

Bohemian Matrices

An Introduction and some Open Problems

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Joint work with many people

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We welcome expositions on topics of interest to the Maple community, including in computer-assisted research in mathematics, education, and applications. Student papers especially welcome.

For example, see

Peter J. Baddoo and Lloyd N. Trefethen. *Log-lightning computation of capacity and Green's function*. **Maple Transactions** Volume 1, Issue 1, Article 14124 (July 2021). <https://doi.org/10.5206/mt.v1i1.14124>

Richard P. Brent. *Some Instructive Mathematical Errors*. **Maple Transactions** Volume 1, Issue 1, Article 14069 (July 2021). <https://doi.org/10.5206/mt.v1i1.14069>

There is also a transcript of an interview with these authors, conducted by Annie Cuyt.

Another announcement

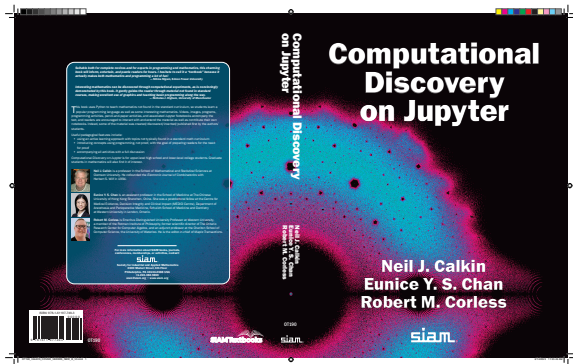


Figure 1: A new book from SIAM: Calkin, Chan, & Corless, “Computational Discovery on Jupyter”, hopefully available November

This is a talk using Hybrid Symbolic-Numeric Computation

What is Hybrid Symbolic-Numeric Computation, anyway?

Hybrid Symbolic-Numeric Computation: A computation that uses *structure* and either *continuity* or *measure*.

That is, it uses notions both from *algebra* and from *analysis*.

Examples include modern research in Differential-Algebraic Equations, Structured Optimization (Riemannian SVD!), Nonlinear Eigenvalue Problems, and spectral methods.

Rhapsodizing about Bohemian Matrices

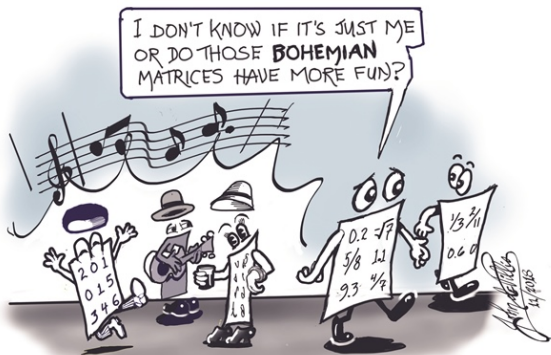


Figure 2: A cartoon by mathematician John de Pillis (UC Riverside), which appeared in Nick Higham's column in SIAM News

Bohemian Matrices

A family of matrices is called “Bohemian” if all entries are all from a single finite population P . The name comes from BOUNDED HEIGHT Matrix of Integers. See bohemianmatrices.com for instances.

See also the [link] London Mathematical Society Newsletter, November 2020, page 16.

Such matrices have been studied for quite a long time (e.g. by Olga Taussky–Todd), though the name “Bohemian” only dates to 2015. See also the Wikipedia entry at

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bohemian_matrices.

Why we're interested

- Allows to study common properties of discrete structured matrices
- investigate extreme possibilities by exhaustive computation
- New look at some old problems (e.g. Hadamard conjecture). Instead of looking for matrices with largest determinant, look for matrices with largest coefficient in the characteristic polynomial? [link] Upper Hessenberg and Toeplitz Bohemians

Why we *were* interested

Our original motivation was simply the **construction of test problems for eigenvalue solvers**; Steven Thornton has by now solved several *trillion* eigenvalue problems, and uncovered low-dimension instances (10 by 10 matrices with complex entries, 20 by 20 matrices with real entries) for which 2018 Matlab's ***eig*** routine failed to converge. [Reported to the Mathworks, long since fixed.]

Nick Higham has used Bohemian matrices as a **class to optimize over** to look for improved lower bounds on such things as the growth factor in matrix factoring; Laureano Gonzalez-Vega has looked at *correlation matrices*. Matthew Lettington (Cardiff) looks at magic squares with these tools. [link] David R. Nelson (Harvard) uses ideas like these to study **non-Hermitian quantum mechanics**. (Thanks to Nick Trefethen for making this connection)

We have used this idea to understand some things about simple matrix structures, such as [link] Skew-symmetric tridiagonal matrices and [link] Upper Hessenberg and Toeplitz Bohemians.

We will talk about these today.

Differences with more usual flavours of scientific computing

If you are used to computing with floating-point numbers, then you know very well that

- Numerically stable methods give the exact answer to nearby problems
- Some problems are sensitive to changes, a.k.a. *ill-conditioned*
- Multiple roots occur with “probability zero.”

But if we insist that our data take on only discrete values (e.g. integers) then some things change in this context. Let’s look at some examples.

Skew-symmetric tridiagonal Bohemian matrices

Here is a 7×7 example of a **complex skew-symmetric tridiagonal Bohemian matrix** with population $[P]$. If P has $\#P$ elements, then the number of such matrices is $\#P^6$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & u_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -u_1 & 0 & u_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -u_2 & 0 & u_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -u_3 & 0 & u_4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -u_4 & 0 & u_5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -u_5 & 0 & u_6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -u_6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

A picture

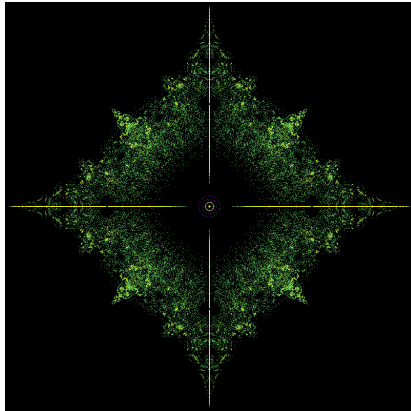


Figure 3: Density of eigenvalues of all $4^{14} = 268,435,456$ fifteen by fifteen skew-symmetric tridiagonal matrices with population $P = [\pm 1, \pm j]$ using $j = \sqrt{-1}$. Note the “rose” in the middle and its symmetries. Computed in Maple (10 seconds).

Density of eigenvalues in \mathbb{C}

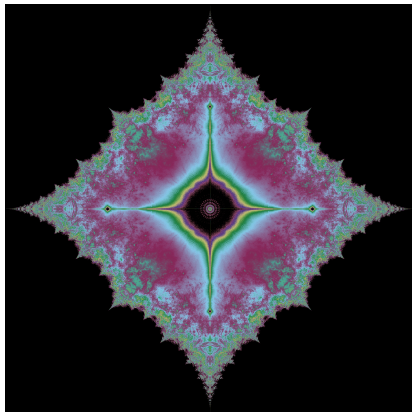


Figure 4: Density plot of eigenvalues of all $2^{30} = 1,073,741,824$ skew-symmetric tridiagonal matrices of dimension 31 with population $\{1, j\}$ with $j = \sqrt{-1}$. Hotter colours correspond to higher density. Picture by Aaron Asner.

Eigenvalue Computation

The computation of eigenvalues is well-known to be *numerically stable* and is efficiently carried out by QR iteration (Francis, Kublanovskaya independently early 60s). It would be hard to think of a more important algorithm; certainly it's one of the top 50 of the previous century.

But sometimes, even so, there can be difficulty.

Remarkably (to a numerical analyst) **sometimes¹ computation of the roots of the characteristic polynomial can be better.**

For *complex skew-symmetric tridiagonal* matrices there ought to be specialized algorithms that are faster by a factor of about $m = 15$ here, but they were not necessary so far.

¹Admittedly, hardly ever

For this class, polynomials are almost useful

Figure 5 was computed using eigenvalues of only $2^{14} = 16,384$ matrices (thus explaining the mere 10 seconds taken), with $P = [1, j]$ not the $4^{14} > 2.68 \times 10^8$ matrices with $P = [\pm 1, \pm j]$. I might have done even better by using just the 8,146 unique characteristic polynomials of this family. The characteristic polynomials satisfy the recurrence relation

$$p_{k+1} = \lambda p_k + u_n^2 p_{k-1} \quad (2)$$

and $p_0 = 1, p_1 = \lambda$. **So there is no need for -1 or $-j$.**

Even so, I used Maple's *Eigenvalues* (NAG Library, LAPACK, comparable in speed to Matlab), because degree fifteen polynomials can still be ill-conditioned. [I could have used MPSolve by Bini and Robol.]

Fibonacci polynomials

The maximum **characteristic height** occurs when all $u_n = 1$ or (same height) when all $u_n = j$. Call that height H_m . The first few characteristic heights are

$$1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 10, 15, 21, 35, 56, 84, 126, 210, 330 \quad (3)$$

and $H_{15} = 330$. We have $F_{m+1}/(m+1) < H_m < F_{m+1}$ where F_n is the n th Fibonacci number.

These maximal height polynomials are known as *Fibonacci* polynomials because $p_{m+1} = \lambda p_m + p_{m-1}$. The maximum condition number (for evaluation, for rootfinding) on $0 \leq \lambda \leq 2$ occurs at $\lambda = 2$ and grows like $(1 + \sqrt{2})^m$. For $m = 15$ this is about $5 \cdot 10^5$ so double precision would have been enough for these polynomials.

But the condition number of a random dimension m eigenvalue problem is only $O(m^2)$, so about 225 for $m = 15$, so even for such a small dimension eigenvalues should be better. For this *real* skew-symmetric matrix the eigenvalue condition numbers are all 1, so it's even better.

Polynomial condition can grow exponentially

To emphasize: the polynomial evaluation (and therefore rootfinding) condition numbers can grow exponentially with the dimension of the matrix, whereas we expect the eigenvalue condition number to grow only quadratically with the dimension.

Since the coefficients are real, eigenvalues must occur in conjugate pairs. One can also deduce that $p_{2k+1}(\lambda)$ is odd and $p_{2k}(\lambda)$ is even. Therefore if λ^* is an eigenvalue, so is $-\lambda^*$. *These are the only symmetries.* Let's look at that graph again.

A picture

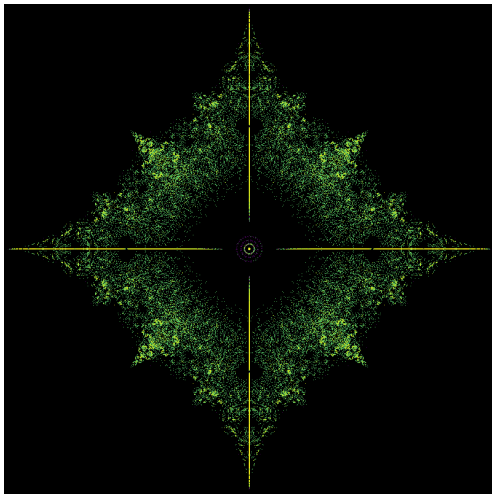


Figure 5: Density of eigenvalues of all $4^{14} = 268,435,456$ fifteen by fifteen skew-symmetric tridiagonal matrices with population $P = [\pm 1, \pm j]$. Note the “rose” in the middle and its symmetries. Computed in Maple (10 seconds).

Zooming in

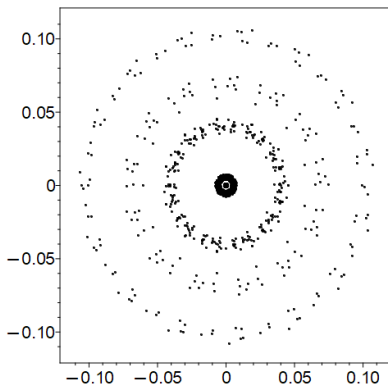


Figure 6: Zooming in on the rosette near zero: counting, we see a 15-fold symmetry in the outer ring, a 13-fold symmetry in the next smaller ring, then an 11-fold symmetry in the next smaller ring. *These symmetries are spurious and therefore these eigenvalues are rounding errors.*

Nilpotent matrices

The reason for the rosette is *multiple eigenvalues at 0*. Indeed there are *nilpotent* matrices at dimension $m = 2^k - 1$, (and only at these dimensions). I found a recursive formula for a family² of such nilpotents: if $s = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{m-1}]$ is the superdiagonal of a nilpotent matrix of dimension $m = 2^k - 1$, then both $[s, 1, j, \text{rev}(s)]$ and $[s, j, 1, \text{rev}(s)]$ are superdiagonals of nilpotent matrices of dimension $m = 2^{k+1} - 1$. Here “rev” means reverse the order of the list.

Conjecture, experimentally checked to $m = 31$: these are the **only** nilpotent skew-symmetric tridiagonal Bohemian matrices with population $\{1, j\}$. [This *ought* to be easily provable, but I failed on my first try, then got distracted.]

²I made a terrible pun about this family, too. Don't say you weren't warned.

It turns out that there is only one Jordan block for these nilpotent matrices, and the matrix \mathbf{Q} transforming these Bohemian matrices to Jordan form $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{J}$ is such that it resembles a Sierpinski gasket (it is also Bohemian, as is \mathbf{Q}^{-1} , so these matrices have *rhapsody*). This “Sierpinski”-ness is a kind of coincidence, considering what I will talk about next.

One matrix Q when $m = 127$

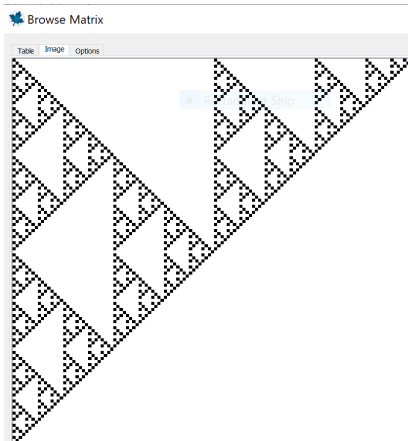


Figure 7: The structure of Q for one nilpotent A with $AQ = QJ$, for dimension $m = 127$. The nonzero entries of Q , pictured here simply as black squares, are ± 1 and $\pm j$.

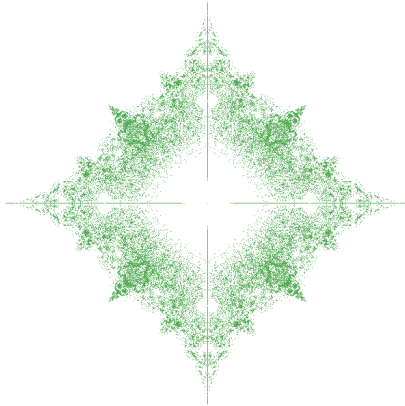


Figure 8: Computing and solving the characteristic polynomials removes the spurious rosette. It takes five times as long, in Maple, however.

See the Maple Transactions paper

For more details, see

<https://doi.org/10.5206/mt.v1i2.14360>. I'd like to move on to another class, which also mixes eigenvalues and polynomial computation.

Nonlinear Sierpinski

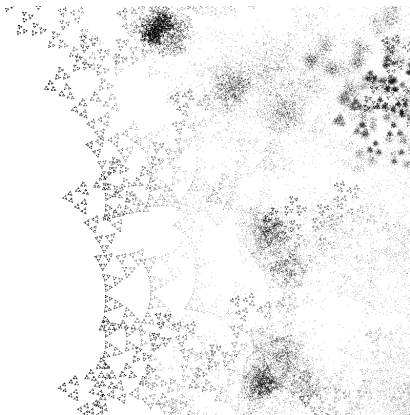


Figure 9: upper Hessenberg Toeplitz, -1 subdiagonal, zero diagonal, population cube roots of unity, dimension $m = 13$, all 531,441 matrices, zoomed in on an edge.

Details for this part of the talk can be found at
<https://arxiv.org/abs/2202.07769>

The Maple Workbook that contains the source code partially implementing the Schmidt–Spitzer theorem can be found, together with all the images from our paper and the slides from this talk, at
<https://github.com/rcorless/Bohemian-Matrix-Geometry>

[//github.com/rcorless/Bohemian-Matrix-Geometry](https://github.com/rcorless/Bohemian-Matrix-Geometry)
Please download those images and look at them on your own devices. That gives higher resolution than this projection does.
(This is “Screen-sharing for in-person lectures” :)

Toeplitz matrix fun

Banded Toeplitz matrices are surprisingly “easy” to understand now (after work of Toeplitz, Szegő, Kac, Widom, Wiener, Schmidt & Spitzer, Böttcher et al., and many others).

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{-1} & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & 0 \\ a_{-2} & a_{-1} & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ 0 & a_{-2} & a_{-1} & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{-2} & a_{-1} & a_0 & a_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{-2} & a_{-1} & a_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix has “symbol” $\frac{a_{-2}}{z^2} + \frac{a_{-1}}{z} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + a_3z^3$. In general (for infinite dimension) it’s a Laurent series; for banded matrices, a Laurent polynomial.

Bounds and patterns II

Theorem: (Toeplitz) The eigenvalues of an infinite-dimensional Toeplitz operator are related to* the image of the unit circle under the symbol: $a(e^{j\theta})$.

* Ok so I am not telling the whole story here. Which infinite matrix? And what about winding numbers? And for which class of symbols (functions) is this true for?

Important Note: The eigenvalues of finite-dimensional truncations of Toeplitz matrices do *not* necessarily converge to the spectrum of the corresponding infinite-dimensional Toeplitz operators (but their pseudospectra [\[link\]](#) do).

Another Theorem (Schmidt & Spitzer 1963): The eigenvalues of finite-dimensional *banded* Toeplitz matrices converge to semialgebraic curves (that can be determined by a simple algebraic computation) defined by the symbol.

Our theorem, needed to explain the Sierpinski structure

The Schmidt-Spitzer curves (and therefore, we believe, eigenvalues) of finite-dimensional upper Hessenberg Toeplitz matrices converge to analogous computable curves defined by roots of convergent series.

This convergence allows us to explain the Sierpinski-like fractal structures in the Bohemian eigenvalue density plots.

Eigenvalues of One Toeplitz matrix

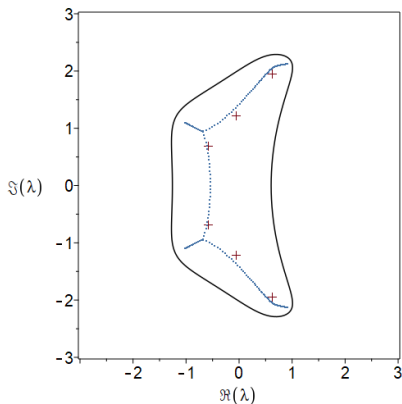


Figure 10: Eigenvalues of a single dimension $m = 6$ upper Hessenberg zero-diagonal Toeplitz matrix with entries from $\{-1,0,1\}$. The black curve is the image of the unit circle under the symbol; the dotted blue curve is the Schmidt-Spitzer curve for the infinite-dimensional banded Toeplitz matrix.

The Schmidt–Spitzer semialgebraic curves

The curves are defined by *equal-magnitude* values of the so-called “symbol”: $a(z) = a(e^{j\theta}z) = \lambda$. These are Laurent polynomials, so finding the zeros is just univariate polynomial rootfinding of $a(z) - a(e^{j\theta}z) = 0$, given θ . However, λ is in the curve *if and only if* the two equal-magnitude roots are the q th and $q + 1$ st smallest magnitude roots, where q is the order of the pole in the Laurent polynomial (here $q = 1$). Combinatorics and complex analysis both!

Look at `ToeplitzExperiments.maple`

What did we prove?

For *upper Hessenberg* matrices, a Laurent *polynomial* symbol

$$a(z) = -\frac{1}{z} + a_0 + a_1z + \cdots + a_mz^m$$

is not very different to a (finite pole) Laurent *series* because the similarity transform by the diagonal matrix $D = \text{diag}(1, \rho, \rho^2, \dots)$ shows that the series

$$a(z) = -\frac{\rho}{z} + a_0 + a_1\frac{z}{\rho} + \cdots + a_m\frac{z^m}{\rho^m} + \cdots$$

converges absolutely and uniformly for $|z| < \rho$ (where $|a_k| \leq B$ because Bohemian and so geometric). Everything follows from classical theorems afterwards: the equal-magnitude curves converge. In practice, they converge *rapidly* for the examples we tried.

What does the theorem explain?

Using that theorem, we can look at upper Hessenberg Toeplitz Bohemian matrices with, say, a population with three elements. Then increasing the dimension by 1 gives us one new term in the symbol— a_m —which can have one of three values; this gives three new matrices and thus three new eigenvalues for each old eigenvalue, and *moreover these eigenvalues have to lie close to the semialgebraic curve from before*. This explains the “Sierpinski gasket” look of these images.

This is the *first* such explanation of the appearance of a fractal in a Bohemian context.

Unsolved problems

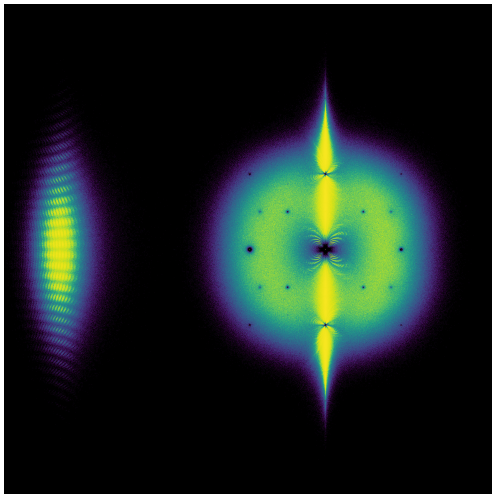


Figure 11: Eigenvalues of 5,000,000 dimension $m = 7$ unstructured matrices with population $-1 \pm j$. Why does this density plot look as it does?

More on Bohemians

You can find an older version of this talk at [YouTube link] a video on my YouTube channel.

You can find a related talk at

[YouTube link]“Skew Symmetric Tridiagonal Bohemians”

The (Maple Transactions!) papers that talk refers to are

[link] What can we learn from Bohemian Matrices?

<https://doi.org/10.5206/mt.v1i1.14039>

and

[link] Skew-symmetric tridiagonal Bohemian matrices

<https://doi.org/10.5206/mt.v1i2.14360>

See also chapter 5 of [link] the online version of my New Book, *Computational Discovery on Jupyter*, with Neil Calkin and Eunice Chan (to be published by SIAM physically ... next month, perhaps!)

Thank you

Thank you for listening!



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