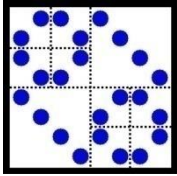


# 8. Computing Eigenvalues in Parallel



## 8.1 Introduction

$x$  eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , iff:  $Ax = \lambda x, x \neq 0$

A spd, there exists an orthogonal basis of eigenvectors  $Au_i = \lambda_i u_i, i=1,2,\dots,n$

$$A = U\Lambda U^T \quad \text{or} \quad AU = U\Lambda$$

$$U = (u_1, \dots, u_n), \quad \Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

The eigenvalues of  $A$  are the zeros of the characteristic polynomial:

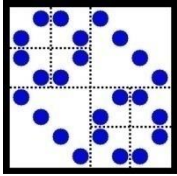
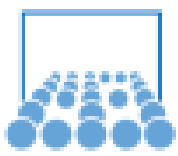
$$p_n(A) = 0 \iff p_n(\lambda_i) = 0 \quad \text{for all eigenvalues } \lambda_i, i=1,2,\dots,n$$

$$\lambda_{\min}(A) \leq r(A) = x^H A x / x^H x \leq \lambda_{\max} : \quad \text{Rayleigh quotient}$$

In general  $U$  may be complex unitary and  $\Lambda$  an upper triangular complex matrix (Schur decomposition)

Allowed operations that do not change the eigenpair:  $Q \cdot A \cdot Q^H$  with unitary  $Q$





# Jacobi Method

Effect of application of J on A on the nondiagonal entries  $\text{off}(A)$ .

Consider  $p, q$  – part of  $J^T A J = B$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{pp} & 0 \\ 0 & b_{qq} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{pp} & b_{pq} \\ b_{qp} & b_{qq} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} a_{pp} & a_{pq} \\ a_{qp} & a_{qq} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}$$

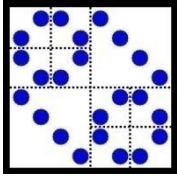
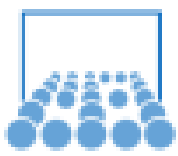
$$b_{pq} = b_{qp} = a_{pq}(c^2 - s^2) + (a_{pp} - a_{qq})cs = 0 \Rightarrow \theta, \cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)$$

J orthogonal  $\rightarrow$  Frobeniusnorm of A and B are the same:

$$a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2 = b_{pp}^2 + b_{qq}^2$$

$$\text{off}^2(B) = \|B\|_F^2 - \sum b_{ii}^2 = \|A\|_F^2 - \sum_{p \neq i \neq q} b_{ii}^2 - (a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2) =$$

$$= \|A\|_F^2 - \sum_{p \neq i \neq q} a_{ii}^2 - (a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2) = \|A\|_F^2 - \sum a_{ii}^2 - 2a_{pq}^2 = \text{off}^2(A) - 2a_{pq}^2 < \text{off}^2(A)$$



# Elimination Sequence

Choose  $p$  and  $q$  such that  $a_{pq}$  is very large (maximum).

Then by  $J^T A J$  the size of the off-diagonal entries is reduced by  $2(a_{pq})^2$ .

Repeat this transformation for next choice of  $p$  and  $q$ :  $A \rightarrow$  diagonal.

Monotonic decreasing sequence.

Different strategies for choosing a sequence of  $p, q$ :

Maximum  $a_{pq}$  optimal, but sequential and expensive!

Cyclic by row:

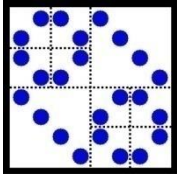
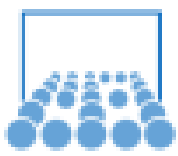
First use  $a_{11}$  to eliminate first row:  $(p, q) = (1, 2), (1, 3), \dots, (1, n)$

Then  $a_{22}$  for second row:  $(p, q) = (2, 3), \dots, (2, n)$

$a_{33}, \dots, a_{n-1, n-1}$

Repeat

Again sequential!



# Jacobi Method in Parallel

Choose sequence  $(p,q)$  such that it allows strong parallelism:

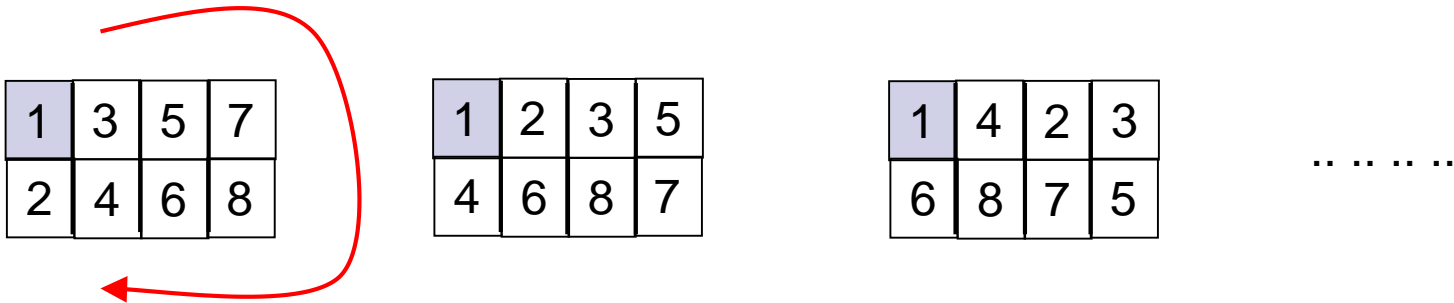
First sweep:  $(p,q) = (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (7,8)$  (in parallel)

Second sweep:  $(p,q) = (1,4), (2,6), (3,8), (5,7)$

Third  $(1,6), (4,8), (2,7), (3,5)$

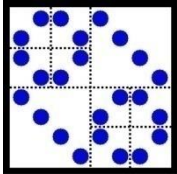
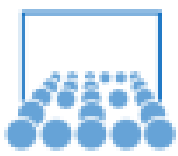
Fourth  $(1,8), (6,7), (4,5), (2,3)$

.. .. .. ..  
 .. .. .. ..



$n-1$  different positions define  $(n-1)n/2$  deleted entries = subdiagonal

Find sequence of partitionings of  $(1, \dots, n)$  in pairs, such that all indices appear with the same frequency.



# Parallel Transformation

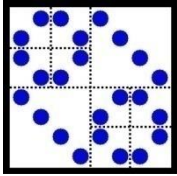
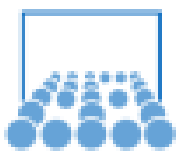
$J^T A$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# \\ \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# \\ + & + & + & + & + & + & + & + \\ + & + & + & + & + & + & + & + \\ \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim \\ \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim \end{pmatrix}$$

$(J^T A) J$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiplications with  $J^T$ , resp.  $J$   
can be done in parallel.



1	3
2	4

*	+	*	*
+	*	*	*
*	*	*	+
*	*	+	*

*	0	*	*
0	*	*	*
*	*	*	0
*	*	0	*

1	2
4	3

*	*	*	+
*	*	+	*
*	+	*	*
+	*	*	*

*	*	*	0
*	*	0	*
*	0	*	*
0	*	*	*

1	4
3	2

*	*	+	*
*	*	*	+
+	*	*	*
*	+	*	*

*	*	0	*
*	*	*	0
0	*	*	*
*	0	*	*

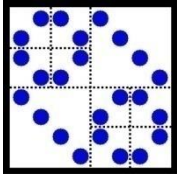
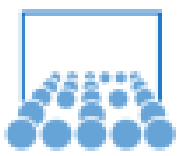
Twelve zeros after three sweeps  $\leftrightarrow$  twelve nondiagonal entries

Repeat until convergence to diagonal matrix.









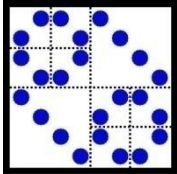
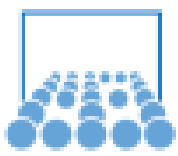
## 8.3 Divide & Conquer for tridiagonal $A=A^T$

A divide and conquer approach for computing eigenvalues of a symmetric tridiagonal matrix  $T$ .

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & & & \\ b_1 & a_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & b_{n-1} & \\ & & b_{n-1} & & a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Idea: Split  $T$  in two tridiagonal matrices  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .  
Compute eigenvalues of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .  
Recover the original eigenvalues of  $T$  as perturbations.

Repeat recursively.



# Splitting of T

Set  $v := (0 \ \dots \ 0 \ 1 \mid \theta \ 0 \ \dots \ 0)^T$

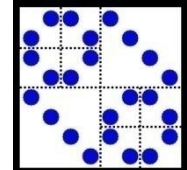
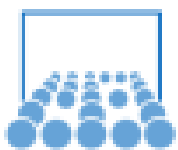
$$\tilde{T} := T - \rho v v^T \quad \text{Rank-1 perturbation of T}$$

Aim: Generate zeros at the sub/superdiagonal entries in the middle of T

$$\tilde{T}(m:m+1, m:m+1) = \begin{pmatrix} a_m & b_m \\ b_m & a_{m+1} \end{pmatrix} - \rho \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \theta \\ \theta & \theta^2 \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_m - \rho & b_m - \rho\theta \\ b_m - \rho\theta & a_{m+1} - \rho\theta^2 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{!}{=} \begin{pmatrix} * & 0 \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rho\theta = b_m \quad \longrightarrow \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} T_1 & 0 \\ 0 & T_2 \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T$$



# Relation between $T$ and $T_1, T_2$

Assume, that we know the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .

How can we get the eigenpairs of  $T$ ?

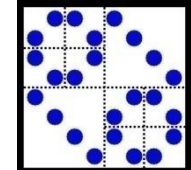
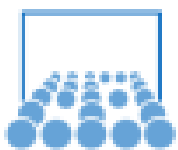
$$T_1 = U_1 \Lambda_1 U_1^T, \quad T_2 = U_2 \Lambda_2 U_2^T, \quad \stackrel{?}{\Rightarrow} \quad T = U \Lambda U^T$$

Note, that  $T$  is a rank-1 perturbation of  $\text{diag}(T_1, T_2)$ .

Recover the original eigenvalues as perturbations of eigenvalues of  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} T_1 & 0 \\ 0 & T_2 \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 \Lambda_1 U_1^T & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \Lambda_2 U_2^T \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \Lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U_1^T & 0 \\ 0 & U_2^T \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} U_1^T & 0 \\ 0 & U_2^T \end{pmatrix} T \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \Lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} + \rho \tilde{v} \tilde{v}^T$$



# Computing the eigenvector

Hence, we need to compute the eigenvalues of a matrix

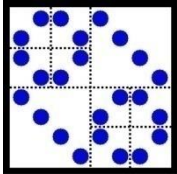
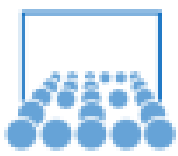
of the form “diagonal + rank-1”:  $D + \rho \tilde{v} \tilde{v}^T$

Let  $\lambda_i$  and  $u_i$  be an eigenpair of  $D + \rho v v^T$ . Then it holds

$$(D + \rho \tilde{v} \tilde{v}^T) u_i = \lambda_i u_i \Leftrightarrow (D - \lambda_i I) u_i + \rho (\tilde{v}^T u_i) \tilde{v} = 0$$

$$u_i = \text{const} \cdot (D - \lambda_i I)^{-1} \tilde{v}$$

Hence, if we know  $\lambda_i$ , then we easily get the eigenvector  $u_i$ .



# Eigenvalues as Zeros

Furthermore, we get the equation

$$\tilde{v}^T (D - \lambda_i I)^{-1} \cdot [(D - \lambda_i I) u_i + \rho(\tilde{v}^T u_i) \tilde{v}] = 0$$

$$\tilde{v}^T u_i + \rho[\tilde{v}^T (D - \lambda_i I)^{-1} \tilde{v}] \cdot [\tilde{v}^T u_i] = 0$$

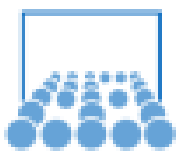
$$f(\lambda) = 1 + \rho[\tilde{v}^T (D - \lambda I)^{-1} \tilde{v}] = 1 + \rho\left(\frac{\tilde{v}_1^2}{d_1 - \lambda} + \dots + \frac{\tilde{v}_n^2}{d_n - \lambda}\right) = 0$$

Use Newton's method, to determine the zeroes of function  $f(\lambda)$

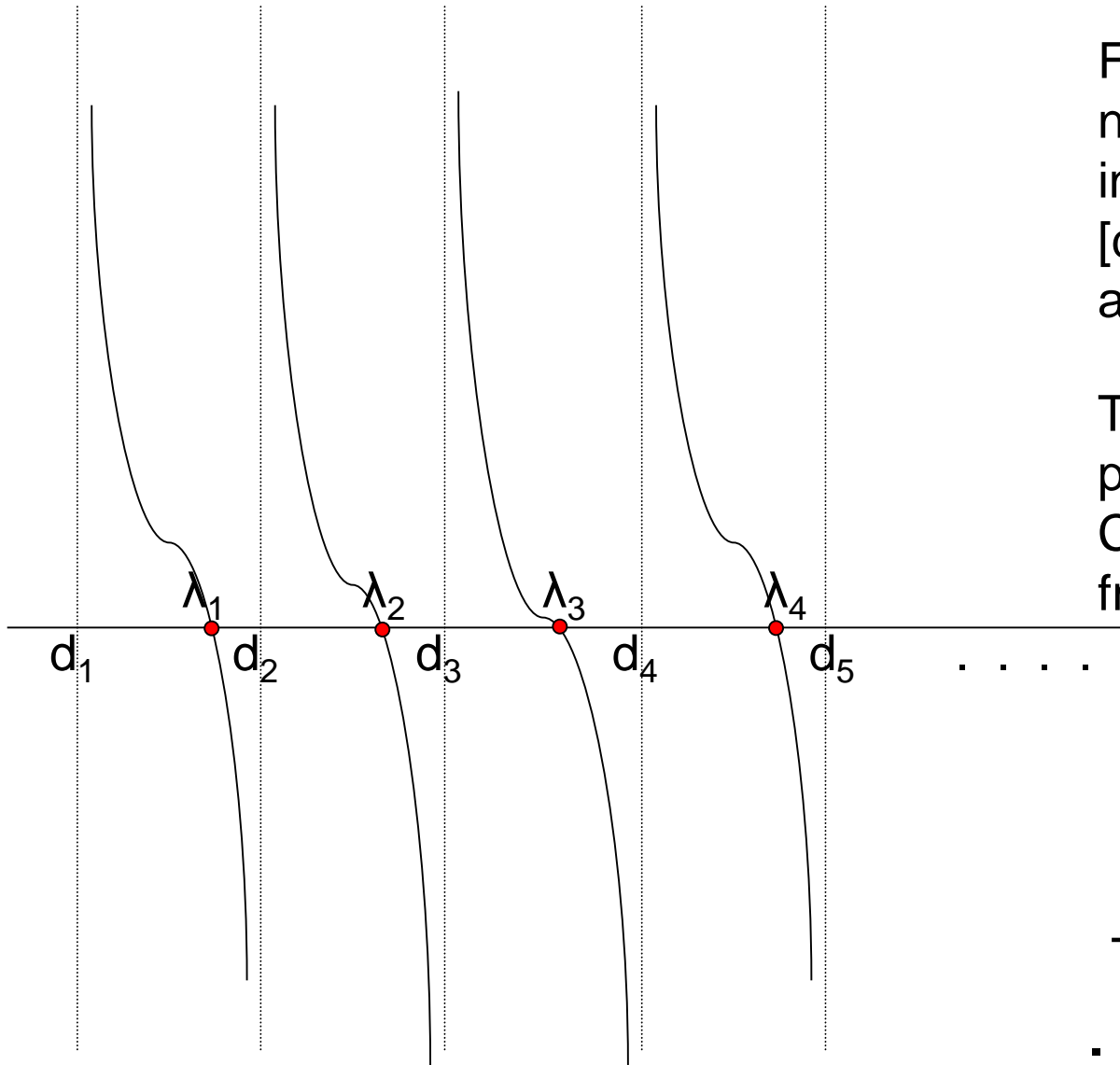
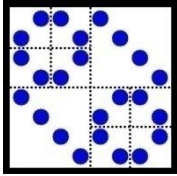
These zeroes are the eigenvalues of  $D + \rho\tilde{v}\tilde{v}^T$

and therefore also of  $T$ .

Repeat recursively for  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  .

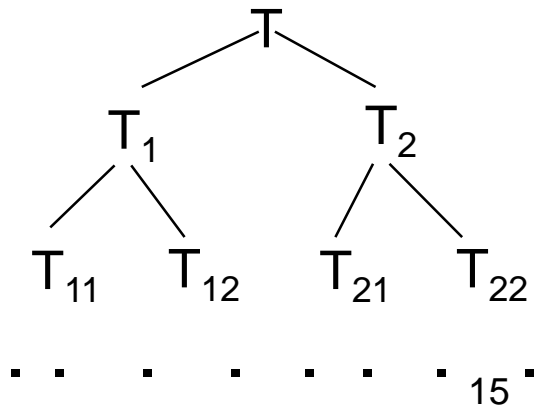


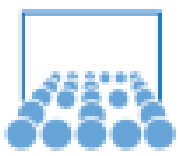
# Zeros and poles of $f(\lambda)$ :



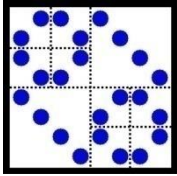
For Newton's method  
n independent iterations  
inside intervals  
 $[d_i, d_{i+1}]$  fully parallel  
and fast converging.

Then compute in  
parallel the eigenvectors.  
Compute eigenvectors  
from T out of blocks.





# 8.4 Algorithms for computing a few eigenpairs:



Vector iteration:

$$x^{(k)} = \frac{A^k x^{(0)}}{\|A^k x^{(0)}\|} \rightarrow v \quad \text{eigenvector to eigenvalue with maximum absolute value!}$$

Easy to parallelize (only  $Ax$ ), but slow convergence! Only  $\lambda_{\max}$ !  
Compare Krylov!

Subspace Iteration: Apply the same idea to set of vectors  $U^{(0)} = (x^{(0)}, \dots, x^{(m)})$

For  $k=0, 1, \dots$ : Replace  $U^{(k)}$  by  $AU^{(k)}$ . Orthogonalize  $AU^{(k)} \rightarrow U^{(k)}$ .

Eigenvectors/values of  $U^{(k)T} A U^{(k)}$ .

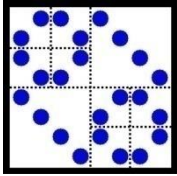
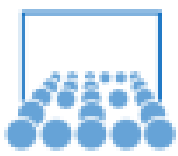
Also possible: Increase  $U$  upto certain limit. Then restart with one vector.

Inverse iteration:

Apply vector iteration on shifted problem  $(A - \sigma I)^{-1}$   
for computing the eigenvector nearest to  $\sigma$ .

Expensive! Ill-conditioned linear system!





# Rayleigh Quotient Iteration

Rayleigh Quotient iteration: Start with vector  $y$  and real  $\rho = y^T A y / y^T y$  and repeat:

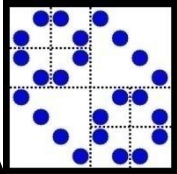
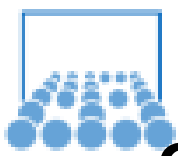
$$v = \frac{y}{\|y\|}; \quad y_{new} = (A - \rho I)^{-1} v; \quad \rho = \rho + \frac{y_{new}^T v}{\|y_{new}\|^2};$$

Inverse Iteration with replacing the shift  $\sigma$  by the newest eigenvalue estimate.

$y$ : new eigenvector estimate  $\rightarrow$  leads to new eigenvalue estimate:

$$\rho_{new} = \frac{y_{new}^T A y_{new}}{y_{new}^T y_{new}} = \frac{y_{new}^T (A - \rho I + \rho I) y_{new}}{y_{new}^T y_{new}} = \frac{y_{new}^T (A - \rho I) y_{new}}{y_{new}^T y_{new}} + \rho = \frac{y_{new}^T v}{\|y_{new}\|^2} + \rho$$

Fast convergence, but uncertain to which eigenvalue we will converge.  
Expensive! Ill-conditioned!



## 8.5 Arnoldi (Lanczos) for sparse $A$

Use the transformation on Hessenberg (tridiagonal) form described for GMRES.

Compute the eigenvalues of the small Hessenberg matrix and use them as approximations for the eigenvalues of the original matrix.

By Arnoldi Orthogonalization of the Krylov subspace  $(b, Ab, A^2b, \dots)$  we get the relation

$$Au_{j-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} h_{k,j-1} u_k + \tilde{u}_j = \sum_{k=1}^j h_{k,j-1} u_k$$

$$A \cdot U_m = A \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_{m+1} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \tilde{H}_{m+1,m} = U_m H_{m,m} + h_{m+1,m} u_{m+1}$$

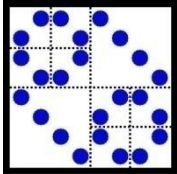
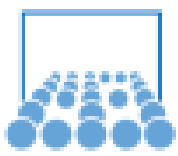
Eigenvalues of  $H_{m,m}$  as approximations for  $A$ .

(Small  $h_{m+1,m} \rightarrow$  good approximation).

Good approximation for extreme eigenvalues.

For symmetric  $A$ ,  $H$  is tridiagonal.

The same approach can be applied on:  $f(A)b \sim Uf(H)U^Tb$



## 8.6 Jacobi-Davidson for sparse A

- Idea:
- No Krylov subspace, more related to Rayleigh quotient and subspace it.
  - choose subspace relative to eigenvalue we are looking for
  - include preconditioning;

Starting point:

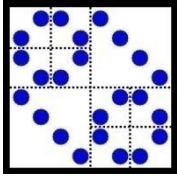
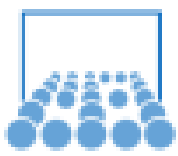
Consider eigenvalue approximations derived by  $V_m^H A V_m$  for subspace relative to  $V_m$ .

The eigenpairs of  $V_m^H A V_m$  are used as approximations to eigenvalues of A

How to choose new subspace  $V_{m+1}$  with additional vector  $u$  such that the new approximation for special eigenvalues is strongly improved?

For first eigenpair approximation  $u_m$  and  $t_m = (u_m^H A u_m) / (u_m^H u_m)$ , we try to improve these approximations by small corrections  $u$  and  $t$  to get better estimates  $u_m + u$  and  $t_m + t$

$$A(u_m + u) = (t_m + t)(u_m + u), \quad u \perp u_m, \quad u_m^H u_m = 1$$



# Jacobi-Davidson II

$$A(u_m + u) = (t_m + t)(u_m + u), \quad u \perp u_m$$



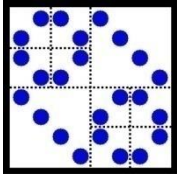
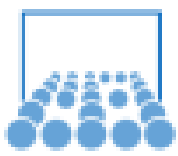
$$(A - t_m I)u = tu_m - (A - t_m I)u_m + \cancel{tu}$$

ignore correction  $t u$  of second order

Use orthogonal projection with  $I - u_m u_m^H$  from the left.

This leads to

$$\begin{aligned} (I - u_m u_m^H)(A - t_m I)(I - u_m u_m^H)u &= -(I - u_m u_m^H)(A - t_m I)u_m \\ (I - u_m u_m^H)(A - t_m I)(I - u_m u_m^H)u &= -(A - t_m I)u_m + \cancel{u_m (u_m^H A u_m)} - \cancel{t_m u_m (u_m^H u_m)} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



# Jacobi-Davidson III

For new approximation we have to solve

$$\left(I - u_m u_m^H\right) \left(A - t_m I\right) \left(I - u_m u_m^H\right) u = -\left(A - t_m I\right) u_m$$

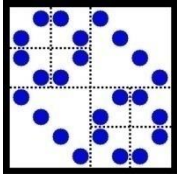
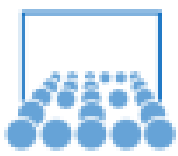
$$P\left(A - t_m I\right) P u = -r_m \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{\tilde{A} u = -r_m}$$

$A - t_m I$  gets ill-conditioned for  $t_m$  near eigenvalue, but  $P$  is a projection orthogonal to the near singular vector!

$\tilde{A}$  is singular, but linear system is still solvable.

Compared to Inverse Iteration/RQI:

Replace ill-conditioned by singular system.



# Jacobi-Davidson IV

New eigenvector estimate  $u_m + u \rightarrow v_{m+1}$  also leads to new eigenvalue estimate  $t_{m+1} \rightarrow (v_{m+1}^H A v_{m+1}) / (v_{m+1}^H v_{m+1})$ .

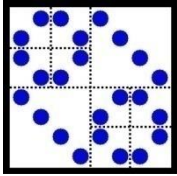
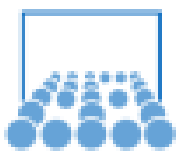
Choose the new estimate  $v_{m+1}$  to enlarge the subspace  $V_m$  by the new vector  $u$  to  $V_{m+1}$ .

Compute eigenpairs of  $V_{m+1}^H A V_{m+1}$  and choose next eigenvector approximation  $u_{m+1}$  appropriately, e.g. maximum, minimum, close to  $\sigma$ .

Repeat this step a few times.

Restart the whole process with last best approximation as starting vector  $u_1$ , resp. 1-dim subspace  $V_1$ .

Advantages: Allows to compute also inner eigenvalues without solving more and more ill-conditioned problems like Rayleigh QI.



# Jacobi-Davidson V

Main step: Solve linear system

$$P(A - t_m I)Pu = -r_m \quad \text{or} \quad P(A - t_m I)\tilde{u} = -r_m$$

approximately.

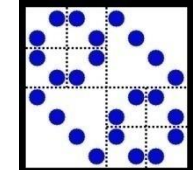
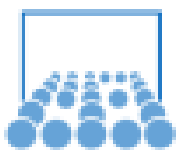
Therefore, we use a few steps of preconditioned cg or GMRES.

Preconditioner:  $M^{-1}$  preconditioner for  $A \rightarrow PM^{-1}P$  preconditioner for  $PAP$

In each iteration step we have to multiply with  $A$ , with  $P$ , and solve in  $M$ .

Simple preconditioner:  $M = \text{diag}(A)$

Better preconditioner: SPAI or MSPAI, ILU



# 8.7 Bisection for computing eigenvalues of a tridiagonal matrix

Observation: The characteristic polynomial of a tridiagonal matrix can be evaluated via the matrix entries in form of a sequence of polynomials with increasing degree:

$$p(\lambda) = \det(T - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \delta_1 - \lambda & \gamma_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \gamma_2 & \delta_2 - \lambda & \gamma_3 & & \vdots \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \gamma_{n-1} & \delta_{n-1} - \lambda & \gamma_n \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \gamma_n & \delta_n - \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$p_0(\lambda) = 1$$

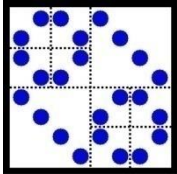
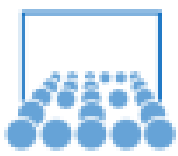
$$p_1(\lambda) = \delta_1 - \lambda$$

$$p_2(\lambda) = (\delta_2 - \lambda)p_1(\lambda) - \gamma_2^2 p_0(\lambda)$$

$$p_i(\lambda) = (\delta_i - \lambda)p_{i-1}(\lambda) - \gamma_i^2 p_{i-2}(\lambda), \quad i = 3, 4, \dots, n$$

$$p(\lambda) = p_n(\lambda)$$

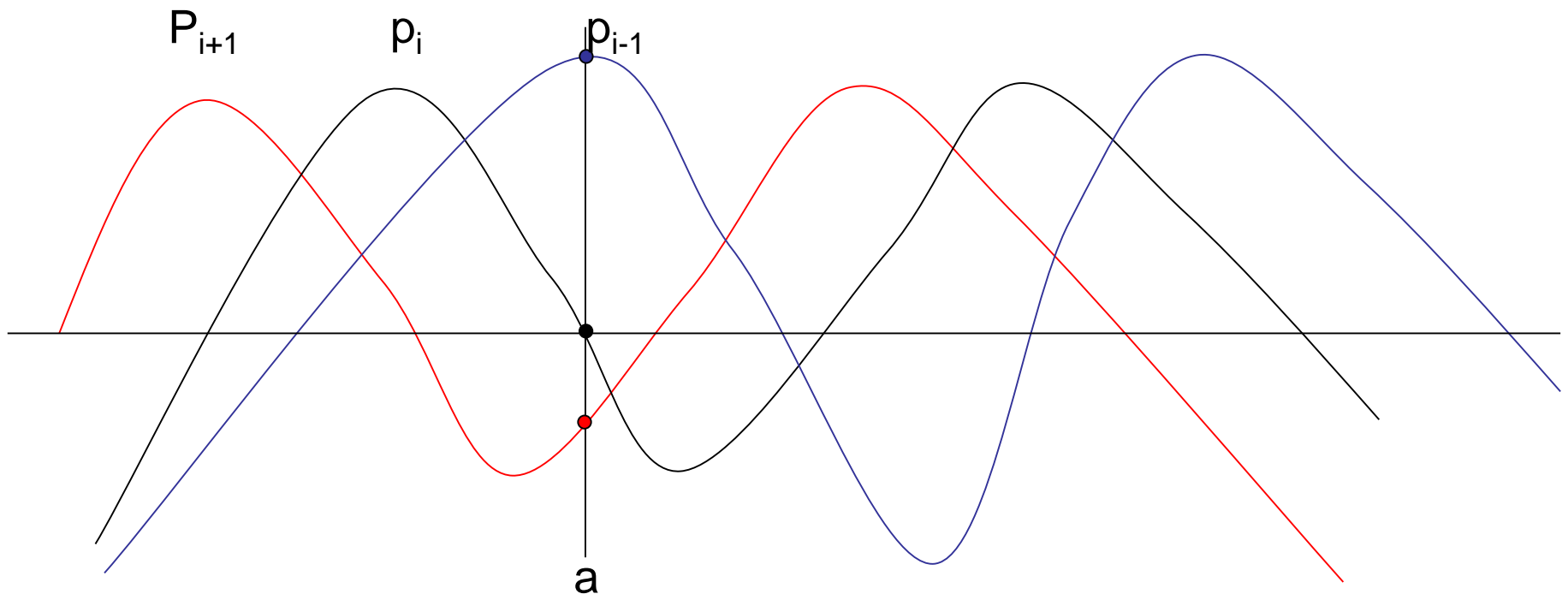




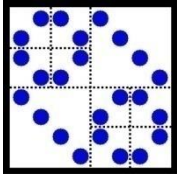
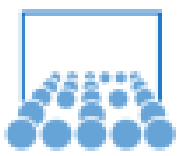
The sequence of polynomials is a Sturm chain:

1. All  $p_i$  have only single zeros
2.  $\text{sign}(p_{n-1}(a)) = -\text{sign}(p'_n(a))$  for all real zeros of  $p_n(x)$
3. For  $i=1,2,\dots,n-1$ :  $p_{i+1}(a)p_{i-1}(a) < 0$  for all real zeros of  $p_i(x)$
4. The polynomial  $p_0(x)$  does not change its sign

Proof by induction.



At all zeros of  $p_i$  the neighbors  $p_{i-1}$  and  $p_{i+1}$  must have different sign.

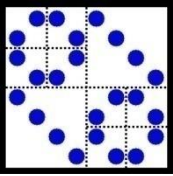
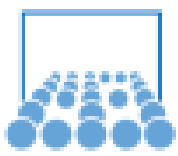


Define  $w(a) := \#$  sign changes in  $p_i(a)$ ,  $i=1, \dots, n$ .

It holds:  $w(a) = \#$  zeros of  $p_n(x)$  for  $x < a$ .

Consider eigenvalues ordered  $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \dots < \lambda_{n-1} < \lambda_n$ .  
We want to find  $\lambda_i$ , the  $i$ -th zero of  $p_n(x)$ .

It holds:  $\lambda_i < a \rightarrow w(a) = [ \# \text{ zeros left of } a ] \geq i$



## Bisection Algorithm:

Choose an interval  $I=[a_0, b_0]$  which contains  $\lambda_i$ .

Therefore:  $w(b_0) \geq i$  and  $w(a_0) < i$ .

Evaluate the polynomial sequence for  $a=(a_0+b_0)/2$  and count the sign changes in the sequence  $p_i(a) \rightarrow w(a)$ .

If  $w(a) \geq i$ :            Replace in interval I  $b_0$  by  $a$

Otherwise:                Replace in interval I  $a_0$  by  $a$ .

Generates converging sequence of smaller and smaller intervals that contain the eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  certainly.

Advantages:

- can be easily parallelized on top level
- can be used with high or low accuracy

Allows also Newton method for zeros of  $p_n$