3. Choose  $G_3 = G(3, 4, \theta_3)$  so that  $(G_3^T A_2)_{42} = 0$

$$\text{➤ } A_3 = G_3^T A_2 G_3 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & + & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

4. Choose  $G_4 = G(4, 5, \theta_4)$  so that  $(G_4^T A_3)_{53} = 0$

$$\text{➤ } A_4 = G_4^T A_3 G_4 = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

- Process known as “Bulge chasing”
- Similar idea for the symmetric (tridiagonal) case

### The QR algorithm for symmetric matrices

➤ Most common approach used : reduce to tridiagonal form and apply the QR algorithm with shifts.

➤ Householder transformation to Hessenberg form yields a tridiagonal matrix because

$$HAH^T = A_1$$

is symmetric and also of Hessenberg form ➤ it is tridiagonal symmetric.

Tridiagonal form preserved by QR similarity transformation

### Practical method

➤ How to implement the QR algorithm with shifts?

➤ It is best to use Givens rotations – can do a shifted QR step without explicitly shifting the matrix..

➤ Two most popular shifts:

$$s = a_{nn} \text{ and } s = \text{smallest e.v. of } A(n-1:n, n-1:n)$$

### Basic algorithm: The power method

➤ Basic idea is to generate the sequence of vectors  $A^k v_0$  where  $v_0 \neq 0$  – then normalize.

➤ Most commonly used normalization: ensure that the largest component of the approximation is equal to one.

#### The Power Method

1. Choose a nonzero initial vector  $v^{(0)}$ .
2. For  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , until convergence, Do:
3.  $\alpha_k = \operatorname{argmax}_{i=1, \dots, n} |(Av^{(k-1)})_i|$
4.  $v^{(k)} = \frac{1}{\alpha_k} Av^{(k-1)}$
5. EndDo

➤  $\operatorname{argmax}_{i=1, \dots, n} |x_i| \equiv$  the component  $x_i$  with largest modulus

### Convergence of the power method

**THEOREM** Assume there is one eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  of  $A$ , s.t.  $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_j|$ , for  $j \neq 1$ , and that  $\lambda_1$  is semi-simple. Then either the initial vector  $v^{(0)}$  has no component in  $\operatorname{Null}(A - \lambda_1 I)$  or  $v^{(k)}$  converges to an eigenvector associated with  $\lambda_1$  and  $\alpha_k \rightarrow \lambda_1$ .

Proof in the diagonalizable case.

➤  $v^{(k)}$  is = vector  $A^k v^{(0)}$  normalized by a certain scalar  $\hat{\alpha}_k$  in such a way that its largest component is 1.

➤ Decompose initial vector  $v^{(0)}$  in the eigenbasis as:

$$v^{(0)} = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i u_i$$

➤ Each  $u_i$  is an eigenvector associated with  $\lambda_i$ .

► Note that  $A^k u_i = \lambda_i^k u_i$

$$\begin{aligned} v^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{\text{scaling}} \times \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^k \gamma_i u_i \\ &= \frac{1}{\text{scaling}} \times \left[ \lambda_1^k \gamma_1 u_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n \lambda_i^k \gamma_i u_i \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\text{scaling}'} \times \left[ u_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \frac{\gamma_i}{\gamma_1} u_i \right] \end{aligned}$$

► Second term inside bracket converges to zero. QED

► Proof suggests that the convergence factor is given by

$$\rho_D = \frac{|\lambda_2|}{|\lambda_1|}$$

where  $\lambda_2$  is the second largest eigenvalue in modulus.

## The Shifted Power Method

► In previous example shifted  $A$  into  $B = A + I$  before applying power method. We could also iterate with  $B(\sigma) = A + \sigma I$  for any positive  $\sigma$

**Example:** With  $\sigma = 0.1$  we get the following improvement.

Iteration	Norm of diff.	Res. Norm	Eigenvalue
20	0.273D-01	0.794D-02	1.00524001
40	0.729D-03	0.210D-03	1.00016755
60	0.183D-04	0.509D-05	1.00000446
80	0.437D-06	0.118D-06	1.00000011
88	0.971D-07	0.261D-07	1.00000002

**Example:** Consider a 'Markov Chain' matrix of size  $n = 55$ . Dominant eigenvalues are  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\lambda = -1$  ► the power method applied directly to  $A$  fails. (Why?)

► We can consider instead the matrix  $I + A$  The eigenvalue  $\lambda = 1$  is then transformed into the (only) dominant eigenvalue  $\lambda = 2$

Iteration	Norm of diff.	Res. norm	Eigenvalue
20	0.639D-01	0.276D-01	1.02591636
40	0.129D-01	0.513D-02	1.00680780
60	0.192D-02	0.808D-03	1.00102145
80	0.280D-03	0.121D-03	1.00014720
100	0.400D-04	0.174D-04	1.00002078
120	0.562D-05	0.247D-05	1.00000289
140	0.781D-06	0.344D-06	1.00000040
161	0.973D-07	0.430D-07	1.00000005

► **Question:** What is the best shift-of-origin  $\sigma$  to use?

► Easy to answer the question when all eigenvalues are real.

Assume all eigenvalues are real and labeled decreasingly:

$$\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_3 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n,$$

Then: If we shift  $A$  to  $A - \sigma I$ :

The shift  $\sigma$  that yields the best convergence factor is:

$$\sigma_{opt} = \frac{\lambda_2 + \lambda_n}{2}$$

**Ex 1** Plot a typical convergence factor  $\phi(\sigma)$  as a function of  $\sigma$ . Determine the minimum value and prove the above result.

## Inverse Iteration

**Observation:** The eigenvectors of  $A$  and  $A^{-1}$  are identical.

- Idea: use the power method on  $A^{-1}$ .
- Will compute the eigenvalues closest to zero.
- **Shift-and-invert** Use power method on  $(A - \sigma I)^{-1}$ .
- will compute eigenvalues closest to  $\sigma$ .
- Rayleigh-Quotient Iteration: use  $\sigma = \frac{v^T A v}{v^T v}$   
(best approximation to  $\lambda$  given  $v$ ).
- Advantages: fast convergence in general.
- Drawbacks: need to factor  $A$  (or  $A - \sigma I$ ) into LU.