

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

# Power Iteration

$$x_0 = \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n$$
$$x_{k+1} = A x_k \quad A_{n \times n}$$

$$x_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k u_n \right]$$

Assume that  $\alpha_1 \neq 0$ , the term  $\alpha_1 u_1$  dominates the others when  $k$  is very large.

$$\frac{|\lambda_2|}{|\lambda_1|} < 1$$

Since  $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2|$ , we have  $\left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \ll 1$  when  $k$  is large

Hence, as  $k$  increases,  $x_k$  converges to a multiple of the first eigenvector  $u_1$ , i.e.,

$$k \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow x_k \approx (\lambda_1)^k \alpha_1 u_1$$

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > |\lambda_3| \dots > |\lambda_n|$$

$$u_1, \lambda_1 \quad \|x_k\| \rightarrow \text{large}$$

# How can we now get the eigenvalues?

If  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  such that

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

Diagram illustrating the eigenvalue equation  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ . The matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  on the left are circled in blue, with a blue arrow pointing to the word "vector". The scalar  $\lambda$  and the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  on the right are also circled in blue, with a blue arrow pointing to the word "vector".

then how can we evaluate the corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$ ?

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

$$\lambda = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$

or

$$\lambda = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

Rayleigh coefficient

# Power Iteration

$$x_0 = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$$

$$x = x_0$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$

$$x = Ax \quad \longrightarrow \quad \|x\| \rightarrow \text{growing}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$$

# Normalized Power Iteration

$$\mathbf{x}_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_n \right]$$

$\mathbf{x}_0$  = arbitrary nonzero vector

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \frac{\mathbf{x}_0}{\|\mathbf{x}_0\|}$$

for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{k-1}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \frac{\mathbf{y}_k}{\|\mathbf{y}_k\|}$$

$\mathbf{x}_k$  is normalized

$$\lambda = \frac{\mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k}{\mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{x}_k}$$

# Normalized Power Iteration

\*  $\alpha_1 \neq 0$   
\* finite calculation

$$\mathbf{x}_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_n \right]$$

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{u}_n \quad \boxed{\alpha_1 = 0?}$$

What if the starting vector  $\mathbf{x}_0$  have no component in the dominant eigenvector  $\mathbf{u}_1$  ( $\alpha_1 = 0$ )?

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \alpha_2 \lambda_2^k \mathbf{u}_2 + \lambda_1^k \left[ \alpha_3 \left( \frac{\lambda_3}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_3 + \dots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_n \right]$$

$k \rightarrow \infty$

$$\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \alpha_2 \boxed{\mathbf{u}_2} \lambda_2^k$$

$\lambda_2, \mathbf{u}_2$

In theory (in infinite precision)

→ power iteration will converge  $\mathbf{u}_2$

In practice:

→ p.I. will converge to  $\mathbf{u}_1$ !

# Normalized Power Iteration

$$|\lambda_1| \geq |\lambda_2|$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_n \right]$$

What if the first two largest eigenvalues (in magnitude) are the same,  $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2|$ ?

1)  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  both positives

$$\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \lambda^k \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \lambda^k \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}_k}{\lambda^k} \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2 \rightarrow \text{L. combination of } \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda = \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}} \quad \checkmark$$

# Normalized Power Iteration

$$\mathbf{x}_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_n \right]$$

What if the first two largest eigenvalues (in magnitude) are the same,  $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2|$ ?

2)  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  both negative

$$\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} |\lambda|^k (\alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2) \quad \begin{matrix} \nearrow \text{odd} \\ \searrow \text{even} \end{matrix}$$

$\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow$  converge L.C.  $(\underline{u}_1), (\underline{u}_2)$   $(+)$  flipped signs

$- \mathbf{x}_k$   
 $+ \mathbf{x}_k$

$$\lambda = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

$$|\lambda| = |\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2|$$



# Normalized Power Iteration

$$\mathbf{x}_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \left( \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \left( \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k \mathbf{u}_n \right]$$

What if the first two largest eigenvalues (in magnitude) are the same,  $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2|$ ?

3)  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  opposite signs

$$\lambda_1 > 0, \quad \lambda_2 < 0$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \lambda_1^k \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \lambda_2^k \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2$$

k is even

$$\lambda^k (\alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2)$$

k is odd

$$\pm \lambda^k (\alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 - \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2)$$

$\Rightarrow$  no longer have convergence  
no longer have  $\lambda$

Fails

# Potential pitfalls

1. Starting vector  $\mathbf{x}_0$  may have no component in the dominant eigenvector  $\mathbf{u}_1$  ( $\alpha_1 = 0$ ). This is usually unlikely to happen if  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is chosen randomly, and in practice not a problem because rounding will usually introduce such component.
2. Risk of eventual overflow (or underflow): in practice the approximated eigenvector is normalized at each iteration (Normalized Power Iteration)
3. First two largest eigenvalues (in magnitude) may be the same:  $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2|$ . In this case, power iteration will give a vector that is a linear combination of the corresponding eigenvectors:
  - If signs are the same, the method will converge to correct magnitude of the eigenvalue. If the signs are different, the method will not converge.
  - This is a “real” problem that cannot be discounted in practice.

Error

approx  $u_1$  exact  $u_1$

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

$$x_k = (\lambda_1)^k \left[ \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1}\right)^k u_n \right]$$

$$\frac{x_k}{\lambda_1^k \alpha_1} = u_1 + \left(\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}\right) \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k u_2 + \dots$$

$$\text{error} = \frac{x_k}{\lambda_1^k \alpha_1} - u_1 = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}\right) \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k u_2}_{\text{dominant}} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\alpha_3}{\alpha_1}\right) \left(\frac{\lambda_3}{\lambda_1}\right)^k u_3 + \dots}_{\text{neglect}}$$

$k \rightarrow \infty$

$$e_k \approx \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k u_2$$

$$\|e_k\| = \left|\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}\right| \left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right|^k \|u_2\|$$

# Convergence and error

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

$$\frac{\|e_{k+1}\|}{\|e_k\|} = \frac{\left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right|^{k+1}}{\left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right|^k} = \left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right| = \text{constant}$$

$$\|e_{k+1}\| = \left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right| \|e_k\|$$

$$\|e_k\| = \left|\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right|^k \|e_0\|$$

→ linear convergence

# Example

$$A = \begin{cases} 3 \rightarrow \lambda_3 \\ 4 \rightarrow \lambda_2 \\ 5 \rightarrow \lambda_1 \implies u_1 \end{cases}$$

Suppose you are given a matrix with eigenvalues 3, 4, and 5.

You use (normalized) power iteration to approximate one of the eigenvectors  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ . For simplicity, assume  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$ . Your initial guess  $\mathbf{x}_0$  has a norm of the error  $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\| = 0.3$ .

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \longrightarrow \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\| = 0.3$$

How big will the error be after three rounds of normalized power iteration?

(Note that for normalized power iteration, all vectors under consideration have norm 1, so the absolute and the relative error are the same.)

$$\|e_0\| = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\| = 0.3$$

$$\|e_1\| = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_1\| = \left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right| \|e_0\| = \frac{4}{5} (0.3)$$

$$\|e_2\| = \left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right| \|e_1\|$$

$$\|e_3\| = \left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right| \|e_2\|$$

$$\|e_3\| = \left| \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right|^3 \|e_0\|$$

$$= \left( \frac{4}{5} \right)^3 0.3$$

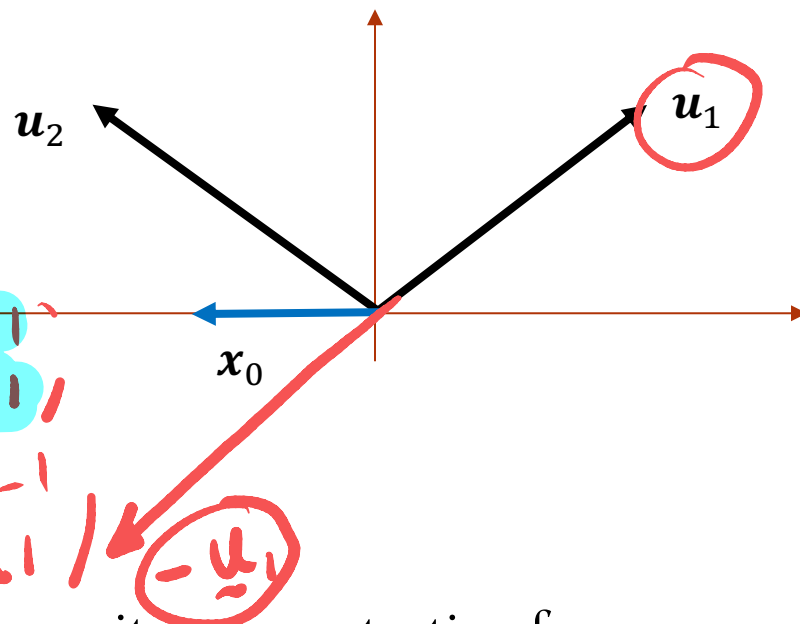
$$\|e_3\| = 0.1536$$

# Clicker question

The matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$  has eigenvalues  $(4, 2)$  and corresponding eigenvectors  $\mathbf{u}_1 = (1, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2 = (-1, 1)$ .

$$\lambda_1 = 4 \rightarrow \mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Suppose we want to use the normalized power iteration, starting from  $\mathbf{x}_0 = (-0.5, 0)$ . Select the correct statement

- A) Normalized power iteration will not converge
- B) Normalized power iteration will converge to the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue 2.
- C) Normalized power iteration will converge to the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue 4.

(Normalized)

Power iteration  $\longrightarrow X_{k+1} = [A]X_k$   $(x_0)$

Converges to multiple of eigenvector  $(u_1)$

corresponding to  $\underline{\lambda_1} \rightarrow$  largest eigenvalue  
in magnitude

Rayleigh coefficient :  $\lambda = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$

What if I want another eigenvalue ?

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| > \dots > |\lambda_n|$$

Suppose  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  such that

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

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

What is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ ?

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

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$

$$\left( \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) \mathbf{x} = \left( \mathbf{A}^{-1} \right) \mathbf{x}$$

$\frac{1}{\lambda}$  is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$

$\lambda$  is the largest

$\frac{1}{\lambda}$  ?  $\rightarrow$  smallest



# Inverse Power Method

→ smallest eigenvalue

Previously we learned that we can use the Power Method to obtain the largest eigenvalue and corresponding eigenvector, by using the update

$$x_{k+1} = Ax_k$$

Suppose there is a single smallest eigenvalue of  $A$ . With the previous ordering

Power method

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots > |\lambda_n|$$

Eigenvalues of  $A^{-1}$

$$\left| \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \right| > \left| \frac{1}{\lambda_{n-1}} \right| > \dots > \left| \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \right|$$

Power method with  $A^{-1}$  will converge

$$x_{k+1} = A^{-1} x_k$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \right|$$

# Think about this question...

Which code snippet is the best option to compute the smallest eigenvalue of the matrix  $A$ ?

A) 

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
for k in range(30):
    x = la.solve(A, x)
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

B) 

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
for k in range(30):
    x = la.inv(A)@x
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

C) 

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
for k in range(30):
    P, L, U = sla.lu(A)
    y = sla.solve_triangular(L, np.dot(P.T, x), lower=True)
    x = sla.solve_triangular(U, y)
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

D) 

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
P, L, U = sla.lu(A)
for k in range(30):
    y = sla.solve_triangular(L, np.dot(P.T, x), lower=True)
    x = sla.solve_triangular(U, y)
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

E) I have no idea!

# Inverse Power Method

$$x_{k+1} = A^{-1} x_k$$

$$A x_{k+1} = x_k$$

solve!  $\rightarrow x_{k+1}$

① Factorize  $A = PLU$   $\text{la.lu}(A)$

$$PLU x_{k+1} = x_k \rightarrow O(n^3)$$

②  $L y = P^T x_k$   $\left. \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{solve for } y \rightarrow O(n^2) \\ \rightarrow \text{solve for } x_{k+1} \rightarrow O(n^2) \end{array} \right\}$

③  $U x_{k+1} = y$

# Cost of computing eigenvalues using inverse power iteration

$$A x_{k+1} = x_k$$

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
for k in range(30):
    x = la.solve(A, x)
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

$O(n^3)$

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
for k in range(30):
    x = la.inv(A)@x
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

$O(n^3)$

```
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    y = sla.solve_triangular(L, np.dot(P.T, x), lower=True)
    x = sla.solve_triangular(U, y)
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

$O(n^3)$

$O(n^2)$

```
x = x0/la.norm(x0)
P, L, U = sla.lu(A)
for k in range(30):
    y = sla.solve_triangular(L, np.dot(P.T, x), lower=True)
    x = sla.solve_triangular(U, y)
    x = x/la.norm(x)
```

$O(n^3)$

$O(n^2)$

$2n$

Suppose  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda_1\mathbf{x}$  and also  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = \lambda_2\mathbf{x}$ . What is an eigenvalue of

What is an eigenvalue of  $(\mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{B})^{-1}$ ?

$$(\mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{B})\mathbf{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{x} = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{\lambda}\mathbf{x} &= \lambda_1\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_2\mathbf{x} \\ &= (\lambda_1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)\mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \lambda_1, \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{B} \rightarrow \lambda_2, \mathbf{x}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{B})^{-1} \rightarrow \lambda, \mathbf{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \lambda_1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_2$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\lambda_1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_2}$$

Suppose  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{A}$  such that  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda_1\mathbf{x}$  and also  $\mathbf{x}$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{B}$  such that  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = \lambda_2\mathbf{x}$ . What is an eigenvalue of

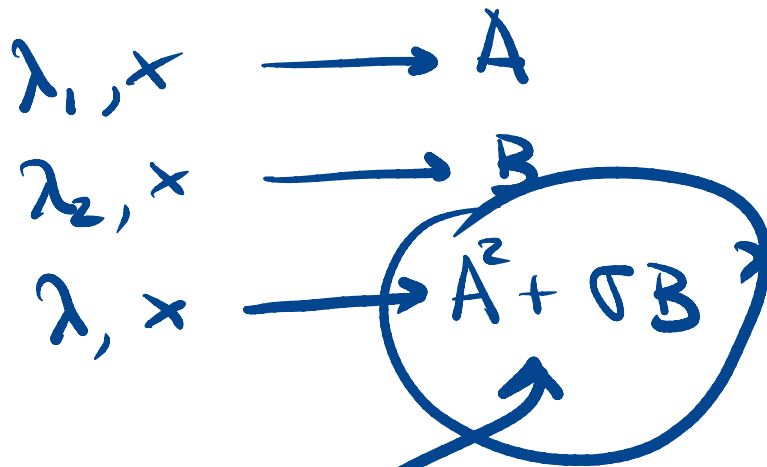
What is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}^2 + \sigma\mathbf{B}$ ?

$$(\mathbf{A}^2 + \sigma\mathbf{B})\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x} + \sigma\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$\lambda_1^2\mathbf{x} + \sigma\lambda_2\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_1^2 + \sigma\lambda_2$$



# Eigenvalues of a Shifted Inverse Matrix

Suppose the eigenpairs  $(\mathbf{x}, \lambda)$  satisfy  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ .

$$\begin{array}{l} (\mathbf{x}, \lambda) \longrightarrow \mathbf{A} \\ (\mathbf{x}, \bar{\lambda}) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{A} - \sigma \mathbf{I})^{-1} \end{array} \quad ? \quad \text{What is } \bar{\lambda} ?$$

$$(\mathbf{A} - \sigma \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{x} = \bar{\lambda} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{\bar{\lambda}} \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A} - \sigma \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x}$$

$$= \underbrace{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}} - \sigma \mathbf{I} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{\bar{\lambda}} \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x} - \sigma \mathbf{x} = (\lambda - \sigma) \mathbf{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{\bar{\lambda}} = \lambda - \sigma$$
$$\bar{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda - \sigma}$$

$\lambda - \sigma$  is the eigenvalue of  $(\mathbf{A} - \sigma \mathbf{I})$

$\lambda$  is the eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{A}$

# Eigenvalues of a Shifted Inverse Matrix

$$X_{k+1} = \underbrace{(A - \sigma I)^{-1}} X_k$$

$$\bar{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda - \sigma}$$

$$(A - \sigma I) X_{k+1} = X_k \longrightarrow \text{Inverse Power iteration } (A - \sigma I)$$

converge to eigenvector  
to largest  $\bar{\lambda}$

$$\bar{\lambda} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{\lambda - \sigma}$$

$$\text{to smallest } \underline{\underline{\underline{\lambda - \sigma}}}$$

$\lambda \rightarrow \sigma$

$\rightarrow$  converging to eigenvalue of  $A$  which is closer to  $\sigma$



• define  $\sigma$  -

• random  $x_0$  / • normalize  $x = x_0 / \|x_0\|$

•  $B = (A - \sigma I)$

•  $P, L, U = \text{la.lu}(A - \sigma I)$

$O(n^3)$

$$\lambda = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$

$Ly = P^T x \rightarrow \text{solve for } y$  }  $O(n^2)$

$U x_{\text{new}} = y \rightarrow \text{solve for } x_{\text{new}}$

$x = x_{\text{new}} / \|x_{\text{new}}\|$

$x$ : eigenvector corresponding  $\lambda$  which is the eig.  $A$  closer to  $\sigma$

# Convergence summary

	Method	Cost	Convergence $\ e_{k+1}\ /\ e_k\ $
Power Method	$x_{k+1} = Ax_k$	$kn^2$ $O(n^2)$	$\frac{ \lambda_2 }{ \lambda_1 }$
Inverse Power Method $\lambda_n$	$Ax_{k+1} = x_k$	$n^3 + kn^2$ $O(n^3)$	$\frac{ \lambda_n }{ \lambda_{n-1} }$
Shifted Inverse Power Method	$(A - \sigma I)x_{k+1} = x_k$	$n^3 + kn^2$ $O(n^3)$	$\frac{ \lambda_c - \sigma }{ \lambda_{c2} - \sigma }$

$\lambda_c \rightarrow$  eigenvalue closer to  $\sigma$

$\lambda_1$ : largest eigenvalue (in magnitude)

$\lambda_2$ : second largest eigenvalue (in magnitude)

$\lambda_n$ : smallest eigenvalue (in magnitude)

$\lambda_{n-1}$ : second smallest eigenvalue (in magnitude)

$\lambda_c$ : closest eigenvalue to  $\sigma$

$\lambda_{c2}$ : second closest eigenvalue to  $\sigma$