# Lecture 15: Eigenvectors / Eigenvalues - Iterative Methods

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#### Outline

- Inverse iteration
  - Shifting Eigenvalues
- 2 Rayleigh Quotient iteration
- Omputational Complexity
- QR Iteration

- With the power iteration we can only recover  $q_1$ .
- What about other eigenvectors? We can find another eigenvector using the same idea of repeatedly multiplying a starting vector by a matrix.
- The inverse iteration can recover the eigenvector q<sub>n</sub> associated with the **smallest** magnitude eigenvalue.

- We are assuming throughout this lecture that A is invertible.
- This is OK, because our assumption from last time, that A is SPD, carries on throughout this lecture.

- The inverse iteration instead multiplies the starting vector v<sup>(0)</sup> by A<sup>-1</sup>.
- Note that if

$$\begin{array}{rcl} Ax &=& \lambda x, \, {\rm then} \\ x &=& \lambda A^{-1}x, \, {\rm and \ so} \\ \frac{1}{\lambda}x &=& A^{-1}x, \, {\rm assuming} \, \, \lambda \neq 0. \end{array}$$

• Therefore, the eigenvalues of  $A^{-1}$  are the reciprocals of the eigenvalues of A:

If 
$$\Lambda(A) = \{\lambda_i\}$$
, then  $\Lambda(A^{-1}) = \left\{\frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right\}$ .

- We can therefore use this to find  $q_n$  instead of  $q_1$ .
- The proof follows the same steps as the one for the power iteration.

Proof. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1}v^{(0)} &= \frac{c_1q_1}{\lambda_1} + \frac{c_2q_2}{\lambda_2} + \dots + \frac{c_nq_n}{\lambda_n} \\ A^{-k}v^{(0)} &= \frac{c_1q_1}{(\lambda_1)^k} + \frac{c_2q_2}{(\lambda_2)^k} + \dots + \frac{c_nq_n}{(\lambda_n)^k} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\lambda_n)^k} \left( c_1q_1 \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1}\right)^k + c_2q_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_2}\right)^k + \dots + c_nq_n \right) \end{aligned}$$

For large k,

$$A^{-k}v^{(0)}\approx c_n\left(\frac{1}{\lambda_n}\right)^k q_n.$$

- Since the eigenvectors are orthonormal, the scale factor doesn't matter.
- We can normalize to find  $q_n$  as  $q_n o rac{A^{-k}v^{(0)}}{\|A^{-k}v^{(0)}\|}$  as  $k o \infty.$
- This is the eigenvector for the the smallest magnitude eigenvalue.

- Note we don't actually form  $A^{-1}$ ; we instead solve a linear system.
- The inverse iteration pseudocode is given in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 (Basic) Inverse Iteration Algorithm

$$v^{(0)} = \text{ initial guess, s.t. } ||v^{(0)}|| = 1$$
  
for  $k = 1, 2, ...$   
 $w = A^{-1}v^{(k-1)}$   $\triangleright$  Actually, solve a linear system:  
 $v^{(k)} = \frac{w}{\|w\|}$   
 $\lambda^{(k)} = (v^{(k)})^T Av^{(k)}$   $\triangleright$  Rayleigh Quotient  
end for

- The inverse iteration still only allows us compute one eigenvector,  $q_n$ .
- "Shifting" the eigenvalues will let us find more.
- The idea is to use the fact that the smallest possible magnitude eigenvalue is zero!
- We then try to modify A so the "target" eigenvector has the smallest magnitude eigenvalue near zero.
- Therefore, the inverse iteration will find this target eigenvector.

- Consider  $B = A \mu I$ , with  $\mu \neq 0$  not an eigenvalue.
- If A's eigenvalues/vectors are known, what are B's?

Since

$$Ax = \lambda x, \text{ we have}$$

$$Ax - \mu x = \lambda x - \mu x, \text{ and so}$$

$$\underbrace{(A - \mu I)}_{B} x = (\lambda - \mu) x.$$

- Therefore, for the matrix B we have that the
  - eigenvectors are the same,
  - ② eigenvalues are <u>shifted</u>:  $\lambda_j \mu$  for  $\lambda_j \in \Lambda(A)$ .

- If we (somehow) expect λ<sub>j</sub> close to μ, then λ<sub>j</sub> − μ is the smallest magnitude eigenvalue of B.
- We can then apply the inverse iteration to find its eigenvector  $q_j$ .
- This is an advantage of the inverse iteration over the power iteration.
- With the inverse iteration we can select the specific eigenvector to recover, if we can choose  $\mu$  close to the corresponding  $\lambda_j$ .

• The inverse iteration has linear convergence behaviour, as stated in the next theorem.

Theorem 1 (Inverse iteration, with shifting, convergence) Suppose  $\lambda_J$  is the closest eigenvalue to  $\mu$  and  $\lambda_L$  is the next closest, or  $|\mu - \lambda_J| < |\mu - \lambda_L| \le |\mu - \lambda_j|$ , for  $j \ne J$ , and  $q_J^T v^{(0)} \ne 0$ . Then

$$\left\| \mathbf{v}^{(k)} - (\pm q_J) \right\| = O\left( \left| \frac{\mu - \lambda_J}{\mu - \lambda_L} \right|^k \right), \text{ and } |\lambda^{(k)} - \lambda_J| = O\left( \left| \frac{\mu - \lambda_J}{\mu - \lambda_L} \right|^{2k} \right)$$

as  $k \to \infty$ .

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- So convergence depends on ratios of **shifted** eigenvalues rather than original eigenvalues.
- If we unluckily choose v<sup>(0)</sup> orthogonal to q<sub>J</sub>, so that q<sub>J</sub><sup>T</sup> v<sup>(0)</sup> = 0, we will not get convergence; instead we will get to max-iterations, without any answer. In this case, we can make a different guess for v<sup>(0)</sup>, and try again.

Algorithm 2 gives pseudocode for the shifted inverse iteration.

Algorithm 2 (Shifted) Inverse Iteration Algorithm

For given 
$$\mu$$
:  
 $v^{(0)} = \text{ initial guess, s.t. } ||v^{(0)}|| = 1$   
for  $k = 1, 2, ...$   
Solve  $(A - \mu I)w = v^{(k-1)}$   
 $v^{(k)} = \frac{w}{||w||}$   
 $\lambda^{(k)} = (v^{(k)})^T Av^{(k)}$   $\triangleright$  Rayleigh Quotient  
end for

- The shifted inverse iteration needs an estimate of the eigenvalue λ<sub>i</sub> to use for μ.
- Observe the following:
  - Rayleigh quotient, r(v), estimates an eigenvalue given its approximate eigenvector v (with quadratic convergence).
  - Inverse iteration estimates an eigenvector given the approximate eigenvalue µ (with linear convergence, by Theorem [Inverse Iteration Convergence]).
- The Rayleigh quotient iteration combines the two!
- It is the inverse iteration that updates  $\mu$  with the latest guess for  $\lambda_j$  at each step (see figure below).



Pseudocode for the Rayleigh quotient iteration is given in Algorithm 3.

Algorithm 3 Rayleigh Quotient Iteration Algorithm

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}^{(0)} &= \text{ initial guess, s.t. } \|\mathbf{v}^{(0)}\| = 1\\ \lambda^{(0)} &= \left(\mathbf{v}^{(0)}\right)^T A \mathbf{v}^{(0)} \left(=\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{v}^{(0)})\right) & \triangleright \text{ Rayleigh Quotient}\\ \text{for } k &= 1, 2, \dots\\ \text{Solve } (A - \lambda^{(k-1)}I) \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}^{(k-1)} & \triangleright \text{ Using current } \lambda \text{ estimate}\\ & \triangleright \text{ instead of fixed initial } \mu\\ \mathbf{v}^{(k)} &= \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}\\ \lambda^{(k)} &= \left(\mathbf{v}^{(k)}\right)^T A \mathbf{v}^{(k)} & \triangleright \text{ Rayleigh Quotient}\\ \text{end for} \end{aligned}$$

• The convergence when combining the Rayliegh quotient and the inverse iteration (i.e., Rayliegh quotient iteration) is cubic.

Theorem 2 (Rayleigh quotient iteration convergence) RQI converges cubically for "almost all" starting vectors  $v^{(0)}$ . That is,

$$\left\| v^{(k+1)} - (\pm q_J) 
ight\| = O\left( \left\| v^{(k)} - (\pm q_J) 
ight\|^3 
ight),$$

and

$$|\lambda^{(k+1)} - \lambda_J| = O\left(|\lambda^{(k)} - \lambda_J|^3
ight).$$

 In practice, each iteration roughly triples the number of digits of accuracy.

#### Remarks:

**1** Note that "almost all" includes at least  $q_J^T v^{(0)} \neq 0$ .

• For example, consider this matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 21 & 7 & -1 \\ 5 & 7 & 7 \\ 4 & -4 & 20 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• The estimated eigenvalue with the Rayleigh quotient iteration is ( $\lambda^{(0)}$  as initial guess)

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \lambda^{(0)} &=& 22 & v^{(0)} &=& \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{T}, \\ \lambda^{(1)} &=& 24.0802 & v^{(1)} &=& \begin{bmatrix} 0.8655 & 0.3619 & 0.3462 \end{bmatrix}^{T}, \\ \lambda^{(2)} &=& 24.0013 & v^{(2)} &=& \begin{bmatrix} -0.8169 & -0.4079 & -0.4077 \end{bmatrix}^{T}, \\ \lambda^{(3)} &=& 24.00000017 & v^{(3)} &=& \begin{bmatrix} 0.8164 & 0.4082 & 0.4082 \end{bmatrix}^{T}. \end{array}$$

#### **Remarks:**

It is weird, but correct (verify it for yourself), that we get the negative of the previous and future eigenvectors, as v<sup>(2)</sup>.

# Eigenvectors / Eigenvalues - Iterative Methods - Computational Complexity

The following gives the operation counts for each of the iterative methods discussed so far.

- **Power iteration**: each step involved  $Av^{(k-1)} \rightarrow O(n^2)$  flops.
- Inverse iteration: each step requires solving  $(A \mu I)w = v^{(k-1)}$ . This would be  $O(n^3)$  per step, however, we can pre-factor into L and U at the start (Recall, at cost:  $\frac{2}{3}n^3 + O(n^2)$ ). Then we just do forward/backward solves for each iteration. Hence, we have  $O(n^2)$  flops per step.
- Rayleigh quotient iteration: Matrix  $A \lambda^{(k-1)}I$  changes at each step so we can not pre-factor. Therefore, for RQI we have  $O(n^3)$  flops per iteration.
- For all three of the methods, if A is tridiagonal the operation counts reduce to O(n) flops.

- In the previous sections we looked at the power, inverse, and Rayleigh quotient iterations for finding a single eigenvector/eigenvalue.
- Our next goal is to find more than one eigenvector/eigenvalue pair at a time.
- First some definitions are needed.

Definition 4.1

Matrices A and B are similar if  $B = X^{-1}AX$  for some non-singular X.

Definition 4.2 If  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is nonsingular, then  $A \to X^{-1}AX$  is called a similarity transformation of A.

Theorem 3

If matrices A and B are similar, then they have the same characteristic polynomial, and hence the same eigenvalues.

Proof.

See Lecture Notes.

- The idea is to apply a sequence of similarity transformations to A that converge to a **diagonal** matrix, which has the eigenvalues on its diagonal.
- Recall that we are only considering real symmetric matrices.
- To achieve this we will rely on the QR factorization again.
- Fun Fact: In 2000, the QR Iteration was named one of the top ten most important algorithms for science and engineering developed in the 20th century.

• Given  $A^{(k-1)}$ , we factor it:

$$A^{(k-1)} = Q^{(k)}R^{(k)}$$
, so that  
 $(Q^{(k)})^T A^{(k-1)} = R^{(k)}$ .

• Defining the next matrix,  $A^{(k)}$ , as  $R^{(k)}Q^{(k)}$ , then yields a similarity transformation:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} A^{(k)} & := & R^{(k)}Q^{(k)} \\ & = & \left(Q^{(k)}\right)^T A^{(k-1)}Q^{(k)}. \end{array}$$

• Therefore,  $A^{(k-1)}$  and  $A^{(k)}$  are similar.

The QR Iteration simply repeats this process as shown in Algorithm 4.

Algorithm 4 Basic QR Iteration

$$A^{(0)} = A$$
  
for  $k = 1, 2, ...$   
 $Q^{(k)}R^{(k)} = A^{(k-1)}$   
 $A^{(k)} = R^{(k)}Q^{(k)}$   
end for

 $\triangleright$  Compute QR factors of  $A^{(k-1)}$ ▷ "Recombine" in reverse order

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- That's it!
- We just compute the QR factorization of  $A^{(k-1)} = QR$  and reverse the order to construct  $A^{(k)} = RQ$ .
- Eventually  $A^{(k)}$  becomes diagonal, with the eigenvalues of A on the diagonal.
- As  $A^{(k)}$  converges to eigenvalues on the diagonal (we will justify why this happens in the next lecture), the product of the  $Q^{(k)}$ 's gives the set of eigenvectors.
- That is, denoting

$$\underline{Q}^{(k)} = Q^{(1)}Q^{(2)}\dots Q^{(k)},$$

we have the relation

$$A^{(k)} = \left(\underline{Q}^{(k)}\right)^T A \underline{Q}^{(k)}.$$

Consider the following QR Iteration example with

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = A^{(0)}.$$

One can verify (say using Matlab) that A is SPD. We can use this Matlab code to compute the first three QR iterations:

$$A0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & ; & 1 & 3 & 1 & ; & 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix};$$
  

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q1, R1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{qr}(A0);$$
  

$$A1 = R1 * Q1;$$
  

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q2, R2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{qr}(A1);$$
  

$$A2 = R2 * Q2;$$
  

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q3, R3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{qr}(A2);$$
  

$$A3 = R3 * Q3;$$

Our results are then

$$A^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 4.1667 & 1.0954 & -1.2671 \\ 1.0954 & 2.0000 & 0.0000 \\ -1.2671 & 0.0000 & 2.8333 \end{bmatrix},$$
  

$$A^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 5.0909 & 0.1574 & 0.6232 \\ 0.1574 & 1.8618 & -0.5470 \\ 0.6232 & -0.5470 & 2.0473 \end{bmatrix},$$
  

$$A^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 5.1987 & -0.0759 & -0.2073 \\ -0.0759 & 2.1818 & 0.4966 \\ -0.2073 & 0.4966 & 1.6195 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- The true solution for this matrix is  $\Lambda(A) = \{5.2143, 2.4608, 1.3249\}.$
- At each iteration above the off-diagonals get closer to zero.
- Moreover, the diagonal entires are converging to the true eigenvalues.

#### **Remarks:**

- QR Iteration is mathematically sound, but not good computationally.
- On not implement this algorithm!
- In the next lecture we will discuss an equivalent algorithm that is computationally better.