

Numerical Linear Algebra

Lecture 13

Rayleigh Quotient Iteration (RQI)

ALGORITHM. Rayleigh quotient iteration (RQI): Given x_0 with $\|x_0\| = 1$, and a user-supplied stopping tolerance tol, we iterate

$$\rho_0 = \rho(x_0, A) = \frac{x_0^T A x_0}{x_0^T x_0}$$

$$i = 1$$

repeat

$$y_i = (A - \rho_{i-1} I)^{-1} x_{i-1}$$

$$x_i = y_i / \|y_i\|_2$$

$$\rho_i = \rho(x_i, A)$$

$$i = i + 1$$

until convergence ($\|Ax_i - \rho_i x_i\|_2 < \text{tol}$)

When the stopping criterion is satisfied, Theorem tells us that ρ_i is within tol of an eigenvalue of A .

THEOREM. *Rayleigh quotient iteration is locally cubically convergent; i.e., the number of correct digits triples at each step once the error is small enough and the eigenvalue is simple.*

Proof. We claim that it is enough to analyze the case when A is diagonal. To see why, write $Q^T A Q = \Lambda$, where Q is the orthogonal matrix whose columns are eigenvectors, and $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues. Now change variables in Rayleigh quotient iteration to $\hat{x}_i \equiv Q^T x_i$ and $\hat{y}_i \equiv Q^T y_i$. Then

$$\rho_i = \rho(x_i, A) = \frac{x_i^T A x_i}{x_i^T x_i} = \frac{\hat{x}_i^T Q^T A Q \hat{x}_i}{\hat{x}_i^T Q^T Q \hat{x}_i} = \frac{\hat{x}_i^T \Lambda \hat{x}_i}{\hat{x}_i^T \hat{x}_i} = \rho(\hat{x}_i, \Lambda)$$

and from algorithm RQI it follows that $y_{i+1} = (A - \rho_i I)^{-1} x_i$ (since $Q \hat{y}_{i+1} = y_{i+1}$) and thus $Q \hat{y}_{i+1} = (A - \rho_i I)^{-1} Q \hat{x}_i$, so

$$\hat{y}_{i+1} = Q^T (A - \rho_i I)^{-1} Q \hat{x}_i = (Q^T A Q - \rho_i I)^{-1} \hat{x}_i = (\Lambda - \rho_i I)^{-1} \hat{x}_i.$$

Therefore, running Rayleigh quotient iteration with A and x_0 is equivalent to running Rayleigh quotient iteration with Λ and \hat{x}_0 . Thus we will assume without loss of generality that $A = \Lambda$ is already diagonal, so the eigenvectors of A are e_i , the columns of the identity matrix.

Suppose without loss of generality that x_i is converging to e_1 , so we can write $x_i = e_1 + d_i$, where $\|d_i\|_2 \equiv \epsilon \ll 1$. To prove cubic convergence, we need to show that $x_{i+1} = e_1 + d_{i+1}$ with $\|d_{i+1}\|_2 = O(\epsilon^3)$.

We first note that

$$1 = x_i^T x_i = (e_1 + d_i)^T (e_1 + d_i) = e_1^T e_1 + 2 \underbrace{e_1^T d_i}_{d_{i1}} + d_i^T d_i = 1 + 2d_{i1} + \epsilon^2$$

so that

$$2 \underbrace{e_1^T d_i}_{d_{i1}} + \epsilon^2 = 0 \quad (1)$$

or $2d_{i1} + \epsilon^2 = 0$, or $d_{i1} = -\epsilon^2/2$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_i &= \frac{x_i^T \Lambda x_i}{x_i^T x_i} = (e_1 + d_i)^T \Lambda (e_1 + d_i) = \underbrace{e_1^T \Lambda e_1}_{\alpha_1} + 2e_1^T \Lambda d_i + d_i^T \Lambda d_i \\ &= \alpha_1 - \underbrace{(-2e_1^T \Lambda d_i - d_i^T \Lambda d_i)}_{\eta} = \alpha_1 - \eta = \alpha_1 - \alpha_1 \epsilon^2 + d_i^T \Lambda d_i, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

and since by (1) we have $-2e_1^T d_i = \epsilon^2$ then
 $\eta \equiv -2e_1^T \Lambda d_i - d_i^T \Lambda d_i = \alpha_1 \epsilon^2 - d_i^T \Lambda d_i$.

We see that $\eta \equiv -2e_1^T \Lambda d_i - d_i^T \Lambda d_i = \alpha_1 \epsilon^2 - d_i^T \Lambda d_i$ and thus

$$|\eta| \leq |\alpha_1| \epsilon^2 + \|\Lambda\|_2 \|d_i\|_2^2 \leq |\alpha_1| \epsilon^2 + \|\Lambda\|_2 \epsilon^2 \leq 2\|\Lambda\|_2 \epsilon^2,$$

so $\rho_i = \alpha_1 - \eta = \alpha_1 + O(\epsilon^2)$ is a very good approximation to the eigenvalue α_1 .

Now, from algorithm RQI we have $y_{i+1} = (A - \rho_i I)^{-1}x_i$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_{i+1} &= (\Lambda - \rho_i I)^{-1}x_i \\
 &= \left[\frac{x_{i1}}{\alpha_1 - \rho_i}, \frac{x_{i2}}{\alpha_2 - \rho_i}, \dots, \frac{x_{in}}{\alpha_n - \rho_i} \right]^T \quad \text{because } (\Lambda - \rho_i I)^{-1} = \text{diag} \frac{1}{\alpha_j - \rho_i} \\
 &= \left[\frac{1 + d_{i1}}{\alpha_1 - \rho_i}, \frac{d_{i2}}{\alpha_2 - \rho_i}, \dots, \frac{d_{in}}{\alpha_n - \rho_i} \right]^T \quad \text{because } x_i = e_1 + d_i \\
 &= \left[\frac{1 - \epsilon^2/2}{\eta}, \frac{d_{i2}}{\alpha_2 - \alpha_1 + \eta}, \dots, \frac{d_{in}}{\alpha_n - \alpha_1 + \eta} \right]^T \quad \text{because } \rho_i = \alpha_1 - \eta \\
 &= \frac{1 - \epsilon^2/2}{\eta} \cdot \left[1, \frac{d_{i2}\eta}{(1 - \epsilon^2/2)(\alpha_2 - \alpha_1 + \eta)}, \dots, \text{ and } d_{i1} = -\epsilon^2/2 \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \frac{d_{in}\eta}{(1 - \epsilon^2/2)(\alpha_n - \alpha_1 + \eta)} \right]^T \equiv \frac{1 - \epsilon^2/2}{\eta} \cdot (e_1 + \hat{d}_{i+1}). \tag{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

To bound $\|\hat{d}_{i+1}\|_2$, we note that we can bound each denominator using $|\alpha_j - \alpha_1 + \eta| \geq \text{gap}(\alpha_1, \Lambda) - |\eta|$, so using also obtained bound

$$|\eta| \leq |\alpha_1|\epsilon^2 + \|\Lambda\|_2 \|d_i\|_2^2 \leq 2\|\Lambda\|_2 \epsilon^2$$

we get

$$\|\hat{d}_{i+1}\|_2 \leq \frac{\|d_i\|_2 |\eta|}{(1 - \epsilon^2/2)(\text{gap}(\alpha_1, \Lambda) - |\eta|)} \leq \frac{\epsilon \cdot 2\|\Lambda\|_2 \epsilon^2}{(1 - \epsilon^2/2)(\text{gap}(\alpha_1, \Lambda) - 2\|\Lambda\|_2 \epsilon^2)}$$

or $\|\hat{d}_{i+1}\|_2 = O(\epsilon^3)$. Finally, by algorithm how to compute Rayleigh quotient we have that $x_i = y_i/\|y_i\|_2$ and thus

$$x_{i+1} = e_1 + d_{i+1} = y_{i+1}/\|y_{i+1}\|_2 \text{ or}$$

$$x_{i+1} = \frac{y_{i+1}}{\|y_{i+1}\|_2} = \frac{\left(\frac{1 - \epsilon^2/2}{\eta} \cdot (e_1 + \hat{d}_{i+1}) \right)}{\left\| \frac{1 - \epsilon^2/2}{\eta} \cdot (e_1 + \hat{d}_{i+1}) \right\|_2} = (e_1 + \hat{d}_{i+1}) / \|e_1 + \hat{d}_{i+1}\|_2.$$

Since $x_{i+1} = e_1 + d_{i+1}$ we see $\|d_{i+1}\|_2 = O(\epsilon^3)$ as well. \square

Divide-and-Conquer

- This method is the fastest now available if you want all eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a tridiagonal matrix whose dimension is larger than about 25. (The exact threshold depends on the computer.)
- It is quite subtle to implement in a numerically stable way. Indeed, although this method was first introduced in 1981 [J. J. M. Cuppen. A divide and conquer method for the symmetric tridiagonal eigenproblem. Numer. Math., 36:177-195, 1981], the "right" implementation was not discovered until 1992 [M. Gu and S. Eisenstat. A stable algorithm for the rank-1 modification of the symmetric eigenproblem. Computer Science Dept. Report YALEU/DCS/RR-916, Yale University, September 1992; M. Gu and S. C. Eisenstat. A divide-and-conquer algorithm for the symmetric tridiagonal eigenproblem. SIAM J. Matrix Anal Appl, 16:172-191, 1995]).

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ b_1 & a_2 & b_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & a_{m-1} & b_{m-1} & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & b_{m-1} & \color{red}{a_m} & \color{red}{b_m} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \color{red}{b_m} & \color{red}{a_{m+1}} & b_{m+1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & b_{m+1} & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & b_{n-1} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & b_{n-1} & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ b_1 & a_2 & b_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & a_{m-1} & b_{m-1} & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & b_{m-1} & \color{red}{a_m - b_m} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \color{red}{0} & \color{red}{a_{m+1} - b_m} & b_{m+1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & b_{m+1} & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & b_{n-1} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & b_{n-1} & a_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \dots \\ \dots b_m & b_m \dots \\ \dots b_m & b_m \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} T_1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & T_2 \end{bmatrix} + b_m \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \dots 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \dots 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & T_2 \end{bmatrix} + b_m v \cdot v^T$$

Assume that we have eigendecomposition of T_1, T_2 such that $T_1 = Q_1 \Lambda_1 Q_1^T$ and $T_2 = Q_2 \Lambda_2 Q_2^T$. Then we can write that

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \begin{bmatrix} T_1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & T_2 \end{bmatrix} + b_m v \cdot v^T = \begin{bmatrix} Q_1 \Lambda_1 Q_1^T & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & Q_2 \Lambda_2 Q_2^T \end{bmatrix} + b_m v \cdot v^T \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} Q_1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & Q_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \left(\begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & \Lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} + b_m u \cdot u^T \right) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} Q_1^T & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & Q_2^T \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Let define the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \dots 0 \\ 0 \dots 0 & \Lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We observe that the eigenvalues of T are the same as of $D + b_m u \cdot u^T = D + \rho u \cdot u^T$.

- 1. We want to find eigenvalues of $D + b_m u \cdot u^T = D + \rho u \cdot u^T$
- 2. Assumption: we assume that diagonal elements of D are sorted such that $d_1 \geq \dots \geq d_n$ and $D - \lambda I$ is nonsingular
- 3. To find eigenvalues we compute the characteristic polynomial $D + \rho u \cdot u^T - \lambda I$ noting that
$$D + \rho u \cdot u^T - \lambda I = (D - \lambda I)(I + \rho(D - \lambda I)^{-1}u \cdot u^T)$$
- By assumption we have $\det(D - \lambda I) \neq 0$ and thus
$$\det(I + \rho(D - \lambda I)^{-1}u \cdot u^T) = 0.$$

LEMMA. If x and y are vectors, $\det(I + xy^T) = 1 + y^T x$.

Thus, using this lemma we can get that

$$\det(\underbrace{I + \rho(D - \lambda I)^{-1}u}_{x} \cdot \underbrace{u^T}_{y^T}) = 1 + \underbrace{u^T}_{y^T} \underbrace{\rho(D - \lambda I)^{-1}u}_{x} = 1 + \rho \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{u_i^2}{d_i - \lambda} = f(\lambda)$$

We see that eigenvalues of T are roots of the secular equation $f(\lambda) = 0$. The secular equation can be solved using Newton's method with starting point in (d_i, d_{i+1}) .

LEMMA. If α is an eigenvalue of $D + \rho uu^T$, then $(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u$ is its eigenvector. Since $D - \alpha I$ is diagonal, this costs $O(n)$ flops to compute.

PROOF.

We need to prove that $(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u$ is an eigenvector in the eigenvalue problem

$$(D + \rho uu^T)(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u = \alpha(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u. \quad (4)$$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} (D + \rho uu^T)(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u &= (\cancel{D - \alpha I} + \cancel{\alpha I} + \cancel{\rho uu^T})(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u \\ &= \frac{(D - \alpha I)}{D - \alpha I}u + \alpha(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u + \rho uu^T(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u \\ &= u + \alpha(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u - u. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

We have used that $\rho u^T(D - \alpha I)^{-1} + 1 = 0$ is the secular equation.

Thus, $\rho u^T(D - \alpha I)^{-1} = -1$ and $\rho uu^T(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u = u \cdot (-1) = -u$.

ALGORITHM. Finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a symmetric tridiagonal matrix using divide-and-conquer:

```

proc dc_eig (T, Q, Λ) ..... from input T compute
outputs Q and Λ where T = QΛQT
if T is 1-by-1
    return Q = 1, Λ = T
else
    form T =  $\begin{bmatrix} T_1 & 0 \\ 0 & T_2 \end{bmatrix} + b_m v v^T$ 
    call dc_eig (T1, Q1, Λ1)
    call dc_eig (T2, Q2, Λ2)
    form D + ρuuT from Λ1, Λ2, Q1, Q2
    find eigenvalues Λ and eigenvectors Q' of D + ρuuT
    form Q =  $\begin{bmatrix} Q_1 & 0 \\ 0 & Q_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot Q'$  = eigenvectors of T
    return Q and Λ
end if

```

Computing the Eigenvectors Stably

- Lemma below provides formula for the computing of eigenvectors.
LEMMA. If α is an eigenvalue of $D + \rho uu^T$, then $(D - \alpha I)^{-1}u$ is its eigenvector.
- This formula is not stable in the case when two eigenvalues are close to each other. Let α_i, α_{i+1} are close to each other. Then $(D - \alpha_i)^{-1}u$ and $(D - \alpha_{i+1})^{-1}u$ are inaccurate and far from orthogonal.
- An alternative formula was found which is based on the Löwner's theorem.

THEOREM. (Löwner). Let $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ be diagonal with $d_n < \dots < d_1$. Let $\alpha_n < \dots < \alpha_1$ be given, satisfying the interlacing property

$$d_n < \alpha_n < \dots < d_{i+1} < \alpha_{i+1} < d_i < \alpha_i < \dots < d_1 < \alpha_1.$$

Then there is a vector \hat{u} such that the α_i are the exact eigenvalues of $\hat{D} \equiv D + \hat{u}\hat{u}^T$. The entries of \hat{u} are given by

$$|\hat{u}_i| = \left[\frac{\prod_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j - d_i)}{\prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^n (d_j - d_i)} \right]^{1/2}.$$

Proof. The characteristic polynomial of \hat{D} can be written both as
 $\det(\hat{D} - \lambda I) = \prod_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j - \lambda)$ and as $\det(\hat{D} - \lambda I) = \det(D + \hat{u}\hat{u}^T - \lambda I) = \det(D(I + D^{-1}\hat{u}\hat{u}^T) - \lambda I) = \det((D - \lambda I)(I + (D - \lambda I)^{-1}\hat{u}\hat{u}^T))$ or

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j - \lambda) &= \det(\hat{D} - \lambda I) = \left[\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j - \lambda) \right] \cdot \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\hat{u}_j^2}{d_j - \lambda} \right) \\ &= \left[\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j - \lambda) \right] \cdot \left(1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{\hat{u}_j^2}{d_j - \lambda} \right) \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\left[\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j - \lambda) \right] \cdot \frac{\hat{u}_i^2}{d_i - \lambda}}_{(1)}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \left[\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j - \lambda) \right] \cdot \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\hat{u}_j^2}{d_j - \lambda} \right) \\
 &= \left[\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j - \lambda) \right] \cdot \left(1 + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{\hat{u}_j^2}{d_j - \lambda} \right) \\
 &\quad + \underbrace{\left[\prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n (d_j - \lambda) \right]}_{(2)} \cdot \hat{u}_i^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that (1) = (2).

Setting $\lambda = d_i$ and noting that $\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j - d_i) = 0$ for $i = j$ yield

$$\prod_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j - d_i) = \hat{u}_i^2 \cdot \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n (d_j - d_i)$$

or

$$\hat{u}_i^2 = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^n (\alpha_j - d_i)}{\prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^n (d_j - d_i)} > 0.$$

Using the interlacing property, we can show that the fraction on the right is positive, so we can take its square root to get the desired expression for \hat{u}_i .

Stable divide-and-conquer algorithm

Here is the stable algorithm for computing the eigenvalues and eigenvectors (where we assume for simplicity of presentation that $\rho = 1$).
ALGORITHM. Compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $D + uu^T$.

- Solve the secular equation $1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{u_i^2}{d_i - \lambda} = 0$ to get the eigenvalues via Newton's method α_i of $D + uu^T$ via Newton's method.
- Use Löwner's theorem to compute \hat{u} so that the α_i are "exact" eigenvalues of $D + \hat{u}\hat{u}^T$.
- Use following Lemma to compute the eigenvectors of $\hat{D} = D + \hat{u}\hat{u}^T$ reformulated for $\hat{D} = D + \hat{u}\hat{u}^T$:

Lemma:

If α is an eigenvalue of $D + \rho\hat{u}\hat{u}^T$, then $(D - \alpha I)^{-1}\hat{u}$ is its eigenvector.

Example of the Matlab's program: eigenvalues will be on the diagonal of L, eigenvectors - columns of Q

```
function [Q,L] = DivideandConq(T)
% Compute size of input matrix T:
[m,n] = size(T);
% here we will divide the matrix
m2 = floor(m/2);
%if m=0 we shall return
if m2 == 0 %1 by 1
    Q = 1; L = T;
    return;
%else we perform recursive computations
else
    [T,T1,T2,bm,v] = formT(T,m2);
    %recursive computations
    [Q1,L1] = DivideandConq(T1);
    [Q2,L2] = DivideandConq(T2);
    %pick out the last and first columns of the transposes:
    Q1T = Q1';
    Q2T = Q2';
    u = [Q1T(:,end); Q2T(:,1)];
    %Creating the D-matrix:
    D = zeros(n);
    D(1:m2,1:m2) = L1;
    D((m2+1):end,(m2+1):end) = L2;
```

```

% The Q matrix (with Q1 and Q2 on the "diagonals")
Q = zeros(n);
Q(1:m2,1:m2) = Q1;
Q((m2+1):end,(m2+1):end) = Q2;

%Creating the matrix B, which determinant is the secular equation:
% det B = f(\lambda)=0
B = D+bm*u*u';

% Compute eigenvalues as roots of the secular equation
% f(\lambda)=0 using Newton's method
eigs = NewtonMethod(D,bm,u);
Q3 = zeros(m,n);

% compute eigenvectors for corresponding eigenvalues
for i = 1:length(eigs)
    Q3(:,i) = (D-eigs(i)*eye(m))\u;
    Q3(:,i) = Q3(:,i)/norm(Q3(:,i));
end

%Compute eigenvectors of the original input matrix T
Q = Q*Q3;

% Present eigenvalues of the original matrix input T
%(they will be on diagonal)
L = zeros(m,n);
L(1:(m+1):end) = eigs;

return;
end

```

Bisection and Inverse Iteration

- The Bisection algorithm exploits Sylvester's inertia theorem to find only those k eigenvalues that one wants, at cost $O(nk)$. Recall that $\text{Inertia}(A) = (\nu, \zeta, \pi)$, where ν , ζ and π are the number of negative, zero, and positive eigenvalues of A , respectively. Suppose that X is nonsingular; Sylvester's inertia theorem asserts that $\text{Inertia}(A) = \text{Inertia}(X^TAX)$.
- Now suppose that one uses Gaussian elimination to factorize $A - zI = LDL^T$, where L is nonsingular and D diagonal. Then $\text{Inertia}(A - zI) = \text{Inertia}(D)$. Since D is diagonal, its inertia is trivial to compute. (In what follows, we use notation such as "# $d_{ii} < 0$ " to mean "the number of values of d_{ii} that are less than zero.")

We can write $\text{Inertia}(A - zI) = \text{Inertia}(D)$ as:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Inertia}(A - zI) &= (\#d_{ii} < 0, \#d_{ii} = 0, \#d_{ii} > 0) \\ &= (\# \text{ negative eigenvalues of } A - zI, \\ &\quad \# \text{ zero eigenvalues of } A - zI, \\ &\quad \# \text{ positive eigenvalues of } A - zI) \\ &= (\# \text{ eigenvalues of } A < z, \\ &\quad \# \text{ eigenvalues of } A = z, \\ &\quad \# \text{ eigenvalues of } A > z).\end{aligned}$$

The number of eigenvalues in the interval $[z_1, z_2]$

- Suppose $z_1 < z_2$ and we compute $\text{Inertia}(A - z_1 I)$ and $\text{Inertia}(A - z_2 I)$.
- Then the number of eigenvalues in the interval $[z_1, z_2]$ equals (<# eigenvalues of $A < z_2$) – (<# eigenvalues of $A < z_1$).
- To make this observation into an algorithm, define

$$\text{Negcount}(A, z) = \# \text{ eigenvalues of } A < z.$$

Bisection algorithm

ALGORITHM. *Bisection: Find all eigenvalues of A inside [a, b) to a given error tolerance tol:*

```

 $n_a = \text{Negcount}(A, a)$ 
 $n_b = \text{Negcount}(A, b)$ 
if  $n_a = n_b$ , quit ... because there are no eigenvalues in  $[a, b)$ 
put  $[a, n_a, b, n_b]$  onto Worklist
    /* Worklist contains a list of intervals  $[a, b)$  containing
       eigenvalues  $n - n_a$  through  $n - n_b + 1$ , which the algorithm
       will repeatedly bisect until they are narrower than tol. */
while Worklist is not empty do
    remove  $[low, n_{low}, up, n_{up}]$  from Worklist
    if  $(up - low < tol)$  then
        print "there are  $n_{up}$   $n_{low}$  eigenvalues in  $[low, up)$ "
    else
         $mid = (low + up)/2$ 
         $n_{mid} = \text{Negcount}(A, mid)$ 
        if  $n_{mid} > n_{low}$  then ... there are eigenvalues in  $[low, mid)$ 
            put  $[low, n_{low}, mid, n_{mid}]$  onto Worklist
        end if
        if  $n_{up} > n_{mid}$  then ... there are eigenvalues in  $[mid, up)$ 
            put  $[mid, n_{mid}, up, n_{up}]$  onto Worklist
        end if
    end if
end while

```

Since $\text{Inertia}(A - zI) = \text{Inertia}(D)$ then it is easier to compute $\text{Inertia}(A - zI)$ from $\text{Inertia}(D)$. Let us write

$$A - zI = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 - z & b_1 & \cdots & \cdots \\ b_1 & a_2 - z & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & b_{n-2} & a_{n-1} - z & b_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \cdots & b_{n-1} & a_n - z \end{bmatrix} = LDL^T$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cdots & \cdots \\ l_1 & 1 & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & l_{n-1} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & d_2 & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & d_n \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & l_1 & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & 1 & \cdots & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & l_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$a_1 - z = d_1, \quad (6)$$

$$d_1 l_1 = b_1, \quad (7)$$

$$l_{i-1}^2 d_{i-1} + d_i = a_i - z, \quad (8)$$

$$d_i l_i = b_i. \quad (9)$$

Since $d_i l_i = b_i$ then we can compute $l_{i-1}^2 = b_{i-1}^2 / d_{i-1}^2$ and substitute it into $l_{i-1}^2 d_{i-1} + d_i = a_i - z$ to get:

$$d_i = (a_i - z) - \frac{b_{i-1}^2}{d_{i-1}},$$

This is the stable procedure since $A - zI$ is tridiagonal matrix.

Implementation of Negcount(A,z) in Matlab: it is enough to compute number of negative eigenvalues, for example

```
function [ neg ] = Negcount( A,z )
d=zeros(length(A),1);
d(1)=A(1,1)-z;
for i = 2:length(A)
    d(i)=(A(i,i)-z)-(A(i,i-1)^2)/d(i-1);
end
%compute number of negative eigenvalues of A
neg=0;
for i = 1:length(A)
    if d(i)<0
        neg = neg+1;
    end
end
end
```

Jacobi's Method

Given a symmetric matrix $A = A_0$, Jacobi's method produces a sequence A_1, A_2, \dots of orthogonally similar matrices, which eventually converge to a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues on the diagonal. A_{i+1} is obtained from A_i by the formula $A_{i+1} = J_i^T A_i J_i$, where J_i is an orthogonal matrix called a *Jacobi rotation*. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}A_m &= J_{m-1}^T A_{m-1} J_{m-1} \\&= J_{m-1}^T J_{m-2}^T A_{m-2} J_{m-2} J_{m-1} = \cdots \\&= J_{m-1}^T \cdots J_0^T A_0 J_0 \cdots J_{m-1} \\&= J^T A J.\end{aligned}$$

If we choose each J_i appropriately, A_m approaches a diagonal matrix Λ for large m . Thus we can write $\Lambda \approx J^T AJ$ or $J\Lambda J^T \approx A$. Therefore, the columns of J are approximate eigenvectors.

We will make $J^T AJ$ nearly diagonal by iteratively choosing J_i to make *one* pair of offdiagonal entries of $A_{i+1} = J_i^T A_i J_i$ zero at a time. We will do this by choosing J_i to be a Givens rotation,

$$J_i = R(j, k, \theta) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} & & j & & k & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ j & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & \cos \theta \\ & & & & & & & \sin \theta \\ & & & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & & & 1 \\ k & & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

where θ is chosen to zero out the j, k and k, j entries of A_{i+1} . To determine θ (or actually $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$),

write

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{jj}^{(i+1)} & a_{jk}^{(i+1)} \\ a_{kj}^{(i+1)} & a_{kk}^{(i+1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underbrace{\cos \theta}_c & -\sin \theta \\ \underbrace{\sin \theta}_s & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} a_{jj}^{(i)} & a_{jk}^{(i)} \\ a_{kj}^{(i)} & a_{kk}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

where λ_1 and λ_2 are the eigenvalues of

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{jj}^{(i)} & a_{jk}^{(i)} \\ a_{kj}^{(i)} & a_{kk}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is easy to compute $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$: Multiplying out the last expression, using symmetry, abbreviating $c \equiv \cos \theta$ and $s \equiv \sin \theta$, and dropping the superscript (i) for simplicity yield

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{jj}c^2 + a_{kk}s^2 + 2sca_{jk} & \underbrace{sc(a_{kk} - a_{jj}) + a_{jk}(c^2 - s^2)}_{=0} \\ \underbrace{sc(a_{kk} - a_{jj}) + a_{jk}(c^2 - s^2)}_{=0} & a_{jj}s^2 + a_{kk}c^2 - 2sca_{jk} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Setting the offdiagonals to 0 and solving for θ we get
 $0 = sc(a_{kk} - a_{jj}) + a_{jk}(c^2 - s^2)$, which can be rewritten as

$$\frac{a_{jj} - a_{kk}}{2a_{jk}} = \frac{c^2 - s^2}{2sc} = \frac{\cos 2\theta}{\sin 2\theta} = \cot 2\theta \equiv \tau.$$

We now let $t = \frac{s}{c} = \tan \theta$ and note that

$$c^2 - s^2 = 2sc\tau, \quad (10)$$

$$c^2 - s^2 - 2sc\tau = 0. \quad (11)$$

Dividing both sides by c^2 and noting that $t = \frac{s}{c}$ we get:

$$1 - t^2 = 2t\tau, \quad (12)$$

$$-(t^2 + 2\tau t - 1) = 0. \quad (13)$$

Thus, we solve $t^2 + 2\tau t - 1 = 0$ to get (via the quadratic formula)

$t = \frac{\text{sign}(\tau)}{|\tau| + \sqrt{1 + \tau^2}}$. Since $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = s^2 + c^2 = 1$ then $c^2 = 1 - s^2 = 1 - t^2 c^2 \rightarrow c^2 - 1 + t^2 c^2 = 0 \rightarrow c^2(1 + t^2) - 1 = 0 \rightarrow c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}}$ and $s = t \cdot c$. We summarize this derivation in the following algorithm.

ALGORITHM. Compute and apply a Jacobi rotation to A in coordinates j, k :

proc Jacobi-Rotation (A, j, k)

if $|a_{jk}|$ is not too small

$$\tau = (a_{jj} - a_{kk}) / (2 \cdot a_{jk})$$

$$t = \text{sign}(\tau) / (|\tau| + \sqrt{1 + \tau^2})$$

$$c = 1 / \sqrt{1 + t^2}$$

$$s = t \cdot c$$

$A = R^T(j, k, \theta) \cdot A \cdot R(j, k, \theta)$... where $c = \cos \theta$ and $s = \sin \theta$

if eigenvectors are desired

$$J = J \cdot R(j, k, \theta)$$

end if

end if