

# Algebraic Eigenvalue Problem

*Computers are useless. They can only give answers.*

*Pablo Picasso*

# Topics to Be Discussed

- This unit requires the knowledge of eigenvalues and eigenvectors in linear algebra.
- The following topics will be presented:
  - The Power method for finding the largest eigenvalue and its corresponding eigenvector
  - Coordinate rotation
  - Rotating a symmetric matrix
  - Classic Jacobi method (1846) for finding *all* eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a *symmetric* matrix

# Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors: 1/3

- Given a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , if one can find a number (real or complex)  $\lambda$  and a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  holds,  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue and  $\mathbf{x}$  an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$  (of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ ).
- Since the right-hand side of  $\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$  can be rewritten as  $\lambda\mathbf{I}\cdot\mathbf{x}$ , where  $\mathbf{I}$  is the identity matrix, we have  $\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{I}\cdot\mathbf{x}$  and  $(\mathbf{A}-\lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .
- Solving for  $\lambda$  from equation  $\det(\mathbf{A}-\lambda\mathbf{I}) = 0$  yields *all* eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ , where  $\det()$  is the determinant of a matrix.

# Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors: 2/3

- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$  in  $\lambda$ , and has  $n$  roots (*i.e.*,  $n$  possible values for  $\lambda$ ), some of which may be complex conjugates (*i.e.*,  $a + bi$  and  $a - bi$ ).
- However, people rarely use this method to find eigenvalues because (1) directly expanding  $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$  to a polynomial is tedious, and (2) there is no close-form solution if  $n > 4$ .
- Many methods transform  $\mathbf{A}$  to simpler forms so that  $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$  can be obtained easily.

# Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors: 3/3

- The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix are its diagonal entries.
- For example, if we have a diagonal matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & & & \\ & d_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & d_{n-1} & \\ & & & & d_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- Then,  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  is

$$(d_1 - \lambda)(d_2 - \lambda) \dots (d_{n-1} - \lambda)(d_n - \lambda) = 0$$

- Hence, the roots of  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  are the  $d_i$ 's.

# Power Method: 1/11

- What if we take a guess  $\mathbf{z}$  and compute  $\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{z}$ ?
- If  $\mathbf{z}$  is actually an eigenvector, then  $\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{z} = \lambda\mathbf{z}$ .
- Let  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{z} = \lambda\mathbf{z}$ . Since for every entry of  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$  we have  $w_i = \lambda z_i$  and  $\lambda = w_i/z_i$ .
- If  $\mathbf{z}$  is not an eigenvector, then  $\mathbf{w}$  may be a vector closer to an eigenvector than  $\mathbf{z}$  is.
- Therefore, we may use  $\mathbf{w}$  in the next iteration to find an even better approximation.
- From  $\mathbf{w}$ , we have  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{w}$ ; from  $\mathbf{u}$  we have  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{u}$ ; etc. Hopefully, some vector  $\mathbf{x}$  will satisfy  $\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ .

## Power Method: 2/11

- **Note that:** if  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector,  $\alpha\mathbf{x}$  is also an eigenvector because  $\alpha(A\cdot\mathbf{x})=\alpha(\lambda\mathbf{x})$  and  $A\cdot(\alpha\mathbf{x}) = \lambda(\alpha\mathbf{x})!$
- **Therefore,** we may scale an eigenvector. The simplest way is to scale the vector by the component with maximum absolute value. After scaling, the value of each component is in  $[-1,1]$ .
- **Example:** Let  $\mathbf{x}$  be  $[15, -20, -8]$ . Since  $|-20|$  is the largest, the scaling factor is  $-20$  and the scaled  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $[-15/20, 1, 8/20]$ .

# Power Method: 3/11

- This scaling has an advantage.
- Given a vector  $\mathbf{z}$ , we compute  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{z}$ .
- If  $\mathbf{w}$  is a good approximate of  $\lambda \mathbf{z}$ , we have  $\mathbf{w} \approx \lambda \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{z}$ .
- Therefore, we should have  $w_i \approx \lambda z_i$  for every  $i$ .
- If vector  $\mathbf{z}$  is scaled so that its largest entry, say  $z_k$ , is 1, then  $w_k \approx \lambda z_k = \lambda$ !
- In other words, the scaling factor is an *approximation* of an eigenvalue!



# Power Method: 4/11

- We may start with a  $\mathbf{z}$  and compute  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{z}$ .
- The largest component  $w_k$  of  $\mathbf{w}$  is an approximation of an eigenvalue  $\lambda$  (i.e.,  $w_k \approx \lambda$ ).
- Then,  $\mathbf{w}$  is scaled with its largest component  $w_k$  and used as a new  $\mathbf{z}$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{w}/w_k$ ).
- This process is applied iteratively until we have  $|\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{z} - w_k \mathbf{z}| < \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon$  is a tolerance value.

# Power Method: 5/11

- Suppose this process starts with vector  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .
- The computation of  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is  $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{w}_i/w_{i,k} = (\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x}_{i-1})/w_{i,k}$ , where  $w_{i,k}$  is the maximum component of  $\mathbf{w}_i$ .
- Since  $\mathbf{x}_{i-1} = \mathbf{w}_{i-1}/w_{i-1,k} = (\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x}_{i-2})/w_{i-1,k}$ , we may rewrite the  $\mathbf{x}_i$  as follows for some  $c$ ,  $d$  and  $g$ :

$$\mathbf{x}_i = c(\mathbf{A}\cdot\mathbf{x}_{i-1}) = c(d\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_{i-2})) = g\mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x}_{i-2}$$

- Continuing this process, we have the following for some  $p$ :

$$\mathbf{x}_i = p\mathbf{A}^i\mathbf{x}_0$$

- Hence,  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is obtained by some power of  $\mathbf{A}$ , and, hence, the “**power**” method.

# Power Method: 6/11

- **Example:** Consider the following  $2 \times 2$  matrix

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

- This matrix has eigenvalues 5 and 1 and corresponding eigenvectors  $[1,1]$  and  $[-3,1]$
- Let us start with  $\mathbf{z}=[1/2,1]$ . Since the maximum entry of  $\mathbf{z}$  is 1, no scaling is needed.
- Compute  $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{z} = [4,9/2]$ .

# Power Method: 7/11

- Since  $w=[4,9/2]$  and its largest entry is  $9/2$ ,
  - The approximate eigenvalue is  $9/2$
  - The scaled  $z = w/(9/2) = [8/9,1]$
- Compute  $w = A \cdot z = [43/9,44/9]$ . Now, we have
  - The approximate eigenvalue is  $44/9$
  - The new  $z = [43/44,1]$
- Compute  $w = A \cdot z = [109/22,219/44]$  and we have
  - The approximate eigenvalue is  $219/44$
  - The new  $z = [218/219,1]$
- After 3 iterations, we have an approximate eigenvalue  $219/44 = 4.977 \approx 5$  and eigenvector  $[218/219,1] = [0.9954,1] \approx [1,1]$ .

# Power Method: 8/11

- **A** is the input matrix, **z** an approx. eigenvector

```
z = random and scaled vector ! initialize
DO                               ! loop until done
  w = A*z
  max = 1                         ! find the |max| entry
  DO i = 2, n
    IF (ABS(w(i)) > ABS(w(max))) max = i
  END DO
  eigen_value = w(max)           ! ABS(w(max)) the largest
  DO i = 1, n                    ! Scale w(*) to z(*)
    z(i) = w(i)/eigen_value
  END DO
  IF (ABS(A*z - eigen_value*z) < Tol) EXIT
END DO
```

# Power Method: 9/11

- **Example:** Find an eigenvalue and its corresponding eigenvector of  $A$ ,  $x_0 = [1,1,1,1]$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 11 & -26 & 3 & -12 \\ 3 & -12 & 3 & -6 \\ 31 & -99 & 15 & -44 \\ 9 & -10 & -3 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Iter 1:**  $w = [-24, -12, -97, -8]$ , approx.  $\lambda = -97$  and new  $z = w/(-97) = [0.247423, 0.123711, 1, 0.0824742]$ .
- **Iter 2:**  $w = [1.51546, 1.76289, 6.79381, -2.34021]$ , approx.  $\lambda = 6.79381$ ,  $z = w/(6.79381) = [0.223065, 0.259484, 1, -0.344461]$

# Power Method: 10/11

- **Iter 3:**  $w = [2.84067, 2.62216, 11.3824, -2.20941]$ ,  
approx.  $\lambda = 11.3824$ , new  $z = w/\lambda = [0.249567,$   
 $0.230369, 1, -0.194107]$
- **Iter 4:**  $w = [2.08492, 2.14891, 8.47074, -2.28116]$ ,  
approx  $\lambda = 8.47074$ , new  $z = w/\lambda =$   
 $[0.246132, 0.253687, 1, -0.269299]$
- 15 more iterations .....
- **Iter 19:** approx.  $\lambda = 9$  and corresponding  
eigenvector (*i.e.*,  $z$ ) =  $[0.25, 0.25, 1, -0.25]$

# Power Method: 11/11

- What does power method do?
- It finds the largest eigenvalue (*i.e.*, *dominating eigenvalue*) and its corresponding eigenvector.
- If vector  $\mathbf{z}$  is *perpendicular* to the eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue, power method will not converge in *exact arithmetic*.
- Thus,  $\mathbf{z}$  may be a random vector, initially.
- Convergence rate is  $|\lambda_2/\lambda_1|$ , where  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the largest and second largest eigenvalues.
- If rate is  $\ll 1$ , faster convergence is possible. *If it is close to 1, convergence will be very slow.*



# Jacobi Method: Basic Idea

- Finding *all* eigenvalues and their corresponding eigenvectors is not an easy task.
- However, in 1846 Jacobi found a relatively easy way to find *all* eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a *symmetric* matrix.
- Jacobi suggested that a symmetric matrix would be diagonal after being transformed repeatedly with appropriate “rotations.”
- In what follows, we shall talk about coordinate rotation, rotations applied to a symmetric matrix, and Jacobi’s method.

# Coordinate Rotation: 1/2

- Suppose rotating system  $(x, y)$  an angle of  $\theta$  yields  $(x', y')$ . The relationship between  $(x', y')$  and  $(x, y)$  is

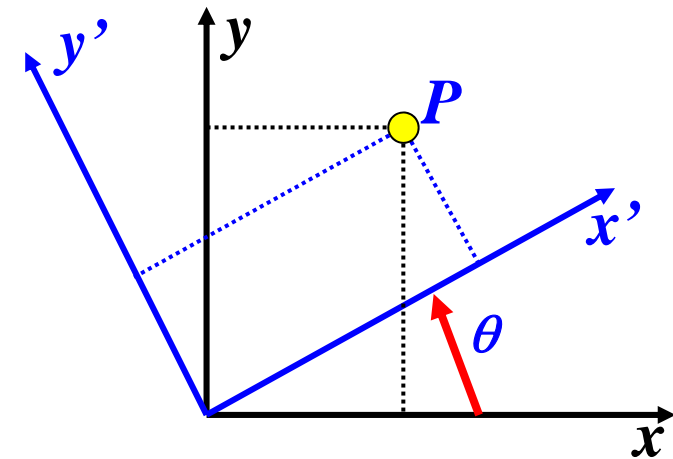
$$x' = \cos(\theta)x + \sin(\theta)y$$

$$y' = -\sin(\theta)x + \cos(\theta)y$$

- This can be represented in a matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

rotation matrix





# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 1/11

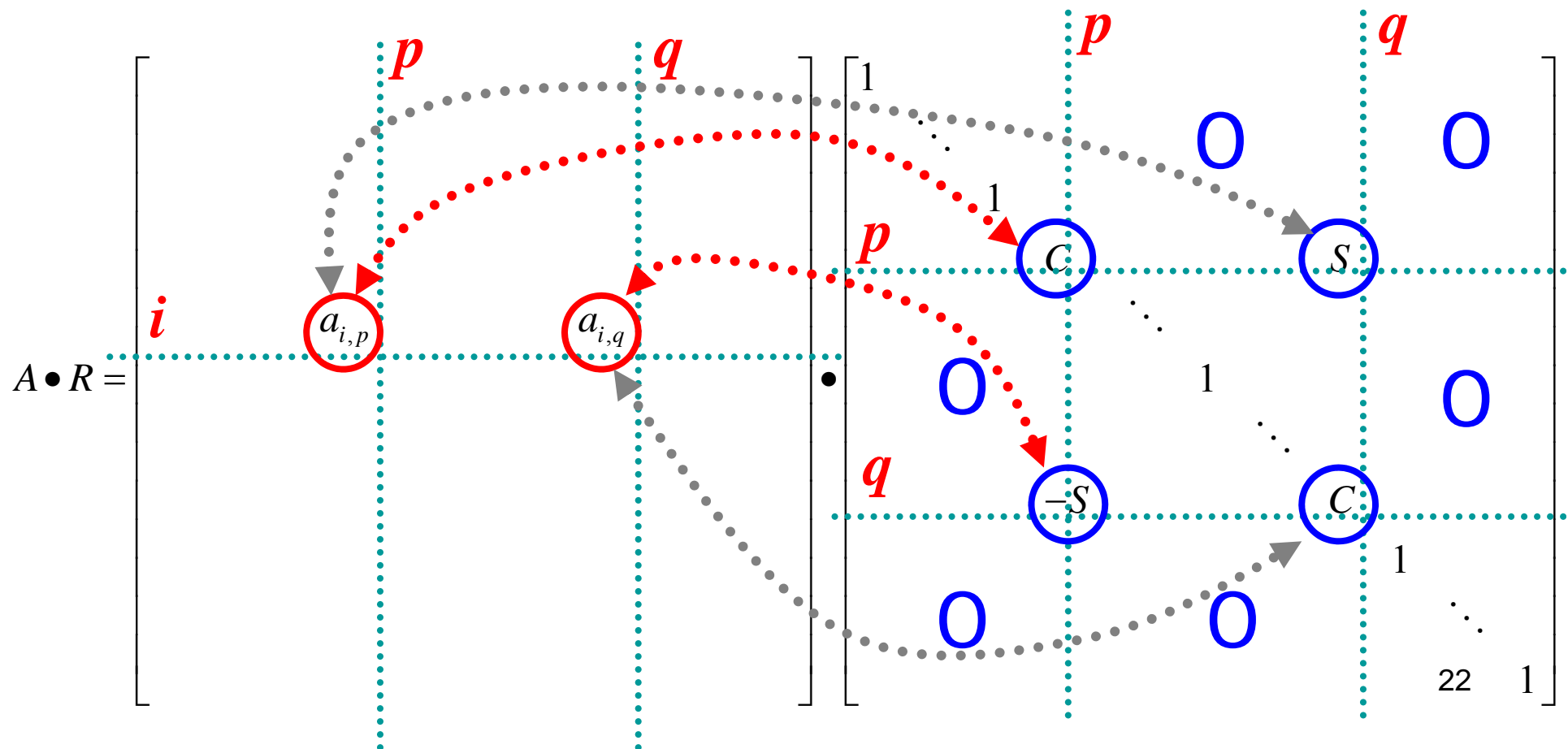
- A symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$  is a matrix satisfying  $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ , where  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ .
- In other words, a symmetric matrix is “*symmetric*” about its diagonal.
- The transpose of matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  is  $\mathbf{B}^T$ .
- Rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}_{p,q}(\theta)$  is not symmetric.
- Rotating a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  with rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  is computed as  $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{R}^T \bullet \mathbf{A} \bullet \mathbf{R}$
- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is symmetric,  $\mathbf{A}'$  is also symmetric.

# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 2/11

- Given a symmetric matrix  $A = [a_{i,j}]_{n \times n}$  and a rotation matrix  $R_{p,q}(\theta)$ , written as  $R$  for simplicity, find  $A' = R^T \bullet A \bullet R$ .
- This is an easy task: we compute  $H = A \bullet R$ , followed by  $A' = R^T \bullet H$ .
- Do we have to use matrix multiplication?
- **No**, it is not necessary due to the very simple form of the rotation matrix  $R$  and  $R^T$ .

# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 3/11

- **Observation:**  $A \bullet R$  is identical to  $A$  except for column  $p$  and column  $q$  ( $C = \cos(\theta)$  and  $S = \sin(\theta)$ )



# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 4/11

- $A \cdot R$  is computed as follows, where  $C$  and  $S$  are  $\cos(\theta)$  and  $\sin(\theta)$ , respectively.
- Other than column  $p$  and column  $q$ , all entries are identical to those of  $A$ .

$$A \cdot R = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,p}C - a_{1,q}S & a_{1,p}S + a_{1,q}C \\ a_{2,p}C - a_{2,q}S & a_{2,p}S + a_{2,q}C \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{p,p}C - a_{p,q}S & a_{p,p}S + a_{p,q}C \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{q,p}C - a_{q,q}S & a_{q,p}S + a_{q,q}C \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n-1,p}C - a_{n-1,q}S & a_{n-1,p}S + a_{n-1,q}C \\ a_{n,p}C - a_{n,q}S & a_{n,p}S + a_{n,q}C \end{bmatrix}$$

$a_{i,j}$ 
 $\ddots$ 
 $a_{i,j}$

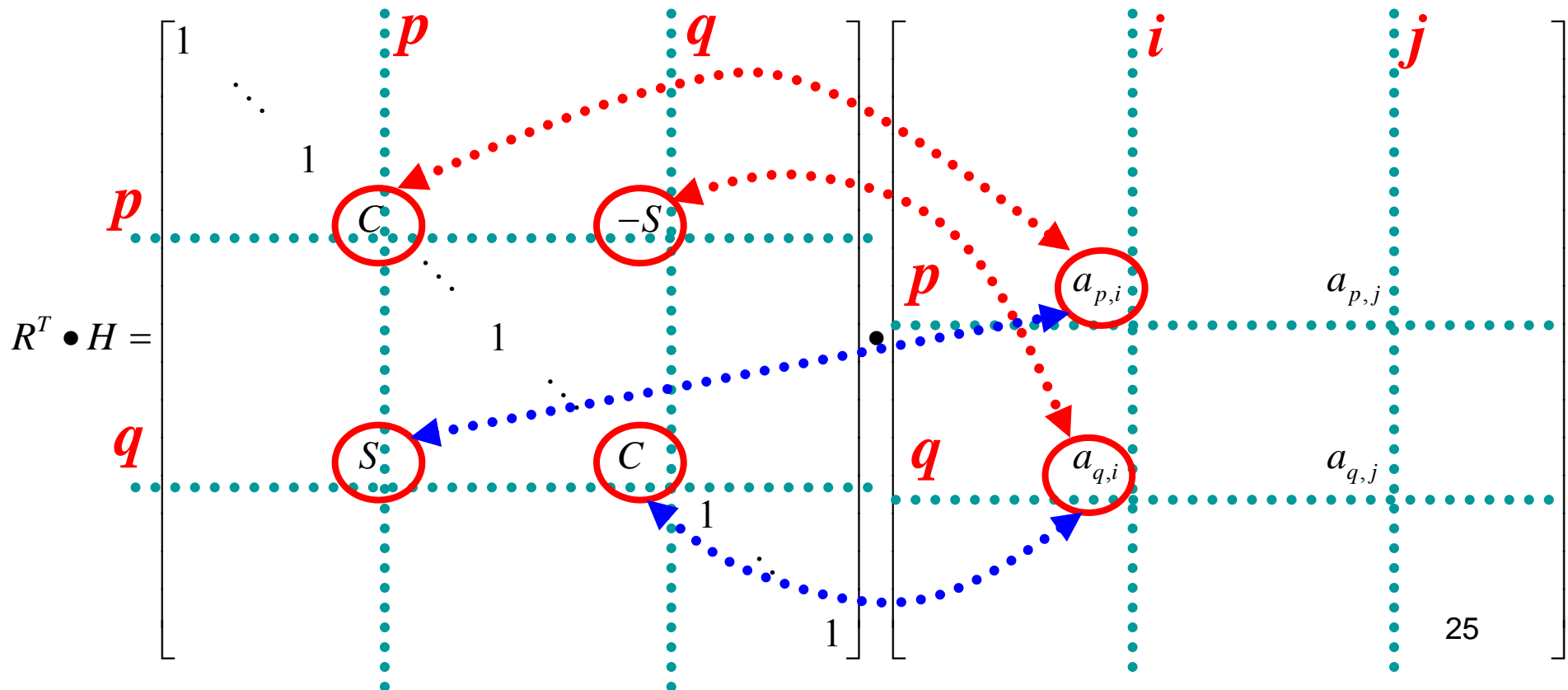
$\text{col } p$ 
 $\text{col } q$





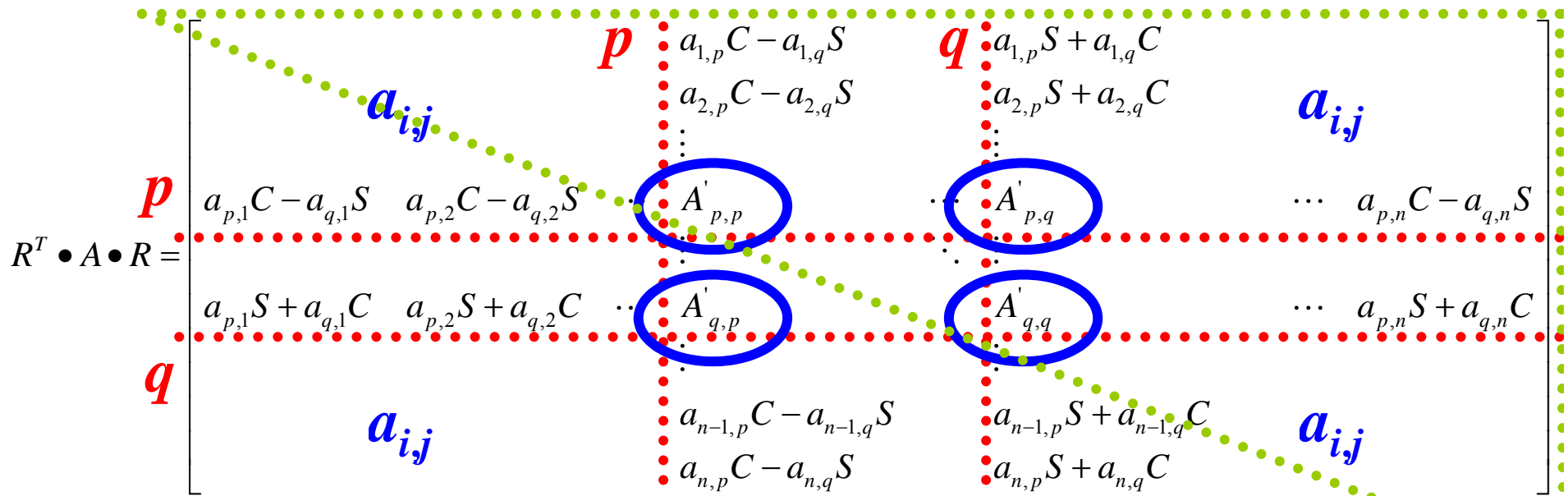
# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 6/11

- Computing  $A' = R^T \bullet H$  is very similar to computing  $A \bullet R$ .
- The only difference is row  $p$  and row  $q$ .



# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 7/11

● Here is the result of  $A' = R^T \bullet A \bullet R = R^T \bullet H$ :



Because of symmetry, we only update the upper triangular part.

$$A'_{p,p} = a_{p,p} C^2 - 2a_{p,q} C \times S + a_{q,q} S^2$$

$$A'_{q,q} = a_{p,p} S^2 + 2a_{p,q} C \times S + a_{q,q} C^2$$

$$A'_{p,q} = A'_{q,p} = (a_{p,p} - a_{q,q}) C \times S + a_{p,q} (C^2 - S^2)$$

# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 8/11

● **Part I: Update  $a_{p,p}$ ,  $a_{p,q}$  and  $a_{q,q}$ , where  $p < q$ .**

$$A'_{p,p} = a_{p,p} C^2 - 2a_{p,q} C \times S + a_{q,q} S^2$$

$$A'_{q,q} = a_{p,p} S^2 + 2a_{p,q} C \times S + a_{q,q} C^2$$

$$A'_{p,q} = A'_{q,p} = (a_{p,p} - a_{q,q}) C \times S + a_{p,q} (C^2 - S^2)$$

! **PART I: Update  $a(p,p)$ ,  $a(q,q)$ ,  $a(p,q)$**   
!  **$C = \cos(\theta)$  and  $S = \sin(\theta)$**   
!  **$a(*,*)$  is an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix**  
!  **$p, q$  : for  $(p,q)$ -rotation, where  $p < q$**

$$A_{pp} = C * C * a(p,p) - 2 * C * S * a(p,q) + S * S * a(q,q)$$

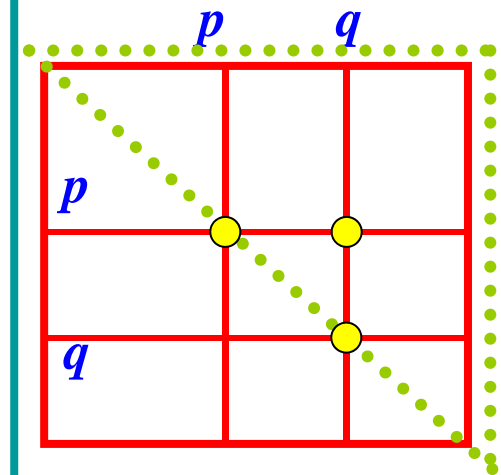
$$A_{qq} = S * S * a(p,p) + 2 * C * S * a(p,q) + C * C * a(q,q)$$

$$A_{pq} = C * S * (a(p,p) - a(q,q)) + (C * C - S * S) * a(p,q)$$

$$a(p,p) = A_{pp}$$

$$a(q,q) = A_{qq}$$

$$a(p,q) = A_{pq}$$



**NOTE: only the upper triangular portion is updated!**

# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 9/11

## ● Part II: Update Row 1 to Row $p-1$ .

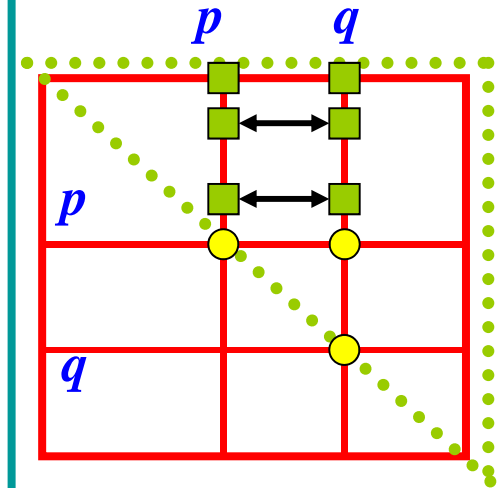
$$A'_{i,p} = a_{i,p}C - a_{i,q}S$$

$$A'_{i,q} = a_{i,p}S + a_{i,q}C$$

```
! PART II: Update column p and column q from  
!           row 1 to row p-1.  
!  
!
```

```
! h is used to save the new value of a(i,p)  
!   since a(i,p) is used to compute a(i,q)  
!   and cannot be destroyed right away!
```

```
DO i = 1, p-1  
  h      = C*a(i,p) - S*a(i,q)  
  a(i,q) = S*a(i,p) + C*a(i,q)  
  a(i,p) = h  
END DO
```



**NOTE: only the upper triangular portion is updated!**

# Symmetric Matrix Rotation: 10/11

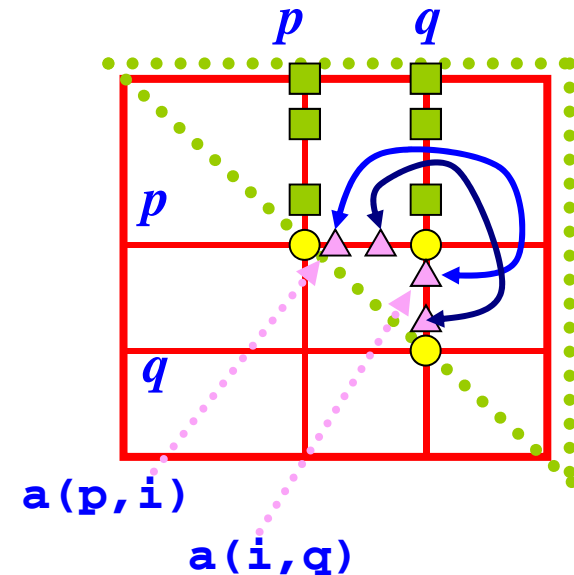
## ● Part III: Update Row $p+1$ to Row $q-1$ .

$$A'_{i,p} = a_{i,p}C - a_{i,q}S$$

$$A'_{i,q} = a_{i,p}S + a_{i,q}C$$

```
! PART III: Update the portion between
!           row p+1 and row q-1
!
! h is used to save the new value
!   of a(p,i) because a(p,i) is used
!   to compute a(i,q) and cannot be
!   destroyed right away!
```

```
DO i = p+1, q-1
  h      = C*a(p,i) - S*a(i,q)
  a(i,q) = S*a(p,i) + C*a(i,q)
  a(p,i) = h
END DO
```



**Note the symmetry in the update!**

**Note also that  $a(p,i) = a(i,p)$  and  $a(q,i) = a(i,q)$**



# Eigenvalues of 2x2 Symmetric Matrices: 1/4

- Consider a 2x2 symmetric matrix  $A$ :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } a_{1,2} = a_{2,1}$$

- Applying a rotation in the  $xy$ -plane yields the following symmetric matrix  $A'$  for some angle  $\theta$ , where  $C = \cos(\theta)$  and  $S = \sin(\theta)$ :

$$A' = R^T \cdot A \cdot R = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1}C^2 - 2a_{1,2}C \times S + a_{2,2}S^2 & (a_{1,1} - a_{2,2})C \times S + a_{1,2}(C^2 - S^2) \\ & a_{1,1}S^2 + 2a_{1,2}C \times S + a_{2,2}C^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Eigenvalues of 2x2 Symmetric Matrices: 2/4

- The off-diagonal element is

$$(a_{1,1} - a_{2,2})C \times S + a_{1,2}(C^2 - S^2)$$

- If a  $\theta$  can be chosen so that the off-diagonal elements  $a_{1,2}$  and  $a_{2,1}$  are 0, matrix  $A$  is diagonal and the diagonal entries are eigenvalues!

$$(a_{1,1} - a_{2,2})C \times S + a_{1,2}(C^2 - S^2) = 0$$

⇓

$$\frac{-a_{1,2}}{a_{1,1} - a_{2,2}} = \frac{C \times S}{C^2 - S^2} = \frac{\cos(\theta) \sin(\theta)}{\cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)}$$

⇓

$$\frac{a_{1,2}}{a_{2,2} - a_{1,1}} = \frac{2}{2} \times \frac{\cos(\theta) \sin(\theta)}{\cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)} = \frac{1 \sin(2\theta)}{2 \cos(2\theta)} = \frac{\tan(2\theta)}{2}$$

⇓

$$\tan(2\theta) = \frac{2a_{1,2}}{a_{2,2} - a_{1,1}}$$



$$\theta = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{2a_{1,2}}{a_{2,2} - a_{1,1}} \right)$$

simple facts from trigonometry

$$\sin(2\theta) = 2 \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta)$$

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)$$

if  $a_{1,1} \neq a_{2,2}$   
otherwise,  $\theta = \pi/4$



# Eigenvalues of 2x2 Symmetric Matrices: 3/4

- Consider this **A**:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & \sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- From matrix **A**, we have  $a_{1,1} = 2$ ,  $a_{2,2} = 4$  and  $a_{1,2} = a_{2,1} = \sqrt{3}$ .
- Since  $\tan(2\theta) = 2a_{1,2}/(a_{2,2} - a_{1,1}) = \sqrt{3}$ , we have  $2\theta = \pi/3$ ,  $\theta = \pi/6$ ,  $S = \sin(\theta) = 1/2$ ,  $C = \cos(\theta) = (\sqrt{3})/2$ .
- The new  $a_{1,1}$  is  $a_{1,1}C^2 - a_{1,2}C \times S + a_{2,2}S^2 = 1$ , the new  $a_{2,2}$  is  $a_{1,1}S^2 + a_{1,2}C \times S + a_{2,2}C^2 = 5$ , and the new  $a_{1,2} = a_{2,1} = 0$ .
- Therefore, eigenvalues of **A** are **+1** and **+5**!

# Eigenvalues of 2x2 Symmetric Matrices: 4/4

- Let us verify the result. Since  $S = \sin(\theta) = 1/2$  and  $C = \cos(\theta) = (\sqrt{3})/2$ , the rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  is:

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} C & S \\ -S & C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The rotated  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{R}^T \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{R}$  :

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{R}^T \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 & \sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbf{A}'$  is diagonal and eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  are **1** and **5**.

# Classic Jacobi Method: 1/13

- **Jacobi published a method in 1846 capable of finding all eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix with repeated rotations.**
- **Find an off-diagonal entry with maximum absolute value, say  $a_{p,q}$ , where  $p < q$ .**
- **If  $|a_{p,q}| < \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is a given tolerance, stop.**
- **Apply a  $(p,q)$ -rotation to eliminate  $a_{p,q}$  and  $a_{q,p}$ .**
- **Repeat this process until all off-diagonal elements become very small (*i.e.*, absolute value  $< \varepsilon$ ).**
- **The diagonal entries are eigenvalues.**
- **Rotations do not alter eigenvalues!**

# Classic Jacobi Method: 2/13

- Basically, Jacobi method starts with a symmetric matrix  $A_0 = A$ .
- Find a rotation matrix  $R_1$  so that an off-diagonal entry of  $A_1 = R_1^T \cdot A_0 \cdot R_1$  becomes 0.
- Then, find a rotation matrix  $R_2$  so that an off-diagonal entry of  $A_2 = R_2^T \cdot A_1 \cdot R_2$  becomes 0.
- The entry of  $A_1$  eliminated by  $R_1$  can become non-zero in  $A_2$ ; however, it would be smaller.
- Note the following fact:

$$A_2 = R_2^T \cdot A_1 \cdot R_2 = R_2^T \cdot (R_1^T \cdot A_0 \cdot R_1) \cdot R_2$$

$$A_2 = R_2^T \cdot R_1^T \cdot A_0 \cdot R_1 \cdot R_2$$

## Classic Jacobi Method: 3/13

- Repeating this process, for iteration  $i$ , a rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}_i$  is found to eliminate one off-diagonal entry of  $\mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{R}_i^T \cdot \mathbf{A}_{i-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_i$ .
- Thus,  $\mathbf{A}_i$  is computed as follows:

$$\mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{R}_i^T \cdot \mathbf{R}_{i-1}^T \cdots \mathbf{R}_2^T \cdot \mathbf{R}_1^T \cdot \mathbf{A}_0 \cdot \mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{R}_2 \cdots \mathbf{R}_{i-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_i$$

- Jacobi showed that after some number of iterations, all off-diagonal entries are small and the resulting matrix  $\mathbf{A}_m$  is diagonal.
- Therefore, the diagonal entries of  $\mathbf{A}_m$  are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

# Classic Jacobi Method: 4/13

- Here is a template of the Jacobi method.

```
DO
  p = 1 find max off-diagonal entry
  q = 2
  DO i = 1, n
    DO j = i+1, n
      IF (ABS(a(p,q)) < ABS(a(i,j))) THEN
        p = i
        q = j
      END IF
    END DO
  END DO
  IF (ABS(a(p,q)) < Tol) EXIT
  Apply a (p,q)-rotation to matrix a(*,*)
END DO
```

## Classic Jacobi Method: 5/13

- The only remaining part is an efficient and accurate way of “**applying a  $(p,q)$ -rotation.**”
- We saw the  $2 \times 2$  case earlier: find an appropriate rotation angle  $\theta$ , compute  $C = \cos(\theta)$  and  $S = \sin(\theta)$ , and update matrix  $A$ .
- This approach requires  $\tan^{-1}(\theta)$ , which can be time consuming and may lose significant digits.
- Therefore, we need a faster and more accurate method.

# Classic Jacobi Method: 6/13

- The following shows the new  $a_{p,p}$ ,  $a_{q,q}$  and  $a_{p,q}$  after rotation.

$$A'_{p,p} = a_{p,p}C^2 - 2a_{p,q}C \times S + a_{q,q}S^2$$

$$A'_{q,q} = a_{p,p}S^2 + 2a_{p,q}C \times S + a_{q,q}C^2$$

$$A'_{p,q} = A'_{q,p} = (a_{p,p} - a_{q,q})C \times S + a_{p,q}(C^2 - S^2)$$

- Setting the new  $A_{p,q}$  to 0 yields an angle  $\theta$  that can eliminate  $A_{p,q}$  and  $A_{q,p}$ .
- We shall use a different way to find  $\tan(\theta)$ , from which  $\sin(\theta)$  and  $\cos(\theta)$  can be computed easily without the use of the  $\tan^{-1}()$  function.



# Classic Jacobi Method: 7/13

- We follow the 2x2 case.

$$A_{p,q} = (a_{p,p} - a_{q,q})C \times S + a_{p,q}(C^2 - S^2) = 0$$

⇓

$$\frac{a_{p,q}}{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}} = \frac{C \times S}{C^2 - S^2} = \frac{\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta)}{\cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)} = \frac{2}{2} \times \frac{\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta)}{\cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)}$$

⇓

$$\frac{a_{p,q}}{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{\sin(2\theta)}{\cos(2\theta)} = \frac{1}{2} \tan(2\theta)$$

⇓

$$\tan(2\theta) = \frac{2a_{p,q}}{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}} \Rightarrow \cot(2\theta) = \frac{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}}{2a_{p,q}}$$

rewrite to use  $\cot()$

# Classic Jacobi Method: 8/13

● But, what we really need is  $\tan(\theta)$ !

● Let  $t = \tan(\theta)$ , and we have  $t=S/C$ .

● From  $\cot(2\theta)$ , we have the following:

$$\cot(2\theta) = \frac{\cos(2\theta)}{\sin(2\theta)} = \frac{\cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)}{2\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta)} = \frac{C^2 - S^2}{2S \times C}$$

● Divide the numerator and denominator with  $C^2$ :

$$\cot(2\theta) = \frac{(C^2 - S^2)/C^2}{(2S \times C)/C^2} = \frac{1 - S^2/C^2}{2(S/C)} = \frac{1 - t^2}{2t}$$

● Therefore, we have:

$$\Delta = \frac{1 - t^2}{2t} \quad \text{where } \Delta = \cot(2\theta) = \frac{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}}{2a_{p,q}}$$

# Classic Jacobi Method: 9/13

- From  $\Delta = (1-t^2)/(2t)$ , we have  $t^2 + 2\Delta t - 1 = 0$ .
- This means the desired  $t = \tan(\theta)$  is one of the two roots of  $t^2 + 2\Delta t - 1 = 0$ .
- The roots of  $t^2 + 2\Delta t - 1 = 0$  are


$$t = -\Delta \pm \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}$$

- Which root is better?
- Important Fact: If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are roots of  $x^2 + bx + c = 0$ , then  $x_1 + x_2 = -b$  and  $x_1 x_2 = c$ .
- Since the product of the roots of  $t^2 + 2\Delta t - 1 = 0$  is  $-1$ , the *smaller* (or *desired*) one must be in  $[-1, 1]$ .

# Classic Jacobi Method: 10/13

- Consider the following manipulation:

$$\left(-\Delta \pm \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}\right) \times \frac{-\Delta \mp \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}}{-\Delta \mp \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}} = \frac{1}{\Delta \pm \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}}$$

avoid cancellation 

- We have to avoid cancellation when  $\Delta$  is large.
- If  $\Delta > 0$ , use  $+$ . The denominator is  $\Delta + (\Delta^2 + 1)^{1/2} > 1$  and the positive root is less than 1.
- If  $\Delta < 0$ , use  $-$ . The denominator is  $\Delta - (\Delta^2 + 1)^{1/2} < -1$  and the negative root is greater than -1.

# Classic Jacobi Method: 11/13

- If  $\Delta > 0$  (*resp.*,  $\Delta < 0$ ), the desired “smaller” root is  $1/(\Delta+(\Delta^2+1)^{1/2})$  (*resp.*,  $1/(\Delta-(\Delta^2+1)^{1/2})$ ).
- This root can be rewritten as follows:

$$t = \frac{\text{sign}(\Delta)}{|\Delta| + \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}} \quad \text{and} \quad |t| \leq 1$$

- Since  $|t| \leq 1$ , the angle of rotation is in  $[-\pi/4, \pi/4]$ .
- After  $t$  (*i.e.*,  $\tan(\theta)$ ) is computed,  $C = \cos(\theta)$  and  $S = \sin(\theta)$  are the following

$$C = \cos(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad S = \sin(\theta) = C \times t$$

# Classic Jacobi Method: 12/13

Compute  $\Delta$  and  $t$ , and obtain  $C=\cos(\theta)$  and  $S=\sin(\theta)$

```
! This section computes C and S
!   From a(p,p), a(q,q) and a(p,q)
t = 1.0
IF (a(p,p) /= a(q,q)) THEN
  D = (a(q,q)-a(p,p))/(2*a(p,q))
  t = SIGN(1/(ABS(D)+SQRT(D*D+1)), D)
END IF
C = 1/SQRT(1+t*t)
S = C*t
```

In Fortran 90, **SIGN(a, b)** means using the sign of **b** with the absolute value of **a**. Thus, **SIGN(10, -1)** and **SIGN(-15, 1)** yield **-10** and **15**, respectively. <sup>46</sup>

# Classic Jacobi Method: 13/13

- Finally, the classic Jacobi method is shown below.
- Scan the upper triangular portion for max  $|a(p, q)|$ , where  $p < q$ .
- A  $(p, q)$ -rotation based on the values of  $C$  and  $S$  sets  $a(p, q)$  and  $a(q, p)$  to zero.

## Classic Jacobi Method

```
DO
  Find the max  $|a(p, q)|$  entry,  $p < q$ 
  IF ( $|a(p, q)| < Tol$ ) EXIT
  From  $a(p, p)$ ,  $a(q, q)$  and  $a(p, q)$  compute  $t$ 
  From  $t$  compute  $C$  and  $S$ 
  Perform a  $(p, q)$ -rotation with  $a(p, q) = a(q, p) = 0$ 
END DO
```

# Computation Example: 1/5

- Consider the following symmetric matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 6 & -6 \\ 6 & 16 & 2 \\ -6 & 2 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The largest element is on row 1 and column 2.
- Since  $a_{1,1}=12$ ,  $a_{1,2}=6$  and  $a_{2,2}=16$ , we have  $\Delta = (a_{2,2}-a_{1,1})/(2a_{1,2})=0.333333334$ , and  $t = 0.7207582$ .
- From  $t = 0.7207582$ , we have  $C = 0.8112422$  and  $S = 0.5847103$ .

$$R_{1,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8112422 & 0.5847103 \\ -0.5847103 & 0.8112422 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



## Computation Example: 2/5

- The new  $A = R_{1,2}^T \cdot A \cdot R_{1,2}$  is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 7.6754445 & \text{eliminated } 0.0 & -6.036874 \\ 0.0 & 20.32456 & -1.885777 \\ -6.036874 & -1.885777 & 16.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The off-diagonal entry with the largest absolute value is  $a_{1,3} = -6.036874$ .
- Since  $a_{1,1} = 7.6754445$ ,  $a_{1,3} = -6.036874$  and  $a_{3,3} = 16$ ,  
 $\Delta = (a_{3,3} - a_{1,1}) / (2a_{1,3}) = -0.68947533$ ,  $t = -0.5251753$ ,  
 $C = 0.885334$ , and  $S = -0.4645553$ .

# Computation Example: 3/5

- The rotation matrix  $R_{1,3}$  is:

$$R_{1,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.885334 & -0.46495553 \\ & 1 \\ 0.46495553 & 0.885334 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The new matrix  $A = R_{1,3}^T \cdot A \cdot R_{1,3}$  is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.505028 & \text{was 0!} & \text{eliminated} \\ -0.8768026 & & 0.0 \\ 20.32456 & & -1.669543 \\ & & 19.17042 \end{bmatrix}$$

eliminate this one in the next iteration

## Computation Example: 4/5

- The largest entry is  $a_{2,3} = -1.669543$ .
- Since  $a_{2,2} = 20.32456$ ,  $a_{2,3} = -1.669543$ ,  
 $a_{3,3} = 19.17042$ ,  $\Delta = (a_{3,3} - a_{2,2}) / (2a_{2,3}) = 0.34564623$ ,  
and  $t = 0.71240422$ .
- Therefore,  $C = 0.81445753$  and  $S = 0.58022314$ .
- The new rotation matrix  $R_{2,3}$  is:

$$R_{2,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 0.81445753 & 0.58022314 \\ & -0.58022314 & 0.81445753 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Computation Example: 5/5

- The new matrix  $A = R_{2,3}^T \cdot A \cdot R_{2,3}$  is: They were 0!

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.505028 & -0.7141185 & -0.5087411 \\ & 21.51395 & 0.0 \\ & & 17.98103 \end{bmatrix}$$

eliminated

- With 5 more iterations, the new matrix  $A$  becomes

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.455996 & & \\ & 21.54401 & \\ & & 18.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The eigenvalues are **4.455996, 21.54401, 18.0**
- In hand calculation of small matrices, direct matrix multiplication may be more convenient!



# Where Are the Eigenvectors: 2/6

- Two more simple facts:  $(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{-1}$  and  $(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \cdot \mathbf{A}^T$ .

- Jacobi method uses a sequence of rotation matrices  $\mathbf{R}_1, \mathbf{R}_2, \dots, \mathbf{R}_m$  to transform the given matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  to a diagonal form  $\mathbf{D}$ :

$$\mathbf{R}_m^T \cdot \left( \mathbf{R}_{m-1}^T \cdot \left( \dots \left( \mathbf{R}_2^T \cdot \left( \mathbf{R}_1^T \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{R}_1 \right) \cdot \mathbf{R}_2 \right) \dots \right) \cdot \mathbf{R}_{m-1} \right) \cdot \mathbf{R}_m = \mathbf{D}$$

- The above is equivalent to:

$$\left( \mathbf{R}_m^T \cdot \mathbf{R}_{m-1}^T \dots \mathbf{R}_2^T \cdot \mathbf{R}_1^T \right) \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \left( \mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{R}_2 \dots \mathbf{R}_{m-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_m \right) = \mathbf{D}$$

- Since  $(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \cdot \mathbf{A}^T$ , we have the following:

$$\left( \mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{R}_2 \cdot \dots \cdot \mathbf{R}_{m-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_m \right)^T \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \left( \mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{R}_2 \cdot \dots \cdot \mathbf{R}_{m-1} \cdot \mathbf{R}_m \right) = \mathbf{D}$$

## Where Are the Eigenvectors: 3/6

● Let  $V = R_1 \cdot R_2 \cdot \dots \cdot R_m$ . Then, we have  $V^T \cdot A \cdot V = D$ .

● We shall show  $V^{-1} = V^T$ . Since  $R^{-1} = R^T$  and

$$V^{-1} = (R_1 \cdot R_2 \cdot \dots \cdot R_m)^{-1} = R_m^{-1} \cdot \dots \cdot R_2^{-1} \cdot R_1^{-1}$$

we have

$$V^{-1} = R_m^{-1} \cdot \dots \cdot R_2^{-1} \cdot R_1^{-1} = R_m^T \cdot \dots \cdot R_2^T \cdot R_1^T = (R_1 \cdot R_2 \cdot \dots \cdot R_m)^T = V^T$$

● Therefore,  $V^{-1} \cdot A \cdot V = D$  holds.

● Multiplying both sides by  $V$  yields  $A \cdot V = V \cdot D$ .

$$V^{-1} \cdot A \cdot V = D$$

$$V \cdot (V^{-1} \cdot A \cdot V) = V \cdot D$$

$$A \cdot V = V \cdot D$$

# Where Are the Eigenvectors: 4/6

- Let the column vectors of  $\mathbf{V}$  be  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1 | \mathbf{v}_2 | \mathbf{v}_3 | \dots | \mathbf{v}_n]$ ).
- Then,  $\mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{D} = [d_1 \mathbf{v}_1 | d_2 \mathbf{v}_2 | \dots | d_n \mathbf{v}_n]$  and  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{v}_i = d_i \mathbf{v}_i$ , and the eigenvectors are the columns of  $\mathbf{V}$ !

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \mathbf{V}_1 \\
 \mathbf{V}_2 \\
 \vdots \\
 \mathbf{V}_{n-1} \\
 \mathbf{V}_n
 \end{array}
 \left[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
 \mathbf{v}_{1,1} & \mathbf{v}_{1,2} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_{1,n-1} & \mathbf{v}_{1,n} \\
 \mathbf{v}_{2,1} & \mathbf{v}_{2,2} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_{2,n-1} & \mathbf{v}_{2,n} \\
 \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
 \mathbf{v}_{n-1,1} & \mathbf{v}_{n-1,2} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_{n-1,n-1} & \mathbf{v}_{n-1,n} \\
 \mathbf{v}_{n,1} & \mathbf{v}_{n,2} & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_{n,n-1} & \mathbf{v}_{n,n}
 \end{array} \right] \cdot \begin{array}{c}
 \left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
 d_1 & & & \\
 & d_2 & & \mathbf{0} \\
 & & \ddots & \\
 \mathbf{0} & & & d_{n-1} \\
 & & & & d_n
 \end{array} \right]
 \end{array} = [d_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 | d_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 | \cdots | d_n \cdot \mathbf{v}_n]$$

$\mathbf{V}$ 
 $\mathbf{D}$



# Where Are the Eigenvectors: 5/6

- The following shows an *inefficient* way using matrix multiplication.

```
! A is the input n×n symmetric matrix
V = the identify matrix
DO
  find the largest off-diagonal entry |a(p,q)|
  IF (|a(p,q)| < Tol) EXIT
  compute  $\Delta$ , t, S and C
  update matrix a(*,*)
  V = V*R ! eigenvectors
END DO
! Eigenvalues are the diagonal entries of A
! Eigenvectors are the columns of V
```

# Where Are the Eigenvectors: 6/6

- The computation of  $V = V \cdot R$  is similar to  $A \cdot R$ !
- $V = [v_{i,j}]$  is not symmetric, and two *complete* columns (*i.e.*, columns  $p$  and  $q$ ) must be updated.

$$V \cdot R = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} \begin{array}{c} v_{1,p}C - v_{1,q}S \\ v_{2,p}C - v_{2,q}S \\ \vdots \\ v_{p,p}C - v_{p,q}S \\ \vdots \\ v_{q,p}C - v_{q,q}S \\ \vdots \\ v_{n-1,p}C - v_{n-1,q}S \\ v_{n,p}C - v_{n,q}S \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} v_{1,p}S + v_{1,q}C \\ v_{2,p}S + v_{2,q}C \\ \vdots \\ v_{p,p}S + v_{p,q}C \\ \vdots \\ v_{q,p}S + v_{q,q}C \\ \vdots \\ v_{n-1,p}S + v_{n-1,q}C \\ v_{n,p}S + v_{n,q}C \end{array} \\ \hline \text{col } p & \text{col } q \end{array} \right]$$

$v_{i,j}$        $\dots$        $v_{i,j}$

# Example-Continued: 1/4

- **The input matrix is:**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & \textcircled{6} & -6 \\ 6 & 16 & 2 \\ -6 & 2 & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Since  $a_{1,2}$  is the largest, rotation matrix  $R_{1,2}$  is:**

$$R_{1,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8112422 & 0.5847103 & \\ -0.5847103 & 0.8112422 & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Matrix  $V$ , approx. eigenvectors, is  $I \cdot R_{1,2}$**

$$V = I \cdot R_{1,2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8112422 & 0.5847103 & \\ -0.5847103 & 0.8112422 & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example-Continued: 2/4

- Now, the new matrix **A** is:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 7.6754445 & 0.0 & -6.036874 \\ 0 & 20.32456 & -1.885777 \\ -6.036874 & -1.885777 & 16.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The largest off-diagonal is  $a_{1,3}$  and  $R_{1,3}$  is

$$R_{1,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.885334 & -0.46495553 \\ & 1 \\ 0.46495553 & 0.885334 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Therefore, new approx. eigenvectors matrix **V** is

$$V = V \cdot R_{1,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7182204 & 0.5847103 & -0.3771916 \\ -0.5176639 & 0.8112422 & 0.27186423 \\ 0.4649555 & 0 & 0.885334 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example-Continued: 3/4

- For iteration 3, matrix **A** is:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.505028 & -0.8768026 & 0.0 \\ & 20.32456 & -1.669543 \\ & & 19.17042 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Since  $a_{2,3}$  is the largest,  **$R_{2,3}$**  is:

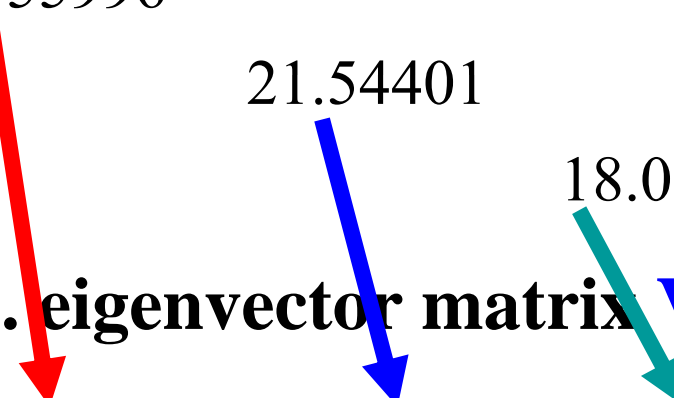
$$R_{2,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 0.81445753 & 0.58022314 \\ & -0.58022314 & 0.81445753 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The approx. eigenvector matrix **V** is:

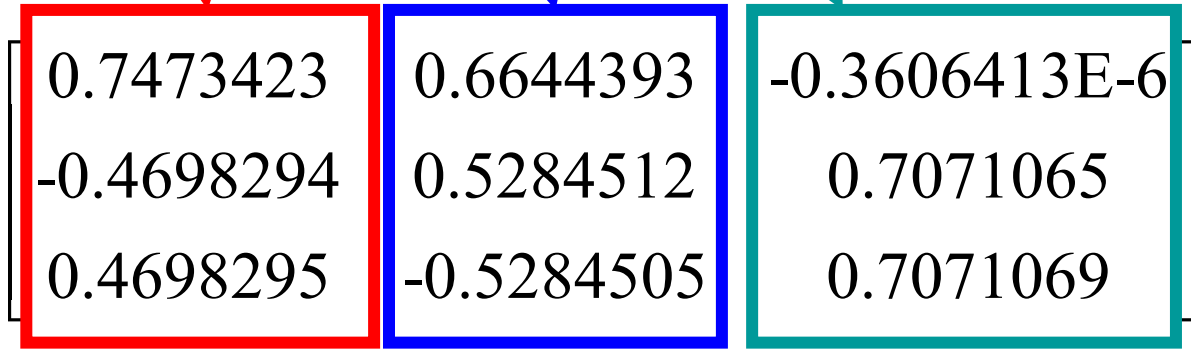
$$V = V \cdot R_{2,3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7182204 & 0.6950770 & 0.03205594 \\ -0.5176639 & 0.5029804 & 0.6921234 \\ 0.4649555 & -0.5136913 & 0.7210670 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example-Continued: 4/4

- Five more iterations yields the new matrix **A**:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.455996 & & \\ & 21.54401 & \\ & & 18.0 \end{bmatrix}$$


- The approx. eigenvector matrix **V** is:

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7473423 & 0.6644393 & -0.3606413E-6 \\ -0.4698294 & 0.5284512 & 0.7071065 \\ 0.4698295 & -0.5284505 & 0.7071069 \end{bmatrix}$$


**Normally eigenvalues are sorted and eigenvectors are normalized**

# Convergence of Jacobi Method

- The classic Jacobi method always converges.
- Let  $S(\mathbf{A})$  be the sum of squares of all off-diagonal entries, where  $\mathbf{A}=[a_{i,j}]$  is a  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix:

$$S(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n a_{i,j}^2 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{i,j}^2$$

- Then, the sequence of values  $S(\mathbf{A}_k)$  *decreases monotonically to zero*, where  $\mathbf{A}_k$  is the result of the  $k$ -th rotation.
- This means eventually all off-diagonal entries will become zeros (*i.e.*, diagonal).

## Two Improvements: 1/4

- The following two useful improvements are due to H. Rutishauser.
- The following formula was used to compute  $t = \tan(\theta)$ :

$$t = \frac{\text{sign}(\Delta)}{|\Delta| + \sqrt{\Delta^2 + 1}} \quad \text{where} \quad \Delta = \frac{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}}{2a_{p,q}}$$

- If  $\Delta$  is large,  $\Delta^2$  may cause overflow.
- To avoid overflow, one may set  $t$  to  $1/(2\Delta)$  if  $\Delta$  is large because  $\Delta^2 + 1$  is close to  $\Delta^2$ .
- How large is large enough so that  $\Delta^2$  will not overflow? Exercise!



## Two Improvements: 2/4

- The updating formulas for the new  $a_{p,p}$  and  $a_{q,q}$ , and the formulas for rows  $p$  and  $q$  and columns  $p$  and  $q$  of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  can be modified so that they are computationally more stable than the original.
- **Reminder:** The following formulas were used:

$$\frac{C^2 - S^2}{2C \times S} = \cot(2\theta) = \frac{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}}{2a_{p,q}}$$

$$C = \cos(\theta) \quad S = \sin(\theta) \quad t = \frac{S}{C} = \tan(\theta)$$

## Two Improvements: 3/4

- Simplify the formula for the new  $a_{p,p}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}A'_{p,p} &= a_{p,p} C^2 - 2a_{p,q} C \times S + a_{q,q} S^2 \\&= a_{p,p} (1 - S^2) - 2a_{p,q} C \times S + a_{q,q} S^2 \\&= a_{p,p} + S^2 (a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}) - 2a_{p,q} C \times S \\&= a_{p,p} + S^2 \left( 2a_{p,q} \frac{C^2 - S^2}{2C \times S} \right) - 2a_{p,q} C \times S \\&= a_{p,p} - ta_{p,q}\end{aligned}$$

- The one for  $a_{q,q}$  is similar:

$$A'_{q,q} = a_{q,q} + ta_{p,q}$$

$$\frac{C^2 - S^2}{2C \times S} = \frac{a_{q,q} - a_{p,p}}{2a_{p,q}}$$

## Two Improvements: 4/4

- Columns  $p$  and  $q$  of  $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{V}' = \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{R}$  (eigenvector matrix) were updated as follows:

$$A'_{i,p} = C \times a_{i,p} - S \times a_{i,q} \quad \text{and} \quad A'_{i,q} = S \times a_{i,p} + C \times a_{i,q}$$

- Let  $\tau = \tan(\theta/2) = S/(1+C)$ .

- Note the following trigonometry identity:

$$\tau = \tan(\theta/2) = \frac{S}{1+C} = \frac{1-C}{S} \quad \Rightarrow \quad C = 1 - S \times \tau$$

- Now, we have

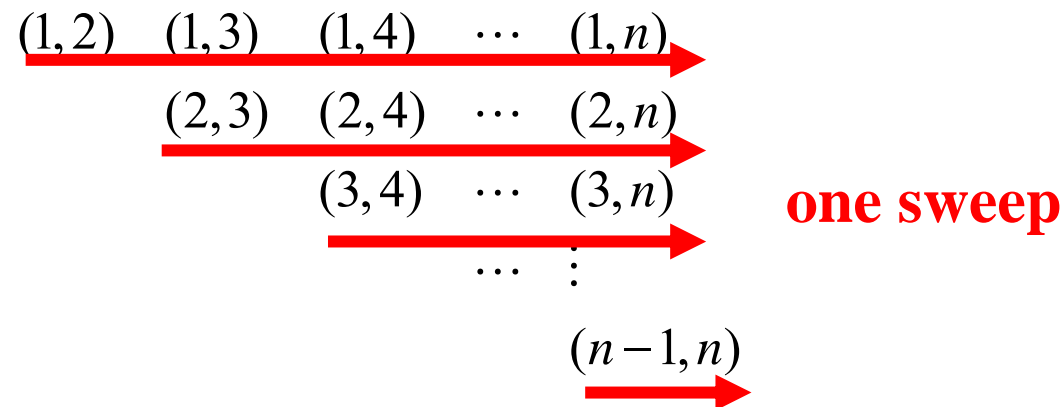
$$\begin{aligned} A'_{i,p} &= C \times a_{i,p} - S \times a_{i,q} & A'_{i,q} &= S \times a_{i,p} + C \times a_{i,q} \\ &= (1 - S \times \tau) a_{i,p} - S \times a_{i,q} & &= S \times a_{i,p} + (1 - S \times \tau) \times a_{i,q} \\ &= a_{i,p} - S (a_{i,q} + \tau \times a_{i,p}) & &= a_{i,q} + S (a_{i,p} - \tau \times a_{i,q}) \end{aligned}$$

# Cyclic Jacobi Methods: 1/5

- To find the max entry, the upper diagonal  $n(n-1)/2$  entries must be scanned.
- However, performing a rotation only requires  $4n$  multiplication (*i.e.*, updating two columns).
- Is this “search” worthwhile? In other word, would this search for the max entry requires more time than updating the matrix?
- What if we forget about the search and just perform rotations in some order?
- *Cyclic Jacobi methods* just does that.

# Cyclic Jacobi Methods: 2/5

- A version of cyclic Jacobi methods scans the matrix in row order:



- If the encountered entry  $|a_{p,q}| \geq \varepsilon$ , do a  $(p,q)$ -rotation to eliminate it.
- A complete round is called a *sweep*.
- If a sweep does not eliminate any entry, all entries are small enough and stop!

# Cyclic Jacobi Methods: 3/5

- Here is a template of this special cyclic method:

```
DO
  NO_change = .TRUE.           one sweep
  DO p = 1, n-1
    DO q = p+1, n
      IF (ABS(a(p,q)) >= Tol) THEN
        NO_change = .FALSE.
        perform a (p,q)-rotation
        update eigenvectors
      END IF
    END DO
  END DO
  IF (NO_change) EXIT
END DO
```

## Cyclic Jacobi Methods: 4/5

- This cyclic Jacobi method converges, and the sum of squares of off-diagonal entries  $S(\mathbf{A}_k)$  is a monotonic, *non-increasing* sequence.
- **Observation:** Since  $S(\mathbf{A}_k)$  is the sum of squares of all off-diagonal entries, if it decreases to zero all off-diagonal entries should be even smaller!
- Therefore,  $S(\mathbf{A}_k)$  can be used as a tolerance.
- Instead of recomputing  $S(\mathbf{A}_k)$  for each  $(p,q)$ -rotation, we may update it after each sweep!

# Cyclic Jacobi Methods: 5/5

- Here is another, better version:

```
DO
  S = 0
  DO p = 1, n-1
    DO q = p+1, n
      S = S + a(p,q)**2
    END DO
  END DO
  IF (2*S < Tol**2) EXIT
  perform a sweep without
  checking tolerance
END DO
```

Since this double **DO** only goes through the upper triangular part, **S** should be doubled to compute  $S(A)$ .

... This actually means

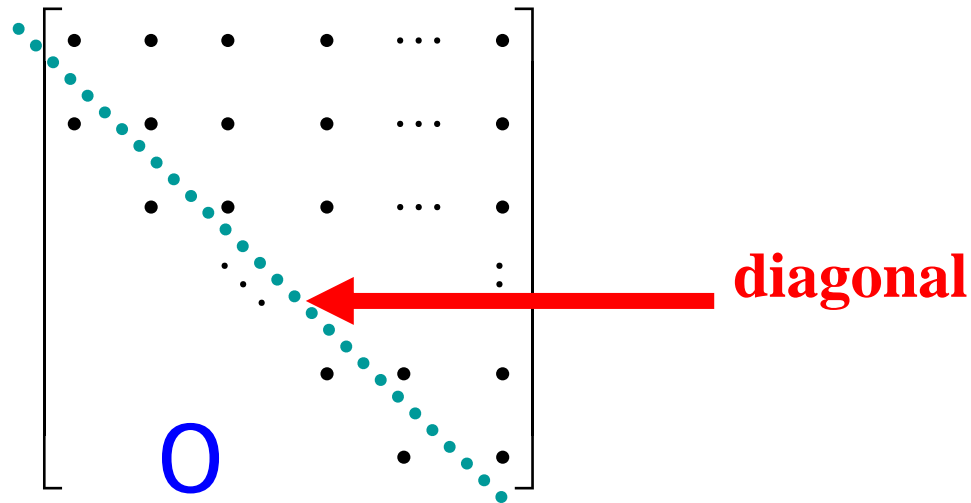
$$\sqrt{S(A)} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n a_{i,j}^2} < \varepsilon$$





## A Few Notes: 2/3

- **Methods are available to reduce a general matrix to the Hessenberg form.**



- **Then, other methods are used to find eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix in Hessenberg form.**

## A Few Notes: 3/3

- One of the most powerful and recommended methods is the QR algorithm, which can be used with tridiagonal and Hessenberg forms.
- However, Jacobi's method is more accurate than QR!<sup>[1]</sup>
- Check <http://www.netlib.org/lapack/> for free linear algebra Fortran programs.
- You may also find useful programs in *Numerical Recipes* by Press, et al. There are commercial products such as the IMSL and NAG libraries, and Matlab.

[1] J. Demmel and K. Veselić, Jacobi's method is more accurate than QR, *SIAM J. Matrix Anal. Appl.*, Vol. 13(1992), No. 4(Oct), pp. 1204-1245.

**The End**