

Numerical Analysis

March 26, 2020.

New Grading Scheme

HW 1-3 10%

Exam 1 25%

Last Class : Least Squares Problems

HW 4-6 65%

$$\min_{\vec{x}} \| A\vec{x} - \vec{b} \|_2$$

Instead of solving the normal equations, solve the

$$\text{system } A\vec{x} = \text{proj}_{\text{col } A} \vec{b}$$

(1) QR factorization

(2) SVD

(3) Example application of linear regression.

Next topic: Eigenvalue Problems

Recall: λ, \vec{v} are an eigenvalue pair if $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v}$.

Direct computation: form characteristic equation:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

polynomial in λ of degree n if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
 $p(\lambda)$

The solutions to $p(\lambda) = 0$ are the eigenvalues.

This is expensive for various reasons = forming $p(\lambda)$ cost $n!$ flops.

Then, a nonlinear root finding algorithm must be used to solve $p(\lambda) = 0$. (Bisection, Newton, etc.)

Application: Systems of linear Initial Value problems:

$$\vec{y}' = A \vec{y}$$

$$\vec{y}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \\ \vdots \\ y_n(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{y}'(t) = \begin{pmatrix} y_1'(t) \\ y_2'(t) \\ \vdots \\ y_n'(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

One solution method is to diagonalize A . (Investigate diagonalization of matrices.)

$$A = P D P^{-1}$$

$\uparrow \qquad \uparrow$
 $(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n)$ $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$

$$\vec{y}' = P D P^{-1} \vec{y}$$

$$\underbrace{P^{-1} \vec{y}'}_{\vec{u}'} = D \underbrace{P^{-1} \vec{y}}_{\vec{u}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{u}' = D \vec{u}$$

$$\Rightarrow u_1' = \lambda_1 u_1$$

$$u_2' = \lambda_2 u_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$u_n' = \lambda_n u_n$$

$$\Rightarrow u_i = c_i e^{\lambda_i t}$$

$$u_i' = \lambda_i c_i e^{\lambda_i t}$$

$$= \lambda_i u_i$$

\Rightarrow Change variables back.

$$\vec{u} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 u_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n u_n \end{pmatrix} = P^{-1} \vec{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{y} = P \vec{u}$$

Solving $\vec{y}' = A \vec{y}$ was reduced to finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A .

Big Important Theorem:

Gerschgorin's Theorem Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix (real or complex). Then, all the eigenvalues of A lie in

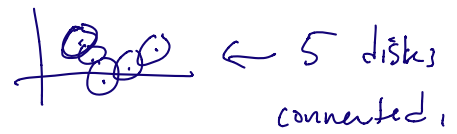
$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n D_i, \text{ where}$$

$$D_i = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C} \text{ such that } |z - a_{ii}| \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}| \right\}$$

referred to as a "Gerschgorin Disk".

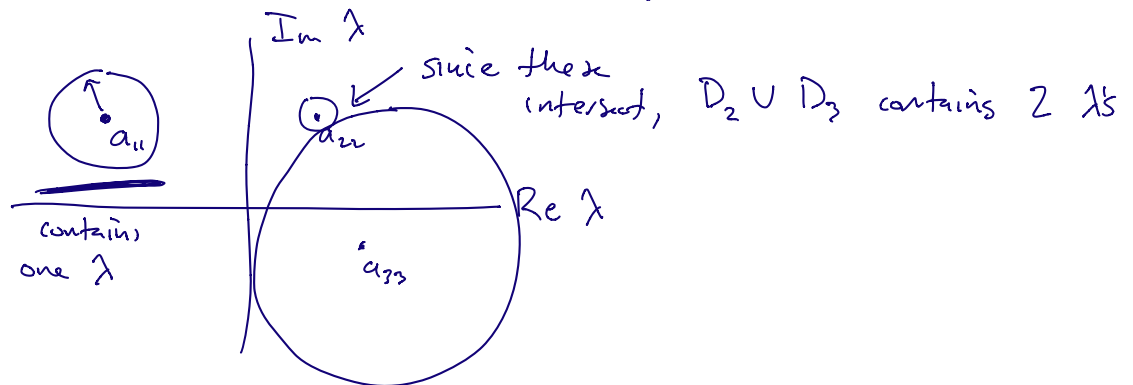
i^{th} diagonal of A

sum of off-diagonal entries in row i .



If m disks are connected, then m eigenvalues are located in this region.

Graphically



Simplest case:

A is diagonal: $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & & 0 \\ & a_{22} & \\ 0 & & \dots & \\ & & & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda_i = a_{ii}$

Proof: Let λ, \vec{v} be an eigenvalue/vector pair.

Then $A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \Rightarrow i^{\text{th}}$ component

$$\sum a_{ij} v_j = \lambda v_i \text{ for all } i$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - a_{ii}) v_i = \sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij} v_j$$

Pick largest element of \vec{v} , call it v_k . (in absolute value)

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - a_{kk})v_k = \sum_{j \neq k} a_{kj}v_j$$

$$|\lambda - a_{kk}| \cancel{|v_k|} \leq \sum_{j \neq k} |a_{kj}| \frac{|v_j|}{\underbrace{|v_k|}_{\leq 1}}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j \neq k} |a_{kj}|$$

We will revisit this theorem in detail when discussing Jacobi's method.

The Power Method

Goal Calculate the eigenvalue with largest magnitude and associated eigenvector. (Assume that A is diagonalizable.)

Start with a random vector \vec{w} .

If \vec{w} is truly random, then it is a linear combination of every eigenvector of A .

$$\Rightarrow \vec{w} = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \vec{v}_j$$

↑
eigenvectors.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Apply } A \text{ to } \vec{w}: \quad A\vec{w} &= A \left(\sum_j c_j \vec{v}_j \right) \\ &= \sum_j c_j A\vec{v}_j \\ &= \sum_j c_j \lambda_j \vec{v}_j \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^2 \vec{w} &= A(A\vec{w}) \\ &= \sum_j c_j \lambda_j^2 \vec{v}_j \end{aligned}$$

$$A^k \vec{w} = \sum_j c_j \lambda_j^k \vec{v}_j$$

For sufficiently large k , this is dominated by the largest λ , $\approx c_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{v}_1$.

(Assume that $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > |\lambda_3| \dots$)

If $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2|$, sufficiently larger, then λ_1 dominates.

So eventually, if $\vec{y}^{(k)} = A^k \vec{w}$, then
$$\vec{y}^{(k+1)} = A^{k+1} \vec{w}$$
$$= A \vec{y}^{(k)} = \underline{\lambda_1} \vec{y}^{(k)}$$

Normalize these iterates at every step:

$$\vec{w}_0 = \vec{w} / \|\vec{w}\|$$

$$\vec{w}_1 = \frac{A \vec{w}_0}{\|A \vec{w}_0\|} \quad \dots \quad \vec{w}_k = \frac{A \vec{w}_{k-1}}{\|A \vec{w}_{k-1}\|}$$

Under this normalization, the eigenvalue λ_1 is approximately equal to

$$(1) \quad w_{ki} / w_{(k-1)i} \approx \lambda_1$$

\uparrow
ith component
of \vec{w}_k

(2) Better option is to estimate λ_1 as

$$\lambda_1 \approx (A \vec{w}_k, \vec{w}_k)$$

Since $A \vec{w}_k \approx \lambda_1 \vec{w}_k$

$$\vec{w}_k^T A \vec{w}_k \approx \lambda_1 \underbrace{\vec{w}_k^T \vec{w}_k}$$

= 1 since \vec{w}_k is a unit vector.

The \vec{w}_k 's approach \vec{v}_1 as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

How fast does the power method converge?

Examine the quantity $A^k \vec{w} - \vec{v}_1$:

If k is sufficiently large, then $A^k \vec{w} \approx c_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{v}_1$ (assume $c_1 > 0$)

$$A^k \vec{w} \approx c_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{v}_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v}_1 \approx \frac{1}{c_1 \lambda_1^k} A^k \vec{w}$$

$$= \frac{1}{c_1 \lambda_1^k} \left(c_1 \lambda_1^k \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^k \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n^k \vec{v}_n \right)$$

$$= \vec{v}_1 + \frac{c_2}{c_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \vec{v}_2 + \frac{c_3}{c_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_3}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \vec{v}_3 + \dots + \frac{c_n}{c_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \vec{v}_n.$$

If $|\lambda_j| < |\lambda_1|$ for $j > 1$, then $\left(\frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$

$$\vec{w}_k = \frac{A^k \vec{w}}{\|A^k \vec{w}\|}$$

$$\|\vec{w}_k - \vec{v}_1\| \approx \left| \frac{c_2}{c_1} \right| \left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right|^k$$

$$\sim O\left(\left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right|^k \right)$$

The convergence of the power method depends on the gap in the eigenvalues.

I.e. the relative size of λ_2 to λ_1 .

This means that if $\left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right| \approx 1$, then convergence is

very slow.