• Determination of eigenvalues and eigenvectors

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$,

where **A** is an $N \times N$ matrix, eigenvector $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, and eigenvalues λ are in general complex numbers

• In physics:

- Energy eigenvalues in a quantum mechanical system
 - Express wave function in terms of atom-like orbitals $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n}^{\infty} a_{p} |p\rangle$
 - Minimize $\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle E \langle \psi | \psi \rangle$ ($H_{pq} = \langle p | H | q \rangle$) with respect to a_p : $\sum_{q} (H_{pq} E \delta_{pq}) = 0$
 - In matrix form Ha = Ea
- Vibration modes in molecules and solids
 - $\mathbf{K}\mathbf{u} = m\omega^2 \mathbf{u}$ where \mathbf{u} contains the displacement vectors of all atoms

and **K** is the dynamical matrix
$$K_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 E_{\text{pot}}}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

- A simple example: CO₂ molecule:



- Equations of motion (in 1D):

$$x_{1}'' = -\frac{k}{m_{O}}(x_{1} - x_{2})$$
$$x_{2}'' = -\frac{k}{m_{C}}(x_{2} - x_{1}) - \frac{k}{m_{C}}(x_{2} - x_{3})$$
$$x_{3}'' = -\frac{k}{m_{O}}(x_{3} - x_{2})$$

- Assume all vibrate with the same frequency ω : trial solution $x_j = x_{j0} \cos \omega t$, j = 1, 2, 3 (x_{j0} are the initial positions; initial velocities are zero)
- Substitute these x_i to equations of motion we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{k}{m_{O}} & -\frac{k}{m_{O}} & 0\\ -\frac{k}{m_{C}} & \frac{2k}{m_{C}} & -\frac{k}{m_{C}}\\ 0 & -\frac{k}{m_{O}} & \frac{k}{m_{O}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{10}\\ x_{20}\\ x_{30} \end{bmatrix} = \omega^{2} \begin{bmatrix} x_{10}\\ x_{20}\\ x_{30} \end{bmatrix}$$

- We want to find eigenvalues ω^2 and eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} x_{10} & x_{20} & x_{30} \end{bmatrix}^T$ of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} a & -a & 0 \\ -b & 2b & -b \\ 0 & -a & a \end{bmatrix}$ where $a = \frac{k}{m_0}$, $b = \frac{k}{m_c}$

- Solution by Maxima:

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems



- Another vibration example: Cu trimer

- Similar calculations for larger copper clusters than just a trimer (phonon density of states).





Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

- All vibration modes of a atomic system can be found out by computing eigenvalues of the dynamical (Hessian) matrix A

$$A_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

- In potential energy minima all eigenvalues λ_i of the dynamical matrix are positive. (I.e. A is positive definite.)
 - Vibration frequencies $\omega_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$
 - If $\lambda_i < 0 \rightarrow$ no vibration. (May be a result of poor energy minimization.)
- Transition state theory: find saddle points in potential energy hypersurface
 - In saddle point *all but one eigenvalue* are positive. (Think of a saddle point on a 2D surface: curvature in one direction is positive in another negative.)



• Eigenvalues are those values of λ with which the equation $(A - \lambda 1)x = 0$ has a nonzero solution x.

 \rightarrow eigenvalues are the roots of the (characteristic) polynomial of Nth degree det $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{1}) \equiv f_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) = 0$

- However, this is not a good method to solve λ 's.
- Many methods for determining eigenvalues utilize the fact that the eigenvalues are invariant in similarity transformations:

 $\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Z}$ (Z is a nonsingular matrix)

- Eigenvectors of the transformed matrix are $\mathbf{Z}^{-1}\mathbf{x}$ (x are the eigenvectors of A)
- By similarity transformations A is put into form that allows more or less easy determination of eigenvalues by e.g. various iterative methods.
- In the best cases A can be diagonalized:

$$\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{D} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N)$$

- For every matrix it is possible to form Schur factorization: $\mathbf{Q}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{T}$, where \mathbf{T} is an upper triangular matrix with λ 's on the diagonal
- In many cases it is advisable to transform the matrix into e.g. tridiagonal or Hessenberg forms (upper triangular+one row below diagonal) before computations.
- What methods to use depends also whether the matrix is symmetric or real.

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

- Properties of the eigenvalues of a matrix depend on the type of the matrix:

MatrixEigenvaluesUpper or lower triangularDiagonal elements of AHermitian: $\mathbf{A}^* = \mathbf{A}$ RealPositive definite: $\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0 \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ PositivePositive semidefinite: $\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \ge 0 \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ Non-negative

- How to generate a positive definite matrix (e.g. when experimenting with Matlab)?

If matrix **B** has all columns linearly independent then the following matrix **A** is positive definite¹:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B}.$$

- Positive definiteness is an important concept in function minimization: the Hessian matrix of a multivariate function is positive definite at the minimum.
- A useful property of a *partitioned* matrix is that its eigenvalues can be computed from its partitions:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} \\ 0 & \mathbf{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix} q, \quad p+q = n \quad \rightarrow \lambda(\mathbf{A}) = \lambda(\mathbf{A}_{11}) \cup \lambda(\mathbf{A}_{22})$$

$$p = q$$

^{1.} See e.g. Golub-van Loan, section 4.2

- Canonical forms of square matrices: Relation of the structure of the matrix to its eigenvalues and eigenvectors: (assume A and B are $n \times n$ square matrices)
 - A and B are similar if there is a nonsingular matrix ${\bf P}$ such that

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{P}.$

- If A and B are similar then they have the same characteristic polynomials

$$f_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) = f_{\mathbf{B}}(\lambda)$$

and, consequently, same eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

- Schur normal form: A can be expressed as

$$\boldsymbol{\Gamma} = \boldsymbol{\mathrm{U}}^* \boldsymbol{\mathrm{AU}} \; (\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\mathrm{A}} = \boldsymbol{\mathrm{UTU}}^*)$$

where \mathbf{U} is a unitary¹ matrix and \mathbf{T} is upper triangular and

$$f_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) = f_{\mathbf{T}}(\lambda) = (\lambda - t_{11})(\lambda - t_{22})\dots(\lambda - t_{nn})$$

and the eigenvalues of ${\bf A}$ are the diagonal elements of ${\bf T}$.

It is easy to show that if matrix ${\bf A}$ is upper or lower triangular then its eigenvalues are simply the diagonal elements. This follows from the fact that the determinant of a triangular matrix ${\bf T}$ is simply

det T =

- **Principal axis theorem**: If \mathbf{A} is Hermitian², then

1) it has real *n* eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_n$ (not necessarily distinct) and

- 2) *n* corresponding eigenvectors $u^{(1)}, u^{(2)}, \dots, u^{(n)}$ that form an orthonormal basis in C^n (or R^n if A real)
- 3) there is a unitary matrix U such that

$$\mathbf{U}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{D} \equiv \text{diag}[\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_n]$$

1. $\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^*$, for real matrices $\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^T$. \mathbf{U}^* is the *conjugate transpose* of \mathbf{U} ; i.e. $(\mathbf{U}^*)_{ij} = \overline{u}_{ji}$, where \overline{u} is the complex conjugate of u.

$$\mathbf{2.} \ \mathbf{A}^* = \mathbf{A}$$

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

- Singular value decomposition (SVD): A (let it be a $m \times n$ matrix) can be expressed in form

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{USV}^*,$

where U is a $m \times m$ unitary martix

V is a $n \times n$ unitary matrix

S is a "diagonal" $m \times n$ matrix:

$$\mathbf{S} = \operatorname{diag}[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_p, 0, \dots, 0] = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ \sigma_2 & 0 & & \\ & \sigma_3 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ 0 & \sigma_p & & \\ & & 0 & \\ & & & \dots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad p = \min\{m, n\}$$

- The real positive numbers σ_i are called the singular values of A. They are arranged such that

$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_{p-1} \ge \sigma_p;$$

- If r is defined as $\sigma_1 \ge ... \ge \sigma_r > \sigma_{r+1} = ... = \sigma_p = 0$ then one can show that $r = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A})$.

- Moreover, if we write the matrices ${\bf U}$ and ${\bf V}$ in terms of their column vectors:

$$\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_2 \dots \mathbf{u}_m], \ \mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_2 \dots \mathbf{v}_n],$$

one can prove the following SVD expansion of the matrix $\ensuremath{\mathbf{A}}$:

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^{\prime} \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T.$$

- The 2-norm and the Frobenius norms can be expressed in terms of the singular values:

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{F}^{2} = \sigma_{1}^{2} + \sigma_{2}^{2} + \dots + \sigma_{p}^{2}, \ p = \min\{m, n\}$$
$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} = \sigma_{1}.$$

- QR factorization is a common decomposition used in computing eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

- An $n \times n$ real matrix A can be written in form

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R},$$

where \mathbf{Q} is an orthogonal matrix ($\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}$) and \mathbf{R} is an upper triangular matrix.

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

• All methods to determine eigenvalues are iterative (cf. find zeroes of a polynomial)

Power method

- Many more advanced methods are based on it.
- Finds λ with the largest absolute value and the corresponding eigenvector.
- Assume that A has eigenvalues $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \ge |\lambda_3| \ge ... \ge |\lambda_N|$ and linearly independent eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N$.
- Further assume that $\lambda_i \in R$, and $\mathbf{x}_i \in R^N$; i.e. both eigenvalues and vectors are real.
- Basic algorithm:
 - **1.** Choose the initial vector \mathbf{q}_0

2. For
$$k = 1, 2, ...$$
 do
 $\mathbf{z}_k = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{q}_{k-1}$
 $\mathbf{q}_k = \mathbf{z}_k / \|\mathbf{z}_k\|$! this keeps the eigenvector estimate normalized to one
 $\lambda_1^{(k)} = \mathbf{q}_k^* \mathbf{A}\mathbf{q}_k$! eigenvalue estimate
end

- It easy to show that $\lambda_1^{(k)} \to \lambda_1$ and $\mathbf{q}_k \to \mathbf{x}_1$ when $k \to \infty$:

Initial vector $\mathbf{q}_0 = a_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + a_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \ldots + a_N \mathbf{x}_N$.

If
$$a_1 \neq 0 \longrightarrow \mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{q}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \lambda_i^k \mathbf{x}_i = a_1 \lambda_1^k \left[\mathbf{x}_1 + \sum_{i=2}^N \frac{a_i}{a_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{x}_i \right].$$

Because $(\lambda_i/\lambda_1)^k \to 0 \quad \forall i = 1, ..., N$ when $k \to \infty$ \mathbf{q}_k approaches the eigenvector corresponding to λ_1 .

- Convergence of the power method depends on the ratio $|\lambda_2|/|\lambda_1|$.
- If **A** has eigenvalues λ_i then \mathbf{A}^{-1} has eigenvalues λ_i^{-1} . ($\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i$) \rightarrow Using the power method the smallest eigenvalue can be computed (inverse iteration).
- This can be combined with shift: $\mathbf{A}^{-1} \to (\mathbf{A} \sigma \mathbf{1})^{-1} \to \text{now}$ we can determine the eigenvalue $\frac{1}{\lambda' \sigma}$, where λ' is the eigenvalue of \mathbf{A} that is closest to σ (inverse iteration with shift).
- By applying the method with different values of σ all eigenvalues can in principle be determined.
- There are many ways to remove the effects of already determined eigenvalues from matrix A
 - E.g. by doing the transformation $\mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{A} \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^*$ the largest eigenvalue zeroed and the power method can be applied to determine the second largest one (deflation).
- A generalization of the power method is orthogonal iteration where a basis corresponding to *m* < *n* largest eigenvalues is generated.

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

13

Eigenvalue problems

- QR method is based on the previous method and also uses the QR factorization to determine all eigenvalues.
 - Usually matrix A is similarity transformed to so called Hessenberg or tridiagonal form before the QR algorithm is applied.
 - This must be done by similarity transformations in order to preserve the eigenvalues of the original matrix.
 - Matrix A is a Hessenberg matrix if

$$a_{ii} = 0$$
, for all $i > j +$

i.e. upper triangular except for a single nonzero subdiagonal.

(Note that if the matrix is symmetric its Hessenberg form is tridiagonal.)

- Applying the QR method to this matrix is much cheaper than to a general matrix.
- This preliminary reduction is done by the Householder transformation or by Givens rotation.
- Householder matrices P are orthogonal

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{1} - 2\frac{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}}{\alpha}, \ \alpha = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2,$$

and the transformation is of the form

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{P}_{n-2}\mathbf{P}_{n-1}\dots\mathbf{P}_{1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}_{1}^{T}\dots\mathbf{P}_{n-1}^{T}\mathbf{P}_{n-2}^{T}$$

- In the QR algorithm a sequence of matrices A_i , Q_i , R_j is formed in the following fashion:

- $\mathbf{0.} \ \mathbf{A}_1 = \mathbf{A}$
- 1. Do the QR factorization: $\mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{R}_i$.
- 2. Compute the new iterate: $\mathbf{A}_{i+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{R}_i \mathbf{Q}_i$ (i.e. $\mathbf{A}_{i+1} = \mathbf{Q}_i^{-1} \mathbf{A}_i \mathbf{Q}_i = \mathbf{Q}_i^T \mathbf{A}_i \mathbf{Q}_i$)
- 3. $i \leftarrow i + 1$.
- 4. Go to 1.
- As a limit this iteration produces an upper triangular matrix A;.
- And remember: the eigenvalues of the original matrix **A** are the diagonal elements. - For proof see e.g. Golub-van Loan, Chapter 7.
- The iteration can be written as

$$\mathbf{A}_i = \mathbf{Q}_i^T \mathbf{Q}_{i-1}^T \dots \mathbf{Q}_0^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q}_1 \dots \mathbf{Q}_{i-1} \mathbf{Q}_i.$$

- Because all \mathbf{Q}_i are orthogonal then the above transformation is a similarity transformation and \mathbf{A}_i has the same eigenvalues as the original matrix \mathbf{A} .
- When eigenvalues are known, eigenvectors can be obtained by e.g. inverse iteration with shift.

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

- LAPACK uses the QR method for eigenvalues and vectors

DGEEV - compute for an N-by-N real nonsymmetric matrix A, the eigenvalues and, optionally, the left and/or right eigenvectors SYNOPSIS SUBROUTINE DGEEV(JOBVL, JOBVR, N, A, LDA, WR, WI, VL, LDVL, VR, LDVR, WORK, LWORK, INFO) CHARACTER JOBVL, JOBVR INTEGER INFO, LDA, LDVL, LDVR, LWORK, N DOUBLE PRECISION A(LDA,*), VL(LDVL,*), VR(LDVR,*), WI(*), WORK(*), WR(*)

- Matlab and Octave have function eig:

EIG Eigenvalues and eigenvectors. E = EIG(X) is a vector containing the eigenvalues of a square matrix X.

[V,D] = EIG(X) produces a diagonal matrix D of eigenvalues and a full matrix V whose columns are the corresponding eigenvectors so that X*V = V*D.

- Example code using DGEEV (complex version of the routine):

! http://www.nacse.org/demos/lapack/codes/eigen-f.html

```
program eigenvalue
integer,parameter :: rk=8
real(rk):: A(3,3), DUMMY(3,3), WORK(9)
real(rk) :: br(3),bi(3)
integer i, ok
A(1,1)=3.1; A(1,2)=1.3; A(1,3)=-5.7
A(2,1)=1.0; A(2,2)=-6.9; A(2,3)=5.8
A(3,1)=3.4; A(3,2)=7.2; A(3,3)=-8.8
```

call **DGEEV**('N', 'N', 3, A, 3, br, bi, DUMMY, 1, DUMMY, 9, WORK, 9, ok)

```
if (ok==0) then
   do i=1, 3
        write(*,*) br(i),bi(i)
   enddo
else
   write (*,*) "An error occured"
endif
```

end program eigenvalue

- Output:

0.625482501680223	-2.30344243268150
-13.8509653848302	0.00000000000000000E+000

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Matlab. A = 3.1000 1.3000 -5.7000 1.0000-6.90005.80003.40007.2000-8.8000 >> [v,d]=eig(A) v -0.7160-0.7160 0.2890 -0.2686 + 0.3703i -0.2686 - 0.3703i -0.6375 -0.3721 + 0.3738i -0.3721 - 0.3738i 0.7142 d = 0.6255 + 2.3034i 0 0 0.6255 - 2.3034i 0 0 0 0 -13.8510

17

Eigenvalue problems

Examples of execution times for calculating eigenvalues of large matrices using LAPACK:

Test AMD LAPACK and BLAS implementations in libacml.a _____ Program: dynmat_eigen.f90 Calculates all eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix (relaxat dynamical matrix, to be precise) using LAPACK routine dsyev. A) LAPACK and BLAS in libacml.a used. B) LAPACK and BLAS compiled from sources downloaded from netlib. Compilation on ametisti and sepeli: A) pathf90 -static -03 -ipa -fno-math-errno -m64 -march=opteron -o dynmat_eigen_acml dynmat_eigen.f90 -L/home/akuronen/acml -lacml B) pathf90 -static -03 -ipa -fno-math-errno -m64 -march=opteron -o dynmat_eigen_default dynmat_eigen.f90 lapack.f blas.f dlamch.f Run: \${Nat} < dm_ico\${Nat}.dat > ev_ico\${Nat}.data A) ./dynmat eigen acml B) ./dynmat_eigen_default \${Nat} < dm_ico\${Nat}.dat > ev_ico\${Nat}.dat Results from sepeli (AMD Opteron): CPU time (s) Nat Matrix size A В A/B _____ 147 441 x 441 0.078988 0.077989 1.012 4245 x 4245 94.133690 159.87070 0.589 1415 3871 11613 x 11613 1703.0691 3127.5565 0.545 Home computer (AMD Athlon): (liblapack compiled from f90 sources at CPU time (s) Matrix size Nat А В A/B _____ 147 441 x 441 0.14997800 0.12798100 1.172 81.391627 132.44986 0.615 1415 4245 x 4245 3871 11613 x 11613 1899.9832 2682.6172 0.708

- Below is shown the CPU time usage of an ab inito code SIESTA for a silicon system.
 - Solution is performed by so called direct diagonalization; i.e. calculating eigenvalues.



Simulations by E. Holmström

Scientific computing III 2013: 4. Eigenvalue problems

Eigenvalue problems

- Summary:
 - If you want all eigenvalues of a matrix that fits into your computers memory the QR method is a good choice. - I.e. use LAPACK or Matlab/Octave
 - For computing only a few eigenvalues there are efficient methods that are also suitable for large sparse matrices. - Check out e.g. J. Haataja et al., *Numeeriset menetelmät käytännössä*, CSC, 1999.
 - If you know the appoximate values of the eigenvalues then the power method with shift and inversion is a good method to improve the approximations.