

Studying the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of matrices has powerful consequences for at least three areas of algorithm design: graph partitioning, analysis of high-dimensional data, and analysis of Markov chains. Collectively, these techniques are known as *spectral methods* in algorithm design. These lecture notes present the fundamentals of spectral methods.

1 Review: symmetric matrices, their eigenvalues and eigenvectors

This section reviews some basic facts about real symmetric matrices. If $A = (a_{ij})$ is an $n \times n$ square matrix, then $\mathbb{R}^n$ has a basis consisting of eigenvectors of A , these vectors are mutually orthogonal, and all of the eigenvalues are real numbers. Furthermore, the eigenvectors and eigenvalues can be characterized as solutions of natural maximization or minimization problems involving *Rayleigh quotients*.

Definition 1.1. If x is a nonzero vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then the Rayleigh quotient of x with respect to A is the ratio

$$RQ_A(x) = \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}.$$

Definition 1.2. If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, then a linear subspace $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an *invariant subspace* of A if it satisfies $Ax \in V$ for all $x \in V$.

Lemma 1.3. If A is a real symmetric matrix and V is an invariant subspace of A , then there is some $x \in V$ such that $RQ_A(x) = \inf\{RQ_A(y) \mid y \in V\}$. Any $x \in V$ that minimizes $RQ_A(x)$ is an eigenvector of A , and the value $RQ_A(x)$ is the corresponding eigenvalue.

Proof. If x is a vector and r is a nonzero scalar, then $RQ_A(x) = RQ_A(rx)$, hence every value attained in V by the function RQ_A is attained on the unit sphere $S(V) = \{x \in V \mid x^T x = 1\}$. The function RQ_A is a continuous function on $S(V)$, and $S(V)$ is compact (closed and bounded) so by basic real analysis we know that RQ_A attains its minimum value at some unit vector $x \in S(V)$. Using the quotient rule we can compute the gradient

$$\nabla RQ_A(x) = \frac{2Ax - 2(x^T A x)x}{(x^T x)^2}. \quad (1)$$

At the vector $x \in S(V)$ where RQ_A attains its minimum value in V , this gradient vector must be orthogonal to V ; otherwise, the value of RQ_A would decrease as we move away from x in the direction of any $y \in V$ that has negative dot product with $\nabla RQ_A(x)$. On the other hand, our assumption that V is an invariant subspace of A implies that the right side of (1) belongs to V . The only way that $\nabla RQ_A(x)$ could be orthogonal to V while also belonging to V is if it is the zero vector, hence $Ax = \lambda x$ where $\lambda = x^T A x = RQ_A(x)$. $\square$

Lemma 1.4. *If A is a real symmetric matrix and V is an invariant subspace of A , then $V^\perp = \{x \mid x^\top y = 0 \ \forall y \in V\}$ is also an invariant subspace of A .*

Proof. If V is an invariant subspace of A and $x \in V^\perp$, then for all $y \in V$ we have

$$(Ax)^\top y = x^\top A^\top y = x^\top Ay = 0,$$

hence $Ax \in V^\perp$. □

Combining these two lemmas, we obtain a recipe for extracting all of the eigenvectors of A , with their eigenvalues arranged in increasing order.

Theorem 1.5. *Let A be an $n \times n$ real symmetric matrix and let us inductively define sequences*

$$\begin{aligned} x_1, \dots, x_n &\in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n &\in \mathbb{R} \\ \{0\} &= V_0 \subseteq V_1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq V_n = \mathbb{R}^n \\ \mathbb{R}^n &= W_0 \supseteq W_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq W_n = \{0\} \end{aligned}$$

by specifying that

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= \operatorname{argmin} \{RQ_A(x) \mid x \in W_{i-1}\} \\ \lambda_i &= RQ_A(x_i) \\ V_i &= \operatorname{span}(x_1, \dots, x_i) \\ W_i &= V_i^\perp. \end{aligned}$$

Then $x_1, \dots, x_n$ are mutually orthogonal eigenvectors of A , and $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$ are the corresponding eigenvalues.

Proof. The proof is by induction on i . The induction hypothesis is that $\{x_1, \dots, x_i\}$ is a set of mutually orthogonal eigenvectors of A constituting a basis of V_i , and $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_i$ are the corresponding eigenvalues. Given this induction hypothesis, and the preceding lemmas, the proof almost writes itself. Each time we select a new x_i , it is guaranteed to be orthogonal to the preceding ones because $x_i \in W_{i-1} = V_{i-1}^\perp$. The linear subspace V_{i-1} is A -invariant because it is spanned by eigenvectors of A ; by Lemma 1.4 its orthogonal complement W_{i-1} is also A -invariant and this implies, by Lemma 1.3 that x_i is an eigenvector of A and λ_i is its corresponding eigenvalue. Finally, $\lambda_i \geq \lambda_{i-1}$ because $\lambda_{i-1} = \min\{RQ_A(x) \mid x \in W_{i-2}\}$, while $\lambda_i = RQ_A(x_i) \in \{RQ_A(x) \mid x \in W_{i-2}\}$. □

An easy corollary of Theorem 1.5 is the *Courant-Fischer Theorem*.

Theorem 1.6 (Courant-Fischer). *The eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$ of an $n \times n$ real symmetric matrix satisfy:*

$$\forall k \ \lambda_k = \min_{\dim(V)=k} \left(\max_{x \in V} RQ_A(x) \right) = \max_{\dim(W)=n-k+1} \left(\min_{x \in W} RQ_A(x) \right).$$

Proof. The vector space W_{k-1} constructed in the proof of Theorem 1.5 has dimension $n-k+1$, and by construction it satisfies $\min_{x \in W_{k-1}} RQ_A(x) = \lambda_k$. Therefore

$$\max_{\dim(W)=n-k+1} \left(\min_{x \in W} RQ_A(x) \right) \geq \lambda_k.$$

If $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is any linear subspace of dimension $n-k+1$ then $W \cap V_k$ contains a nonzero vector x , because $\dim(W) + \dim(V_k) > n$. Since $V_k = \text{span}(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ we can write $x = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_k x_k$. Rescaling $x_1, \dots, x_k$ if necessary, we can assume that they are all unit vectors. Then, using the fact that $x_1, \dots, x_k$ are mutually orthogonal eigenvectors of A , we obtain

$$RQ_A(x) = \frac{\lambda_1 a_1 + \dots + \lambda_k a_k}{a_1 + \dots + a_k} \leq \lambda_k.$$

Therefore $\max_{\dim(W)=n-k+1} (\min_{x \in W} RQ_A(x)) \leq \lambda_k$. Combining this with the inequality derived in the preceding paragraph, we obtain $\max_{\dim(W)=n-k+1} \min_{x \in W} RQ_A(x) = \lambda_k$. Replacing A with $-A$, and k with $n-k+1$, we obtain $\min_{\dim(V)=k} (\max_{x \in V} RQ_A(x)) = \lambda_k$. $\square$

2 The Graph Laplacian

Two symmetric matrices play a vital role in the theory of graph partitioning. These are the Laplacian and normalized Laplacian matrix of a graph G .

Definition 2.1. If G is an undirected graph with non-negative edge weights $w(u, v) \geq 0$, the *weighted degree* of a vertex u , denoted by $d(u)$, is the sum of the weights of all edges incident to u . The Laplacian matrix of G is the matrix L_G with entries

$$(L_G)_{uv} = \begin{cases} d(u) & \text{if } u = v \\ -w(u, v) & \text{if } u \neq v \text{ and } (u, v) \in E \\ 0 & \text{if } u \neq v \text{ and } (u, v) \notin E. \end{cases}$$

If D_G is the diagonal matrix whose (u, u) -entry is $d(u)$, and if G has no vertex of weighted degree 0, then the normalized Laplacian matrix of G is

$$\bar{L}_G = D_G^{-1/2} L_G D_G^{-1/2}.$$

The eigenvalues of L_G and $\bar{L}_G$ will be denoted in these notes by $\lambda_1(G) \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n(G)$ and $\nu_1(G) \leq \dots \leq \nu_n(G)$. When the graph G is clear from context, we will simply write these as $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ or $\nu_1, \dots, \nu_n$.

The “meaning” of the Laplacian matrix is best explained by the following observation.

Observation 2.2. The Laplacian matrix L_G is the unique symmetric matrix satisfying the following relation for all vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^V$.

$$x^\top L_G x = \sum_{(u,v) \in E} w(u, v) (x_u - x_v)^2. \quad (2)$$

The following lemma follows easily from Observation 2.2.

Lemma 2.3. *The Laplacian matrix of a graph G is a positive semidefinite matrix. Its minimum eigenvalue is 0. The multiplicity of this eigenvalue equals the number of connected components of G .*

Proof. The right side of (2) is always non-negative, hence L_G is positive semidefinite. The right side is zero if and only if x is constant on each connected component of G (i.e., it satisfies $x_u = x_v$ whenever u, v belong to the same component), hence the multiplicity of the eigenvalue 0 equals the number of connected components of G . $\square$

The normalized Laplacian matrix has a more obscure graph-theoretic meaning than the Laplacian, but its eigenvalues and eigenvectors are actually more tightly connected to the structure of G . Accordingly, we will focus on normalized Laplacian eigenvalues and eigenvectors in these notes. The cost of doing so is that the matrix $\bar{L}_G$ is a bit more cumbersome to work with. For example, when G is connected the 0-eigenspace of L_G is spanned by the all-ones vector $\mathbf{1}$ whereas the 0-eigenspace of $\bar{L}_G$ is spanned by the vector $\mathbf{d}^{1/2} = D_G^{1/2} \mathbf{1}$.

3 Conductance and expansion

We will relate the eigenvalue $\nu_2(G)$ to two graph parameters called the *conductance* and *expansion* of G . Both of them measure the value of the “sparsest” cut, with respect to subtly differing notions of sparsity. For any set of vertices S , define

$$d(S) = \sum_{u \in S} d(u)$$

and define the edge boundary

$$\partial S = \{e = (u, v) \mid \text{exactly one of } u, v \text{ belongs to } S\}.$$

The *conductance* of G is

$$\phi(G) = \min_{(S, \bar{S})} \left\{ d(V) \cdot \frac{w(\partial S)}{d(S)d(\bar{S})} \right\}$$

and the *expansion* of G is

$$h(G) = \min_{(S, \bar{S})} \left\{ \frac{w(\partial S)}{\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}} \right\},$$

where the minimum in both cases is over all vertex sets $S \neq \emptyset, V$. Note that for any such S ,

$$\frac{d(V)}{d(S)d(\bar{S})} = \frac{d(V)}{\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\} \cdot \max\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}} = \frac{1}{\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}} \cdot \frac{d(V)}{\max\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}}.$$

The second factor on the right side is between 1 and 2, and it easily follows that

$$h(G) \leq \phi(G) \leq 2h(G).$$

Thus, each of the parameters $h(G), \phi(G)$ is a 2-approximation to the other one. Unfortunately, it is not known how to compute a $O(1)$ -approximation to either of these parameters in polynomial time. In fact, assuming the Unique Games Conjecture, it is NP-hard to compute an $O(1)$ -approximation to either of them.

4 Cheeger's Inequality: Lower Bound on Conductance

There is a sense, however, in which $\nu_2(G)$ constitutes an approximation to $\phi(G)$. To see why, let us begin with the following characterization of $\nu_2(G)$ that comes directly from Courant-Fischer.

$$\nu_2(G) = \min \left\{ \frac{x^\top \bar{L}_G x}{x^\top x} \mid x \neq 0, x^\top D_G^{1/2} \mathbf{1} = 0 \right\} = \min \left\{ \frac{y^\top L_G y}{y^\top D_G y} \mid y \neq 0, y^\top D_G \mathbf{1} = 0 \right\}.$$

The latter equality is obtained by setting $x = D_G^{1/2} y$.

The following lemma allows us to rewrite the Rayleigh quotient $\frac{y^\top L_G y}{y^\top D_G y}$ in a useful form, when $y^\top D_G \mathbf{1} = 0$.

Lemma 4.1. *For any vector y we have*

$$y^\top D_G y \geq \frac{1}{2d(V)} \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2,$$

with equality if and only if $y^\top D_G \mathbf{1} = 0$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2 &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)[y(u)^2 + y(v)^2] - \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)y(u)y(v) \\ &= \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)y(u)^2 - \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)y(u)y(v) \\ &= \sum_{u,v} d(u)d(v)y(u)^2 - \sum_{u,v} d(u)d(v)y(u)y(v) \\ &= d(V) \sum_u d(u)y(u)^2 - \left(\sum_u d(u)y(u) \right)^2 \\ &= d(V)y^\top D_G y - (y^\top D_G \mathbf{1})^2. \end{aligned}$$

□

A corollary of the lemma is the formula

$$\nu_2(G) = \inf \left\{ d(V) \frac{\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u,v)(y(u) - y(v))^2}{\sum_{u < v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2} \middle| \text{denominator is nonzero} \right\}, \quad (3)$$

where the summation over $u < v$ in the denominator is meant to indicate that each unordered pair $\{u, v\}$ of distinct vertices contributes exactly one term to the sum. The corollary is obtained by noticing that the numerator and denominator on the right side are invariant under adding a scalar multiple of $\mathbf{1}$ to y , and hence one of the vectors attaining the infimum is orthogonal to $D_G \mathbf{1}$.

Let us evaluate the quotient on the right side of (3) when y is the characteristic vector of a cut $(S, \bar{S})$, defined by

$$y(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u \in S \\ 0 & \text{if } u \in \bar{S}. \end{cases}$$

In that case,

$$\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u,v)(y(u) - y(v))^2 = \sum_{(u,v) \in \partial S} w(u,v) = w(\partial S)$$

while

$$\sum_{u < v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2 = \sum_{u \in S} \sum_{v \in \bar{S}} d(u)d(v) = d(S)d(\bar{S}).$$

Hence,

$$\nu_2(G) \leq d(V) \frac{w(\partial S)}{d(S)d(\bar{S})},$$

and taking the minimum over all $(S, \bar{S})$ we obtain

$$\nu_2(G) \leq \phi(G).$$

5 Cheeger's Inequality: Upper Bound on Conductance

The inequality $\nu_2(G) \leq \phi(G)$ is the easy half of Cheeger's Inequality; the more difficult half asserts that there is also an upper bound on $\phi(G)$ of the form

$$\phi(G) \leq \sqrt{8\nu_2(G)}.$$

Owing to the inequality $\phi(G) \leq 2h(G)$, it suffices to prove that

$$h(G) \leq \sqrt{2\nu_2(G)}$$

and that is, in fact, the next thing we will prove.

For any vector y that is not a scalar multiple of $\mathbf{1}$, define

$$Q(y) = d(V) \frac{\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u,v)(y(u) - y(v))^2}{\sum_{u < v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2}.$$

Given any such y , we will find a cut $(S, \bar{S})$ such that $\frac{w(\partial S)}{\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}} \leq \sqrt{2Q(y)}$; the upper bound $h(G) \leq \sqrt{2\nu_2(G)}$ follows immediately by choosing y to be a vector minimizing $Q(y)$. In fact, if we number the vertices of G as $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ such that $y_1 \leq y_2 \leq \dots \leq y_n$, we will show that it suffices to take S to be one of the sets $\{y_1, \dots, y_k\}$ for $1 \leq k < n$.

Note that $Q(y)$ is unchanged when we add a scalar multiple of $\mathbf{1}$ to y . Accordingly, we can assume without loss of generality that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{y_i < 0} d(v_i) &\leq \sum_{y_i \geq 0} d(v_i) \\ \sum_{y_i \leq 0} d(v_i) &\geq \sum_{y_i > 0} d(v_i) \end{aligned}$$

For d -regular graphs, this essentially means that we're setting the median of the components of y to be zero. For irregular graphs, it essentially says that we're balancing the total degree of the vertices with positive $y(u)$ and those with negative $y(u)$.

Now here comes the most unmotivated part of the proof. Define a vector z by

$$z_i = \begin{cases} -y_i^2 & \text{if } y_i < 0 \\ y_i^2 & \text{if } y_i \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

Note also that $Q(y)$ is unchanged when we multiply y by a nonzero scalar. Accordingly, we can assume that $z_n - z_1 = 1$. Now choose a threshold value t uniformly at random from the interval $[z_1, z_n]$ and let

$$S = \{v_i \mid z_i < t\}.$$

We will prove that

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}[w(\partial S)]}{\mathbb{E}[\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}]} \leq \sqrt{2Q(y)}$$

from which it follows that

$$\mathbb{E}[w(\partial S)] \leq \sqrt{2Q(y)} \cdot \mathbb{E}[\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}]$$

and consequently that there is at least one S in the support of our distribution such that

$$w(\partial S) \leq \sqrt{2Q(y)} \cdot \min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}.$$

It is surprisingly easy to evaluate $\mathbb{E}[\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}]$. Each vertex v_i contributes $d(v_i)$ to the expression inside the expectation operator when it belongs to the smaller side of the

cut, which happens if and only if t lands between 0 and z_i , an event with probability $|z_i|$. Consequently,

$$\mathbb{E}[\min\{d(S), d(\bar{S})\}] = \sum_u d(u)|z(u)| = \sum_u d(u)y(u)^2 = y^\top D_G y.$$

Meanwhile, to bound the numerator $\mathbb{E}[w(\partial S)]$, observe that an edge (u, v) contributes $w(u, v)$ to the numerator if and only if it is cut, an event having probability $|z(u) - z(v)|$. A bit of case analysis reveals that

$$\forall u, v \quad |z(u) - z(v)| \leq |y(u) - y(v)| \cdot (|y(u)| + |y(v)|),$$

since the left and right sides are equal when $y(u), y(v)$ have the same sign, and otherwise the left side equals $y(u)^2 + y(v)^2$ while the right side equals $(|y(u)| + |y(v)|)^2$. Combining this estimate of the numerator with Cauchy-Schwartz, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[w(\partial S)] &\leq \sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u, v) |y(u) - y(v)| (|y(u)| + |y(v)|) \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u, v) (y(u) - y(v))^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u, v) (|y(u)| + |y(v)|)^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ &\leq \left(\frac{Q(y)}{d(V)} \sum_{u < v} d(u) d(v) (y(u) - y(v))^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} w(u, v) (2y(u)^2 + 2y(v)^2) \right)^{1/2} \\ &\leq (Q(y) y^\top D_G y)^{1/2} \left(2 \sum_u d(u) y(u)^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ &= (2Q(y))^{1/2} y^\top D_G y. \end{aligned}$$

6 Laplacian eigenvalues and spectral partitioning

We've seen a connection between sparse cuts and eigenvectors of the *normalized* Laplacian matrix. However, in some contexts it is easier to work with eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the unnormalized Laplacian, L_G . One can use eigenvectors of L_G for spectral partitioning, provided one is willing to tolerate weaker bounds for graphs with unbalanced degree sequences. For example, if y is an eigenvector of L_G satisfying $L_G y = \lambda_2 y$ then we can express $Q(y)$ as follows:

$$Q(y) = d(V) \frac{y^\top L_G y}{\sum_{u < v} d(u) d(v) (y(u) - y(v))^2} = \frac{\lambda_2 \|y\|^2 d(V)}{\sum_{u < v} d(u) d(v) (y(u) - y(v))^2}.$$

To estimate the denominator, let $d_{\min}$ and d_{avg} denote the minimum and the average degree of G , respectively. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{u < v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2 &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{u \neq v} d(u)d(v)(y(u) - y(v))^2 \\
&\geq \frac{1}{2} d_{\min}^2 \sum_{u \neq v} (y(u) - y(v))^2 \\
&= n d_{\min}^2 \sum_u y(u)^2 = \frac{d(V)}{d_{\text{avg}}} d_{\min}^2 \|y\|^2.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$Q(y) \leq \frac{d_{\text{avg}}}{d(V)} \frac{\lambda_2 \|y\|^2 d(V)}{d_{\min}^2 \|y\|^2} = \left(\frac{d_{\text{avg}}}{d_{\min}^2} \right) \lambda_2.$$