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**SOLUTION METHODS FOR  
LARGE GENERALIZED  
EIGENVALUE PROBLEMS  
IN STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING**

by

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NOVEMBER 1971

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SOLUTION METHODS FOR  
LARGE GENERALIZED EIGENVALUE PROBLEMS  
IN STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING

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ABSTRACT

In dynamic and buckling analysis of structures a few eigenvalues and associated eigenvectors may be required in the solution of the generalized eigenvalue problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$ , where  $A$  is positive definite. Currently, when the order of the matrices is very large, approximate solution techniques are used. The aim in this research was the development of efficient computer programs which can find the required eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of large systems to the desired accuracy.

First the dynamic and buckling problems are presented in which the generalized eigenvalue problem arises. In this discussion the special properties of the operators  $A$  and  $B$  in structural analysis are identified and the eigenproblem solution requirements are stated. Also, approximate solution techniques which are commonly used are critically reviewed. In particular, it is pointed out, that in these analyses we do not know about the accuracy of the eigenvalue approximations obtained, and that an approximation to an important eigenvalue can be missed altogether.

The numerical details of two solution algorithms are then developed. The first technique is a determinant search method, in which triangular factorization and vector inverse iteration is combined in a very efficient manner. The second algorithm is a subspace iteration, which is more economical when the bandwidth of the system is large. Both techniques solve the generalized eigenvalue problem without a transformation to the standard form. There are no difficulties when  $B$  is banded or diagonal non-

negative definite. Also eigenvalues and corresponding vectors need not be found to high precision for numerical stability.

Operation counts are evaluated to develop maximum efficiency in the iterations and to give cost estimates of using the algorithms. The study of the number of operations and of numerical aspects is used in the development of a program for the practical case B diagonal and non-negative definite when A has any order and bandwidth.

Various practical example analyses including the analysis of dam, a plane frame and a three-dimensional building frame are presented to show the capabilities and convergence characteristics of the solution techniques.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

All symbols are defined in the text, and those not frequently used may have different meaning in different parts of the thesis. Only those which do not change meaning and are often used are listed below.

$A$  = band matrix

$B$  = band or diagonal matrix

$\tilde{L}$  = Cholesky factor of  $B$

$n$  = order of  $A$  and  $B$

$m_A$  = half bandwidth of  $A$  ; bandwidth =  $2m_A + 1$

$m_B$  = half bandwidth of  $B$  ; bandwidth =  $2m_B + 1$

$\lambda_i$  = eigenvalues of  $Av = \lambda Bv$

$\Lambda$  = diagonal array of eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$

$v_i$  = eigenvectors of  $Av = \lambda Bv$

$V$  = matrix storing the eigenvectors  $v_i$

$x_k$  = iteration vector

$X_k$  = matrix storing iteration vectors

$\Lambda_k$  = diagonal matrix storing eigenvalue approximations

$A_k$  = projection of  $A$

$B_k$  = projection of  $B$

$\mu_k$  = shift

$p(\mu)$  = characteristic polynomial

$I$  = identity matrix

$e_i$  =  $i$ 'th column of  $I$

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In this dissertation we consider the generalized eigenvalue problem

$$Av = \lambda Bv \quad (1.1)$$

where A and B are symmetric matrices of order n and half bandwidth  $m_A$  and  $m_B$ , respectively. This equation arises in dynamic and buckling analysis of structures. At least one of the matrices is positive definite. There are n real eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  and corresponding orthonormalized eigenvectors which we order as

$$\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \lambda_3 \dots \leq \lambda_n$$

$$v_1 ; v_2 ; v_3 ; \dots ; v_n$$

During recent years the ability to perform structural analyses has improved significantly. The finite element method used on a digital computer can allow earthquake or buckling analyses of large and very complex systems [1]. In these analyses the solution of Eq. (1.1) is required for only a few eigenvalues and vectors. Procedures which solve for all eigenvalues and which do not take advantage of the banding characteristics in A and B are at least inefficient and regarding storage may well be impossible to use.

Currently, when the order of the eigenvalue problem is very large and we only require a few eigenvalues approximate methods are used for solution [2].

The object of this research was the development of efficient programs which solve for a few required eigenvalues and associated

vectors in Eq. (1.1). The matrices A and B shall be allowed to be of different forms of practical significance.

In the thesis, first the buckling and dynamic problems in which Eq. (1.1) arises are presented. This leads to a description of the operators A and B in each case and a proper statement of the large eigenvalue problems to be considered. Then the theory and algorithms developed for solution are given. Whenever possible, the theory is presented to obtain a good physical understanding. Finally, example analyses are given to show the convergence characteristics of the programs.

Basically two different solution techniques have been developed. A determinant search algorithm was implemented which combines triangular factorization with vector inverse iteration in a very efficient manner. The program is most efficient in the analysis of systems with small bandwidth. The other scheme is a subspace iteration which is economically used on systems with larger bandwidth. Included in the thesis is a routine for the practical case B diagonal and non-negative definite to allow the solution for any matrix size and bandwidth. In the determinant search algorithm and the subspace iteration, Eq. (1.1) is solved directly without transforming to the standard eigenvalue problem. The programs are given in Appendix II. They are written in Fortran IV and have been tested on the CDC 6400 at the University of California at Berkeley.

In my opinion the solution of eigenvalue problems is most fascinating for its theory and the large variety of practical

numerical problems. For those readers who are not very familiar with the problem some background in the theory and efficient solution methods for the problem  $Av = \lambda v$  with  $A$  being small are given in Appendix I.

## 2. THE LARGE GENERALIZED EIGENVALUE PROBLEM IN STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

### 2.1 Introduction

Before the different solution procedures to Eq. (1.1) are presented, we should discuss the cases in dynamic and stability analysis where Eq. (1.1) arises. This way we can observe the different properties which the operators A and B can take and define the large eigenvalue problems that we consider. The approximate solution techniques used in practice will also be presented and critically discussed.

### 2.2 The Eigenvalue Problem in Dynamic Analysis

The equations of motion for a system of structural elements can be written as

$$M\ddot{u} + C\dot{u} + Ku = P \quad (2.1)$$

where M is the mass, C the damping and K is the stiffness matrix of the system, all of order n. Vectors u and P store displacements and forces, respectively [2]. The matrices M, C and K are obtained in conventional beam analysis of structures, in the two and three dimensional finite element discretization of continua and using other techniques of analysis, such as the finite difference method.

Equation (2.1) is solved by considering first free vibration conditions, where

$$M\ddot{u} + Ku = 0 \quad (2.2)$$

Substituting

$$u = \varphi \sin \omega(t - t_0)$$

we obtain the generalized eigenvalue problem

$$K\varphi = \omega^2 M\varphi \quad (2.3)$$

The  $n$  eigenvalues give the natural frequencies of the system and the eigenvectors the corresponding vibration modes. The complete solution to Eq. (2.3) can be written as

$$K\Phi = M\Phi \Omega^2 \quad (2.4)$$

where the columns in  $\Phi$  are the eigenvectors  $\varphi_i$  and  $\Omega^2 = \text{diag}(\omega_i^2)$ , with  $\omega_i^2 > 0$  all  $i$ .

We now change basis from the physical coordinate basis to the  $M$ -orthogonal basis of eigenvectors. Thus Eq. (2.1) becomes

$$\ddot{X} + C^* \dot{X} + \Omega^2 X = \Phi^T P \quad (2.5)$$

where  $X$  lists the coordinates in the new basis and  $C^* = \Phi^T C \Phi$ . If, in practice,  $C^*$  is assumed to be diagonal, Eq. (2.5) consists of  $n$  decoupled equations, which are readily solvable [2].

The most time consuming step in the analysis is the eigenvalue solution. If the size of the matrices is large, the computer time required to solve for all eigenvalues and vectors is enormous. However, experience has shown that many structures respond to particular types of dynamic loading primarily in a few modes, and that the contribution of the other modes can be neglected. For example, in earthquake response analysis it can be sufficiently accurate to consider only the lowest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors. Naturally, the exact number of modes to be included in an analysis depends on the structure, the loading and the accuracy sought. But provided the required eigenvalues and vectors in Eq. (2.3) can be found with a reasonable computer effort, large dynamic systems can be analyzed.

Consider in more detail the eigenvalue problem in Eq. (2.3). It is of particular importance that in structural analysis both matrices  $K$  and  $M$  are banded, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} k_{ij} &= 0 \text{ for } j > i + m_A \\ m_{ij} &= 0 \text{ for } j > i + m_B \end{aligned}$$

where  $(2m_A + 1)$  and  $(2m_B + 1)$  are the bandwidths of the matrices. Assuming that all rigid body modes have been removed from the system,  $K$  is positive definite. If, in a finite element analysis a consistent mass formulation is used,  $M$  is also positive definite and  $m_B = m_A$ . However, experience has shown that a consistent mass formulation is often not necessary and good accuracy can be obtained in a lumped mass analysis. Then  $M$  is diagonal with  $m_{ii}$  positive or zero.

Because the order of the eigenvalue problem in Eq. (2.3) can be several hundred, approximate techniques have been developed to reduce computational requirements for finding the few lower modes.

If it can be justified to lump all mass at some specific degrees of freedom, we can rewrite Eq. (2.3) as

$$\begin{bmatrix} K_{aa} & K_{ac} \\ K_{ca} & K_{cc} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_a \\ \varphi_c \end{bmatrix} = \omega^2 \begin{bmatrix} m_a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_a \\ \varphi_c \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

We can now use static condensation on the  $\varphi_c$  degrees of freedom and obtain the eigenvalue problem

$$K_a \varphi_a = \omega^2 m_a \varphi_a \quad (2.7)$$

where

$$K_a = K_{aa} - K_{ac} K_{cc}^{-1} K_{ca}$$



In practice,  $K_a$  can be obtained as follows

$$K_{cc} = LL^T ; LY = K_{ca} ; K_a = K_{aa} - Y^T Y$$

Alternatively, we may modify the complete structure stiffness by using Gaussian elimination on the  $\varphi_c$  degrees of freedom. However, a scheme is then needed to take account of the increasing bandwidth of the system.

For solution of  $\varphi_c$  we can use the relation  $K_{cc} \varphi_c = -K_{ca} \varphi_a$  given in Eq. (2.6).

In the analysis we could also solve

$$\begin{bmatrix} K_{aa} & K_{ac} \\ K_{ca} & K_{cc} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_a \\ f_c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.8)$$

where  $f_a = K_a^{-1}$  and then use

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varphi_a \\ \varphi_c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I \\ f_c K_a \end{bmatrix} \varphi_a \quad (2.9)$$

Although the degrees of freedom have been partitioned in Eqs. (2.8) and (2.9), there is obviously no need for it in this analysis. Note that instead of Eq. (2.7) we would now consider the problem

$$\frac{1}{\omega^2} \varphi_a = f_a m_a \varphi_a \quad (\text{see Eq. (2.17)}).$$

The order of Eq. (2.7) is the number of mass degrees of freedom allocated to the structure. Depending on the engineer's experience and the structure analyzed, the eigenvalues obtained from this equation may only be crude approximations to the eigenvalues of the original model of Eq. (2.3).

A more general technique for finding an approximation to the lowest eigenvalues and vectors of large systems is the Rayleigh Ritz analysis. For a general discussion of this method we consider the eigenvalue problem

$$Av = \lambda Bv \quad (2.10)$$

with A and B positive definite and the operators defined in an n-dimensional space  $V_n$ . The Rayleigh minimum principle states that

$$\lambda_1 = \min \rho(v) \quad (2.11)$$

where the minimum is taken over all functions  $v$  and  $\rho(v)$  is the

$$\text{Rayleigh quotient} \quad \rho(v) = \frac{(v, Av)}{(v, Bv)} > 0 \quad (2.12)$$

In the Ritz analysis we define a set of functions  $\bar{v}$  in a subspace  $V_q$  of dimension  $q$

$$\bar{v} = \sum_{i=1}^q \xi_i f_i \quad (2.13)$$

where the  $f_i$  are the Ritz basis functions and the  $\xi_i$  are Ritz coordinates. Substituting Eq. (2.13) into (2.12) we get

$$\rho(\bar{v}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^q \sum_{i=1}^q \xi_i \xi_j \tilde{a}_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^q \sum_{i=1}^q \xi_i \xi_j \tilde{b}_{ij}} \quad (2.14)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{a}_{ij} &= (f_i, Af_j) \\ \tilde{b}_{ij} &= (f_i, Bf_j) \end{aligned} \quad (2.15)$$

The necessary condition for a minimum of  $\rho(\bar{v})$  is  $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial \xi_i} = 0$  ( $i=1, \dots, q$ ). This yields

$$\tilde{A}a = \rho \tilde{B}a \quad (2.16)$$

where  $a$  is a vector listing the Ritz coordinates,  $\tilde{A}$  and  $\tilde{B}$  are full symmetric matrices with typical elements given in Eq. (2.15).

The solution of Eq. (2.16) yields  $q$  eigenvalues  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_q$  and corresponding eigenvectors, which are used to obtain from Eq. (2.13)  $\bar{v}_1, \dots, \bar{v}_q$ . The eigenvalues are upper bound approximations to the eigenvalues of Eq. (2.10), i.e.

$$\lambda_1 \leq \rho_1 ; \lambda_2 \leq \rho_2 ; \lambda_3 \leq \rho_3 ; \dots ; \lambda_q \leq \rho_q$$

The first inequality is obvious because  $V_q$  is contained in  $V_n$ . To prove the second inequality we observe that

$$\lambda_2 = \min \frac{(v, Av)}{(v, Bv)}$$

with the constraint

$$(v, Bv_1) = 0$$

Similarly

$$\rho_2 = \min \frac{(\bar{v}, A\bar{v})}{(\bar{v}, B\bar{v})}$$

satisfying

$$(\bar{v}, B\bar{v}_1) = 0$$

Now consider an auxiliary problem, in which

$$\tilde{\rho}_2 = \min \frac{(\bar{v}, A\bar{v})}{(\bar{v}, B\bar{v})}$$

with the constraint

$$(\bar{v}, B\bar{v}_1) = 0$$

We realize that  $\lambda_2 \leq \tilde{\rho}_2$  because  $V_q$  is contained in  $V_n$ . But  $\tilde{\rho}_2 \leq \rho_2$  since the most severe constraint on  $\bar{v}$  is the eigenfunction  $\bar{v}_1$ . Therefore

$$\lambda_2 \leq \tilde{\rho}_2 \leq \rho_2$$

The inequalities for  $\lambda_3$  to  $\lambda_q$  are proved similarly.

In dynamic analysis we obtain the Ritz functions from a static solution in which  $q$  load patterns are specified in  $R$ , i.e.

$$KT = R$$

and for Eq. (2.16)

$$\tilde{A} = T^T R ; \tilde{B} = T^T M T$$

Although we have shown that an eigenvalue calculated from a Ritz analysis is an upper bound on the corresponding exact eigenvalue of the system, we did not establish anything about the error in the eigenvalue. Naturally this error depends on the Ritz functions chosen. We only obtain good results if the functions span a subspace which is close to the least dominant invariant  $q$ -dimensional subspace of the operators.

The technique of mass lumping followed by static condensation and the Ritz analysis have been presented as two methods. Together with other techniques, such as the component mode synthesis [3], they are recognized in Chapter 4 as the first step in a subspace iteration. Let us show that the static condensation procedure resulting in Eq. (2.7) is actually a Ritz analysis. It is demonstrated in Section 3.6 that zero diagonal elements in the mass matrix correspond to infinite frequencies. To obtain approximations to the lowest frequencies in Eq. (2.6) we can apply the Ritz analysis. The Ritz functions are the displacement patterns associated with the degrees of freedom  $\varphi_a$ , and are given in Eq. (2.9). Transforming Eq. (2.6) we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} I \\ f_c K_a \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} K_{aa} & K_{ac} \\ K_{ca} & K_{cc} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I \\ f_c K_a \end{bmatrix} \varphi_a = \omega^2 \begin{bmatrix} I \\ f_c K_a \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} m_a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I \\ f_c K_a \end{bmatrix} \varphi_a$$

or

$$K_a \varphi_a = \omega^2 m_a \varphi_a$$

which is Eq. (2.7). Therefore, in the static condensation we perform a Ritz analysis of the lumped mass model of the structure.

Because the Ritz functions span the subspace which corresponds to the finite eigenvalues of the model, we calculate these eigenvalues 'exactly' (see Section 4.2). If less Ritz functions are used, upper bounds to the lowest eigenvalues are obtained as discussed above. In practice, the equivalent Ritz analysis would be carried out using the transformation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varphi_a \\ \varphi_c \end{bmatrix} = T a ; \quad T = \begin{bmatrix} f_a \\ f_c \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $f_a$  and  $f_c$  are calculated in Eq. (2.8), and the vector  $a$  lists the Ritz coordinates. We note that  $a = K_a \varphi_a$ . The Ritz transformation of Eq. (2.6) gives

$$f_a a = \omega^2 f_a m_a f_a a \quad (2.17)$$

In the Ritz analysis, hardly more numerical effort is required if the original model of Eq. (2.3) is analyzed and if in Eq. (2.8) different load patterns are specified in order to obtain a 'better'  $T$ . If mass is lumped in the analysis of a complex structure, the number of mass degrees of freedom should still be significantly larger than the number of eigenvalues required, in order to keep an adequate mass distribution in the system.

The main difficulty in a Ritz analysis of a complex structure is the selection of 'good' basis functions. It is often thought

that a repetition of the analysis with a somewhat larger set of Ritz functions is a good check on the results of the first analysis. This is not necessarily true. In repeating the analysis we may merely detect that our first analysis gave bad approximations to the lowest eigenvalues and vectors.

In summary, two serious problems are present. Firstly, we cannot estimate how accurate our approximations to the required eigenvalues and vectors are. Secondly, we do not know if we miss an approximation to a lower eigenvalue and vector altogether. This uncertainty in a practical dynamic analysis may lead to a large number of repetitions of the analysis, involving a high cost which nevertheless does not remove all uncertainty. It may then have been more efficient to rather solve once and for all accurately for the required eigenvalues and vectors.

The structural model of Eq. (2.3) may be a refined representation of the structure or a rather crude stiffness and mass approximation. In my opinion, programs should be available to analyze any model, without the analyst fitting it to particular program requirements.

In earthquake analysis we mainly require the lowest modes of the system. In other important problems in dynamics we may need to find all eigenvalues and associated vectors in a given interval. This may be the case, because of a high level of power spectral density of excitation in a given frequency region [4].

The large eigenvalue problems arising in dynamic analysis and considered here, can therefore be stated as follows.

Given two operators A and B, find

1. the lowest few  $\lambda$  and associated  $v$  which satisfy

$$Av = \lambda Bv \quad (2.18)$$

or

2. find all  $\lambda$  and corresponding  $v$  which satisfy Eq. (2.18) and where  $\mu_B < \lambda < \mu_T$ .

In Eq. (2.18) the operator A is of order  $n$ , symmetric and positive definite and has bandwidth  $(2m_A + 1)$ . The operator B has either the same properties as A or is diagonal and non-negative definite. The eigenvalues in Eq. (2.18) are all positive. Also, we consider the problem as large if it is much cheaper to solve for only the required eigenvalues and vectors instead of calculating simply all. In general, the system will be large if the high speed core storage of a reasonable size computer is too small to use an in-core Householder-QR-Inverse iteration technique [1] (see Appendix I and Section 6.7)

### 2.3 The Eigenvalue Problem in Buckling Analysis

The equations governing bifurcation buckling of a structure are

$$Ku = \lambda K_G u \quad (2.19)$$

where  $K$  is the small deflection stiffness matrix and  $K_G$  is the geometric stiffness matrix of the system [4]. The parameter  $\lambda$  gives the buckling load and  $u$  is the corresponding buckling mode.

We observe that this is an eigenvalue problem of the form stated in the previous section. However, in this case the operator  $B$ , which corresponds to  $K_G$  in Eq. (2.19), is in general indefinite and is always banded. Using the notation in Eq. (2.18) we consider the problem

$$Bv = \kappa Av \quad (2.20)$$

in which  $\kappa = 1/\lambda$  and can be negative or positive. In this equation we want to solve for the maximum value of  $\kappa$  which gives the lowest buckling load. It may also be of interest to find the next lowest buckling loads. Namely, if they are very close, then preventing the lowest buckling mode to occur does not make the structure much safer.

For solution of the buckling problem we naturally cannot use the static condensation analysis. A Ritz analysis is appropriate, but the problems discussed in the previous section are again present.



### 3. A DETERMINANT SEARCH TECHNIQUE FOR THE SOLUTION OF $Av = \lambda Bv$ WITH SMALL BANDWIDTH

#### 3.1 Introduction

Determinant search techniques have been used since long ago for finding the eigenvalues of small symmetric and nonsymmetric matrices [5]. For the analysis of larger problems in structural engineering the technique was generally considered inefficient, because each determinant evaluation requires one triangular factorization. If a determinant search iteration is used alone to calculate eigenvalues to high precision, many factorizations may be necessary. This is costly unless the bandwidth of the system is very small.

In this chapter a very efficient algorithm which combines triangular factorization with vector iteration is presented. A determinant search is only used to shift into the vicinity of the next unknown root. As will be shown, the number of negative pivots in a factorization tells if an unknown root is smaller than the current shift. Inverse iteration is then used to find the vector and eigenvalue.

Programs SECANT and SECANTD use the technique and are briefly introduced in Section 3.7. Example analyses are given in Chapter 6.

#### 3.2 Considerations for an Iteration Scheme

We first consider the generalized eigenvalue problem

$$Av = \lambda Bv \quad (3.1)$$

when B is positive definite. The case B diagonal non-negative definite is discussed in Section 3.6. An equivalent problem is

to calculate the zeros of the polynomial  $p(\lambda) = \det (A - \lambda B)$ . Our aim is to find a few lowest eigenvalues and associated vectors when A and B are large and have small bandwidth.

For solution we may think of some well-known techniques. Let us briefly mention them.

A transformation of Eq. (3.1) to the standard eigenvalue problem yields

$$\bar{A} \bar{v} = \lambda \bar{v} \quad (3.2)$$

where

$$\bar{A} = \tilde{L}^{-1} A \tilde{L}^{-T} \quad (3.3)$$

$$B = \tilde{L} \tilde{L}^T \quad (3.4)$$

$$\bar{v} = \tilde{L}^T v \quad (3.5)$$

In Eq. (3.4) we find the Cholesky decomposition of B. Therefore B should not be ill-conditioned with respect to inversion (see Section 4.3).

Let us distinguish two cases: Assume that B is banded. Then  $\bar{A}$  is full. Therefore, regarding storage and the solution of the eigenvalue problem in Eq. (3.1) the transformation is uneconomical.

However, if B is diagonal, we find the transformation trivial and  $\bar{A}$  has the same band as A. We now need to solve a standard eigenvalue problem.

As  $\bar{A}$  is large, a Householder-QR-Inverse iteration solution is uneconomical because we would set out to find all eigenvalues without taking advantage of the band in  $\bar{A}$ .

An efficient technique to find an eigenvalue and the associated eigenvector of  $\bar{A}$  is the Rayleigh quotient iteration defined as

$$(\bar{A} - \rho(x_k) I) x_{k+1} = x_k \ell_k \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (3.6)$$

$$\rho(x_k) = \frac{(x_k, \bar{A}x_k)}{(x_k, x_k)} \quad (3.7)$$

where  $\ell_k$  is chosen to normalize  $x_{k+1}$ . Under certain conditions convergence is ultimately cubic to an eigenpair  $(\lambda_i, \bar{v}_i)$  [6]

[22]. The particular eigenvalue to which the iteration converges depends on the initial vector chosen. We note that each iteration needs one triangular factorization, and that we may well converge to an eigenvalue which we are not interested in. For our problem, it is much more efficient to apply a shift only after always a few inverse iterations and to assure that the eigenvalues are found sequentially from the lowest one upwards.

This technique is used in program BANEIG [7]. The algorithm finds the smallest eigenvalue and corresponding vector of  $\bar{A}$  by shifting from the left towards  $\lambda_1$ . This way the shifted matrix remains positive definite. The shift is determined using an empirical rule once the iteration vector has settled down in the inverse iteration. After calculation of  $\lambda_1$  and  $\bar{v}_1$ , the algorithm uses an orthogonal similarity transformation due to Rutishauser to deflate the matrix [8]. The importance of this deflation is that the new matrix has still the same band as  $\bar{A}$ . However, the eigenvector needs to be found to high precision. Inverse iteration with shifting as before yields the next

smallest eigenvalue. The program continues with deflation and inverse iteration until all required eigenvalues have been calculated. The final eigenvectors of Eq. (3.2) are obtained by applying the orthogonal transformations back onto the eigenvectors of the deflated matrices.

As stated before the program can handle only the case B diagonal and positive definite. Numerical difficulties can arise if some diagonal elements in B are small.

Basically, the algorithm uses triangular factorization and inverse iteration. The undesirable matrix deflation is necessary to assure convergence to an eigenvalue and vector not yet calculated. The transformation to the standard eigenvalue problem must be performed to be able to use the deflation procedure.

A more direct scheme would use triangular factorization and inverse iteration on Eq. (3.1) without transforming to the standard eigenvalue problem. Then the case B banded would not present extra numerical problems. But to obtain best program efficiency we should use efficiently all the information that we can obtain from each factorization and inverse iteration.

### 3.3 The Triangular Factorization and its Use in the Iteration Scheme

In inverse iteration with Rayleigh quotient shifts, triangular factorization is basically used to speed convergence in the vector iteration. Essentially the iteration goes for the vector but the eigenvalue is found at the same time.

To benefit more from a factorization we can evaluate the characteristic polynomial at the current shift  $\mu_k$ .

Let  $p(\mu) = \det(A - \mu B)$  and assume that we have the  $LDL^T$  decomposition of  $(A - \mu_k B)$ , then

$$LDL^T = (A - \mu_k B) \quad (3.8)$$

$$p(\mu_k) = \det(LDL^T) = \prod_{i=1}^n d_{ii} \quad (3.9)$$

The polynomial values at successive shifts can directly be used to iterate towards a root. However, a clever scheme must be implemented to assure convergence to the next unknown root.

Another most important observation can be used at each factorization. Simply stated, we know that the number of negative elements in  $D$  in Eq. (3.8) is equal to the number of eigenvalues smaller than  $\mu_k$ .

This statement and the polynomial iteration scheme are explained in detail after the triangular factorization has been discussed.

### 3.3.1 The Triangular Factorization of $A - \mu_k B$

We note that for  $\mu_k$  larger than  $\lambda_1$ , the matrix  $(A - \mu_k B)$  is not positive definite. Therefore, we cannot find its Cholesky factors but the  $LDL^T$  decomposition exists provided none of the leading principal minors vanishes.

A practical way of obtaining  $L$  and  $D$  in Eq. (3.8) is to use simple Gaussian elimination on  $A - \mu_k B$ . Here we reduce the matrix into upper triangular form expressed as

$$L_{n-1}^{-1} \dots L_2^{-1} L_1^{-1} (A - \mu_k B) = U \quad (3.10)$$

where

$$L_k^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ & \cdot & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & -l_{k+1,k} & & & \\ & & -l_{k+2,k} & & & \\ & & & \cdot & & \\ & & & & 1 & \\ & & & & & \cdot \\ & & & & & -l_{k+m_A,k} \\ & & & & & & \cdot \\ & & & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}; l_{k+i,k} = \frac{c_{k+i,k}^{(k)}}{c_{kk}^{(k)}}; u_{kk} = c_{kk}^{(k)}$$

and  $c_{\ell m}^{(k)}$  denotes the  $(\ell, m)$  element of the matrix  $C = A - \mu_k B$  after the first  $(k-1)$  row reductions have been carried out.

Equation (3.10) rewritten becomes Eq. (3.8) where

$$L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_{n-1}; DL^T = U$$

We note that the  $k$ 'th leading principal minor  $M_k$  is given as

$$M_k = u_{11} u_{22} \dots u_{kk} \quad (3.11)$$

Obviously, if  $M_{k-1}$  is nonzero, but  $M_k$  is zero, then  $u_{kk}$  equals zero, and the decomposition does not exist, also indicated by the fact that multipliers  $l_{k+i,k}$  become infinitely large. In practice, a decomposition is regarded as numerically unstable, if multiplier growth occurs. In such case the errors involved in the decomposition are large. In general, partial pivoting could be used to ensure that multipliers do not exceed unity in modulus. However, the bandwidth of the system would then increase and more operations are required [5].

In the programs the triangular factorization in Eq. (3.10) is used. As described above, the main aim in the eigenvalue iteration is to shift into the vicinity of the next unknown root.

If the triangular factorization would prove to be unstable, the program would have to increase the shift in its last digits and try a new factorization. In all example analyses this never happened. Also, experiments have been carried out, in which matrices have been triangularized at and near calculated eigenvalues. The decompositions have always proved stable. The discussion in the next section indicates why instability is unlikely to occur.

As an estimate of the work involved in the evaluation of Eq. (3.8) plus the calculation of the determinant, we consider the number of operations required. One operation is equal to one multiplication which is nearly always followed by an addition. Assume that the half bandwidths  $m_A$  and  $m_B$  are full and constant. Neglecting terms involving the bandwidths only, we have as the number of operations required

$$\frac{1}{2} nm^2 + \frac{5}{2} nm + 2n \quad \text{when } m = m_A = m_B$$

$$\frac{1}{2} nm^2 + \frac{3}{2} nm + 2n \quad \text{when } m = m_A; m_B = 0$$

These formulae are used for comparison purposes. In most actual systems the bandwidths vary and many zero multipliers occur. The solution solver must take due advantage of both.

### 3.3.2 The Eigenvalue Separation Theorem

Consider the problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$  in Eq. (3.1) and a different problem of dimension  $n - 1$  which we call the first associated constraint problem, i.e.

$$A'v' = \lambda' B'v' \quad (3.12)$$

where  $A'$  and  $B'$  are obtained by omitting the last rows and columns of  $A$  and  $B$ . We can show that the eigenvalues of this problem are separating those of Eq. (3.1), i.e.

$$\lambda_r \leq \lambda'_r \leq \lambda_{r+1} \quad (3.13)$$

In a dynamic analysis this means that the frequencies of a structure which is constrained in its  $n'$ th degree of freedom lie in between the frequencies of the unconstrained structure. For a simple and elegant proof of Eq. (3.13) we use the minimax characterization of eigenvalues [9], which says

$$\lambda_{r+1} = \max \left\{ \min \frac{(v, Av)}{(v, Bv)} \right\} \quad (3.14)$$

with  $v$  satisfying  $(g_i, v) = 0$  ( $i=1, \dots, r$ ), where the  $g_i$  are arbitrary constraint vectors. Equation (3.14) simply states that we select a set of  $g_i$  and find the minimum of the Rayleigh quotient satisfying the constraints over all  $v$ . The maximum of these minima as the constraint vectors are varied equals  $\lambda_{r+1}$ .

Similarly, for the problem in Eq. (3.12)

$$\lambda'_r = \max \left\{ \min \frac{(v, Av)}{(v, Bv)} \right\}$$

with  $(g_i, v) = 0$  ( $i=1, \dots, r$ ) where the  $g_i$  are arbitrary for  $i=1, \dots, r-1$  but  $g_r = e_n$ . This ensures that the last element in  $v$  is zero, because  $e_n$  is the last column in the  $n \times n$  identity matrix  $I$ . Because the constraint for  $\lambda_{r+1}$  can be more severe and includes that for  $\lambda'_r$ , we have

$$\lambda'_r \leq \lambda_{r+1}$$

To determine  $\lambda_r$  we use



$$\lambda_r = \max \left\{ \min \frac{(v, Av)}{(v, Bv)} \right\}$$

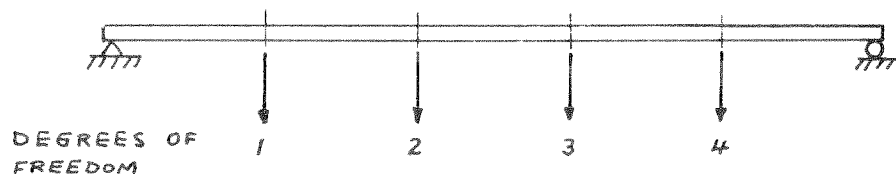
with  $(g_i, v) = 0$  ( $i=1, \dots, r-1$ ) and all  $g_i$  are arbitrary. To evaluate  $\lambda'_r$  we have the same constraints but one more, hence

$$\lambda_r \leq \lambda'_r$$

which proves Eq. (3.13). In the same way, the eigenvalues of the second constraint problem obtained by eliminating the last two rows and columns of A and B separate those of the first constraint problem, etc.

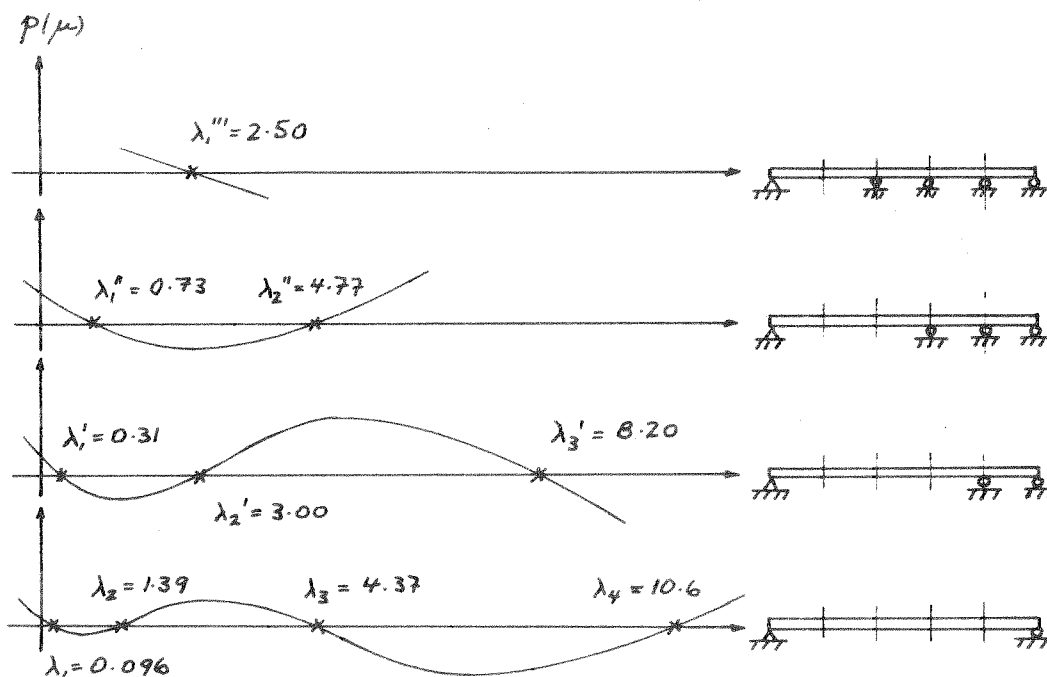
Figure 1 gives the eigenvalues of a simply supported beam with four degrees of freedom and of its constraint problems. Recall that a sequence of polynomials  $\{\phi_i(x)\}_{i=1, \dots, n}$  form a Sturm Sequence if the roots of the polynomial  $\phi_i(x)$  separate the roots of  $\phi_{i+1}(x)$ . Hence we have proved that the characteristic polynomials of the associated constraint problems and of the eigenvalue problem in Eq. (3.1) form a Sturm Sequence.

We can now give a reason why instability in the triangular factorization of Eq. (3.10) is unlikely to occur. A small  $i$ 'th pivot in the factorization means that the current shift is an eigenvalue of the constraint problem obtained by fixing the degrees of freedom ( $i+1$ ) to  $n$ . But from experience we know that the frequencies of vibration of the structure obtained by fixing many degrees of freedom are much higher than the lowest frequencies of the unconstrained structure. Hence, if at all, a small pivot is likely to occur only when  $i$  is near to  $n$ . This means that multiplier growth is not possible.



CHOOSE BEAM PROPERTIES TO OBTAIN USING FINITE DIFFERENCES :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -4 & 1 & \\ -4 & 6 & -4 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 \\ & 1 & -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} ; \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & & & \\ & 2 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



EIGENVALUES AND SKETCH OF CHARACTERISTIC POLYNOMIALS                      PROBLEM

FIGURE 1: EIGENVALUES OF SIMPLY SUPPORTED BEAM AND OF ASSOCIATED CONSTRAINT PROBLEMS

The practical use of the eigenvalue separation property is as follows: Assume that we carry out a triangular factorization at shift  $\mu_k$  and that  $\mu_k$  is not an eigenvalue of the (n-1) associated constraint problems. Then we can use D in Eq. (3.8) to calculate the determinants of all constraint problems. But consider only their signs. Referring to Fig. 1, we find that due to the eigenvalue separation property, for  $\lambda_r < \mu_k < \lambda_{r+1}$  we must have exactly r negative elements in D. Hence at any shift  $\mu_k$ , the number of negative elements in D tells us how many eigenvalues in Eq. (3.1) are smaller than  $\mu_k$ . This is a most important fact, because with it we are able to find how many eigenvalues exist in a particular interval.

The Sturm Sequence property has been used in simple bisection to find eigenvalues of matrices [10][11]. However, this is only economical if the matrices have very small bandwidth, in particular when A and B are tridiagonal. A more efficient algorithm would use the polynomial values at the shifts to accelerate iteration to the next unknown root. The eigenvalue separation property can be used at each shift to check if an unknown root has been passed.

### 3.3.3 The Interpolation Scheme

Consider the iteration to  $\lambda_1$  in Fig. 2 where iterates  $\mu_k$  and  $\mu_{k-1}$  are lower bounds to the root. As will be shown in Section 3.5 it is most economical for us to obtain merely a shift near  $\lambda_1$  and then start inverse iteration for the eigenvector. The extrapolation formula used in the algorithm is

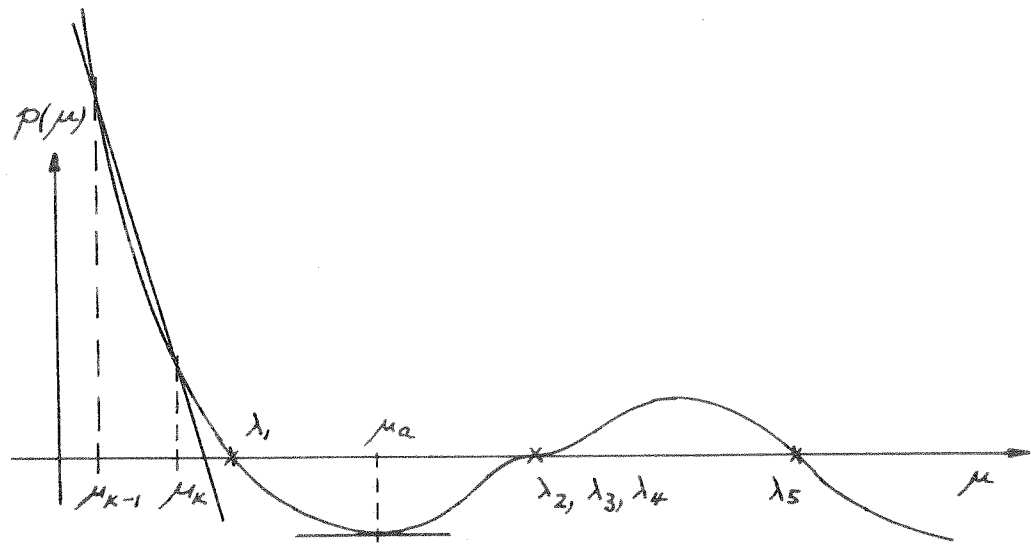


FIGURE 2: CHARACTERISTIC POLYNOMIAL  $p(\mu)$

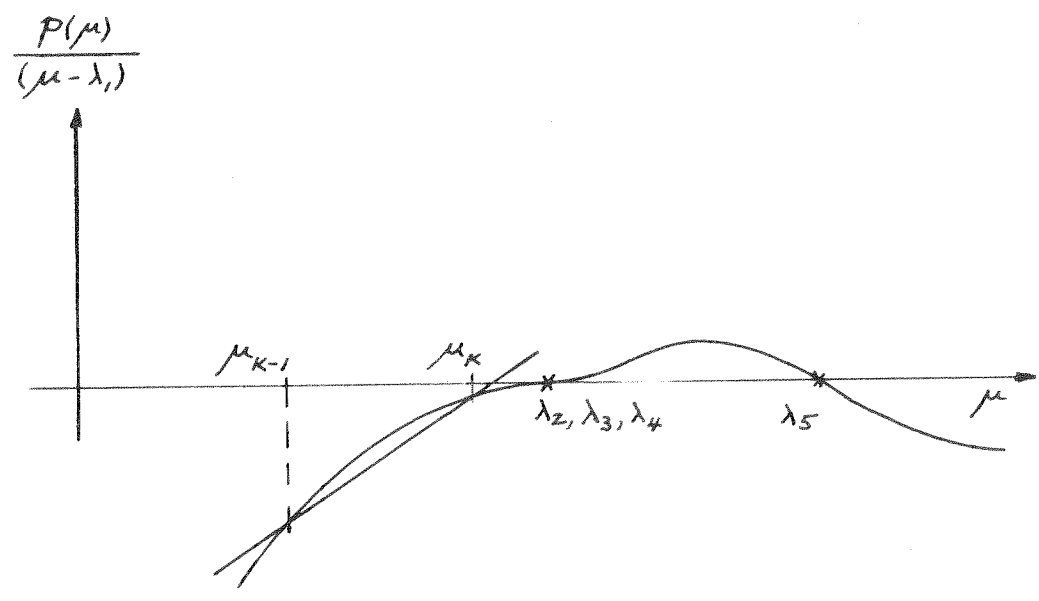


FIGURE 3:  $p(\mu)$  WITH  $\lambda_1$  SUPPRESSED

$$\mu_{k+1} = \mu_k + \eta \frac{p(\mu_k)}{p(\mu_k) - p(\mu_{k-1})} (\mu_{k-1} - \mu_k) \quad (3.15)$$

with  $\eta$  a constant. When  $\eta = 1.0$  we have the well-known Secant iteration, where  $\mu_{k+1} \leq \lambda_1$  and  $\mu_{k+1} \rightarrow \lambda_1$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Convergence in this iteration can be slow, and we need an efficient acceleration scheme. Starting the iteration, we let  $\eta = 2.0$  because it is known that in this case  $\mu_{k+1} \leq \mu_a$ , where  $\mu_a$  is the smallest stationary point of  $p$  [5]. A jump over a root would simply be detected by a sign change in  $p$ . However, when we iterate towards a multiple root as in Fig. 3, convergence with  $\eta = 2.0$  is still slow. Fortunately, the eigenvalue separation theorem allows us to accelerate the iteration still more. We double  $\eta$  after each iteration in which the iterates did not change in their first 3 to 4 digits. We may thus jump over a single root, a multiple root or into a cluster of roots, but this is always detected by counting the number of negative elements in  $D$ . Naturally, with the strategy adopted, we cannot jump far beyond the unknown roots.

The advantage of the one-sided approach to  $\lambda_1$  is also obtained for any other root, say  $\lambda_{j+1}$ , by using instead of  $p(\mu_k)$  in Eq. (3.15), the deflated polynomial  $p_j(\mu_k)$ , where

$$p_j(\mu_k) = p(\mu_k) / \prod_{i=1}^j (\mu_k - \lambda_i) \quad (3.16)$$

and the  $\lambda_1$  to  $\lambda_j$  have already been calculated, Fig. 3.

In the algorithm the accelerated Secant iteration is stopped once either of the following criteria is satisfied:

(1) Assume that we did not jump over a root and that the correction to  $\mu_k$  in Eq. (3.15) is smaller than one half of the final tolerance required on the root. We then approached the root from below and are near enough to start inverse iteration. The final eigenvalue is calculated by adding the Rayleigh correction to  $\mu_k$  (see Section 3.4).

(2) Let  $\alpha$  be the number of negative pivots in the factorization at  $\mu_{k+1}$ , and  $\beta$  be the number of eigenvalues which have been determined and which are smaller than  $\mu_{k+1}$ . Suppose  $\gamma = \alpha - \beta$ , then we know that we jumped over  $\gamma$  unknown eigenvalues. Inverse iteration is now used for the vectors and Rayleigh corrections are calculated to obtain the  $\gamma$  eigenvalues. In the process eigenvectors corresponding to eigenvalues larger than  $\mu_{k+1}$  may be found; for example, if we jumped into an eigenvalue cluster.

For iteration towards the next unknown eigenvalue, we use Eq. (3.16) to suppress the last found roots from two previously calculated polynomial values, which are the starting points in Eq. (3.15) with  $\eta = 2.0$ . In Eq. (3.16) we do not want to divide by values close to zero and therefore select two  $\mu$ -values far enough from the calculated roots. As implemented in the programs, it is only necessary to store the last three calculated polynomial values.

The objective of obtaining economically a shift near the next unknown root can also be pursued using a Newton iteration with the same factor  $\eta$ , where

$$\mu_{k+1} = \mu_k - \eta \frac{p(\mu_k)}{p'(\mu_k)} \quad (3.17)$$

The Newton iteration has been used efficiently in the eigenvalue solution of tridiagonal matrices [5]. For matrices with larger bandwidth the main difficulty lies in finding an economical algorithm to evaluate  $p'(\mu_k)$ . The following scheme was considered. The function  $p'(\mu)$  is given by

$$p'(\mu) = \det B \frac{d}{d\mu} \det (B^{-1}A - \mu I) \quad (3.18)$$

where  $\mu$  is now a variable.

FACT Let  $K$  be a square matrix of order  $n$ , with its elements  $k_{ij}$  functions of  $t$ . Then

$$\frac{d}{dt} \det K = \sum_{j=1}^n \det K^{(j)}$$

where  $K^{(j)}$  is  $K$  except in row  $j$ , which is now  $(k'_{j1} \ k'_{j2} \ \dots \ k'_{jn})$ .

Using the fact we have

$$p'(\mu) = \det B \left\{ - \sum_{j=1}^n \det (B^{-1}A - \mu I)^{(j,j)} \right\} \quad (3.19)$$

where  $(B^{-1}A - \mu I)^{(j,j)}$  is obtained by deleting row  $j$  and column  $j$  from  $(B^{-1}A - \mu I)$ .

We need to use an efficient scheme to evaluate Eq. (3.19).

Consider an equation for element  $(j,j)$  in  $(B^{-1}A - \mu I)^{-1}$ ,

$$\{(B^{-1}A - \mu I)^{-1}\}_{jj} = \frac{\det(B^{-1}A - \mu I)^{(j,j)}}{\det(B^{-1}A - \mu I)}$$

Hence Eq. (3.19) becomes

$$p'(\mu) = - \det B \left\{ \det(B^{-1}A - \mu I) \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ (B^{-1}A - \mu I)^{-1} \right\}_{jj} \right\}$$

and for  $\mu = \mu_k$

$$p'(\mu_k) = - \det(A - \mu_k B) \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ (B^{-1}A - \mu_k I)^{-1} \right\}_{jj} \quad (3.20)$$

To calculate  $\left\{ (B^{-1}A - \mu_k I)^{-1} \right\}_{jj}$  we solve

$$(A - \mu_k B) z = B e_j \quad (j=1, \dots, n) \quad (3.21)$$

where we need to find only the  $j$ 'th element in  $z$ , say  $z_j$ . The Newton iteration formula, Eq. (3.17), then becomes

$$\mu_{k+1} = \mu_k + \frac{\eta}{\sum_{j=1}^n z_j}$$

One may like to compare the cost of two Secant steps with one Newton iteration. Essentially, we then need to compare the operations involved in the solution of Eq. (3.21) and two factorizations or about  $n^2 m_A$  versus  $\frac{1}{2} n m_A^2$  operations. Therefore the Newton iteration is much more costly. The algorithm was tested and it was found that the iteration times are much longer than using Secant steps.

#### 3.3.4 Starting Iteration Values

In the Secant iteration we need two starting values  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ , which are both lower bounds on  $\lambda_1$ . With  $B$  positive definite one starting value is zero. As the second value we may use a



negative number, whose magnitude depends on the norms of A and B. However, it is more efficient to use for  $\mu_2$  a positive lower bound on  $\lambda_1$ . If  $\mu_2$  is close to  $\lambda_1$  we may need only one more factorization to bracket the root. Let us note that a positive lower bound on  $\lambda_1$  cannot be obtained using matrix norms only. Assume that A is a structure stiffness matrix with the rigid body modes not removed, and that  $B = I$ . It is clear that from the magnitudes of the elements in A alone we cannot conclude that the lowest eigenvalue of A is zero.

A positive lower bound estimate on  $\lambda_1$  would be obtained from a single Newton step. But the evaluation of the tangent is costly. Therefore, the following scheme was used. An approximate tangent was evaluated using first 3, then 5, then 7, etc. evenly spaced columns in B, until successive tangent approximations varied by less than a factor. If the factor is small, we probably have to evaluate the tangent quite accurately. But if the factor is large, then  $\mu_2$  may be much larger than  $\lambda_1$ . In this case, if there are  $\gamma$  negative pivots in the factorization at  $\mu_2$  the next estimate for  $\mu_2$  is taken equal to the last one divided by  $(\gamma + 1)$  until  $\gamma = 0$ . It is reasonable to use in the approximate tangent evaluation about as many operations as in a single Secant step. On this basis we should use approximately  $\frac{1}{2} m_A$  columns in B. However, as also observed in test examples, in general many more columns in B may be needed to obtain from the approximate Newton step  $\mu_2 < \lambda_1$ .

not more effective.

Inverse iteration analysis shows that an iteration vector ultimately converges to the eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue nearest to the shift, provided the starting vector is not deficient in that eigenvector. But it is important to note that with a low convergence tolerance, we may accept an approximation to any other eigenvector. In fact, if the tolerance is too low we may accept a vector which is not an approximation to an eigenvector at all. Also, convergence should be based on the Rayleigh corrections calculated. If the vector iterates into an eigenspace of dimension larger than one, two successive iteration vectors may be completely different and yet have converged.

For an operation count we summarize an inverse iteration step at the shift  $\mu$  to consist of

$$(A - \mu B) \bar{x}_{k+1} = y_k \quad (3.24)$$

where referring to Section 3.3.1 we obtain  $\bar{x}_{k+1}$  using

$$LDL^T \bar{x}_{k+1} = y_k$$

The right hand side reduction gives

$$L^T \bar{x}_{k+1} = D^{-1} L^{-1} y_k$$

and the back-substitution gives  $\bar{x}_{k+1}$  (see also Chapter 5). Next

we form

$$\bar{y}_{k+1} = B \bar{x}_{k+1} \quad (3.25)$$

$$\rho^c(\bar{x}_{k+1}) = \frac{(\bar{x}_{k+1}, y_k)}{(\bar{x}_{k+1}, \bar{y}_{k+1})} \quad (3.26)$$

$$y_{k+1} = (\bar{y}_{k+1} - \alpha_1 w_1 - \dots - \alpha_t w_t) / (\bar{x}_{k+1}, \bar{y}_{k+1})^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (3.27)$$

where the  $w_i$  are stored in core, and

$$w_i = Bv_i$$

$$\alpha_j = (\bar{y}_{k+1}, v_j)$$

The number of operations are

$$4nm + 2nt + 5n \quad \text{when} \quad m = m_A = m_B$$

$$2nm + 2nt + 5n \quad \text{when} \quad m = m_A ; m_B = 0$$

If the eigenvectors are calculated to high precision we would only need to orthogonalize the starting iteration vector to the eigenvectors already found. However, in general, the orthogonalization in each iteration is advisable.

We should mention an inverse iteration scheme in which we use the transformation  $z_k = \tilde{L}^T x_k$  with  $B = \tilde{L}\tilde{L}^T$ . Then Eq. (3.24) can be written as

$$\{\tilde{L}^{-1}(A - \mu B)\tilde{L}^{-T}\} \bar{z}_{k+1} = z_k \quad (3.28)$$

and we iterate as follows

$$\tilde{z}_k = \tilde{L} z_k$$

$$(A - \mu B)\tilde{z}_{k+1} = \tilde{z}_k$$

$$\bar{z}_{k+1} = \tilde{L}^T \tilde{z}_{k+1}$$

$$\rho^c(\bar{z}_{k+1}) = \frac{(\bar{z}_{k+1}, z_k)}{(\bar{z}_{k+1}, \bar{z}_{k+1})}$$

$$z_{k+1} = (\bar{z}_{k+1} - \beta_1 \bar{v}_1 - \dots - \beta_t \bar{v}_t) / (\bar{z}_{k+1}, \bar{z}_{k+1})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where

$$\beta_j = (\bar{z}_{k+1}, \bar{v}_j)$$

$$\bar{v}_j = \tilde{L}^T v_j$$

There is practically no difference in the number of operations required, but we only need storage for the vectors  $\bar{v}_i$ , whereas using Eq. (3.24) to (3.27) we store the  $v_i$  and  $w_i$ . However, we require the Cholesky factor of B. The direct scheme in Eq. (3.24) to (3.27) is preferable because there are no difficulties when B is ill-conditioned or non-negative definite.

### 3.5 Computational Aspects

In the preceding sections the algorithm was described to perform Secant steps in order to shift into the vicinity of the next unknown root. Then the iteration for the vector is started. The final eigenvalue is obtained by adding the Rayleigh correction to the shift. Alternatively, one may calculate the root in a Secant iteration to high precision and obtain the vector in one or two inverse iterations. The greater efficiency of one method over the other depends largely on the work involved in a Secant step and in an inverse iteration.

Figure 4 shows the number of inverse iterations equivalent in operations to one Secant step. In practical structural analysis the half bandwidth is seldom smaller than 20 or 30, and then inverse iteration is already considerably cheaper than triangular factorization. After the jump, we may need, if many, 8 inverse iterations to find the final Rayleigh correction and the eigenvector. At a small, practical bandwidth, the operations

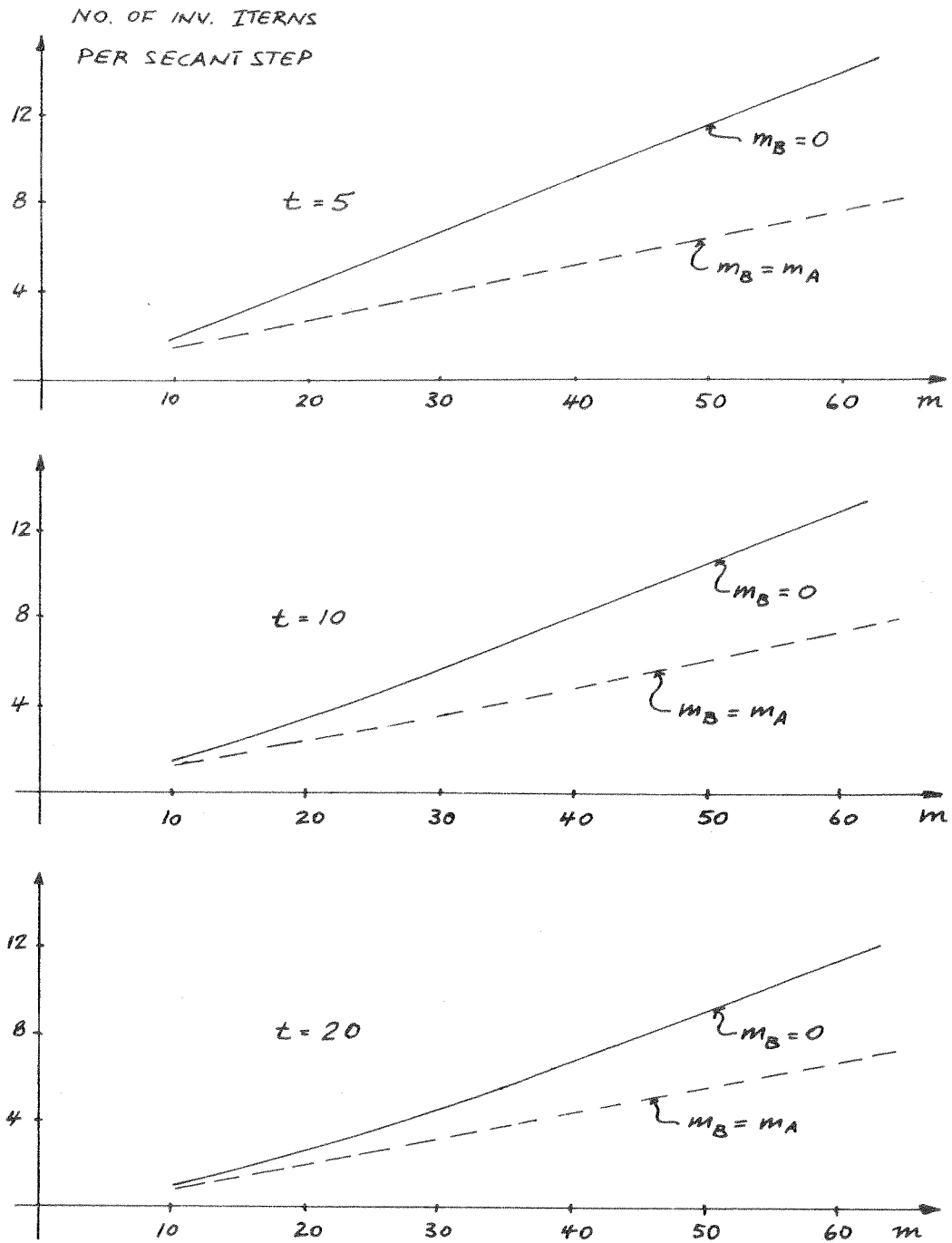


FIGURE 4: NUMBER OF INVERSE ITERATIONS PER SECANT STEP

$t$  = NUMBER OF VECTORS ALREADY CALCULATED

required would be equivalent to about two factorizations. Therefore, the strategy for starting inverse iteration is economical.

We may also consider using a Rayleigh quotient shift after the first inverse iterations. However, once the vector has settled down to some precision, final convergence is usually rapid and another factorization would not pay.

To check convergence we calculate in each iteration the current eigenvalue approximation

$$\lambda_i^{(k+1)} = \mu + \rho^c(\bar{x}_{k+1}) \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

and a relative tolerance

$$t_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{|\lambda_i^{(k+1)} - \lambda_i^{(k)}|}{\lambda_i^{(k+1)}}; \quad \lambda_i^{(1)} = 0.0$$

where  $\lambda_i^{(k+1)}$  is the new approximation obtained in the  $k$ 'th iteration. We say that convergence has been reached once  $t_i^{(k+1)}$  is smaller than a prescribed tolerance.

Error bounds on the eigenvalues are easily obtained in the iteration. Let  $\ell$  be the last iteration, then we evaluate

$$(A - \mu B) \bar{x}_{\ell+1} = B \bar{x}_\ell$$

and

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{(\bar{x}_\ell, B \bar{x}_\ell)}{(\bar{x}_{\ell+1}, B \bar{x}_{\ell+1})}$$

and have with  $\sigma$  positive

$$\mu - \sigma \leq \lambda_i \leq \mu + \sigma$$

where  $\mu$  is the current shift and  $\lambda_i$  is the exact eigenvalue of  $Av = \lambda Bv$  [5].

Note that in practical examples  $p(\mu_k)$  can be much larger than the overflow of the machine and that therefore a scale factor is used in the evaluation of the polynomial values.

In order to find the largest eigenvalues in Eq. (2.20), i.e.

$$Bv = \kappa Av$$

the solution scheme is modified in an obvious way to iterate from the right to  $\kappa_n$ . In this case we use  $\mu_1 = ||B||/\lambda_{1A}$ , where  $\lambda_{1A}$  is the smallest eigenvalue of A and  $||B||$  is any convenient norm of B. We only need an approximation for  $\lambda_{1A}$  obtained from a few inverse iterations on A. If  $\mu_1 < \kappa_n$  we need to increase the shift until all pivots in the triangular factorization of  $(B - \mu_1 A)$  are negative.

### 3.6 $Av = \lambda Bv$ with B Diagonal and Non-Negative Definite

We are particularly interested in the case B diagonal with some zero diagonal elements. Assume that we have t zero diagonal elements in B. Instead of Eq. (3.1) consider the equivalent problem

$$Bv = \kappa Av \tag{3.29}$$

where  $\kappa = 1/\lambda$  and A is positive definite. By simple substitution we find that Eq. (3.29) is satisfied with the eigenvalues  $\kappa_i = 0$   $i = 1, \dots, t$  and the corresponding eigenvectors  $v_i = e_j$  where  $i = 1, \dots, t$  and the j are selected to correspond to the zero diagonal elements in B. It follows that in  $Av = \lambda Bv$  we have t infinite eigenvalues. Physically an infinite eigenvalue represents an infinite frequency which arises because zero mass has been associated with a degree of freedom.

In the algorithm developed no difficulty at all arises in finding the lowest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors in Eq. (3.1) when B has zero or small diagonal elements. If, instead, a program is used which transforms the generalized eigenvalue problem into the standard form, Eq. (3.2), it is necessary to have large enough diagonal elements to preserve numerical stability.

### 3.7 Programs SECANT and SECANTD

Both programs use the algorithm described in this chapter to calculate the smallest eigenvalues and associated vectors in the problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$ . Program SECANT was written for the case B banded and SECANTD for the case B diagonal non-negative definite. To obtain programs which calculate largest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors in the problem  $Bv = \mu Av$  only a few modifications are necessary.

The programs have been established as efficient in-core solvers. During execution both matrices A and B together with the iteration vectors are in high speed storage. Therefore the maximum system size that can be analyzed is governed by the high speed storage available. As was pointed out the determinant search technique is most efficient on systems with small bandwidth, in which case on a reasonable size computer the order of the matrices can be large.

The calling parameters, storage requirements together with the program listings are given in Appendix II. Note that SECANTD is called by program MODES described in Chapter 5.



## 4. EIGENVALUE ANALYSIS USING A SUBSPACE ITERATION TECHNIQUE

### 4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter an algorithm was developed which uses factorizations and then vector inverse iterations to find sequentially eigenvalues and corresponding vectors. If the bandwidth of the system is large, a triangular factorization is much more costly than a vector inverse iteration. In this case an algorithm which uses primarily vector iteration and only a few factorizations altogether is more economical. Such algorithm is presented in this chapter. The technique used is a subspace iteration on operators A and B simultaneously. First the theory is presented. Then various numerical problems encountered in the solution are discussed. The main difficulty is the selection of the starting subspace. Various schemes have been considered, and a very simple but effective way is now used in the programs. For the solution of the small generalized eigenvalue problem in the subspace iteration, a generalized Jacobi method, iterating directly on both operators is used.

Program SSPACE is introduced which finds the smallest eigenvalues and associated vectors, but has also been used with small modifications to calculate all eigenvalues in a specified interval. Example analyses are given in Chapter 6.

### 4.2 A Subspace Iteration Algorithm for the Generalized Eigenvalue Problem

We want the smallest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors of the problem

$$Av = \lambda Bv \quad (4.1)$$

when B is positive definite or diagonal non-negative definite. The basic idea is the simultaneous iteration with a number of vectors. Let  $X_k$  store p iteration vectors after k iteration steps, then we could solve

$$AX_{k+1} = BX_k R_{k+1}^{-1} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (4.2)$$

where  $R_{k+1}$  is an upper triangular matrix which ensures that the vectors in  $X_{k+1}$  are B-orthogonal.

We recognize Eq. (4.2) as simple inverse iteration with Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization. Provided the starting vectors in  $X_1$  are not deficient in the eigenvectors corresponding to  $\lambda_1$  to  $\lambda_p$  and  $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_p < \lambda_{p+1}$  we have

$$X_k \rightarrow V; R_k \rightarrow \Lambda \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

where

$$AV = BV\Lambda$$

and

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \cdot & & \\ & & \cdot & \\ & & & \lambda_p \end{bmatrix}; V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \cdots v_p \end{bmatrix}$$

The i'th column in  $X_k$  converges to the i'th eigenvector with a rate of  $\max\left(\frac{\lambda_{i-1}}{\lambda_i}, \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_{i+1}}\right)$ . This convergence rate results from

the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization of the iteration vectors from the left to the right. We note a disadvantage of the iteration. If, for example, the first column is not very rich in  $v_1$ , but

the third column is, then in this iteration no advantage is taken of it.

We should be able to do much better than in Eq. (4.2).

Assume that the starting vectors in  $X_1$  span the  $p$ -dimensional least dominant subspace, but are not eigenvectors. A good iteration scheme would find in this case the eigenvectors in a single step. However, using Eq. (4.2) the number of iterations needed depends on how rich the individual starting vectors are in their final corresponding eigenvectors and on the convergence rates.

In order to improve upon the iteration scheme in Eq. (4.2) we need to realize that we are actually iterating with a  $p$ -dimensional subspace. Let the columns in  $X_k$  span the space denoted by  $\mathcal{E}_k$ , then

$$\mathcal{E}_{k+1} = \{x \mid Ax = By ; y \in \mathcal{E}_k\} \quad (4.3)$$

Furthermore, the same sequence of subspaces as by Eq. (4.2) is also generated using

$$AX_{k+1} = BX_k \quad (4.4)$$

This seems to contradict the fact that in this iteration each column in  $X_{k+1}$  is known to converge to the least dominant eigenvector. Actually there is no contradiction. Although in exact arithmetic the  $X_{k+1}$  generated by the rules in Eqs. (4.2) and (4.4) span the same subspaces, the  $X_{k+1}$  in Eq. (4.4) become a poorer and poorer basis. The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization in Eq. (4.2) preserves numerical stability in generating an orthogonal basis in each subspace.

Our aim is to find in  $\mathcal{E}_{k+1}$  a basis of vectors which are much closer to the eigenvectors sought than the columns in  $X_{k+1}$  in Eq. (4.2). The following algorithm gives an improved convergence.

For  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , iterate from  $\mathcal{E}_k$  to  $\mathcal{E}_{k+1}$

$$A\bar{X}_{k+1} = BX_k \quad (4.5)$$

Find the projections of the operators A and B onto  $\mathcal{E}_{k+1}$

$$A_{k+1} = \bar{X}_{k+1}^T A \bar{X}_{k+1} \quad (4.6)$$

$$B_{k+1} = \bar{X}_{k+1}^T B \bar{X}_{k+1} \quad (4.7)$$

Solve for the eigensystem of the projected operators

$$A_{k+1} Q_{k+1} = B_{k+1} Q_{k+1} \Lambda_{k+1} \quad (4.8)$$

Find an improved approximation to the eigenvectors

$$X_{k+1} = \bar{X}_{k+1} Q_{k+1} \quad (4.9)$$

where then

$$\Lambda_k \rightarrow \Lambda \quad ; \quad X_k \rightarrow V \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

The better convergence rate is immediately observed by referring to the extreme case discussed with Eq. (4.2) on page 42. In this case the above algorithm yields in one step the  $p$  least dominant eigenvectors. This is obvious because we actually solve the eigenvalue problem of A and B in the least dominant  $p$ -dimensional subspace.

Rutishauser used a different subspace iteration algorithm [12], but his convergence analysis is applicable to the above scheme. It shows that the asymptotic convergence rate of the  $i$ 'th vector to an eigenvector is  $\lambda_i/\lambda_{p+1}$ , where the iteration is performed with  $p$  vectors. Although this is an asymptotic

convergence rate, it indicates that the vectors corresponding to the lowest eigenvalues converge fastest. Also, a high convergence rate can be obtained by using many more vectors than there are eigenvectors required. Multiple eigenvalues do not decrease the convergence rate as long as  $\lambda_p < \lambda_{p+1}$ .

In practice we are much interested to know what happens already in the first few iterations. Referring to Section 2.2 we identify Eqs. (4.6) to (4.9) as a Ritz analysis with the vectors in  $\bar{X}_{k+1}$  as the Ritz functions. Therefore the eigenvalues in  $\Lambda_{k+1}$  are stationary points in conformity with Rayleigh's minimum principle and they are upper bounds on the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$  to  $\lambda_p$ . Also, we recall that in a Ritz analysis the lower eigenvalues are approximated best [13].

As was pointed out already, the same sequence of subspaces is generated using either of the three iteration schemes. However, the number of operations required in one step using Eq. (4.2), Eq. (4.4), or Eqs. (4.5) to (4.9) are different. Therefore, a combination of all three schemes has been implemented.

A number of subspace iterations have been presented by different authors. Originally, in 1957, Bauer proposed a bi-iteration method for solving  $Av = \lambda v$  with arbitrary matrix  $A$  [14]. Rutishauser specialized the idea to the case  $A$  symmetric [12]. Jennings introduced a simultaneous iteration method, in which he calculated a linear prediction matrix, to predict better vectors from the current iteration vectors [15][16][17].

The algorithm in Eq. (4.5) to (4.9) has the advantage that it gives a direct solution of the generalized eigenvalue problem,

and we have a clear geometric understanding of the solution procedure. In this section only theory was presented. But, in my opinion, the value of an algorithm can only be judged after exposure of all its numerical problems.

#### 4.3 A Generalized Jacobi Iteration for the Problem $Av = \lambda Bv$

In Eq. (4.8) we calculate the eigensystem of the projected operators. The problem may be restated as

$$Av = \lambda Bv \quad (4.10)$$

where A and B are full matrices of order p and B is positive definite.

We observe two features. In the first calculation of the operator projections, B in Eq. (4.10) may be quite ill-conditioned. This can be the case in the analysis of building frames (see Section 6.5). Secondly, we note that as the iteration vectors approach the eigenvectors, A and B in Eq. (4.10) tend towards diagonal form.

If  $B = SS^T$ , then the problem in Eq. (4.10) is equivalent to

$$(S^{-1}AS^{-T})(S^T v) = \lambda(S^T v) \quad (4.11)$$

Efficiently, S is taken as the Cholesky factor of B, in which case  $S = \tilde{L}$ . If B is well-conditioned with respect to inversion, then this is a very stable process. However, when B is ill-conditioned, this process is itself ill-conditioned. We know that as B becomes semidefinite, the system has very large eigenvalues. However, as  $\lambda_n \leq \left\| \left| \tilde{L}^{-1} \tilde{A} \tilde{L}^{-T} \right| \right\|$  the elements in  $\tilde{L}^{-1} \tilde{A} \tilde{L}^{-T}$  are then very large and the eigenvalues of normal size are determined inaccurately.

We may also find a matrix  $S$  using the spectral decomposition of  $B$ , i.e.,  $B = RD^2R^T$ , in which case  $S = RD$ . This has an advantage if  $B$  is ill-conditioned, because the ill-conditioning of  $B$  is now concentrated in the small elements of  $D$ . In  $S^{-1}AS^{-T}$  only those rows and columns corresponding to the small elements in  $D$  will have large elements, and the eigenvalues of normal size are more likely to be preserved.

A small example on which both transformations break down, although the finite eigenvalue can be well determined, is given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

solving

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 2-2\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad \text{gives } \lambda_1 = \frac{3}{4}; \quad (\lambda_2 = \infty)$$

In the programs developed a different solution is used which avoids a factorization of  $B$  and takes advantage of the fact that  $A$  and  $B$  tend towards diagonal form [18]. Consider the case  $n = 2$  as in the standard Jacobi iteration

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{jj} & a_{jk} \\ a_{kj} & a_{kk} \end{bmatrix}; \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{jj} & b_{jk} \\ b_{kj} & b_{kk} \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.12)$$

Our aim is to find the two  $B$ -orthonormal vectors which also diagonalize  $A$ . The columns in  $V$ , where

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha \\ \gamma & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.13)$$

completely determine the directions of these vectors. The coefficients  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  are obtained from the condition that the off-diagonal elements in  $V^T A V$  and  $V^T B V$  shall vanish. We note that in general, the diagonal elements in  $V^T B V$  are not unity because the columns in  $V$  are eigenvectors which are not  $B$ -orthonormalized. The eigenvalues are the ratios of the diagonal elements in  $V^T A V$  and  $V^T B V$ . The equations for  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  are

$$\alpha a_{jj} + (1 + \alpha\gamma) a_{jk} + \gamma a_{kk} = 0 \quad (4.14)$$

$$\alpha b_{jj} + (1 + \alpha\gamma) b_{jk} + \gamma b_{kk} = 0 \quad (4.15)$$

If  $A$  and  $B$  are scalar multiples we set  $\alpha = 0$  and obtain

$$\gamma = \frac{-a_{jk}}{a_{kk}}. \quad \text{In the general case let}$$

$$\bar{a}_{kk} = a_{kk} b_{jk} - b_{kk} a_{jk}$$

$$\bar{a}_{jj} = a_{jj} b_{jk} - b_{jj} a_{jk}$$

$$a = a_{jj} b_{kk} - a_{kk} b_{jj}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\bar{a}_{kk}}{x} ; \quad \gamma = -\frac{\bar{a}_{jj}}{x}$$

then

$$x^2 - a x - \bar{a}_{kk} \bar{a}_{jj} = 0$$

$$x_{1,2} = \frac{a}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^2 + 4\bar{a}_{kk} \bar{a}_{jj}}{4}}$$

where we use the absolutely larger value of  $x$ .

In general, we know that this congruence transformation is possible provided one of the operators is positive definite. Note



the corresponding analogy between Eqs. (4.14) and (4.15).

Let us use the method to solve the small example above. In this case

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$V^T A V = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad V^T B V = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

hence

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{3}{4}; \quad \lambda_2 = \infty$$

The eigenvalue problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$  with matrices of order larger than two can now be solved in a similar way as the standard eigenvalue problem when rotation matrices are used. For example, we may reduce  $A$  and  $B$  simultaneously to tridiagonal form and then use a determinant search technique to find the eigenvalues.

In the subspace iteration programs the method is used in form of a Jacobi iteration on  $A$  and  $B$  simultaneously. This way we take advantage of the small off-diagonal elements in  $A$  and  $B$  as the number of subspace iterations increases.

The Jacobi iteration on  $A$  and  $B$  can be implemented in various ways. One may simply zero the off-diagonal elements sequentially, irrespective of how small they are already. But it is more efficient to use a threshold iteration, in which the elements are only zeroed, if they are in magnitude larger than the current threshold.

Physically, in the diagonalization we want to reduce the coupling between the generalized degrees of freedom  $i$  and  $j$ . A measure of the coupling is given by the coupling factors  $(a_{ij}^2/a_{ii} a_{jj})^{1/2}$  and  $(b_{ij}^2/b_{ii} b_{jj})^{1/2}$ . The iteration is most efficient if we annihilate first the most significant and then the smaller coupling, until the diagonal forms have been reached. The following natural scheme is used in the programs:

- (i) Initialize the threshold for the  $k$ 'th sweep
- (ii) For all  $(i,j)$  with  $i < j$  calculate the coupling factors and apply a transformation if either is larger than the threshold.
- (iii) Calculate new eigenvalue estimates.
- (iv) Compare the new eigenvalue estimates with those from the previous sweep. If the change is too large, start the next sweep. Before convergence is accepted, check if all coupling factors are smaller than the tolerance on the eigenvalues.

In (i) we need to make a decision what threshold should be used. If we want to have the coupling factors smaller than  $10^{-12}$  after about six iterations, it is reasonable to use as the threshold  $10^{-2k}$ . In (iv) it may be that the relative change in the eigenvalue estimates are smaller than  $10^{-12}$ , but the iteration continues until the coupling factors are also small enough. Note, in (ii) we only need the square of the coupling factors and compare it with the square of the threshold tolerance, but this still requires six multiplications at each check. We could use

$(a_{ij}/a_m)$  and  $(b_{ij}/a_m)$ , where

$$a_m = \frac{1}{p} \sum_i a_{ii}, \quad b_m = \frac{1}{p} \sum_i b_{ii} \quad \text{and would only need two multiplications}$$

at each check. However, in example analyses, convergence was not reached as fast. It is important to use the coupling factors as thresholds because the diagonal elements in A and B, calculated in the subspace iterations can vary significantly. For example, in the subspace iteration analysis of the frame in Section 6.5, the largest ratio of the diagonal elements in B is in each iteration about  $10^4$  or more.

Considering the numerical stability of the method, we realize that V is not an orthogonal matrix. Therefore, element growth could occur in A and B. This element growth has never been observed but would have to be counteracted by normalizing the elements in B after each sweep.

Note that if the method is used on the standard eigenvalue problem, we find  $\alpha = -\gamma$  and recognize V as a multiple of the Jacobi rotation matrix, where

$$\cos\theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\gamma^2}}, \quad \sin\theta = \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{1+\gamma^2}}$$

#### 4.4 Selection of Initial Transformation Vectors

The choice of the initial transformation vectors in  $X_1$  is most important. If these vectors are already close to eigenvectors, convergence can be obtained in a few iterations. On the other hand, when the starting subspace spanned by the vectors is only a poor approximation to the least dominant p-dimensional

subspace, many iterations are required and the algorithm can become expensive.

Therefore, whenever we have starting vectors which quite well approximate the eigenvectors sought, these vectors should be used in  $X_1$ . In this case, the algorithm is ideally suited for solution. In practice, this may arise for instance in dynamic optimization. As the structure is modified in small steps, the eigensystem of the previous structure would be a good approximation to the eigensystem of the new structure. Sometimes it may be difficult to judge if good transformation vectors are known. But the conventional Ritz analysis in which load patterns are specified (see Section 2.2) the component mode synthesis and related methods summarized by Uhrig, can all be a 'good' first subspace iteration [3].

Assume that we do not have by previous experience or analysis 'good' transformation vectors. Consider the problem of choosing the starting subspace using the operators A and B only, i.e. the columns in  $X_1$  shall be established by the computer using only the elements in A and B.

One way of solution would be to find  $X_1$  from two operators  $A'$  and  $B'$  which have a least dominant p-dimensional subspace close to the one of A and B. Naturally, we would like to find  $A'$  and  $B'$  and its eigensystem with little effort. Different possibilities can be investigated.

In the component mode synthesis we establish the vectors in  $X_1$  from eigenvectors of a number of pairs of smaller operators

$A'$  and  $B'$  which are related to  $A$  and  $B$ . If all these vectors have to be solved for, as we now assume, then this procedure is very expensive. Furthermore, it is difficult if not impossible to have the computer establish adequate pairs of operators  $A'$  and  $B'$ .

A different scheme could be used, in which we reduce the order of the eigenvalue problem. The operator  $B'$  is obtained by lumping the elements in  $B$  into  $q$  diagonal positions, where  $p < q \ll n$ . The other coordinates are eliminated and the  $q$ -dimensional eigenvalue problem is solved. This procedure was described in Section 2.2 as static condensation of the massless degrees of freedom. It was pointed out that it is a subspace iteration on the operators  $A$  and  $B'$ , where the vectors in  $B X_1$  of Eq. (4.5) are unit vectors with entries at the  $q$ -coordinates. We should expect to obtain a better solution using the same starting transformation vectors but performing a subspace iteration on the operators  $A$  and  $B$ .

Suitable operators  $A'$  and  $B'$  may also be obtained by reducing the bandwidths of  $A$  and  $B$ . If the bandwidths can be reduced to very small, then the solution for the transformation vectors is economical. Assume that  $B$  is diagonal, so that we are only concerned with the reduction of the bandwidth in  $A$ . Physically, a bandwidth reduction means a lumping of stiffness, which can hardly be carried out adequately without the analyst specifying it. Otherwise a model may be analyzed which in no way resembles any more the original model of the operators  $A$  and  $B$ .

It is more direct to start immediately iterating with the operators A and B. The following seemed to be a good scheme. We use inverse iteration starting with a vector having +1 at each coordinate to find the first transformation vector. We repeat the same iteration to find all other transformation vectors, but the iteration vector is now orthogonalized to the transformation vectors already accepted. Each time the iteration is stopped once the eigenvalue estimate changes by less than a tolerance. The defect of this scheme is the following. If the tolerance for accepting an iteration vector is very high, then we virtually solve the eigenvalue problem in an expensive way. On the other hand, if the tolerance is low, then the iteration vector may be an approximation to an eigenvector which we do not want to find. Therefore, the starting subspace is not 'good' and may even be orthogonal to one of the required eigenvectors. Also, we need at least three to four inverse iterations for each transformation vector. In terms of operations this is approximately equivalent to three subspace iterations.

The final conclusion is that it is best to start directly with subspace iterations on the operators A and B. The following vectors in  $R = B X_1$ , which represent the right hand side in Eq. (4.5), have been found most effective. The first vector in R is simply the diagonal of B. The other vectors are unit vectors with +1 at a coordinate with a large ratio  $b_{ii}/a_{ii}$ . The algorithm below describes how R is established.

```

C
C      ESTABLISH STARTING TRANSFORMATION VECTORS
      DO 200 I=1,N
200    R(I,1)=B(I)
      IF (NC.EQ.1) GO TO 295
      ND=N/NC
      DO 210 I=1,N
210    W(I)=B(I)/A(I)
      DO 220 I=1,N
      DO 220 J=2,NC
220    R(I,J)=0.0
C
      L=N-ND
      DO 240 J=2,NC
      RT=0.0
      DO 260 I=1,L
      IF (W(I).LT.RT) GO TO 260
      RT=W(I)
      IJ=I
260    CONTINUE
      DO 280 I=L,N
      IF (W(I).LE.RT) GO TO 280
      RT=W(I)
      IJ=I
280    CONTINUE
      W(IJ)=0.0
      L=L-ND
240    R(IJ,J)=1.
C
295    CONTINUE

```

In the algorithm  $N$  = order of matrices,  $NC$  = number of transformation vectors and  $A$  and  $B$  are stored as one-dimensional arrays.

The physical reasoning for the selection of these starting or load vectors is as follows. First of all, not to miss a mode all mass degrees of freedom are excited in the first vector. The other vectors must be linearly independent and should excite points of maximum mass and flexibility. Also, for better convergence the unit entries in the second to last vector should not be clustered together very much. These ideas are also used in the block iteration solution (see Chapter 5), but the algorithm used in that case (normally) reads  $A$  and  $B$  only once into core.

Observe that in exact arithmetic, we may replace a vector by any linear combination of the others and itself and we still have the same starting subspace.

Referring to Section 2.2 we need to note how closely related this first subspace iteration is to a static condensation analysis. Assume that we would use only unit vectors and that we had lumped the mass at the coordinates at which the unit loads are applied, then the static condensation analysis would give the same results as the first subspace iteration.

#### 4.5 Numerical Aspects

There are various numerical questions which needed a thorough investigation in the implementation of the subspace iterations.

##### 4.5.1 Dimension of Subspace

As mentioned already there is advantage in using more iteration vectors than there are eigenvectors required. The more vectors we take, the larger the initial subspace we span and the higher the ultimate convergence rate of an iteration vector. Therefore, we iterate with  $q$  vectors when we want to find the  $p$  least dominant eigenvectors,  $q > p$ . It is most important in the iteration that we obtain monotonic convergence of  $p$  vectors to the eigenvectors sought. Assume that our starting subspace is almost orthogonal to one of the  $p$  eigenvectors. Then for many iterations we may have no approximation to that eigenvector. But suddenly it appears and rapid convergence to the required eigenvector is obtained.



A reasonable number of iteration vectors is given by

$$q = \min\{2p, p+8\} \quad (4.16)$$

With this formula we do not use an excessive number of iteration vectors, we allow for multiple roots and the dimension of the subspace is large enough to expect monotonic convergence.

#### 4.5.2 Convergence

An advantage of the subspace iteration over vector inverse iteration with shifting followed by matrix deflation is that high precision in the eigenvalues and vectors is not required for numerical stability (see Section 3.2). In practice, we are probably satisfied with 5 to 6 digit accuracy in the eigenvalues.

In the iteration new eigenvalue approximations are only obtained when the projections of the operators are calculated. Assume that in the iterations  $(k-1)$  and  $k$  we calculate eigenvalue approximations  $\lambda_i^{(k)}$  and  $\lambda_i^{(k+1)}$  respectively, then we also find

$$t_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{|\lambda_i^{(k+1)} - \lambda_i^{(k)}|}{\lambda_i^{(k)}} ; \lambda_i^{(1)} = 0.0 \quad (4.17)$$

All those eigenvalues for which  $t_i^{(k+1)}$  is smaller than a prescribed value, which we call RTOL, are said to have converged.

The subspace iteration is stopped once the required  $p$  eigenvalues have converged or the maximum number of iterations, NITEM, has been carried out. NITEM naturally must depend on the eigenvalue accuracy asked for. The maximum which RTOL should probably take is  $10^{-6}$  and then we may use NITEM = 12.

### 4.5.3 Check Calculations

The starting subspace described in Section 4.4 has been very satisfactory for obtaining monotonic convergence. In the example analyses used always all required eigenvalues and vectors were approximated monotonically with increasing accuracy. A different starting subspace spanned by only unit coordinate vectors was not as 'good'. It happened in some analyses that a required eigenvalue was missing.

In general we can make sure that we found the lowest  $p$  eigenvalues using the eigenvalue separation theorem (see Section 3.3.2). A factorization must be carried out at a shift to the right of the  $p$ 'th eigenvalue obtained in the iteration. In order to know where the check can be applied it is necessary to establish bounds for the 'exact' eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ .

Let  $\lambda_i^{(\ell+1)}$  be the eigenvalue approximation and  $v_i^{(\ell+1)}$  be the orthonormalized vector obtained in the last iteration. Assume that  $B$  is positive definite, then we have

$$r_i = (A - \lambda_i^{(\ell+1)} B) v_i^{(\ell+1)} ; \eta_i = (r_i, B^{-1} r_i)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

and

$$\lambda_i^{(\ell+1)} - \eta_i \leq \lambda_i \leq \lambda_i^{(\ell+1)} + \eta_i \quad (4.18)$$

If  $B$  is diagonal non-negative definite we could consider the problem  $Bv = \lambda Av$  instead (see Section 3.6). These error bound calculations can be rather expensive, and in practice we probably don't need exact error bounds. For the check we may also use a conservative estimate for a region in which  $\lambda_i$  lies, given by

$$\lambda_i^{(\ell+1)}(1 - 10^{-2}) < \lambda_i < \lambda_i^{(\ell+1)}(1 + 10^{-2}) \quad (4.19)$$

where only the lowest eigenvalues which all have reached convergence should be included.

It is now necessary to evaluate upper bounds on eigenvalue clusters (Fig. 5). A check can be applied at any one of these bounds. Assume that in Fig. 5 at E one eigenvalue is missing but none at F. Then we could use the interval from F to E in another subspace iteration in which all eigenvalues in this interval are calculated.

#### 4.5.4 Shifting

The lowest eigenvalues converge first in the iteration. It seems reasonable to try and shift after the first iterations in order to speed convergence of the higher eigenvalues. The main danger is to shift too far to the right and lose convergence to the lower eigenvalues. On the other hand a very small and therefore conservative shift does not give a significant increase in the convergence speed of the higher eigenvalues. A reliable and good shift can only be determined once the eigenvalue spectrum is known approximately. All required eigenvalues need have settled down before shifting. But then convergence is reached in the next subspace iterations and an additional factorization is uneconomical.

#### 4.5.5 Operation Saving

Once the lowest  $p_\ell$ ,  $p_\ell < p$ , eigenvalues have converged, we may like to stop iterating on the corresponding vectors. This

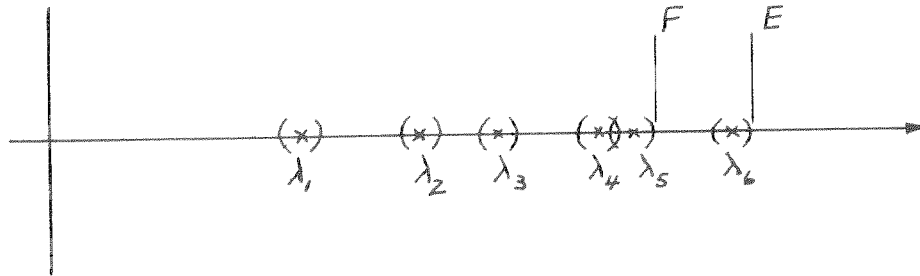


FIGURE 5: BOUNDS ON EIGENVALUES TO APPLY STURM SEQUENCE CHECK

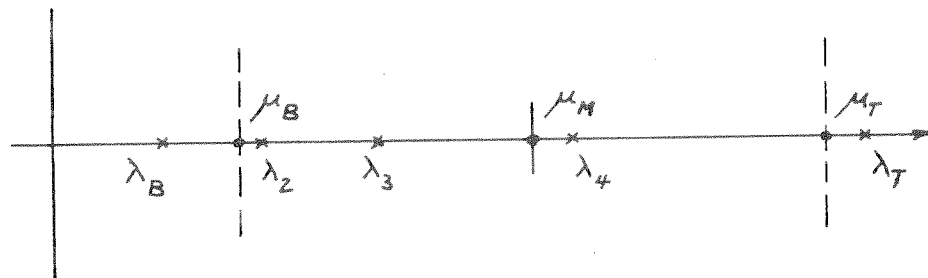


FIGURE 6: CALCULATION OF EIGENVALUES IN THE INTERVAL  $\mu_B$  TO  $\mu_T$

way we would save the inverse iteration on  $p_\ell$  vectors and we would not include them in the calculation of the new right hand side in Eq. (4.9). However, this can only be done once the space spanned by the rest of the vectors is orthogonal to the space spanned by the  $p_\ell$  vectors. Numerically, this means that the off-diagonal elements in the  $p_\ell$  first columns of  $B_{k+1}$  in Eq. (4.7) must be very small. In general, convergence for all  $p$  eigenvalues to  $RTOL=10^{-6}$  is obtained before this condition is reached.

#### 4.6 Operation Count

The triangular decomposition of  $A$  before the subspace iteration is started requires  $(\frac{1}{2} n m_A^2 + \frac{3}{2} n m_A)$  operations. Recall that one operation equals one multiplication which nearly always is followed by an addition, and that  $m_A$  and  $m_B$  are assumed to be full.

We now need to distinguish between three iteration schemes (a) simple inverse iteration of all vectors, (b) inverse iteration followed by Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization and (c) inverse iteration followed by the calculation of the projections. In the first two iteration methods we do not calculate eigenvalue estimates. The simple inverse iteration is used only once or twice and we do not normalize the iteration vectors. Table 1 summarizes the steps in each iteration and the corresponding number of operations. Terms involving the bandwidths only have been neglected.

We note that for  $m \gg q$  we need in all three schemes about the same number of operations. But when  $A$  and  $B$  have small or

TABLE 1: Operation count for subspace iterations a, b and c.

METHOD	CALCULATION	NUMBER OF OPERATIONS	
		$m = m_A = m_B$	$m = m_A; m_B = 0$
(a) Simple Inverse Iteration	$A\bar{X}_{k+1} = \bar{Y}_k$	$nq(2m+1)$	$nq(2m+1)$
	$\bar{Y}_{k+1} = B\bar{X}_{k+1}$	$nq(2m+1)$	$nq$
	TOTAL	$2nq(2m+1)$	$2nq(m+1)$
(b) Inverse Iteration with Gram- Schmidt Orthogonal- ization	$A\bar{X}_{k+1} = \bar{Y}_k$	$nq(2m+1)$	$nq(2m+1)$
	$\bar{Y}_{k+1} = B\bar{X}_{k+1}$	$nq(2m+1)$	$nq$
	$\bar{Y}_{k+1} = \bar{Y}_{k+1} R_{k+1}^{-1}$	$\frac{nq}{2}(3q+3)$	$\frac{nq}{2}(3q+3)$
	TOTAL	$2nq(2m + \frac{3}{4}q + \frac{7}{4})$	$2nq(m + \frac{3}{4}q + \frac{7}{4})$
(c) Iteration Using Projection of Operators	$A\bar{X}_{k+1} = \bar{Y}_k$	$nq(2m+1)$	$nq(2m+1)$
	$A_{k+1} = \bar{X}_{k+1}^T \bar{Y}_k$	$\frac{nq}{2}(q+1)$	$\frac{nq}{2}(q+1)$
	$\bar{Y}_{k+1} = B\bar{X}_{k+1}$	$nq(2m+1)$	$nq$
	$B_{k+1} = \bar{X}_{k+1}^T \bar{Y}_{k+1}$	$\frac{nq}{2}(q+1)$	$\frac{nq}{2}(q+1)$
	$A_{k+1} Q_{k+1} = B_{k+1} Q_{k+1} \Lambda_{k+1}$	$0(q^3)$	neglected ...
	$\bar{Y}_{k+1} = \bar{Y}_{k+1} Q_{k+1}$	$nq^2$	$nq^2$
	TOTAL	$2nq(2m+q + \frac{3}{2})$	$2nq(m+q + \frac{3}{2})$

medium bandwidth a combination of a, b and c can be significantly more economical. In program SSPACE (see Section 4.8) we perform first subspace iterations using a and b and then we iterate with c to obtain eigenvalue estimates.

Consider first the case B diagonal. To give some meaning to the number of operations required in an eigenvalue solution, we define variables  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha_T$ . Let  $\alpha$  be the number of factorizations equivalent in operations to a subspace iteration c, hence

$$\alpha = \frac{4qm + 4q^2 + 6q}{m^2 + 3m} \quad (4.20)$$

We note that  $\alpha$  is independent of n. Let  $\alpha_T$  be the total number of operations in terms of factorizations required for the subspace iterations,

$$\alpha_T = \alpha \times (\text{total no. of iterations for convergence}) \quad (4.21)$$

Assume that we use Eq. (4.16) for the relation between p and q, and that we want about five digit accuracy in the eigenvalues. Then, by experience, we need approximately 8 subspace iterations. Figures 7 and 8 show for this case the relation between  $\alpha_T$  and m for different values of p. The same information is also given for the case  $m_B = m_A$ . In this comparison of Central Processor operations it is assumed that we either perform an in-core solution, or that arrays are transferred in large blocks. In this case the CP time spent in tape reading and writing is negligible [16].

We may now say that the complete eigenvalue solution involves the initial factorization of A, the factorizations given in Figs. 7 and 8, which account in terms of operations for the subspace

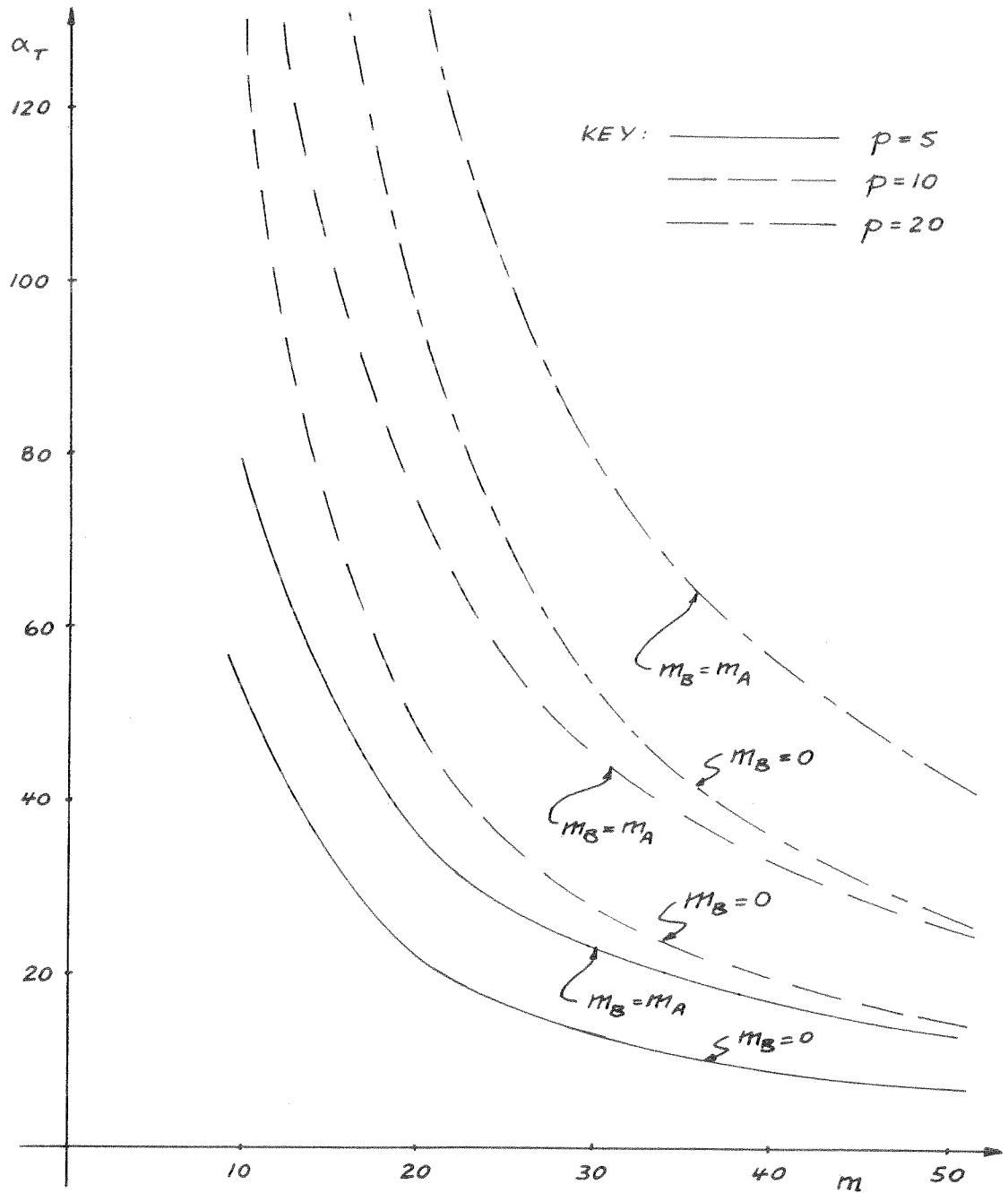


FIGURE 7: RELATION BETWEEN  $\alpha_T$  AND  $m$   
FOR  $p=5, 10$  AND  $20$ .



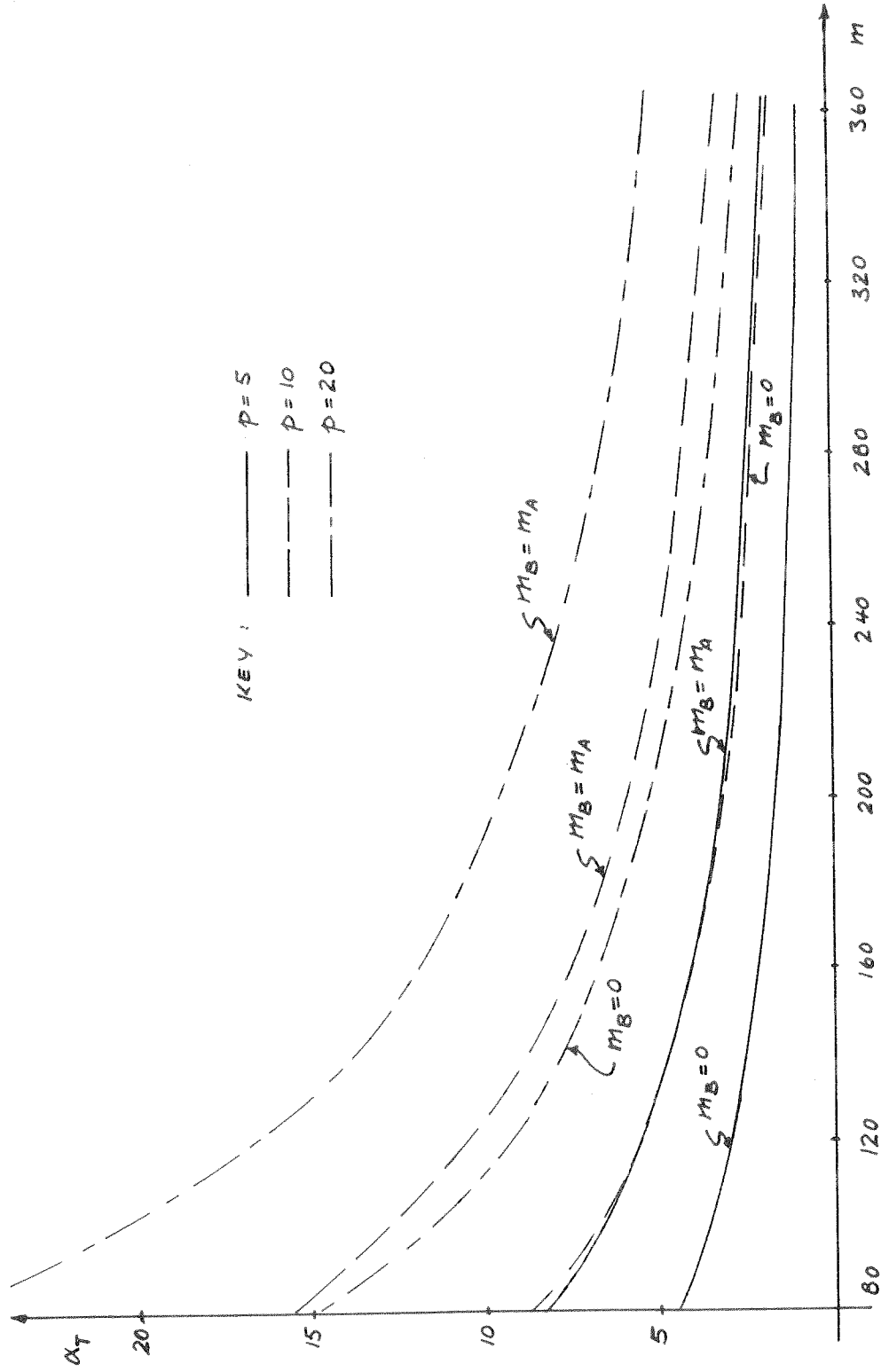


FIGURE 8: RELATION BETWEEN  $\alpha_T$  AND M FOR  $p=5, 10$  AND  $20$

iterations and the final check calculations. When  $k$  subspace iterations are needed instead of eight, we merely use the information in Figs. 7 and 8 times  $k/8$ . This will be the case when we have already excellent starting vectors from a previous solution, or when we want the eigenvalues to full machine precision.

The operation count shows that with larger  $m$  about twice as many operations are required when  $B$  is banded. We also note that when  $m$  is large the operations required in the subspace iterations are of the order of a factorization. But when  $m$  is small the eigenvalue solution is equivalent to many factorizations. A good figure to remember is that with  $m = 320$ ,  $q = 10$  and  $m_B = 0$  the subspace iterations are about equivalent to one factorization. An approximate formula for  $m$  being large and  $m_B = 0$  is  $\alpha_T = \frac{32}{m}q$ , where we observe that for  $m$  large the only significant operations are the vector inverse iterations.

Using the determinant search technique we may require an average amount of operations equivalent to about 6 to 8 factorizations in order to calculate each required eigenvalue. A large system with a small bandwidth has probably a bandwidth between 40 and 60. We note that a subspace iteration solution is then already cheaper but not excessively.

#### 4.7 Calculation of Eigenvalues and Vectors in an Interval

The subspace iteration algorithm was implemented to find all eigenvalues in an interval  $\mu_B$  to  $\mu_T$  (Fig. 6). We use the eigenvalue separation theorem at  $\mu_T$  and  $\mu_B$  to find how many eigenvalues and

corresponding vectors need be calculated. Then we shift to the midpoint of the interval  $\mu_M$  and start the iteration.

In the algorithm we iterate with  $p$  vectors when we want to find  $p$  eigenvalues between  $\mu_B$  and  $\mu_T$ . The ultimate convergence

rate of the  $i$ 'th iteration vector is  $\max \left\{ \left| \frac{\lambda_i - \mu_M}{\lambda_B - \mu_M} \right|, \left| \frac{\lambda_i - \mu_M}{\lambda_T - \mu_M} \right| \right\}$ ,

where  $\lambda_B$  and  $\lambda_T$  are the eigenvalues at bottom and top end next to the interval. We note that convergence can be slow for eigenvalues near the upper and lower end of the interval. To speed convergence for those eigenvalues we can wait until an eigenvalue has settled down. We then shift to it and use inverse iteration on the corresponding vector to obtain the eigenvalue to high precision. This means that we need more factorizations than in the iteration for the lowest eigenvalues, and in general this iteration is more expensive.

Apart from the slower convergence there are additional numerical difficulties in this solution.

Although rare it can happen that an iteration vector is oscillating in the space which is orthogonal to the space spanned by the  $p$  eigenvectors sought. Because the operator  $(A - \mu_M B)$  is indefinite, the oscillating iteration vector can give a Rayleigh quotient which lies in the interval considered. However, this is detected when we calculate error bounds using Eq. (4.18).

Assume that we want to find  $p$  eigenvalues and that  $\mu_M$  is an eigenvalue of multiplicity  $s$ , where  $p > s$ . As the shift is on

the eigenvalue, each of the iteration vectors will converge immediately to an eigenvector in the  $s$ -dimensional subspace and the iteration will fail. This will seldom occur and we can detect it because the last  $s$  pivot elements in the triangular factorization will be very small. But  $\mu_M$  may be near an eigenvalue and the iteration process will have difficulty to converge.

It may happen that  $\mu_B$  or  $\mu_T$  is an eigenvalue, then we do not need to iterate for it in the subspace iteration.

Assume that we want to calculate the smallest eigenvalues from zero to a cut-off. Then we may find how many eigenvalues are smaller than the cut-off, say  $p$ , and use the subspace iteration with  $q$  vectors and shift equal to zero.

It is obvious how to calculate the largest eigenvalues in  $Bv = \lambda Av$ . We merely need to shift to  $\mu_1 = \|B\|/\lambda_{1A}$ , where  $\lambda_{1A}$  is the smallest eigenvalue of  $A$  and  $\|B\|$  is any norm of  $B$  (see Section 3.5).

#### 4.8 Program SSPACE

Program SSPACE uses the subspace iteration technique presented to evaluate the smallest eigenvalues and associated vectors in the problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$  when  $B$  is banded or diagonal non-negative definite. During execution both matrices  $A$  and  $B$  together with the iteration vectors are in high speed storage. The program was used for the study of the algorithm. It is written flexibly so that any combination of the three different subspace iteration schemes in Table 1 can be used. A few modifications are necessary to obtain a program which finds eigenvalues and corresponding

vectors in an interval or to calculate the largest eigenvalues in the problem  $Bv = \mu Av$ .

The calling parameters, storage requirements and a listing of the program are given in Appendix II.

## 5. PROGRAM MODES

### 5.1 Introduction

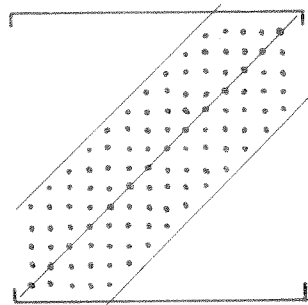
The programs presented so far all have a capacity restriction. In the solution matrices A and B together with iteration vector arrays need to fit into high speed storage. If much high speed storage is available, large systems can be analyzed. Computers have been growing continuously, but currently, even when a large computer is available, there are systems to be analyzed which are too large for an in-core solution. In general, for structural engineering problems the lowest eigenvalues and vectors of large systems are required.

In this chapter a program is presented which evaluates the lowest eigenvalues and vectors of systems that may or may not be solved in high speed storage. Program MODES solves the eigenvalue problem for B diagonal and non-negative definite. This is the most common requirement in structural engineering. The program has been used with SAP [19], but could easily be coupled to any other program which generates the matrices A and B.

### 5.2 Program Operation

It is assumed that matrices A and B are stored on tapes in block form (Fig. 9).

If only one block is used, program SECANTD is called for an in-core solution. In this case, it is assumed that we have either a large system with small bandwidth and SECANTD is appropriately used, or we have a small system with larger bandwidth. Then the

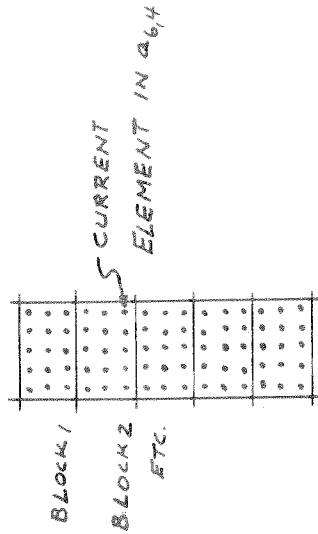


(a) MATRIX A

$NEQ = 14$ ;  $MSAND = MA + 1 = 5$

$NSBLOCK = \text{NO OF BLOCKS} = 5$

$NEQB = \text{NO OF EQNS PER BLOCK} = 3$



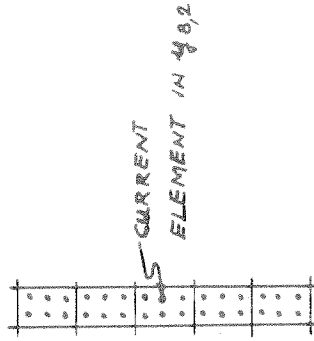
(b) STORAGE FOR MATRIX ELEMENTS

INITIALLY UPPER BAND OF

MATRIX A; FINALLY ELE-

MENTS OF D AND L<sup>T</sup> WHERE

$A = LDL^T$



(c) STORAGE FOR ELEMENTS

IN VECTORS

FIGURE 9: STORAGE OF MATRIX AND ITERATION VECTORS

eigenvalue solution is still not very costly and we have the advantage of getting the eigenvalues one-by-one to high precision with error bounds.

When more blocks than one are used program SSPA.FEB is called and a subspace iteration solution is carried out. In each subspace iteration, the projections of A and B are calculated. As was indicated in Section 4.6 little more operations are required using this subspace iteration instead of inverse iteration followed by Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization. The advantage is that we obtain eigenvalue estimates in each iteration. Also, in a Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization much tape handling would be necessary. At convergence a Sturm Sequence check can be performed to ensure that all the required eigenvalues have been calculated.

For best program efficiency the algorithm for the factorization of A and for the vector iterations need be optimized. For details I shall refer to the program in Appendix II, but the main operations are outlined on a small example in the next sections.

### 5.3 Block Factorization of A

Matrix A is factored into  $LDL^T$  using simple Gaussian elimination (Eq. (3.10) with  $\mu_k = 0.0$ ). Naturally, we work only on the upper band of A (Fig. 9). Let initially element (i,j) of the upper band of matrix A be stored in  $a_{i,j}$ . In the algorithm the elements in  $a_{i,j}$  are changed until finally  $a_{i,1} = d_{ii}$  and  $a_{i,j} = \ell_{j+i-1,i}$  where  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and  $j = 2, \dots, m_A + 1$ . We say that a block has been reduced if all  $\ell_{km}$  to be stored in the



block have been calculated and the associated row operations have been performed.

The only aspect which shall be presented here is the organization using blocks. It is easiest to demonstrate the algorithm by considering a small example. Figure 9 shows matrix A and its storage in the algorithm, where  $NEQ=14$ ,  $MBAND=5$ ,  $NBLOCK=5$  and  $NEQB=3$ . The program will have two blocks in high speed storage. There are  $NBLOCK$  main steps in each of which one block is reduced. Consider the reduction of the first block which is typical.

In this step block 1 is kept in high speed storage. We note that its reduction affects two more blocks. The reduction is carried out in the following three operations.

(i) First block 1 is reduced as far as it does not affect another block. In the example we evaluate

$$a_{2,j} = a_{2,j} - \frac{a_{1,2}}{a_{1,1}} a_{1,j+1} \quad (j=1, \dots, 4)$$

$$a_{1,2} = \frac{a_{1,2}}{a_{1,1}}$$

where we take the current elements in  $a_{i,j}$  to evaluate new elements in  $a_{i,j}$ . Also

$$a_{3,j} = a_{3,j} - \frac{a_{1,3}}{a_{1,1}} a_{1,j+2} \quad (j=1, \dots, 3)$$

$$a_{1,3} = \frac{a_{1,3}}{a_{1,1}}$$

$$a_{3,j} = a_{3,j} - \frac{a_{2,2}}{a_{2,1}} a_{2,j+1} \quad (j=1, \dots, 4)$$

$$a_{2,2} = \frac{a_{2,2}}{a_{2,1}}$$

(ii) Block 2 is now called into core and we evaluate

$$a_{4,j} = a_{4,j} - \frac{a_{1,4}}{a_{1,1}} a_{1,j+3} \quad (j=1,2)$$

$$a_{1,4} = \frac{a_{1,4}}{a_{1,1}} \quad \text{etc.}$$

We change the elements in block 2 and finally have stored multipliers in  $a_{1,4}$ ,  $a_{1,5}$ ,  $a_{2,3}$ ,  $a_{2,4}$ ,  $a_{2,5}$ ,  $a_{3,2}$ ,  $a_{3,3}$  and  $a_{3,4}$ .

(iii) Block 2 is stored on temporary tape and block 3 is called into its storage area. The elements in block 3 are changed as in (ii) and the block is stored on temporary tape behind block 2.

Block 1 has been reduced and is stored on tape. We call block 2 into its storage area and carry out its reduction analogously.

In (i) we calculate the bandwidth at each row and we take account of the variable bandwidth in (i), (ii) and (iii). Also, a change in the elements of a row is skipped if the multiplier  $l_{ij}$  is zero.

#### 5.4 Block Vector Iteration

Consider Eq. (4.5) which can be written as

$$LDL^T X = Y$$

where  $X = \bar{X}_{k+1}$  and  $Y = BX_k$ . We first reduce the vectors in  $Y$  to obtain

$$L^T X = D^{-1} L^{-1} Y$$

and then solve for  $X$  by a back-substitution.

In the vector reduction and back-substitution we keep in high speed storage one reduced block of A and as many blocks of the vectors as are effected simultaneously. Let initially the (i,j) element of Y be stored in  $y_{i,j}$ . In the reduction and back-substitution  $y_{i,j}$  is changed until finally the (i,j) element of X is stored in it.

There are again NBLOCK main steps each in the reduction and in the back-substitution. The tape organization is analogous. Referring to the example we consider the first step in the reduction which is typical.

Assume that we iterate with two vectors (Fig. 9). The first block of D and  $L^T$  now stored in elements  $a_{i,j}$  and the first three blocks of the vectors are taken into high speed storage. The reduction of the vectors with the multipliers of block 1 is

$$y_{j,k} = y_{j,k} - a_{1,j} y_{1,k} \quad (j=2, \dots, 5)$$

$$y_{1,k} = y_{1,k} / a_{1,1} \quad (k=1, 2)$$

where we use the current elements in  $y_{j,k}$  to evaluate new elements in  $y_{j,k}$ . Also

$$y_{j+1,k} = y_{j+1,k} - a_{2,j} y_{2,k} \quad (j=2, \dots, 5)$$

$$y_{2,k} = y_{2,k} / a_{2,1} \quad (k=1, 2)$$

$$y_{j+2,k} = y_{j+2,k} - a_{3,j} y_{3,k} \quad (j=2, \dots, 5)$$

$$y_{3,k} = y_{3,k} / a_{3,1} \quad (k=1, 2)$$

Next the second block of  $D$  and  $L^T$  is taken into core.

The first block of vectors is stored on temporary tape, and the vector blocks are shifted up by one. Vector block 4 is then read into the storage area which was occupied by block 3 and the reduction of the vectors continues.

In the back-substitution also always three vector blocks are in high speed storage, so that the final results in one vector block are calculated in one step.

## 6. EXAMPLE ANALYSES

### 6.1 Introduction

The aim in this chapter is to show the main characteristics of program solutions in the analysis of different kinds of structures. These include a box girder, a dam, a plane frame and a three dimensional building frame. All of these structures could have been larger, but then more computer time would have been used in the analyses without much changing the solution characteristics. The programs used are given in Appendix II.

In the subspace iteration solutions the starting subspace was generated as described in Section 4.4. Convergence was reached for  $RTOL = 10^{-6}$  (see Section 4.5.2). The total time used in the subspace iteration solution always includes the initial factorization of matrix A and the final Sturm Sequence check. Referring to Section 4.6 the sequence of subspace iterations performed in SSPACE was a,b,a,b,c,c,c,... Program SSPACEB is called from MODES and performs only iterations c.

In program SECANT and SECANTD convergence was reached to full word precision. Reference is made to program BANEIG II, which is the latest version of BANEIG [7]. All analyses were carried out using the CDC 6400 on the Berkeley Campus with a maximum storage of 130000<sub>8</sub> and a 48 bit mantissa in floating point arithmetic.

### 6.2 Analysis of Cantilever Box

The finite element idealization of the box is shown in

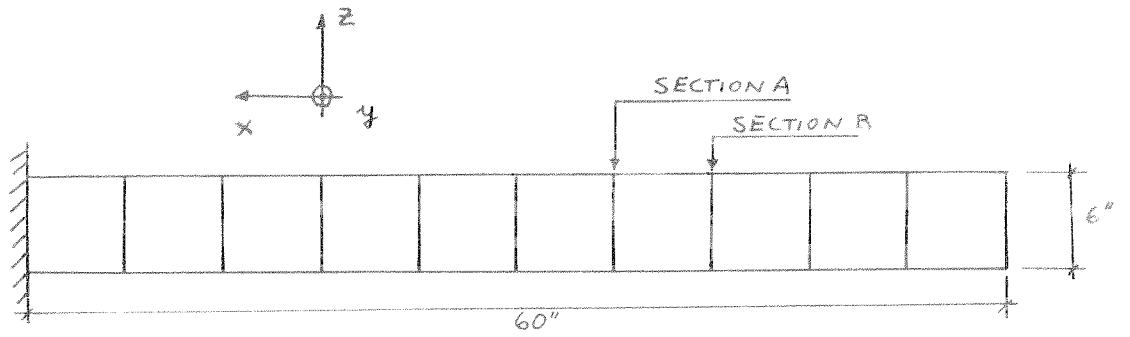
Fig. 10. The segments of the box had originally 28 degrees of freedom, but the 8 rotational degrees of freedom were condensed out before assemblage. A lumped mass formulation was used in the analysis. The order of the stiffness was 100 and the maximum half bandwidth 19.

The smallest eigenvalues of the system together with the solution times taken by the different programs are given in Table 2. For SECANTD the total time used is just the sum of the operation times for each eigenvalue. In BANEIG II the eigenvectors of the deflated system need still be transformed and this time is added.

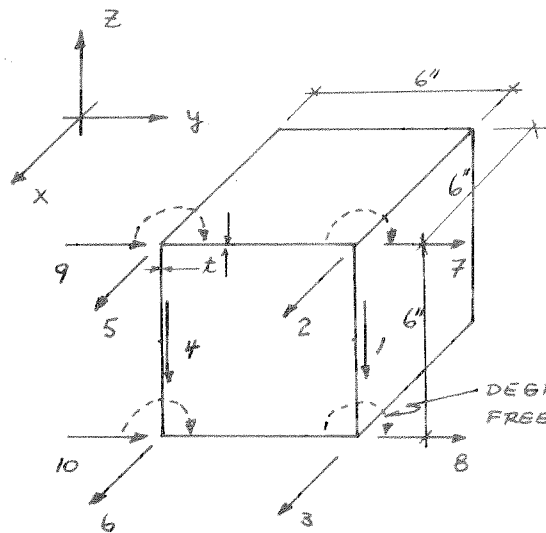
Table 3 gives the value  $t_i^{(k+1)}$  in Eq. (4.17) calculated by program SSPACE. We note that after 6 iterations we had convergence. Also, as was found when INTVAL was used, we had approximations to all 8 smallest eigenvalues.

Program INTVAL is a version of SSPACE to calculate all eigenvalues in an interval (see Section 4.7). The program was used to find the eigenvalues between 0.0 and 10.0 and then between 10.0 and 40.0. In both analyses the program performed seven times the iterations a, b and then used the iteration c, in which eigenvalue approximations are obtained. In order to find the lowest 4 eigenvalues, two iterations c were performed. In the calculation of the higher eigenvalues individual vector iterations were carried out on two vectors after the second iteration c and then convergence was reached in one more iteration c.

In this analysis SECANTD is faster than BANEIG II and as fast



(a) ELEVATION OF CANTILEVER BOX



DATA:

YOUNG'S MODULUS = 30000

POISSON'S RATIO = 0.25

MASS DENSITY = 1/3.6

$\nu = 0.1$

UNITS: IN, KIP

DEGREES OF FREEDOM CONDENSED OUT

(b) TYPICAL SEGMENT BETWEEN SECTIONS A AND B WITH DEGREES OF FREEDOM AT SECTION A

FIGURE 10: FINITE ELEMENT IDEALIZATION OF CANTILEVER BOX

TABLE 2: CP times used in the analysis of the cantilever box

$$n = 100; (m_A)_{\max} = 19; m_B = 0$$

PROGRAM	TIME [sec]								
	$\lambda_1=0.5503..$	$\lambda_2=0.5754..$	$\lambda_3=1.803..$	$\lambda_4=6.788..$	$\lambda_5=11.11..$	$\lambda_6=15.46..$	$\lambda_7=17.43..$	$\lambda_8=37.14..$	TOTAL
SECANTD	2.48	0.66	0.82	1.43	1.27				6.66
BANEIG II	3.33	1.83	1.81	2.71	2.43				12.46
SSPACE	calculated together								6.40
INTVAL	calculated together								6.00
INTVAL	calculated together								7.44



TABLE 3: Convergence characteristics of subspace iteration analyses

ANALYSIS	NO OF ITERATION	$t_i^{(k+1)} = \left  \frac{\lambda_i^{(k+1)} - \lambda_i^{(k)}}{\lambda_i^{(k)}} \right  / \lambda_i^{(k+1)}$							
		i = 1	i = 2	i = 3	i = 4	i = 5	i = 6	i = 7	i = 8
CANTILEVER BOX	6	0.6E-14	0.5E-13	0.4E-14	0.5E-09	0.3E-08	0.5E-06	0.2E-05	0.5E-03
	7	0.0	0.0	0.2E-13	0.2E-11	0.4E-10	0.2E-07	0.1E-06	0.7E-04
STURM LIOUVILLE PROBLEM	6	0.2E-11	0.7E-06	0.2E-04	0.3E-02	0.7E-03	0.5E-01	0.8E-01	0.2E+00
	7	0.2E-13	0.2E-07	0.2E-05	0.7E-03	0.1E-03	0.2E-01	0.3E-01	0.1E+00
	8	0.2E-13	0.7E-09	0.2E-06	0.1E-03	0.2E-04	0.1E-01	0.1E-01	0.7E-01
	9	0.2E-13	0.2E-10	0.1E-07	0.2E-04	0.4E-05	0.5E-02	0.6E-02	0.4E-01
	10	0.6E-14	0.7E-12	0.1E-08	0.4E-05	0.8E-06	0.2E-02	0.3E-02	0.2E-01
DAM	11	0.6E-14	0.3E-13	0.1E-09	0.7E-06	0.2E-06	0.1E-02	0.2E-02	0.2E-01
	6	0.7E-05	0.1E-01	0.6E-03	0.1E-03	0.9E-03	0.3E-01		
	7	0.4E-06	0.1E-02	0.7E-04	0.4E-04	0.3E-03	0.9E-02		
	8	0.2E-07	0.1E-03	0.9E-05	0.1E-04	0.8E-04	0.3E-02		
	9	0.1E-08	0.1E-04	0.1E-05	0.5E-05	0.3E-04	0.1E-02		
FRAME	10	0.1E-09	0.2E-05	0.2E-06	0.2E-05	0.1E-04	0.4E-03		
	11	0.1E-10	0.2E-06	0.2E-07	0.7E-06	0.6E-05	0.1E-03		
	3	0.8E-06	0.5E-03	0.8E-02	0.8E-01	0.9E-01	0.1E+00		
	4	0.5E-10	0.2E-05	0.3E-03	0.8E-02	0.3E-01	0.4E-01		
	5	0.	0.1E-07	0.1E-04	0.1E-02	0.9E-02	0.2E-01		
BUILDING	6	0.2E-13	0.7E-10	0.7E-06	0.3E-03	0.3E-02	0.7E-02		
	3	0.6E-02	0.6E-02	0.2E-01	0.4E-01	0.1E+00	0.4E+00	0.9E+00	0.5E+02
	4	0.6E-04	0.7E-04	0.4E-03	0.3E-02	0.7E-02	0.1E+00	0.4E-01	0.6E-01
	5	0.7E-06	0.1E-05	0.1E-04	0.2E-03	0.7E-03	0.2E-01	0.9E-02	0.9E-02
	6	0.8E-08	0.3E-07	0.4E-06	0.2E-04	0.1E-03	0.5E-02	0.2E-02	0.5E-02
BUILDING	7	0.1E-09	0.8E-09	0.1E-07	0.2E-05	0.2E-04	0.1E-02	0.6E-03	0.4E-02
	8	0.1E-11	0.2E-10	0.6E-09	0.2E-06	0.5E-05	0.5E-03	0.2E-03	0.3E-02

as the subspace iteration analysis. We also note that the cut-off analysis for all eigenvalues below 10.0 needs about the same time as the analysis with SSPACE.

### 6.3 Sturm-Liouville Problem

In this example matrices A and B were obtained in a finite element solution of the Sturm-Liouville problem. The order of the matrices was 200 and the half bandwidth in both was 3. Table 4 gives the smallest 4 eigenvalues and the iteration times used by programs SECANT and SSPACE. The convergence in the subspace iteration is shown in Table 3. The program iterated with 8 vectors and we obtained approximations to the smallest 8 eigenvalues.

As expected, at this small bandwidth SECANT is faster than SSPACE. Note that BANEIG II could not be used.

### 6.4 Analysis of Dam

Figure 11 shows the finite element idealization of the dam with the three-dimensional element used. Only half of the dam was considered to calculate the symmetric eigenmodes. The order of the system was 213 with maximum half bandwidth 59. A lumped mass formulation was used with masses at all degrees of freedom.

Table 5 gives the three smallest eigenvalues of the system with the iteration times taken by programs SECANTD, BANEIG II and SSPACE. In this example, because of the larger bandwidth, SSPACE is more efficient, but not excessively. An older program was once used to analyze the dam for the lowest 6 eigenvalues. From

TABLE 4: CP time used in the analysis of the Sturm Liouville problem

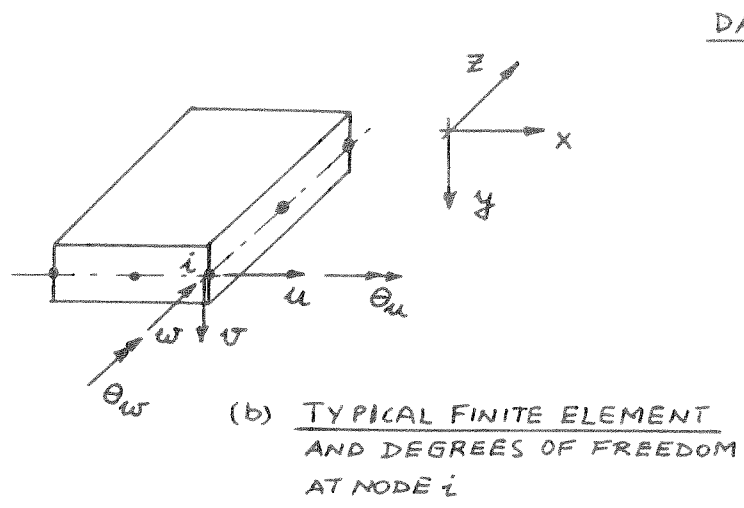
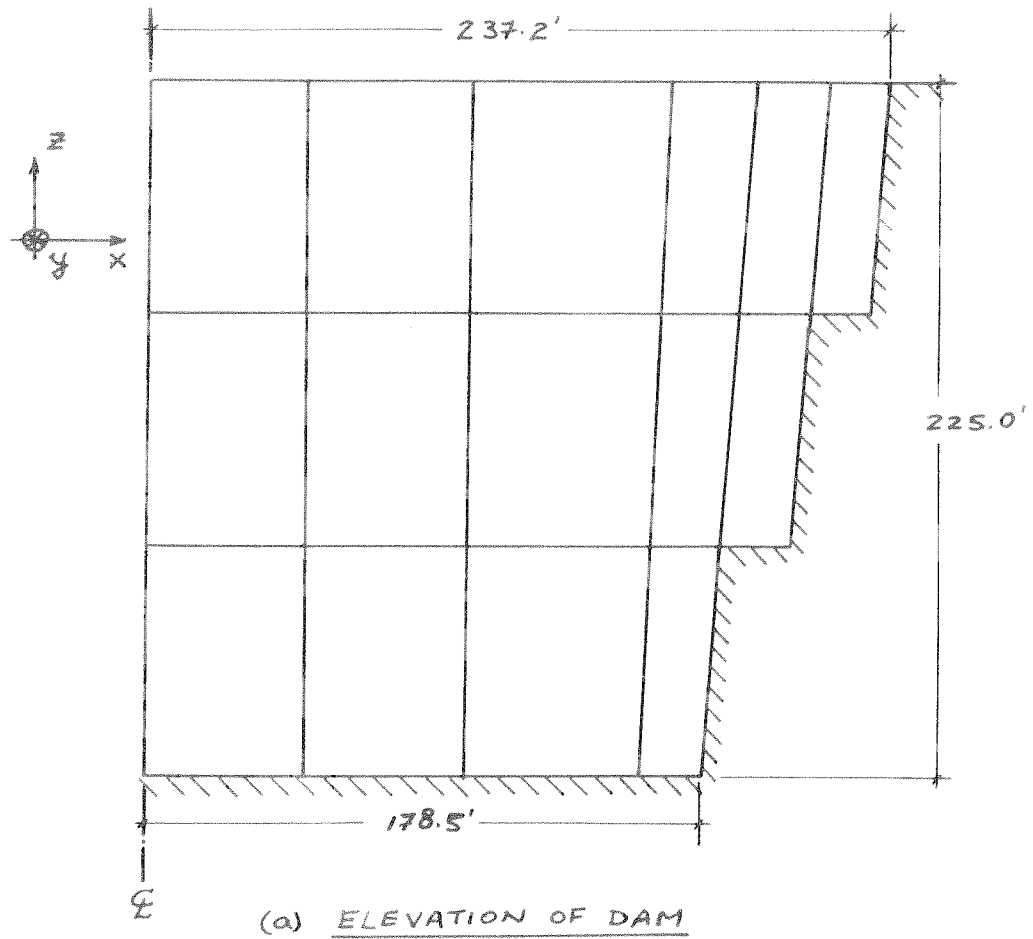
$$n = 200, m_A = m_B = 3$$

PROGRAM	TIME [sec]				TOTAL
	$\lambda_1 = 79.7492..$	$\lambda_2 = 238.742..$	$\lambda_3 = 396.722..$	$\lambda_4 = 553.677$	
SECANT	1.81	1.31	1.32	1.35	5.79
SSPACE	calculated together				16.69

TABLE 5: CP time used in the analysis of the dam

$$n = 213, (m_A)_{\max} = 59, m_B = 0$$

PROGRAM	TIME [sec]			TOTAL
	$\lambda_1 = 2.18965..$	$\lambda_2 = 3.35626..$	$\lambda_3 = 3.72271..$	
SECANTD	34.32	24.83	12.08	71.23
BANEIG II	39.25	29.69	22.00	91.82
SSPACE	calculated together			38.33



DATA:

YOUNG'S MODULUS = 432000  
 MASS DENSITY = 1.0  
 POISSON'S RATIO = 0.20  
 UNITS : FT, KIP

FIGURE 11: FINITE ELEMENT IDEALIZATION OF DAM

those results we know that at convergence in this analysis we had actually approximations to the lowest 6 eigenvalues.

### 6.5 Analysis of Plane Frame

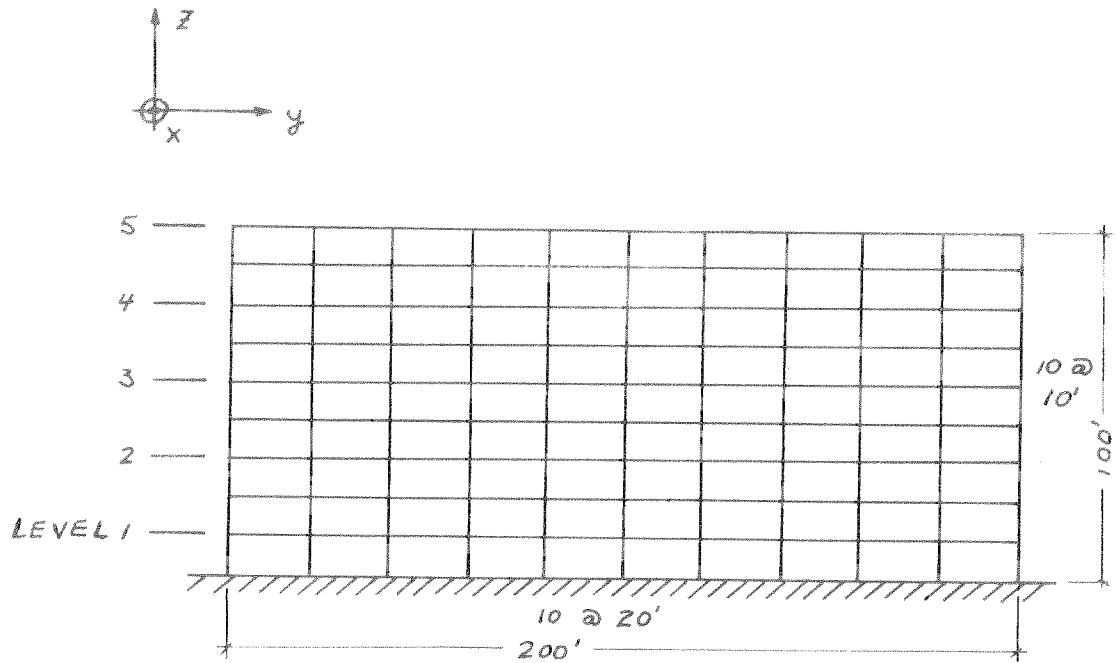
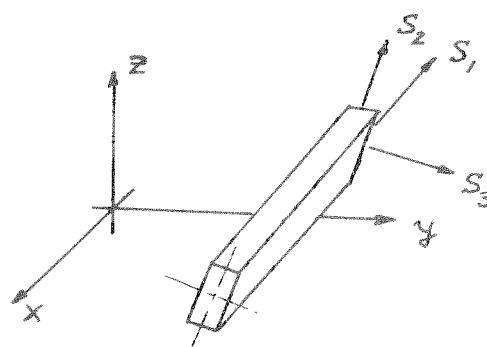
A 9-story high and 10-bay long plane frame was analyzed. The details of the frame are given in Fig. 12. The stiffness matrix, of order 297 and maximum half bandwidth 29, and the lumped mass matrix were generated by program SAP [19]. We note that zero masses were associated with the rotational degrees of freedom and BANEIG II could not be included in the comparison.

To calculate the 3 smallest eigenvalues program SECANTD performed an in-core solution and SSPACEB used 3 blocks in a subspace iteration. The eigenvalues with the iteration times are given in Table 6. Referring to Table 3 we note the relatively fast convergence of the subspace iteration.

A Ritz analysis with five transformation vectors obtained by applying unit loads into the y-direction at levels 1,2,3,4 and 5 gave  $\lambda_1 = 0.6113$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 7.320$ ,  $\lambda_3 = 30.08$ . We should note that the projected operator B (the generalized mass matrix) is quite ill-conditioned with respect to inversion, because the unit loads give much the same Ritz transformation vectors. This ill-conditioning is also present in the first subspace iteration in SSPACEB.

### 6.6 Analysis of Three-Dimensional Building Frame

The complex building frame shown in Fig. 13 was analyzed using program SSPACEB. At each joint beams are spanning into the

(a) ELEVATION OF FRAMEDATA :

YOUNG'S MODULUS = 432000

MASS DENSITY = 1.0

FOR ALL BEAMS AND

COLUMNS  $A_1 = 3.0$ , $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = 1.0$ 

UNITS : FT, KIP

(b) BEAM LOCAL AXES  $S_1, S_2, S_3$  $A_1$  = AREA ASSOCIATED WITH  $S_1$  $I_1, I_2, I_3$  = FLEXURAL INERTIAABOUT  $S_1, S_2, S_3$  RESP.FIGURE 12: LAYOUT OF 9-STORY 10-BAY PLANE FRAME

TABLE 6: CP time used in the analysis of the plane frame

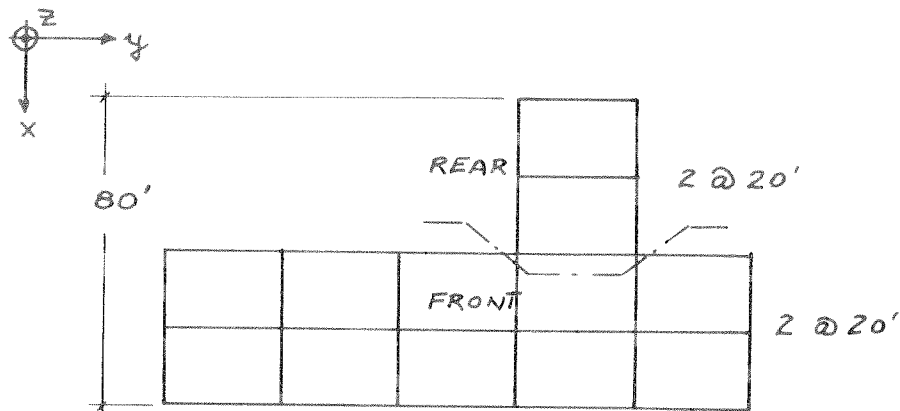
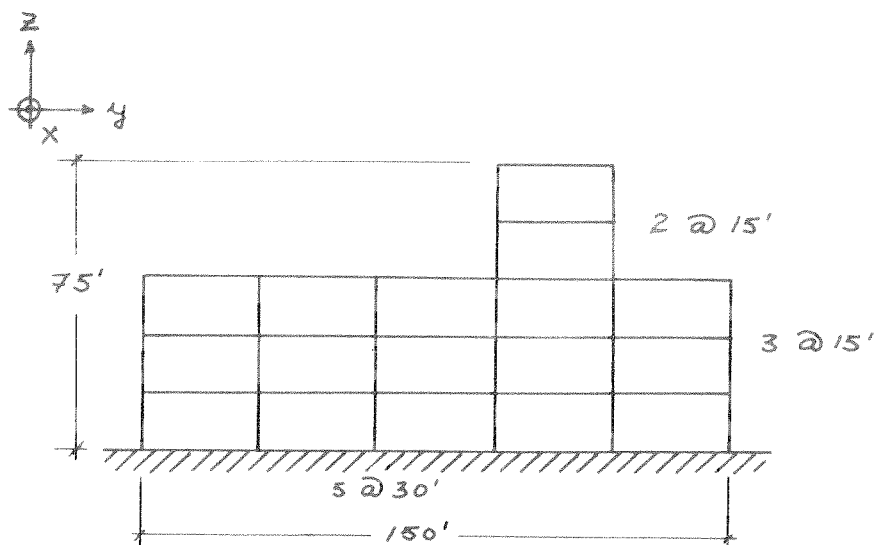
$$n = 297, (m_A)_{\max} = 29, m_B = 0$$

PROGRAM	TIME [sec]			
	$\lambda_1 = 0.589541..$	$\lambda_2 = 5.52695..$	$\lambda_3 = 16.5878..$	TOTAL
SECANTD	9.06	12.30	18.24	39.60
SSPACEB	calculated together			24.48

TABLE 7: CP time used in the analysis of the building frame

$$n = 468, (m_A)_{\max} = 155, m_B = 0$$

PROGRAM	TIME [sec]				
	$\lambda_1 = 0.41537..$	$\lambda_2 = 0.54930..$	$\lambda_3 = 0.78606..$	$\lambda_4 = 1.0325..$	TOTAL
SSPACEB	calculated together				159.59



DATA : (FOR NOTATION REFER TO FIG. 12)

YOUNG'S MODULUS = 432000 , MASS DENSITY = 1.0

COLUMNS IN FRONT BUILDING  $A_1 = 3.0$ ,  $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = 1.0$

COLUMNS IN REAR BUILDING  $A_1 = 4.0$ ,  $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = 1.25$

ALL BEAMS INTO X-DIRECTION  $A_1 = 2.0$ ,  $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = 0.75$

ALL BEAMS INTO Y-DIRECTION  $A_1 = 3.0$ ,  $I_1 = I_2 = I_3 = 1.0$

UNITS : FT, KIP

FIGURE 13: LAYOUT OF THREE DIMENSIONAL BUILDING FRAME



x, y and z directions and we have 6 degrees of freedom. Only beam elements have been used in the finite element idealization. Note that the column stiffnesses are different in the front and the rear part of the frame. Program SAP assembled the structure stiffness and lumped mass matrix. There were no masses associated with the rotational degrees of freedom. The order of the stiffness matrix was 468 and the half bandwidth varied from 59 to 155. In the analysis 13 blocks with 37 degrees of freedom per block have been used.

The smallest four eigenvalues and the solution time used are given in Table 7. A factorization took about twice as much time as a subspace iteration. Table 8 gives the eigenvalues calculated in each subspace iteration. Already in the third iteration we have good approximations to the eigenvalues sought. Table 3 shows the convergence in the iteration.

#### 6.7 Conclusions from Example Analyses

The analyses confirm that the determinant search technique is more economical than the subspace iteration on systems with small bandwidth. Further, on those examples which BANEIG II could also analyze, the determinant search technique was as efficient.

In the subspace iterations we always obtained monotonic convergence to the required eigenvalues and associated vectors. The starting subspace was described in Section 4.4 and Eq. (4.16) was used for the dimension of the subspace. About 8 iterations were needed for convergence to  $RTOL = 10^{-6}$  in Eq. (4.17).

TABLE 8: Eigenvalue approximations calculated in  
the analysis of the building

NO OF ITERATION	EIGENVALUE APPROXIMATIONS							
	1	0.5206	0.9007	1.329	1.869	4.320	7.550	23.67
2	0.4117	0.5529	0.7992	1.075	1.676	3.002	4.666	194.9
3	0.4154	0.5493	0.7864	1.035	1.498	2.210	2.395	3.656
4	"	"	0.7861	1.033	1.488	2.008	2.293	3.463
5	"	"	"	"	1.487	1.971	2.272	3.432
6	"	"	"	"	"	1.962	2.268	3.415
7	"	"	"	"	"	1.959	2.266	3.403
8	"	"	"	"	"	1.958	"	3.391

Note that, as in Table 8, the eigenvalue approximations calculated in each iteration are upper bounds to the 'exact' eigenvalues of the system (see Section 4.2).

In Table 9 time estimates are given to solve for  $p$  eigenvalues and corresponding vectors. If we put  $p$  equal to the number of eigenvalues solved for in the analyses, we obtain the times reported in the previous tables. Of the determinant search technique and the subspace iteration analysis only the one which is preferably used is included. The estimates for an in-core Householder-QR-Inverse iteration solution given in the table have been obtained by extrapolating the values in Table 1 of Reference 1, using that it is an  $n^3$  process. The largest problem solved in [1] on the CDC 6400 was  $n = 100$ . Using the method it is assumed in Table 9 that we solve for all eigenvalues and only the required eigenvectors. Naturally, all these time estimates can only be approximate.

At the end of Section 2.2 it was described that we want to consider an eigenvalue problem as large if it is much cheaper to solve for only the required eigenvalues than to calculate simply all. Table 9 shows that the cantilever box and the dam example are in this sense not large problems. However, the other three problems are certainly large. Note that the plane and building frame could not be analyzed using BANEIG or the QR method. Also, because of the very small bandwidth, the determinant search solution of the Sturm-Liouville problem is estimated to be more economical than the Householder-QR-Inverse iteration solution even if all eigenvalues and vectors are required.

TABLE 9: Estimated times in sec for solution of p eigenvalues  
and corresponding vectors in example analyses

EXAMPLE	METHOD			
	BANEIG	QR	DETERMINANT SEARCH**	SUBSPACE ITERN**
CANTILEVER BOX	2.5 p	18.3+0.28 p	1.3 p	
STURM - LIOUVILLE PROBLEM	NOT POSSIBLE	146.0+2.2 p *	1.5 p	
DAM	30.6 p	177.0+2.7 p	23.7 p	
PLANE FRAME	NOT POSSIBLE	NOT POSSIBLE	13.2 p	
BUILDG. FRAME	NOT POSSIBLE	NOT POSSIBLE		53.7+26.5 p

\* time taken for transformation to standard eigenvalue problem has been neglected.

\*\* only the algorithm which is preferably used is included in the comparison.

Consider the example of the building frame to compare with the information given in Fig. 8. In this case Table 9 shows that the subspace iterations for one eigenvalue are in operations about equivalent to one factorization. In Fig. 8 we would need to use as an equivalent full half bandwidth about 80 to obtain the same operation estimate. The actual half bandwidth of the system varied between 59 and 155 with many zeros within the band, so that the estimate of 80 is reasonable.

We should also note that to calculate in the determinant search solutions an eigenpair  $(\lambda_i, v_i)$ , the number of required factorizations varied between 1 and 8 and the number of inverse iterations varied between 2 and 12. The average number of factorizations and inverse iterations was five.

## 7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Programs have been developed for the solution of a few eigenvalues and associated vectors in the generalized eigenvalue problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$ , when the order of the matrices is large. We were concerned with the problem as it arises in structural analysis when matrix  $A$  is positive definite. Two different techniques have been implemented, a determinant search algorithm and a subspace iteration which both solve the generalized eigenvalue problem directly without a transformation to the standard form.

In the past determinant search techniques have generally been considered inefficient because many factorizations are needed. In this research an algorithm has been developed which on practical problems in terms of speed is as efficient as latest routines available. However, the advantages are that  $B$  can be diagonal non-negative definite or banded. Also, high accuracy in the eigenvectors is not required for numerical stability of the iteration process. In dynamic analysis, the case  $B$  diagonal with zero or small elements is very important, but no direct efficient solution routine was available. If in the determinant search solution  $B$  is banded little extra work is required. Therefore, the eigenvalue problem in consistent mass formulation is not much more expensive than in a lumped mass analysis.

The determinant search technique is used best as an in-core solver on systems with small to medium bandwidth. For systems

with large bandwidth an efficient subspace iteration algorithm has been presented. This algorithm was to my knowledge not implemented before. The iteration is carried out on both operators A and B simultaneously. The starting subspace is chosen automatically from the elements in A and B. The small generalized eigenvalue problem obtained when the projections of A and B are calculated is solved using a generalized Jacobi iteration method. This method iterates on both operators simultaneously taking advantage of the fact that they tend towards diagonal form in the subspace iterations. Also, the projection of B may be ill-conditioned with respect to inversion without introducing numerical difficulties. After convergence of the subspace iteration a Sturm Sequence check can be performed to assure that the required eigenvalues have been found. The algorithm was used to find the smallest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors or to calculate all eigenvalues in a specified interval. As in the determinant search solution, matrix B may be banded or diagonal non-negative definite. Also, eigenvalues need not be found to high precision.

In order to estimate the cost of the eigenvalue solution the number of factorizations equivalent to the subspace iterations have been presented. In example analyses about 8 iterations were required for convergence to about 5 digit accuracy. In terms of operations this means that with B diagonal the subspace iterations required to find the 5 smallest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors are equivalent to about one factorization

when the half bandwidth of A is 320.

The convergence characteristics of the algorithms have been observed in example analyses. In the subspace iterations we always obtained monotonic convergence to the required eigenvectors. In the analyses we used the programs in Appendix II which solve for the smallest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors. This is the important problem arising in earthquake analysis. As shown in the thesis, with small modifications, the algorithms may also be used to find the largest eigenvalues in the problem  $Bv = \lambda Av$  arising in bifurcation buckling.

Using the conventional Ritz analysis, which includes the static condensation analysis, to obtain the smallest eigenvalues and associated vectors we have no idea of how accurate the solution approximates the 'exact' required eigensystem. In fact, it may well be that an important eigenvalue and corresponding vector is not approximated at all. The main aim in this research was to provide programs with which we can solve efficiently to the required precision for the eigenvalues and corresponding vectors, and to give cost estimates. Naturally, the cost to solve accurately for the eigensystem must be higher than a very approximate analysis.

For practical application the important program is MODES which solves for the smallest eigenvalues and associated vectors when B is diagonal non-negative definite and matrix A has any size and bandwidth. The program could be modified to solve the generalized eigenvalue problem when B is banded and for the



solution of buckling problems.

In this dissertation the eigenvalue problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$  was considered when both matrices are symmetric and at least  $A$  is positive definite. The important and very frequent cases occurring in practice in which this eigenvalue problem needs to be solved have been discussed in Chapter 2. In conclusion we should mention the quadratic eigenvalue problem

$$(\lambda^2 A_2 + \lambda A_1 + A_0) x = 0 \quad (7.1)$$

which can also be reduced to the form  $Av = \lambda Bv$ . In Eq. (7.1)  $A_2$ ,  $A_1$  and  $A_0$  are symmetric and most commonly positive definite matrices of order  $n$ . This eigenvalue problem arises in dynamic analysis of structures when non-proportional damping is present, in which case  $C^*$  in Eq. (2.5) is not diagonal [20].

To identify the eigenvalue problem as a problem of form  $Av = \lambda Bv$ , we rewrite Eq. (7.1) as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & A_0 \\ A_0 & A_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} A_0 & 0 \\ 0 & -A_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \quad (7.2)$$

where we observe that  $A$  and  $B$  are not positive definite. The solution routines developed in this research are therefore not applicable.

The solution of the quadratic eigenvalue problem yields  $2n$  complex eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors. Efficient algorithms for this problem are available when the order of the matrices is small [5]. Muller's method of successive quadratic

interpolation can be applied in a determinant search technique to find the zeroes of the function  $p(\lambda) = \det(\lambda^2 A_0 + \lambda A_1 + A_2)$ . When the complete eigensystem is wanted, Eq. (7.2) is conveniently written in the form of the standard eigenvalue problem

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ -A_2^{-1}A_0 & -A_2^{-1}A_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \quad (7.3)$$

This has the disadvantage of working with a matrix of order  $2n$ , but we can now use the efficient QR algorithm for nonsymmetric matrices.

Currently, in practice the order of the eigenvalue problem is usually small, but larger systems may need to be solved. In this case only some eigenvalues and corresponding vectors may be required. Then in future research we could extend this work and develop efficient solution routines which calculate only the few required eigenvalues and corresponding vectors in Eq. (7.1), when the order of the matrices is large. These algorithms should also give in this case a much more economical solution than to solve simply for the complete eigensystem.

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APPENDIX ISOLUTION OF SMALL SYMMETRIC EIGENVALUE PROBLEMS

Solution techniques for small eigenvalue problems of the form  $Av = \lambda v$  have now reached a relatively high standard of efficiency. Although there are many different methods available, we only need to choose between a few procedures for the practical solution of an eigenvalue problem. The aim in this script is to present briefly these methods of solution and at the same time also recall to the reader some background theory. Naturally, no complete treatment is possible. For reference see [5] [11].

I.1 Facts from Linear Algebra

We consider the eigenvalue problem

$$Av = \lambda v \tag{1}$$

where  $A$  is a symmetric real matrix of order  $n$ . It is the representation of a linear transformation in an  $n$ -dimensional vector space after having chosen a basis. There are  $n$  scalars for  $\lambda$  with corresponding vectors which satisfy Eq. (1). The scalars are eigenvalues and are the zeros of the polynomial  $p(\lambda) = \det (A - \lambda I)$ , where

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

It can be shown that all eigenvalues are real and that there are  $n$  orthonormal eigenvectors  $v_i$ , meaning  $v_i^T v_j = \delta_{ij}$

( = Kronecker delta). The eigenvectors are bases of the eigenspaces corresponding to the eigenvalues. The dimension of an eigenspace is equal to the multiplicity of the corresponding eigenvalue. The bases in multiple dimension eigenspaces are not unique. We note that for an eigenspace the action of the operator A is simply scalar multiplication.

The n solutions to Eq. (1) may be written as

$$AV = V\Lambda \quad (2)$$

where  $\Lambda = \text{diag} (\lambda_i)$  and the columns of V are the eigenvectors.

Using the orthonormality of the eigenvectors we obtain

$$V^T AV = \Lambda \quad (3)$$

and

$$A = V\Lambda V^T \quad (4)$$

In Eq. (3) we perform a change of basis using an orthogonal similarity transformation.  $\Lambda$  represents the same linear transformation as A but in the basis of eigenvectors. Equation (4) shows that A is completely defined once we know the eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors.

As an example consider the discretization of a continuum by 'finite elements'. The resulting n equilibrium equations are

$$R = Ku$$

in which K is a linear transformation which transforms generalized displacements into generalized forces. The basis in the n-dimensional space is formed by the n element displacement functions, which are associated with n generalized force and

displacement coordinates. These are listed in vectors  $R$  and  $u$ , respectively. Each point in the space represents a displacement configuration of the continuum. If a different basis is chosen, the same linear transformation is represented by a different matrix. In particular, if we can choose the eigenvectors as a basis, then  $K$  is diagonal and the solution of the equilibrium equations is trivial. In general, the eigenvectors are not known a priori, but the idea is used in the Finite Strip Method [21].

In practice, requirements for eigenvalues and vectors vary. We may want a few or all eigenvalues and similarly only a few or all eigenvectors.

## I.2 Solution Techniques

We note that any algorithm for calculating eigenvalues is an infinite process. This follows because, in general, the roots of polynomials of degree greater than four cannot be calculated without iteration. Basically, there are three different groupings for methods of solution.

### I.2.1 Polynomial Iterations

A polynomial root finder could be used once the coefficients of  $p(\mu)$  have been solved for. This technique has proved unstable, because small errors in the coefficients of the polynomial give large errors in the eigenvalues. On the other hand, we can use the polynomial implicitly as in a determinant search technique and obtain stable and reliable procedures (see Chapter 3).

### I.2.2 Vector Iterations

In the power method we find an eigenvalue and the associated vector. Let  $x_1$  be an arbitrary vector, then the iteration is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= Ax_k & k = 1, 2, 3, \dots \\ &= A^k x_1 \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

In practice  $x_{k+1}$  is normalized to have unit length. This does not affect a convergence study, as an eigenvector is only defined by its direction. Let

$$x_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i \quad ; \quad \alpha_i \neq 0 \text{ all } i$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} A^k x_1 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \lambda_i^k v_i \\ &= \lambda_n^k \left\{ \alpha_n v_n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i \left( \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_n} \right)^k v_i \right\} \\ &\rightarrow \lambda_n^k \alpha_n v_n \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

The iteration converges ultimately with a rate  $\left| \frac{\lambda_{n-1}}{\lambda_n} \right|$  towards the eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda_n$ . When  $\lambda_{n-1}$  is nearly equal to  $\lambda_n$  we get slow convergence. In case  $\lambda_{n-1} = \lambda_n$  the iteration will give a vector in the subspace spanned by  $v_n$  and  $v_{n-1}$ . But when  $|\lambda_{n-1}| = |\lambda_n|$  and  $\lambda_{n-1} \neq \lambda_n$  we do not converge to an eigenvector.

To obtain an approximation to  $\lambda_n$  once we have an approximate eigenvector  $x_k$ , we enter Eq. (5) with  $\|x_k\|_2 = 1.0$  and calculate



$$|\lambda_n| = \left\| \frac{x_{k+1}}{x_k} \right\|_2.$$

Closely related to the power method is the inverse iteration, defined by

$$Ax_{k+1} = x_k \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (6)$$

or

$$x_{k+1} = A^{-k} x_1$$

The dominance of the eigenvalues is now reversed and convergence is linear with the rate  $\left| \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \right|$  towards the eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda_1$ .

In numerical calculations we can speed up convergence by suitable origin shifts. We note that the operator  $(A - \mu I)$  has the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 - \mu, \lambda_2 - \mu, \dots, \lambda_n - \mu$ . Let

$$|\lambda_p - \mu| = \max_i |\lambda_i - \mu|$$

and

$$|\lambda_q - \mu| = \min_i |\lambda_i - \mu|$$

then for the shifted operator the power method and the inverse iteration converge with the ratios

$$\frac{\max_{i \neq p} |\lambda_i - \mu|}{|\lambda_p - \mu|} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{|\lambda_q - \mu|}{\min_{i \neq q} |\lambda_i - \mu|}$$

respectively. In inverse iteration as  $\mu$  gets close to  $\lambda_q$  we obtain better convergence. But in the power method, the convergence rate is bounded. For instance, assume that  $\lambda_i > 0$  for all  $i$  then for best convergence towards the eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda_n$ , we use  $\mu = \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_{n-1}}{2}$ .

The convergence rate in the inverse iteration can be much increased by choosing the Rayleigh quotient as the shift. The Rayleigh quotient of a nonzero vector  $v$  is defined as

$$\rho(v) = \frac{(v, Av)}{(v, v)} \quad (7)$$

Geometrically, the distance between  $Av$  and  $\mu v$  expressed as  $\|Av - \mu v\|_2$  is minimized when  $\mu = \rho(v)$ .

If  $v$  is a first order approximation to an eigenvector, then  $\rho(v)$  is a second order approximation to the corresponding eigenvalue.

Namely, assume  $v = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i$ , where  $|\frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_r}| \ll 1$  ( $i \neq r$ )

and use  $\epsilon_i = \frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_r}$ ,  $\sum_{i=1, i \neq r}^n \epsilon_i^2 = \sum_{i=1, i \neq r}^n \epsilon_i^2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(v) &= (\lambda_r + \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 \lambda_i) / (1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2) \\ &\doteq (\lambda_r + \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 \lambda_i) (1 - \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 + 0(4)) \\ &\doteq (\lambda_r + \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^2 \lambda_i) \end{aligned}$$

In the inverse iteration different strategies can be followed. We may apply a Rayleigh quotient shift only a few times or we may shift in each iteration. In this case we have the Rayleigh quotient iteration, defined as

$$(A - \rho(x_k)I)x_{k+1} = x_k \ell_k \quad (8)$$

where  $\ell_k$  is chosen to have  $\|x_{k+1}\|_2 = 1$ . Under conditions  $(\rho(x_k), x_k)$  converges in the limit cubically to an eigenpair [22]. Essentially this follows because in Eq. (6) the eigenvector converges linearly but is here used in each iteration to obtain a second order approximation to the eigenvalue and shift.

Assume that an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  and its vector  $v_i$  have been calculated. For iteration towards another eigenvalue, we need to deflate either the matrix or the iteration vectors.

A stable matrix deflation can be carried out by finding an orthogonal matrix  $P$  whose first column is the calculated eigenvector. Then

$$P^T A P = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & & 0 \\ & \dots & \\ 0 & & A_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $A_1$  has all the remaining eigenvalues of  $A$ .

A vector deflation is simply carried out by orthogonalizing the iteration vector to the calculated eigenvector. Using the Gram-Schmidt process we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= \bar{x}_{k+1} - \alpha_i v_i \\ \alpha_i &= (\bar{x}_{k+1}, v_i) \end{aligned}$$

and  $\bar{x}_{k+1}$  not  $x_{k+1}$  is obtained in the algorithms of Eqs. (5), (6), and (8). In the Rayleigh quotient iteration it can be sufficient to orthogonalize only  $x_1$ .

The vector iteration techniques above are only economical when a few eigenvalues and vectors are required. But inverse iteration is used efficiently to find eigenvectors when the eigenvalues have been calculated by some other procedure, for example by the QR iteration.

### 1.2.3 Transformation Methods

Eq. (3) suggests to find transformation matrices which by successive application transform  $A$  into diagonal form. In this

iteration each transformation must be a similarity transformation

$$A_{k+1} = W^{-1} A_k W$$

where  $A_{k+1}$  has the same eigenvalues as  $A_k$ . Particularly easy to use and stable are orthogonal similarity transformations, in which case  $W^T W = I$ .

A simple and very reliable transformation method is the Jacobi iteration. It gives at the same time the eigenvalues and an orthonormal set of eigenvectors. When the off-diagonal elements are small it is also efficient.

The iteration is defined as follows

$$A_{k+1} = P_k^T A_k P_k \quad k=1,2,\dots \quad A_1 = A \quad (9)$$

where

$$A_{k+1} \rightarrow \Lambda \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

and the  $P_k$  are Jacobi rotation matrices,

$$P_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & \cdot & & & \\ & & \cdot & & \\ & & & \cdot & \\ & & & & \cdot & \\ & & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \ell \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ m \\ m \\ 1 \end{matrix} \quad (10)$$

The angle  $\theta$  is selected to zero the element  $a_{\ell m}^{(k)}$  in  $A_k$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2a_{\ell m}^{(k)}}{a_{\ell \ell}^{(k)} - a_{m m}^{(k)}}$$

The eigenvectors are simply the product of the orthogonal matrices used in the transformations. In practice, we need a

scheme for zeroing elements and we need a convergence criterion (see Section 4.3).

A very efficient and probably regarded as the best method for finding the eigensystem of a matrix is the Householder-QR Inverse iteration technique [22] [5].

The name hints at the three solution steps:

1. Householder transformations are used to reduce the matrix to tridiagonal form.
2. QR iteration yields the eigenvalues.
3. Using inverse iteration the eigenvectors of the tridiagonal matrix are calculated and transformed to the eigenvectors of  $A$ .

The reduction to tridiagonal form involves  $(n-2)$  orthogonal similarity transformations

$$A_{k+1} = P_k^T A_k P_k \quad k=1,2,\dots,n-2. \quad A_1 = A \quad (11)$$

where

$$P_k = I - \theta w_k w_k^T \quad (12)$$

$$\theta = \frac{2}{w_k^T w_k}$$

We consider the case  $k=1$ , which is typical. Let

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & P_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad ; \quad w_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ w_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & a_1^T \\ & \ddots & \\ a_1 & & A_{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

where obviously  $A_{11}$  is a matrix of order  $(n-1)$ ,  $\bar{w}_1$  is a vector of order  $(n-1)$ , etc., then

$$P_1^T A_1 P = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & | & a_1^T & \bar{P}_1 \\ \hline \bar{P}_1^T a_1 & | & \bar{P}_1^T A_{11} & \bar{P}_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

The vector  $\bar{w}_1$  is determined from

$$(I - \theta \bar{w}_1 \bar{w}_1^T) a_1 = \pm \|a_1\|_2 e_1 \quad (14)$$

where we can use either + or - to avoid cancellation.

Geometrically, we reflect  $a_1$  in the hyperplane orthogonal to  $\bar{w}_1$ , where  $\bar{w}_1$  is determined in such a way that only the first coordinate in the new vector is nonzero.

We only need to solve from Eq. (14) for a multiple of  $\bar{w}_1$  and can use

$$\bar{w}_1 = a_1 + \text{sign}(a_{21}) \|a_1\|_2 e_1$$

Note that in Eq. (13) we do not need  $P_1$  but only  $\bar{w}_1$ . The equivalent steps for  $k = 2, \dots, n-2$  are obvious.

Consider now the QR iteration on a general symmetric matrix  $A$ . Let

$$A = QR$$

where  $Q$  is an orthogonal and  $R$  an upper triangular matrix. This factorization could be obtained by applying the Gram-Schmidt process to the columns of  $A$ . We then form

$$RQ = Q^T A Q$$

and carried out an orthogonal similarity transformation on  $A$ .

In the QR algorithm this process is repeated

$$A_k = Q_k R_k \quad (15)$$

$$A_{k+1} = R_k Q_k \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad A_1 = A \quad (16)$$

where

$$A_{k+1} \rightarrow \hat{\Lambda} \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

It can be shown that the QR iteration is intimately related to the probably more familiar inverse iteration. We have

$$\begin{aligned} A_{k+1} &= Q_k^T Q_{k-1}^T \cdots Q_1^T A_1 Q_1 \cdots Q_{k-1} Q_k \\ &= P_k^T A_1 P_k \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$S_k = R_k \cdots R_1$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} P_k S_k &= P_{k-1} Q_k R_k S_{k-1} \\ &= P_{k-1} A_k S_{k-1} \end{aligned}$$

Noting that

$$A_1 P_{k-1} = P_{k-1} A_k$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} P_k S_k &= A_1 P_{k-1} S_{k-1} \\ &= A^k \end{aligned}$$

Assume that  $A$  is nonsingular, then

$$P_k = A^{-k} S_k^T$$

Equating columns on both sides

$$P_k E = A^{-k} S_k^T E \quad (17)$$

where  $E$  consists of the last  $p$  columns of  $I$ .

Inverse iteration on  $p$  vectors can be defined as

$$AX_k = X_{k-1} L_k \quad k=1,2,\dots \quad (18)$$

where  $L_k$  is a lower triangular matrix chosen so that  $X_k^T X_k = I$ .

It can be determined using the Gram-Schmidt process on the iteration vectors from the last vector to the first. Hence

$$X_k = A^{-k} X_0 \bar{L}_k \quad ; \quad \bar{L}_k = L_1 \dots L_k \quad (19)$$

Eq. (17) may be written as

$$P_k E = A^{-k} E \bar{S}_k \quad (20)$$

where  $\bar{S}_k$  consists of the last  $p$  columns and rows of  $S_k^T$ . Using  $X_k^T X_k = I$  and  $(P_k E)^T (P_k E) = I$ , we get

$$\bar{L}_k^{-T} \bar{L}_k^{-1} = X_0^T A^{-2k} X_0$$

and

$$\bar{S}_k^{-T} \bar{S}_k^{-1} = E^T A^{-2k} E$$

If we choose  $X_0 = E$  then  $\bar{L}_k^{-1} = \bar{S}_k^{-1}$  because they are the Cholesky factors of the same positive definite matrix.

Considering Eqs. (19) and (20), we have shown that the inverse iteration algorithm defined in Eq. (18) if started with  $X_0 = E$  yields vectors  $X_k$  which are the last  $p$  columns in  $P_k$  of the QR algorithm.

In QR with shifts Eqs. (15) and (16) are

$$A_k - \mu_k I = Q_k R_k$$

$$A_{k+1} = R_k Q_k + \mu_k I \quad k=1,2,\dots \quad A_1 = A$$

and the Rayleigh quotient iteration corresponds to  $\mu_k$  equal to the  $(n,n)$  element in  $A_k$ .



In practice, QR is applied to tridiagonal matrices.

Equation (15) rewritten is

$$Q_k^T A_k = R_k$$

where  $Q_k^T$  is obtained as a product of Jacobi rotation matrices which zero all subdiagonal elements in  $A_k$ . Ortega and Kaiser have developed explicit formulae which relate the elements in  $A_{k+1}$  to the elements in  $A_k$  [5]. Once the eigenvalues have been calculated to full machine precision, we calculate the eigenvectors of the tridiagonal matrix. Two steps of inverse iteration at shifts equal to the eigenvalues are sufficient to obtain the corresponding eigenvectors. These vectors need to be transformed with the Householder transformations used to obtain the eigenvectors of the original matrix.

APPENDIX II

## COMPUTER PROGRAMS

SECANT

SSPACE

MODES

### II.1 Program SECANT

The program uses the determinant search technique described in Chapter 3 to evaluate the smallest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors in the problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$ . Matrix A is assumed to be positive definite and B can be banded positive definite or diagonal non-negative definite.

The program is called with the parameters:

N = order of matrices A and B  
 NMAX = number of rows in storage blocks of matrices A and B  
 MA = half bandwidth of A including diagonal  
 MB = half bandwidth of B including diagonal  
 NROOT = number of required eigenvalues  
 NC = storage is provided for NC eigenvalues and vectors.

Assume, for example, that the last eigenvalue lies in a cluster. Then the program may want to calculate it together with other close eigenvalues. The program stops when no more storage for eigenvalues and vectors is available.

Storage:

A(NMAX,MA) = matrix A  
 B(NMAX,MB) = matrix B  
 VV(N,NC) = eigenvectors  
 ROOT(NC) = eigenvalues  
 TIM(NC) = iteration times used  
 NITE(NC) = number of iterations  
 ERRVL(NC) = lower bounds on eigenvalues

ERRVR(NC) = upper bounds on eigenvalues

WW(N,NC), V(N), W(N) and MAXA(N) are working arrays.

The total storage required is

$$N^*(MA + MB + 2*NC + 3) + 5*NC$$

One working tape is used. The program calls the following sub-routines:

BANDET - performs the triangular factorization at a shift, the calculation of the determinant and the vector iteration.

MULT - carries out array multiplications.

The tolerances used are set up for the CDC 6400 with a 48 bit mantissa in floating point arithmetic. The eigenvalues are calculated to about 12 digit precision. Note that the logical variable ERRBD needs to be set .FALSE. if B is diagonal with zero elements, and that in this case program SECANTD is slightly more efficient (see Appendix II.3).

```

SEC4 1 SUBROUTINE SECANT (A,B,V,MAXA,K,N,MM,NSCH,IT,ERR,ERRS,
SEC4 2 INIT=1,NMAX,N,NS,NSDIT,NC)
SEC4 3
SEC4 4 PROGRAM TO COMPUTE SMALLEST EIGENVALUES AND ASSOCIATED VECTORS IN
SEC4 5 THE GENERALIZED EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
SEC4 6          NEWBET=V (I,0) *NS
SEC4 7          PROGRAMMED BY K.J. BATHE
SEC4 8          SEM UNIV OF CALIF. BERKELEY 1971
SEC4 9
SEC4 10 DIMENSION A(NMAX,MAXA),B(NMAX,NB),V(11,MM),X(N),X(N),X(N),
SEC4 11 IRDIT(11),TIM(11),ERRV(11),ERRR(11)
SEC4 12 INIBER NITE(11)*MAX(11)
SEC4 13 LOGICAL ERABD
SEC4 14
SEC4 15 C
SEC4 16 C IF B IS POS DEF WE CAN SET ERABD=TRUE, AND ESTIMATE MORE ACCURATELY
SEC4 17 C A LOWER BOUND ON THE FIRST ROOT
SEC4 18 C ERABD=TRUE.
SEC4 19 C
SEC4 20 C FOLLOWING TOLERANCES ARE SET FOR THE CDC 6400
SEC4 21 ACTOL=1.0E-04
SEC4 22 FCBTOL=1.0E-06
SEC4 23 CTOL=1.0E-10
SEC4 24 RTOL=1.0E-12
SEC4 25 SCALE=2.0*#90
SEC4 26 C
SEC4 27 C ITEMS=10
SEC4 28 C NITEM=40
SEC4 29 C
SEC4 30 C COMPACT MATRICES AND STORE
SEC4 31 DO 10 J=2,MA
SEC4 32 L=N*(J-1)
SEC4 33 DO 10 I=1,N
SEC4 34 A(I,I)=DEL(I,J)
SEC4 35 IF (MB*ED(I)) GO TO 40
SEC4 36 DO 20 J=2,MB
SEC4 37 L=N*(J-1)
SEC4 38 DO 20 I=1,N
SEC4 39 B(I,I)=B(I,J)
SEC4 40 C
SEC4 41 C
SEC4 42 C
SEC4 43 C
SEC4 44 C
SEC4 45 C
SEC4 46 C
SEC4 47 C
SEC4 48 C
SEC4 49 NMB=N*MA
SEC4 50 NMB=N*MB
SEC4 51 NTF=0
SEC4 52 ISC=1000
SEC4 53 C
SEC4 54 C CALL SECOND (TIM)
SEC4 55 R=0.0
SEC4 56 R=0.0
SEC4 57 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,MA,NMB,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
SEC4 58 P=DETA
SEC4 59 P=FA
SEC4 60 DETA=DETA
SEC4 61 C
SEC4 62 C FIND LOWER BOUND ON SMALLEST EIGENVALUE
SEC4 63 PRINT 1010
SEC4 64 V(I)=1.0
SEC4 65 LITE=0
SEC4 66 LITE=0
SEC4 67 C=0.0
SEC4 68 CALL MULT (M,B,V,N,MM)
SEC4 69 K=4
SEC4 70 LITE=LITE+1
SEC4 71 DO 120 I=1,N
SEC4 72 V(I)=V(I)
SEC4 73 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,MA,NMB,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
SEC4 74 K=3
SEC4 75 K=2
SEC4 76 K=1
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SECA 151      JJ=JP-1
SECA 152      DC 350 K=1,JJ
SECA 153      FC=FC/(RC-ROOT(R1))
SECA 154      340 PRINT 1050,JP,NITE(LJ),P,C,DETC,FC,ETA,ISC
SECA 155      C IF WE HAVE MORE SIGNCHANGES THAN EIGENVALUES SMALLER THAN RC WE
SECA 156      C START INV. ITERATION
SECA 157      C
SECA 158      NESC=0
SECA 159      IF (JR.EQ.1) GO TO 30C
SECA 160      DC 360 I=1,JJ
SECA 161      IF (ROOT(I),LT,RC) NESC=NESC+1
SECA 162      360 NOV=NSCH-NEC
SECA 163      IF (NOV.EQ.0) GO TO 37C
SECA 164      PRINT 1080,NOV
SECA 165      ROOT(JR)=RC
SECA 166      IF (NOV.GT.1) NSK=1
SECA 167      C
SECA 168      GO TO 400
SECA 169      RR=RA
SECA 170      FR=FA
SECA 171      DETB=DETA
SECA 172      RA=RR
SECA 173      FA=FR
SECA 174      DEFA=DETB
SECA 175      RB=RC
SECA 176      FB=FC
SECA 177      DETB=DETC
SECA 178      C
SECA 179      C WE RESET ETA IF NECESSARY
SECA 180      TOL=RB*ACTOL
SECA 181      IF (ABS(RA-RR),LT,TOL) ETA=ETA*2
SECA 182      IF (NITE(LJ),LE,NITEM) GO TO 310
SECA 183      PRINT 1015,NITE(LJ),JR
SECA 184      GO TO 900
SECA 185      C
SECA 186      C CHECK FOR STORAGE
SECA 187      400 IF (JR.EQ.0) GO TO 405
SECA 188      PRINT 4090
SECA 189      GO TO 900
SECA 190      C
SECA 191      405 NCR=JR-1
SECA 192      CALL SECOND (TIM3)
SECA 193      PRINT 1100,MDR
SECA 194      IF (JR.EQ.1) GO TO 41C
SECA 195      DO 420 J=1,N
SECA 196      V(I)=1
SECA 197      KK=4
SECA 198      RTA=0.0
SECA 199      CALL MULT (M,R,V,N,MB)
SECA 200      RTA=0.0
SECA 201      GO TO 510
SECA 202      C
SECA 203      C INVERSE ITER
SECA 204      440 NITE(LJ)=NITE(JR)+1
SECA 205      DO 450 I=1,N
SECA 206      V(I)=1
SECA 207      CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,MB,NMB,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,KK)
SECA 208      IF (ITS.EQ.1) GO TO 46C
SECA 209      KK=3
SECA 210      RT=0.0
SECA 211      DO 470 I=1,N
SECA 212      QT=RT*(W(I)*V(I))
SECA 213      CALL MULT (M,R,V,N,MB)
SECA 214      RQ=0.0
SECA 215      DC 480 I=1,N
SECA 216      QB=QB*(W(I)*V(I))
SECA 217      Q=QB/RT
SECA 218      AT=ROOT(LJ)+RQ
SECA 219      PRINT 1110,JP,NITE(LJ),RT,Q
SECA 220      TOL=AT*ROTOL
SECA 221      IF (ABS(START-RT),GT,TOL) GO TO 510
SECA 222      IS=1
SECA 223      GO TO 440
SECA 224      C
SECA 225
SECA 226      RTA=RT
SECA 227      TOL=RTOL
SECA 228      IF (ABS(ROOT(LJ)-RT),GT,TOL) GO TO 710
SECA 229      TOL=RTOL*ROOT(LJ)
SECA 230      IF (NOV.GT.0) GO TO 70C
SECA 231      IF (ABS(ROOT(LJ)-RB),GT,TOL) GO TO 710
SECA 232      RA=RB/2.0
SECA 233      CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,MB,NMB,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
SECA 234      FA=DETA
SECA 235      RB=RA
SECA 236      DEFB=DETA
SECA 237      GA=FR
SECA 238      QB=RB
SECA 239      DETB=DETR
SECA 240      GO TO 710
SECA 241      C
SECA 242      700 IF (ROOT(LJ),GT,RC) NSK=1
SECA 243      IF (NSK.EQ.1) GO TO 72C
SECA 244      IF (ABS(RO-ROOT(LJ)),LT,TOL) GO TO 740
SECA 245      IF (ABS(ROOT(LJ)-RB),LT,TOL) GO TO 750
SECA 246      RA=RR
SECA 247      FB=FR
SECA 248      DETB=DETR
SECA 249      PR=RC
SECA 250      DETB=DETC
SECA 251      GO TO 710
SECA 252      C
SECA 253      740 IF (ABS(ROOT(LJ)-RB),GT,TOL) GO TO 710
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SECA 321 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 322 PA=RA/2.
SECA 323 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 324 FADDETA
SECA 325 R=DETA
SECA 326 F=FA
SECA 327 DETR=DETA
SECA 328 PA=RR
SECA 329 F=FR
SECA 330 DETA=DETR
SECA 331 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 332 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 333 J=J+1
SECA 334 ETA=2.0
SECA 335 GO TO 300
SECA 336 C
SECA 337 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 780
SECA 338 RA=RA/2.
SECA 339 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 340 FADDETA
SECA 341 F=FA
SECA 342 DETR=DETA
SECA 343 F=FA
SECA 344 F=FR/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 345 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 346 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 347 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 348 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 349 J=J+1
SECA 350 NITE(JR)=0
SECA 351 ROOT(JR)=RC
SECA 352 IF (NDV*GT*.0) GO TO 400
SECA 353 MSK=0
SECA 354 ETA=2.0
SECA 355 GO TO 300
SECA 356 C
SECA 357 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 358 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 359 PRINT I130
SECA 360 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 361 PRINT I140
SECA 362 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 363 PRINT I150
SECA 364 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 365 PRINT I160
SECA 366 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 367 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 368 C
SECA 369 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 370 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 371 I=0
SECA 372 JR=JR-2
SECA 373 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 374 I=I+1
SECA 375 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 376 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 377 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 378 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 379 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 380 CONTINUE
SECA 381 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 382 PRINT I170
SECA 383 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 384 PRINT I170
SECA 385 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 386 PRINT I180
SECA 387 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 388 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 389 C
SECA 390 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 391 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 392 FADDETA
SECA 393 R=DETA
SECA 394 F=FA
SECA 395 DETR=DETA
SECA 396 PA=RR
SECA 397 F=FR
SECA 398 DETA=DETR
SECA 399 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 400 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 401 J=J+1
SECA 402 ETA=2.0
SECA 403 GO TO 300
SECA 404 C
SECA 405 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 780
SECA 406 RA=RA/2.
SECA 407 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 408 FADDETA
SECA 409 F=FA
SECA 410 DETR=DETA
SECA 411 F=FA
SECA 412 F=FR/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 413 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 414 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 415 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 416 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 417 J=J+1
SECA 418 NITE(JR)=0
SECA 419 ROOT(JR)=RC
SECA 420 IF (NDV*GT*.0) GO TO 400
SECA 421 MSK=0
SECA 422 ETA=2.0
SECA 423 GO TO 300
SECA 424 C
SECA 425 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 426 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 427 PRINT I130
SECA 428 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 429 PRINT I140
SECA 430 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 431 PRINT I150
SECA 432 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 433 PRINT I160
SECA 434 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 435 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 436 C
SECA 437 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 438 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 439 I=0
SECA 440 JR=JR-2
SECA 441 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 442 I=I+1
SECA 443 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 444 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 445 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 446 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 447 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 448 CONTINUE
SECA 449 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 450 PRINT I170
SECA 451 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 452 PRINT I170
SECA 453 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 454 PRINT I180
SECA 455 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 456 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 457 C
SECA 458 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 459 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 460 FADDETA
SECA 461 R=DETA
SECA 462 F=FA
SECA 463 DETR=DETA
SECA 464 PA=RR
SECA 465 F=FR
SECA 466 DETA=DETR
SECA 467 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 468 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 469 J=J+1
SECA 470 ETA=2.0
SECA 471 GO TO 300
SECA 472 C
SECA 473 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 474 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 475 PRINT I130
SECA 476 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 477 PRINT I140
SECA 478 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 479 PRINT I150
SECA 480 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 481 PRINT I160
SECA 482 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 483 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 484 C
SECA 485 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 486 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 487 I=0
SECA 488 JR=JR-2
SECA 489 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 490 I=I+1
SECA 491 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 492 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 493 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 494 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 495 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 496 CONTINUE
SECA 497 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 498 PRINT I170
SECA 499 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 500 PRINT I170
SECA 501 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 502 PRINT I180
SECA 503 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 504 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 505 C
SECA 506 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 507 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 508 FADDETA
SECA 509 R=DETA
SECA 510 F=FA
SECA 511 DETR=DETA
SECA 512 PA=RR
SECA 513 F=FR
SECA 514 DETA=DETR
SECA 515 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 516 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 517 J=J+1
SECA 518 ETA=2.0
SECA 519 GO TO 300
SECA 520 C
SECA 521 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 522 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 523 PRINT I130
SECA 524 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 525 PRINT I140
SECA 526 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 527 PRINT I150
SECA 528 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 529 PRINT I160
SECA 530 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 531 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 532 C
SECA 533 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 534 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 535 I=0
SECA 536 JR=JR-2
SECA 537 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 538 I=I+1
SECA 539 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 540 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 541 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 542 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 543 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 544 CONTINUE
SECA 545 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 546 PRINT I170
SECA 547 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 548 PRINT I170
SECA 549 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 550 PRINT I180
SECA 551 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 552 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 553 C
SECA 554 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 555 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 556 FADDETA
SECA 557 R=DETA
SECA 558 F=FA
SECA 559 DETR=DETA
SECA 560 PA=RR
SECA 561 F=FR
SECA 562 DETA=DETR
SECA 563 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 564 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 565 J=J+1
SECA 566 ETA=2.0
SECA 567 GO TO 300
SECA 568 C
SECA 569 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 570 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 571 PRINT I130
SECA 572 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 573 PRINT I140
SECA 574 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 575 PRINT I150
SECA 576 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 577 PRINT I160
SECA 578 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 579 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 580 C
SECA 581 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 582 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 583 I=0
SECA 584 JR=JR-2
SECA 585 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 586 I=I+1
SECA 587 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 588 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 589 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 590 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 591 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 592 CONTINUE
SECA 593 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 594 PRINT I170
SECA 595 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 596 PRINT I170
SECA 597 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 598 PRINT I180
SECA 599 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 600 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 601 C
SECA 602 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 603 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 604 FADDETA
SECA 605 R=DETA
SECA 606 F=FA
SECA 607 DETR=DETA
SECA 608 PA=RR
SECA 609 F=FR
SECA 610 DETA=DETR
SECA 611 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 612 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 613 J=J+1
SECA 614 ETA=2.0
SECA 615 GO TO 300
SECA 616 C
SECA 617 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 618 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 619 PRINT I130
SECA 620 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 621 PRINT I140
SECA 622 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 623 PRINT I150
SECA 624 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 625 PRINT I160
SECA 626 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 627 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 628 C
SECA 629 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 630 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 631 I=0
SECA 632 JR=JR-2
SECA 633 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 634 I=I+1
SECA 635 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 636 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 637 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 638 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 639 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 640 CONTINUE
SECA 641 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 642 PRINT I170
SECA 643 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 644 PRINT I170
SECA 645 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 646 PRINT I180
SECA 647 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 648 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 649 C
SECA 650 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 651 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 652 FADDETA
SECA 653 R=DETA
SECA 654 F=FA
SECA 655 DETR=DETA
SECA 656 PA=RR
SECA 657 F=FR
SECA 658 DETA=DETR
SECA 659 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 660 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 661 J=J+1
SECA 662 ETA=2.0
SECA 663 GO TO 300
SECA 664 C
SECA 665 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 666 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 667 PRINT I130
SECA 668 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 669 PRINT I140
SECA 670 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 671 PRINT I150
SECA 672 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 673 PRINT I160
SECA 674 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 675 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 676 C
SECA 677 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 678 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 679 I=0
SECA 680 JR=JR-2
SECA 681 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 682 I=I+1
SECA 683 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 684 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 685 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 686 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 687 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 688 CONTINUE
SECA 689 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 690 PRINT I170
SECA 691 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 692 PRINT I170
SECA 693 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 694 PRINT I180
SECA 695 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 696 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 697 C
SECA 698 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 699 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 700 FADDETA
SECA 701 R=DETA
SECA 702 F=FA
SECA 703 DETR=DETA
SECA 704 PA=RR
SECA 705 F=FR
SECA 706 DETA=DETR
SECA 707 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 708 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 709 J=J+1
SECA 710 ETA=2.0
SECA 711 GO TO 300
SECA 712 C
SECA 713 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 714 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 715 PRINT I130
SECA 716 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 717 PRINT I140
SECA 718 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 719 PRINT I150
SECA 720 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 721 PRINT I160
SECA 722 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 723 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 724 C
SECA 725 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 726 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 727 I=0
SECA 728 JR=JR-2
SECA 729 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 730 I=I+1
SECA 731 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 732 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 733 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 734 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 735 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 736 CONTINUE
SECA 737 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 738 PRINT I170
SECA 739 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 740 PRINT I170
SECA 741 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 742 PRINT I180
SECA 743 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 744 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 745 C
SECA 746 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 747 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 748 FADDETA
SECA 749 R=DETA
SECA 750 F=FA
SECA 751 DETR=DETA
SECA 752 PA=RR
SECA 753 F=FR
SECA 754 DETA=DETR
SECA 755 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 756 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 757 J=J+1
SECA 758 ETA=2.0
SECA 759 GO TO 300
SECA 760 C
SECA 761 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 762 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 763 PRINT I130
SECA 764 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 765 PRINT I140
SECA 766 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 767 PRINT I150
SECA 768 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 769 PRINT I160
SECA 770 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 771 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 772 C
SECA 773 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 774 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 775 I=0
SECA 776 JR=JR-2
SECA 777 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 778 I=I+1
SECA 779 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 780 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 781 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 782 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 783 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 784 CONTINUE
SECA 785 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 786 PRINT I170
SECA 787 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 788 PRINT I170
SECA 789 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 790 PRINT I180
SECA 791 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 792 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 793 C
SECA 794 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 795 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 796 FADDETA
SECA 797 R=DETA
SECA 798 F=FA
SECA 799 DETR=DETA
SECA 800 PA=RR
SECA 801 F=FR
SECA 802 DETA=DETR
SECA 803 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 804 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 805 J=J+1
SECA 806 ETA=2.0
SECA 807 GO TO 300
SECA 808 C
SECA 809 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 810 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 811 PRINT I130
SECA 812 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 813 PRINT I140
SECA 814 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 815 PRINT I150
SECA 816 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 817 PRINT I160
SECA 818 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 819 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 820 C
SECA 821 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 822 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 823 I=0
SECA 824 JR=JR-2
SECA 825 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 826 I=I+1
SECA 827 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 828 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 829 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 830 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 831 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 832 CONTINUE
SECA 833 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 834 PRINT I170
SECA 835 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 836 PRINT I170
SECA 837 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 838 PRINT I180
SECA 839 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 840 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 841 C
SECA 842 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 843 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 844 FADDETA
SECA 845 R=DETA
SECA 846 F=FA
SECA 847 DETR=DETA
SECA 848 PA=RR
SECA 849 F=FR
SECA 850 DETA=DETR
SECA 851 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 852 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 853 J=J+1
SECA 854 ETA=2.0
SECA 855 GO TO 300
SECA 856 C
SECA 857 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 858 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 859 PRINT I130
SECA 860 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 861 PRINT I140
SECA 862 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 863 PRINT I150
SECA 864 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 865 PRINT I160
SECA 866 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 867 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 868 C
SECA 869 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 870 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 871 I=0
SECA 872 JR=JR-2
SECA 873 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 874 I=I+1
SECA 875 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 876 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 877 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 878 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 879 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 880 CONTINUE
SECA 881 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 882 PRINT I170
SECA 883 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 884 PRINT I170
SECA 885 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 886 PRINT I180
SECA 887 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 888 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 889 C
SECA 890 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 891 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 892 FADDETA
SECA 893 R=DETA
SECA 894 F=FA
SECA 895 DETR=DETA
SECA 896 PA=RR
SECA 897 F=FR
SECA 898 DETA=DETR
SECA 899 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 900 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 901 J=J+1
SECA 902 ETA=2.0
SECA 903 GO TO 300
SECA 904 C
SECA 905 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 906 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 907 PRINT I130
SECA 908 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 909 PRINT I140
SECA 910 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 911 PRINT I150
SECA 912 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 913 PRINT I160
SECA 914 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 915 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 916 C
SECA 917 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 918 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 919 I=0
SECA 920 JR=JR-2
SECA 921 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 922 I=I+1
SECA 923 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 924 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 925 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 926 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 927 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 928 CONTINUE
SECA 929 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 930 PRINT I170
SECA 931 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 932 PRINT I170
SECA 933 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 934 PRINT I180
SECA 935 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 936 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 937 C
SECA 938 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 939 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 940 FADDETA
SECA 941 R=DETA
SECA 942 F=FA
SECA 943 DETR=DETA
SECA 944 PA=RR
SECA 945 F=FR
SECA 946 DETA=DETR
SECA 947 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 948 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 949 J=J+1
SECA 950 ETA=2.0
SECA 951 GO TO 300
SECA 952 C
SECA 953 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 954 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 955 PRINT I130
SECA 956 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 957 PRINT I140
SECA 958 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 959 PRINT I150
SECA 960 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 961 PRINT I160
SECA 962 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 963 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 964 C
SECA 965 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 966 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 967 I=0
SECA 968 JR=JR-2
SECA 969 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 970 I=I+1
SECA 971 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 972 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 973 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 974 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 975 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 976 CONTINUE
SECA 977 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 978 PRINT I170
SECA 979 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 980 PRINT I170
SECA 981 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 982 PRINT I180
SECA 983 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 984 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 985 C
SECA 986 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 987 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 988 FADDETA
SECA 989 R=DETA
SECA 990 F=FA
SECA 991 DETR=DETA
SECA 992 PA=RR
SECA 993 F=FR
SECA 994 DETA=DETR
SECA 995 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 996 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 997 J=J+1
SECA 998 ETA=2.0
SECA 999 GO TO 300
SECA 1000 C
SECA 1001 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 1002 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 1003 PRINT I130
SECA 1004 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1005 PRINT I140
SECA 1006 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1007 PRINT I150
SECA 1008 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1009 PRINT I160
SECA 1010 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1011 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1012 C
SECA 1013 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 1014 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 1015 I=0
SECA 1016 JR=JR-2
SECA 1017 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 1018 I=I+1
SECA 1019 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 1020 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 1021 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 1022 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 1023 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 1024 CONTINUE
SECA 1025 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 1026 PRINT I170
SECA 1027 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 1028 PRINT I170
SECA 1029 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1030 PRINT I180
SECA 1031 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 1032 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 1033 C
SECA 1034 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 1035 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 1036 FADDETA
SECA 1037 R=DETA
SECA 1038 F=FA
SECA 1039 DETR=DETA
SECA 1040 PA=RR
SECA 1041 F=FR
SECA 1042 DETA=DETR
SECA 1043 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 1044 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 1045 J=J+1
SECA 1046 ETA=2.0
SECA 1047 GO TO 300
SECA 1048 C
SECA 1049 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 1050 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 1051 PRINT I130
SECA 1052 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1053 PRINT I140
SECA 1054 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1055 PRINT I150
SECA 1056 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1057 PRINT I160
SECA 1058 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1059 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1060 C
SECA 1061 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 1062 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 1063 I=0
SECA 1064 JR=JR-2
SECA 1065 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 1066 I=I+1
SECA 1067 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 1068 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 1069 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 1070 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 1071 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 1072 CONTINUE
SECA 1073 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 1074 PRINT I170
SECA 1075 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 1076 PRINT I170
SECA 1077 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1078 PRINT I180
SECA 1079 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 1080 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 1081 C
SECA 1082 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 1083 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXI,A,NMA,NM,N,A,N,SCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 1084 FADDETA
SECA 1085 R=DETA
SECA 1086 F=FA
SECA 1087 DETR=DETA
SECA 1088 PA=RR
SECA 1089 F=FR
SECA 1090 DETA=DETR
SECA 1091 F=FA/(RA-ROOT(JR))
SECA 1092 F=FR/(RR-ROOT(JR))
SECA 1093 J=J+1
SECA 1094 ETA=2.0
SECA 1095 GO TO 300
SECA 1096 C
SECA 1097 NROOT=JR-1
SECA 1098 IF (NROOT*EQ*0) RETURN
SECA 1099 PRINT I130
SECA 1100 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1101 PRINT I140
SECA 1102 PRINT I006,FINITE(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1103 PRINT I150
SECA 1104 PRINT I008,(TIME(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1105 PRINT I160
SECA 1106 PRINT I004,(ERRV(L),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1107 PRINT I004,(ERRV(R),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1108 C
SECA 1109 ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 1110 IF (JR*EQ*2) GO TO 950
SECA 1111 I=0
SECA 1112 JR=JR-2
SECA 1113 DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 1114 I=I+1
SECA 1115 R=ROOT(I)*I
SECA 1116 ROOT(I)=R
SECA 1117 DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 1118 V(K,I)=V(K,I)+I
SECA 1119 V(K,I)=V(K,I)
SECA 1120 CONTINUE
SECA 1121 IF (IIS*GT*.0) GO TO 910
SECA 1122 PRINT I170
SECA 1123 NROOT=NSCH
SECA 1124 PRINT I170
SECA 1125 PRINT I004,(ROOT(J),J=1,NROOT)
SECA 1126 PRINT I180
SECA 1127 DO 960 J=1,NROOT
SECA 1128 PRINT I002,(VV(I),J=1,N)
SECA 1129 C
SECA 1130 IF (RA*GT*0.0) GO TO 760
SECA 1131
```





## II.2 Program SSPACE

Program SSPACE uses the subspace iteration technique described in Chapter 4 to calculate the smallest eigenvalues and corresponding vectors in the problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$ . Matrix A is assumed to be positive definite and B can be banded positive definite or diagonal non-negative definite.

The program is called with the parameters:

N = order of matrices A and B  
 NMAX = number of rows in storage blocks of matrices A and B  
 MA = half bandwidth of A including diagonal  
 MB = half bandwidth of B including diagonal  
 NROOT = number of required eigenvalues  
 NC =  $\min \{2*NROOT, NROOT+8\}$  and is initialized in the program

Storage:

A(NMAX,MA) = matrix A  
 B(NMAX,MB) = matrix B  
 T(N,NC) = eigenvectors  
 EIGV(NC) = eigenvalues  
 R(N,NC), W(N), MAXA(N), TT(N), AR(NC,NC), BR(NC,NC), VEC(NC,NC),  
 RTOLV(NC) and D(NC) are working arrays.

The total storage required is

$$N*(MA + MB + 2*NC + 3) + NC*(3*NC + 3)$$

Two working tapes are used. The program calls the following subroutines:

BAN - performs the triangular factorizations and vector iterations

JACOBI - solves the small generalized eigenvalue problem (the listing is given with MODES).

IIGRAM - calls BAN to perform vector iterations and orthonormalizes the iteration vectors using the Gram-Schmidt process.

MULT - carries out array multiplications (the listing is given with SECANT).

ERRAN - calculates error bounds on the eigenvalues and performs Sturm Sequence checks. If an eigenvalue is missing, the program finds an interval in which the missing eigenvalue lies. ERRAN can only be called when B is positive definite and then the logical variable CHECK must be set .TRUE..

The tolerances used are set up for the CDC 6400 with a 48 bit mantissa in floating point arithmetic. Referring to the listing given and Table 1 the program performs the following sequence of subspace iterations: a,b,a,b,c,c,c.... This sequence is changed by adjusting the variables INVM, INCR, IIG and NGR. The eigenvalues are calculated to about 5 digit precision.

```

SSPA 1 SUBROUTINE SSPACE (A,B,T,R,TT,M,MAXA,MA,MB,AV,VEC,ETOV,D,ISTEP,N,
SSPA 2 INMAX,MA,MB,NROOT,NC)
SSPA 3
SSPA 4 C PROGRAM TO COMPUTE SMALLEST EIGENVALUES AND ASSOCIATED VECTORS
SSPA 5 C IN THE GENERALIZED EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
SSPA 6 C  $AV \cdot X = \lambda \cdot B \cdot X$  (A POS. DEF. B. NORMED DEF.)
SSPA 7 C
SSPA 8 C PROGRAMMED BY K.J. BATHE
SSPA 9 C SEM. UNIV. OF CALIF. BERKELEY 1971
SSPA 10 C
SSPA 11 C DIMENSION: AINMAX,MAJ,BINMAX,MBJ,TEN,I,JKEN,I,TT(I),J,W(I),EIGOV(I),
SSPA 12 I(1),VECTNC(I),AR(NG,I),BR(NG,I),RTOLV(I)
SSPA 13 INTEGER: MAXALN)
SSPA 14 C LOGICAL CHECK
SSPA 15 C
SSPA 16 C IF B IS POS. DEF. WE CAN SET CHECK=.TRUE. TO CALCULATE 'EXACT' ERROR
SSPA 17 C BOUNDS AND APPLY THE STURM SEQUENCE CHECK
SSPA 18 C CHECK=.TRUE.
SSPA 19 C
SSPA 20 C MBJ=MB+1
SSPA 21 C NKA=MA*N
SSPA 22 C NKB=MB*N
SSPA 23 C
SSPA 24 C FOLLOWING TOLERANCES ARE SET FOR THE CDC 6400
SSPA 25 C RTOL=1.E-06
SSPA 26 C TOLJ=1.E-12
SSPA 27 C
SSPA 28 C INVM=0
SSPA 29 C ACR=2
SSPA 30 C INCR=0
SSPA 31 C ITC=2
SSPA 32 C NSCR=0
SSPA 33 C NITEM=16
SSPA 34 C NC=2*NRROOT
SSPA 35 C IF (NRROOT.GT.0) NC=NRROOT+8
SSPA 36 C NCI=NC-1
SSPA 37 C
SSPA 38 C COMPACT MATRICES AND STORE
SSPA 39 C DO 10 J=2,MA
SSPA 40 C L=NR(I)-1
SSPA 41 C DO 10 I=1,N
SSPA 42 C A(I,I)=A(I,J)
SSPA 43 C IF (MB.EQ.1) GO TO 40
SSPA 44 C DO 20 J=2,MB
SSPA 45 C L=NR(J)-1
SSPA 46 C DO 20 I=1,N
SSPA 47 C B(I,I)=B(I,J)
SSPA 48 C
SSPA 49 C REMIND 1
SSPA 50 C WRITE (1) A
SSPA 51 C WRITE (1) B
SSPA 52 C
SSPA 53 C TRIANGULARIZE MATRIX A
SSPA 54 C CALL SECOND (TIM1)
SSPA 55 C SP=PT=0.C
SSPA 56 C CALL BAN (A,B,TT,MAXA,N,MA,MB,SHIFT,NSCR,1)
SSPA 57 C
SSPA 58 C ESTABLISH STARTING TRANSFORMATION VECTORS
SSPA 59 C ND=N/NC
SSPA 60 C DO 200 I=1,N
SSPA 61 C W(I)=B(I)/Z(I)
SSPA 62 C DO 220 J=1,N
SSPA 63 C R(I,J)=R(I)
SSPA 64 C DO 220 J=2,NC
SSPA 65 C P(I,J)=0.C
SSPA 66 C
SSPA 67 C L=N-ND
SSPA 68 C DO 240 J=2,NC
SSPA 69 C RT=0.C
SSPA 70 C DO 250 I=1,L
SSPA 71 C IF (A(I),A(L),PT) GO TO 260
SSPA 72 C RT=RT+1
SSPA 73 C I=I+1
SSPA 74 C 260 CONTINUE
SSPA 75 C

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```

SSPA 76 IF (A(I),A(L),PT) GO TO 270
SSPA 77 P=RT+1
SSPA 78 I=I+1
SSPA 79 CONTINUE
SSPA 80 W(I)=0
SSPA 81 L=L-ND
SSPA 82 R(I,J)=1.
SSPA 83 C
SSPA 84 C DO 300 L=L-NC
SSPA 85 C CALL TIGRAM (A,B,T,R,TT,M,MAXA,MA,MB,AV,VEC,ETOV,IIS,NC)
SSPA 86 C CONTINUE
SSPA 87 C DO 340 I=1,NC
SSPA 88 C D(I)=0.C
SSPA 89 C NITE=IIG*NR
SSPA 90 C INVM=0
SSPA 91 C NITE=NITE+1
SSPA 92 C
SSPA 93 C PERFORM INV INVERSE ITER. WITH USING SP=SCHEMIDT
SSPA 94 C IF ((INVM.EQ.0).OR.(NITE.EQ.(IIG*NR+1))) GO TO 440
SSPA 95 C INVM=INV+INCR
SSPA 96 C IF (INVM.GT.INVM) INVM=INVM
SSPA 97 C CALL SECOND (TIM2)
SSPA 98 C CALL TIGRAM (A,B,T,R,TT,M,MAXA,MA,MB,AV,VEC)
SSPA 99 C CALL SECOND (TIM3)
SSPA 100 C TIM=TIM+TIM2
SSPA 101 C PRINT 1000,INVM,TIM3
SSPA 102 C NITE=NITE+INV
SSPA 103 C PRINT 1010,NITE
SSPA 104 C
SSPA 105 C FIND THE PROJECTIONS OF OPERATORS A AND B
SSPA 106 C CALL SECOND (TIM4)
SSPA 107 C DO 460 J=1,NC
SSPA 108 C DO 470 K=1,N
SSPA 109 C YTK(I)=R(I,K)
SSPA 110 C 470 CALL BAN (A,B,TT,MAXA,N,MA,MB,SHIFT,NSCR,2)
SSPA 111 C DO 480 I=J,NC
SSPA 112 C ZRT=0.C
SSPA 113 C DO 490 K=1,N
SSPA 114 C ART=ART+YTK(I)*YTK(K)
SSPA 115 C 490 AR(I,J)=ART
SSPA 116 C DO 500 K=1,N
SSPA 117 C R(I,K)=YTK(K)
SSPA 118 C 500 CONTINUE
SSPA 119 C DO 560 I=1,NC
SSPA 120 C DO 570 K=1,N
SSPA 121 C W(K)=R(I,K)
SSPA 122 C CALL MULT (TT,B,W,N,MB)
SSPA 123 C DO 580 I=J,NC
SSPA 124 C BTE=0.C
SSPA 125 C DO 590 K=1,N
SSPA 126 C BTE=BTE+R(I,K)*YTK(K)
SSPA 127 C 590 BR(I,J)=BTE
SSPA 128 C DO 600 K=1,N
SSPA 129 C T(K,J)=YTK(K)
SSPA 130 C CONTINUE
SSPA 131 C DO 610 J=1,NC
SSPA 132 C DO 610 J=1,NC
SSPA 133 C AR(I,J)=AR(I,J)
SSPA 134 C BR(I,J)=BR(I,J)
SSPA 135 C
SSPA 136 C SOLVE FOR EIGENSYSTEM OF SUBSPACE OPERATORS
SSPA 137 C PRINT 1020
SSPA 138 C DO 620 I=L,NC
SSPA 139 C PRINT 1005,(AR(I,J),J=1,NC)
SSPA 140 C PRINT 1030
SSPA 141 C DO 630 I=L,NC
SSPA 142 C PRINT 1005,(BR(I,J),J=1,NC)
SSPA 143 C
SSPA 144 C CALL SECOND (TIM5)
SSPA 145 C CALL JACOBI (AR,BR,VEC,ETOV,N,NC,TOLJ)
SSPA 146 C DO 655 J=1,NC
SSPA 147 C AT=SPRT(OR(L),J)
SSPA 148 C DO 655 K=1,NC
SSPA 149 C VEC(K,J)=VEC(K,J)/AT
SSPA 150 C

```

```

SSPA 151 C CALL SECOND(TIME)
SSPA 152 C PRINT 1040
SSPA 153 C PRINT 1020
SSPA 154 C PRINT 1010
SSPA 155 C DO 640 J=1,NC
SSPA 156 C PRINT 1005,TR(I,J),J=1,NC)
SSPA 157 C PRINT 1030
SSPA 158 C DO 650 J=1,NC
SSPA 159 C PRINT 1005,(BP(I,J),J=1,NC)
SSPA 160 C
SSPA 161 C ARRANGE EIGENVALUES IN ASCENDING ORDER
SSPA 162 C IS=0
SSPA 163 C DO 700 I=1,NCL
SSPA 164 C IF (EIGV(I+1).GE.EIGV(I)) GO TO 700
SSPA 165 C IS=IS+1
SSPA 166 C EIGV=EIGV(I+1)
SSPA 167 C EIGV(I+1)=EIGV(I)
SSPA 168 C EIGV(I)=EIGV(I+1)
SSPA 169 C B=BP(I+1,I+1)
SSPA 170 C BR(I+1,I)=BR(I,I)
SSPA 171 C BR(I,I)=BT
SSPA 172 C DO 710 K=1,NC
SSPA 173 C B=VEC(K,I+1)
SSPA 174 C VEC(K,I+1)=VEC(K,I)
SSPA 175 C VEC(K,I)=B
SSPA 176 C CONTINUE
SSPA 177 C IF (IS.GT.C) GO TO 69C
SSPA 178 C PRINT 1035
SSPA 179 C PRINT 1006,(EIGV(I),I=1,NC)
SSPA 180 C
SSPA 181 C CHECK FOR CONVERGENCE OF EIGENVALUES
SSPA 182 C DO 660 I=1,NC
SSPA 183 C DIF=ABS(EIGV(I)-D(I))
SSPA 184 C RTOLV(I)=DIF/EIGV(I)
SSPA 185 C PRINT 1050
SSPA 186 C PRINT 1005,(RTOLV(I),I=1,NC)
SSPA 187 C
SSPA 188 C DO 670 I=1,NROOT
SSPA 189 C IF (RTOLV(I).GT.*RTOL) GO TO 680
SSPA 190 C CONTINUE
SSPA 191 C PRINT 1060,RTOL
SSPA 192 C GO TO 800
SSPA 193 C
SSPA 194 C CALCULATE B-TIMES APPROX EIGENVECTORS
SSPA 195 C DO 720 J=1,NC
SSPA 196 C RT=0.0
SSPA 197 C DO 730 K=1,NC
SSPA 198 C P=RT*(I,K)*VEC(K,J)
SSPA 199 C P(I,J)=P
SSPA 200 C
SSPA 201 C DO 740 I=1,NC
SSPA 202 C D(I)=EIGV(I)
SSPA 203 C CALL SECOND(TIME7)
SSPA 204 C TIME7=TIME-TIME5
SSPA 205 C PRINT 1080,TIME6
SSPA 206 C PRINT 1090,TIME7
SSPA 207 C GO TO 400
SSPA 208 C
SSPA 209 C CALL SECOND(TIME7)
SSPA 210 C TIME6=TIME-TIME5
SSPA 211 C TIME7=TIME-TIME4
SSPA 212 C PRINT 1080,TIME6
SSPA 213 C PRINT 1090,TIME7
SSPA 214 C
SSPA 215 C ORTHONORMALIZE VECTORS
SSPA 216 C DO 810 J=1,NC
SSPA 217 C DC B10 J=1,NC
SSPA 218 C DC B10 I=1,N
SSPA 219 C B1=0.0
SSPA 220 C DO 820 K=1,NC

```

```

820 RT=RT+(I,K)*VEC(K,J)
830 B10=B10+RT
840 PRINT 1100
850 PRINT 1004+(EIGV(I),I=1,NCL)
860 PRINT 1110
870 DO 840 J=1,NC
880 PRINT 1005,(P(I,J),K=1,N)
890 IF (CHECK) GO TO 860
900 CALL SECOND(TIME9)
910 GO TO 900
920 C
930 C CALCULATE ERROR BOUNDS ON EIGENVALUES AND CHECK FOR MISSING ROOTS
940 CALL SECOND(TIME8)
950 CALL SECON(A,B,T,MAXI,EIGV,P,D,...,BS,RTOLV,NB,M,NAA,NWB)
960 INROOT=NC-RT-ENO-NSCH)
970 CALL SECOND(TIME9)
980 TIME=TIME-TIME8
990 PRINT 1120,TIME9
1000 TIME=TIME-TIME8
1010 PRINT 1130,TIME9
1020 RETURN
1030 C
1040 C FORMAT (1H,12E11.4)
1050 C FORMAT (1H0,6F22.14)
1060 C FORMAT (1H1,14HTIME USED FOR 12,22H IMV ITEMS AND 0RTHO F6.2)
1070 C FORMAT (1H1,12HTITERATION NO.14)
1080 C FORMAT (10H0MATRIX BR )
1090 C FORMAT (30HEIGENVALUES OF AP-LAMBDA*WR )
1100 C FORMAT (40HOR AND RR AFTER JACOBI DIAGONALIZATION )
1110 C FORMAT (30HOREL TOLERANCE ON EIGENVALUES REACHED )
1120 C FORMAT (30HCONVERGENCE REACHED FOR RTOL F10.4)
1130 C FORMAT (1H1,31HE ACCEPT CURRENT ITEM VALUES )
1140 C FORMAT (35HTIME USED IN EIGENVAL SOLUTION F6.2)
1150 C FORMAT (30HTIME USED IN ITERATION STEP F13.2)
1160 C FORMAT (27H0THE FINAL EIGENVALUES ARE )
1170 C FORMAT (28H0THE NORMALIZED EIGENVECTORS ARE )
1180 C FORMAT (28H0TIME USED FOR FINAL CHECKS F6.2)
1190 C FORMAT (17H0TOTAL TIME USED F6.2)
1200 C
1210 C ENR
1220 C
1230 C SURROUTINE BAN (A,B,V,PAXA,NN,NWB,NHR,F4,N5CH,KK)
1240 C DIMENSION A(NWB),B(NHRT),V(1),MAX(11)
1250 C NR=NN-1
1260 C IF (KK-2) 100,7CC,800
1270 C
1280 C TOL=1.0E+07
1290 C RTOL=1.0E-C6
1300 C NFI=3
1310 C IS=1
1320 C IF (RA.EQ.C.0) GO TO 140
1330 C REWIND 1
1340 C READ (1) A
1350 C DO 140 I=1,NWB
1360 C A(I)=A(I)+NWB(I)
1370 C IF (NWB.EQ.NN) GO TO 210
1380 C DO 200 N=1,NR
1390 C IF=NWB-N
1400 C IF=I-N
1410 C GC TO 710
1420 C MAX(N)=I+4
1430 C PIV=(N)
1440 C IF (PIV) 721,22F,21)
1450 C IF=NAN
1460 C
1470 C BAN 1
1480 C BAN 2
1490 C BAN 3
1500 C BAN 4
1510 C BAN 5
1520 C BAN 6
1530 C BAN 7
1540 C BAN 8
1550 C BAN 9
1560 C BAN 10
1570 C BAN 11
1580 C BAN 12
1590 C BAN 13
1600 C BAN 14
1610 C BAN 15
1620 C BAN 16
1630 C BAN 17
1640 C BAN 18
1650 C BAN 19
1660 C BAN 20
1670 C BAN 21
1680 C BAN 22
1690 C BAN 23
1700 C BAN 24
1710 C BAN 25
1720 C BAN 26

```

```

BAN 27 L=N
BAN 28 DO 260 I=1,14,NN
BAN 29 L=I+1
BAN 30 C=I+1
BAN 31 IF (I) 225,240,225
BAN 32 C=(P/IV)
BAN 33 IF (ABS(C).LT.TOL) GO TO 235
BAN 34 I=I+1
BAN 35 IF (I*.LE.NFT) GO TO 245
BAN 36 PRINT 1000,NFT
BAN 37 STOP
BAN 38 PAERAS(I,-RTOL)
BAN 39 GO TO 120
BAN 40 J=L+1
BAN 41 DO 260 K=J,14,NN
BAN 42 A(K,J)=A(K,J)-C*A(K)
BAN 43 A(I)=C
BAN 44 CONTINUE
BAN 45 DO 200
BAN 46 270
BAN 47 AA=ABS(A(I))
BAN 48 AA=AA+ABS(A(I))
BAN 49 A(NN)=(AA/NN)*I,DE-16
BAN 50 C
BAN 51 NSCH=0
BAN 52 DO 300 I=1,NN
BAN 53 IF (A(I).LT.C) NSCH=NSCH+1
BAN 54 C
BAN 55 GO TO 900
BAN 56 C
BAN 57 IL=NN
BAN 58 DO 400 N=1,NN
BAN 59 C=V(N)
BAN 60 V(N)=C/A(N)
BAN 61 IF (NMA-N) 410,400,410
BAN 62 IL=IL+1
BAN 63 IF=MAX(A(N)
BAN 64 K=N
BAN 65 DO 420 I=IL,14,NN
BAN 66 K*K+1
BAN 67 V(K)=V(K)-C*A(I)
BAN 68 CONTINUE
BAN 69 400
BAN 70 V(NN)=V(NN)/A(NN)
BAN 71 C
BAN 72 800
BAN 73 IF (NMA-NN) 430,500,430
BAN 74 N=NN
BAN 75 DO 440 L=2,NN
BAN 76 IL=N+NN
BAN 77 IF=MAX(A(N)
BAN 78 K=N
BAN 79 DO 460 I=IL,14,NN
BAN 80 K*K+1
BAN 81 V(N)=V(N)-A(I)*V(K)
BAN 82 460
BAN 83 900
BAN 84 C
BAN 85 1000
BAN 86 FORMAT (I4,1,20H TRIANG FACTORIZATN I3,32H TIMES 2BONDONED,CHECK
BAN 87 MATRICES )
END

```

```

IIGR 9
IIGR 10
IIGR 11
IIGR 12
IIGR 13
IIGR 14
IIGR 15
IIGR 16
IIGR 17
IIGR 18
IIGR 19
IIGR 20
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IIGR 65
IIGR 66
IIGR 67
IIGR 68
IIGR 69
IIGR 70
IIGR 71
IIGR 72
IIGR 73
IIGR 74
IIGR 75
IIGR 76
IIGR 77
IIGR 78
IIGR 79
IIGR 80
IIGR 81
IIGR 82
IIGR 83
IIGR 84
IIGR 85
IIGR 86
IIGR 87

```

```

SUBROUTINE ERROR (A,B,TT,MAXA,LETCV,NEIV,BUP,RLD,ERRV,BUPC,
IN,MA,NMA,NWS,NFOCT,NC,SHIFT,TEMP,N,SCH)
DIMENSION AINWA(18,NWP),TIN(1),TIT(1),MII(1),ETCV(1),ROPI(1),RLO(1),
ERRV(1),BUPC(1)
INTEGER MAXA(N),NEIV(1)
LOGICAL CHECK
FIDLE=1.0E-02
STOL=1.0E-10
CALCULATE ERROR BOUNDS ON EIGENVALUES

```



### II.3 Program MODES

Program MODES calculates the smallest eigenvalues and associated vectors in the problem  $Av = \lambda Bv$ , when matrix A is positive definite and B is diagonal non-negative definite. Matrix A may have any order and bandwidth. It is assumed that A and B are stored in blocks on tapes NSTIF and NMASS, respectively (see Chapter 5).

The program is called with six parameters:

NEQ = order of matrix A

MBAND = half bandwidth of A including diagonal

NBLOCK = number of blocks

NEQB = number of equations per block

NF = number of required eigenvalues and associated  
eigenvectors

MTOT = total blank common storage area specified. The program  
stops at the beginning of execution if more storage is  
needed.

For storage a blank common area COMMON A(MTOT) is specified. The storage used in each subroutine is dynamically allocated from this area. Therefore, MTOT must be the maximum of the storage needed in any one of the subroutines used.

Six tapes are specified in the program.

NSTIF = stores initially matrix A

NMASS = stores matrix B

NRED = stores the reduced matrix

NL, NR, NT = working tapes

Tapes NRED, NL, NR and NT are not used when NBLOCK = 1.

All tolerances have been set for the CDC 6400 with a 48 bit mantissa in floating point arithmetic.

If NBLOCK = 1 program SECANTD is called. This program uses the determinant search technique described in Chapter 3. In this case the total storage required is  $N*(MBAND + 2*NC + 4) + 5*NC$ , where  $NC = NF + NIM$ . The parameter NIM has been set equal to 3 and allows the calculation of 3 more eigenvalues than required (see Appendix II.1). SECANTD calculates the eigenvalues to about 12 digit precision.

When NBLOCK > 1 program SSPACEB is called to calculate the required eigenvalues and vectors using the subspace iteration c in Table 1. SSPACEB calls the following programs:

DECOMP - factorizes  $(A - \mu B)$  which is read from tape NSTIF, where  $\mu$  is the shift.

Required storage:  $NEQB*(2*MBAND + 1)$

INVECT - generates the initial transformation vectors.

Required storage:  $NEQB*(NV+1) + NV$ , where  $NV = \min(2*NF, NF + 8)$ .

REDBAK - does the vector reductions and back substitutions.

Required storage:  $NEQB*(MBAND + 2*NV + NV*NTB+1) + 2*NV$ , where  $NTB = ((MBAND - 2)/NEQB) + 1$ .

EIGSOL - calculates the projections of A and B, calls JACOBI to solve the small generalized eigenvalue problem, checks for convergence and calculates either B times the new transformation vectors or the orthonormalized eigenvectors.

Required storage:  $NV*(3*NV + 2*NEQB + 3) + NEQB$ .



SCHECK - finds the shift  $\mu$  for the Sturm Sequence check and puts  
(A -  $\mu$ B) on tape NSTIF.

Required storage:  $NEQB*(MBAND + 1) + 6*NV$ .

The Sturm Sequence check is not carried out if we set the logical variable CHECK in SSPACEB equal to .FALSE.. At convergence, SSPACEB has calculated the eigenvalues to about 5 digit precision. For solution we need at least  $\min\{2*NF, NF + 8\}$  nonzero diagonal elements in B. Systems of order smaller than about 100 should be analyzed using NBLOCK = 1.

```

MODE 1 2 C SUBROUTINE MODES (NEQ,MBAND,NBLOCK,NEQB,NF,NTOT)
MODE 3 3 C PROGRAM TO COMPUTE SMALLEST EIGENVALUES AND ASSOCIATED VECTORS IN
MODE 4 4 C THE GENERALIZED EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
MODE 5 5 C
MODE 6 6 C
MODE 7 7 C
MODE 8 8 C
MODE 9 9 C
MODE 10 10 C
MODE 11 11 C
MODE 12 12 C
MODE 13 13 C
MODE 14 14 C
MODE 15 15 C
MODE 16 16 C
MODE 17 17 C
MODE 18 18 C
MODE 19 19 C
MODE 20 20 C
MODE 21 21 C
MODE 22 22 C
MODE 23 23 C
MODE 24 24 C
MODE 25 25 C
MODE 26 26 C
MODE 27 27 C
MODE 28 28 C
MODE 29 29 C
MODE 30 30 C
MODE 31 31 C
MODE 32 32 C
MODE 33 33 C
MODE 34 34 C
MODE 35 35 C
MODE 36 36 C
MODE 37 37 C
MODE 38 38 C
MODE 39 39 C
MODE 40 40 C
MODE 41 41 C
MODE 42 42 C
MODE 43 43 C
MODE 44 44 C
MODE 45 45 C
MODE 46 46 C
MODE 47 47 C
MODE 48 48 C
MODE 49 49 C
MODE 50 50 C
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MODE 52 52 C
MODE 53 53 C
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MODE 55 55 C
MODE 56 56 C
MODE 57 57 C
MODE 58 58 C
MODE 59 59 C
MODE 60 60 C
MODE 61 61 C
MODE 62 62 C
MODE 63 63 C
MODE 64 64 C
MODE 65 65 C
MODE 66 66 C
MODE 67 67 C
MODE 68 68 C
MODE 69 69 C
MODE 70 70 C
MODE 71 71 C
MODE 72 72 C
MODE 73 73 C
MODE 74 74 C
MODE 75 75 C

SUBROUTINE MODES (NEQ,MBAND,NBLOCK,NEQB,NF,NTOT)
PROGRAMMED BY K.J. BATHE
SESU UNIV OF CALIF BERKELEY 1971
COMMON AT1
COMMON /TAPES/NTSTIF,NREQ,NL,NF,NT,NMASS
NTSTIF=4
NMASS=0
NREQ=1
NL=2
NR=3
NR7
PRINT 1000,NEQ,MBAND,NBLOCK,NEQB,NF
IF (NBLOCK.GT.1) GO TO 300
NC=NF+NL
NNA=NEQ+MBAND
N3=N2+NEQ
N4=N3+NEQ
N5=N4+NEQ
N6=N5+NEQ
N7=N6+NEQ+NC
N8=N7+NEQ+NC
N9=N8+NC
N10=N9+NC
N11=N10+NC
N12=N11+NC
N13=N12+NC
IF (NTOT-N13) 100,200,200
PRINT 1010,N13
STOP
CALL SECANTD (A(1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),A(N9),
1) ,A(N10),A(N11),A(N12),NREQ,MBAND,NMA,NF,NC)
GO TO 600
C
NNA=NEQB+MBAND
NV=2*NF
IF (NF.GT.8) NV=NF+8
NW=NV+NEQB
NTB=(MBAND-2)/NEQB+1
IF (INT(.9E+NBLOCK) NTB=NBLOCK-1
NWV=NW+NTB+1)
N=2*NNA+NEQB
N2=NW+NEQB+NV
N3=NNA+NV+NWV+NEQB+2*NV
N4=NV+3*NV+2*NEQB+3+NEQB
N5=NNA+6*NV+NEQB
IF (N2.GT.N) N=N2
IF (N3.GT.N) N=N3
IF (N4.GT.N) N=N4
IF (N5.GT.N) N=N5
IF (NTOT-N) 400,500,500
PRINT 1010,N
STOP
CALL SSPACED (NEQ,MBAND,NBLOCK,NEQB,NF,NV,NNA,NW,NV,NWV,NTB)
MODE 70 C
MODE 71 C
MODE 72 C
MODE 73 C
MODE 74 C
MODE 75 C
PRINT (JH),20HPROBLEM INFORMATION //
/300 NO OF EQUATIONS ..... 14
/308 1/2 BANDWIDTH OF ..... 14

```

```

MODE 76 76 C
MODE 77 77 C
MODE 78 78 C
MODE 79 79 C
MODE 80 80 C

SUBROUTINE SECANTD (A,B,V,MAXA,M,VV,WK,ROOT,ITM,ERRVL,ERRVR,
1 INITE,N,MA,NMA,RCOT,NC)
COMMON /TAPES/NTSTIF,NREQ,NL,NF,NT,NMASS
DIMENSION A(NMA),B(N),AV(1),VS(1),VV(N),WV(N),WK(N,1),SCOT(1),
1 ITI(1),ERRV(1),ERRVR(1)
INTEGER NITE(1),MAXA(1)
FOLLOWING TOLERANCES ARE SET FOR THE CODE 6400
ACTOL=1.0E-04
RCOTOL=1.0E-06
RTOL=1.0E-10
RQTOL=1.0E-12
SCALE=2.0E+900
NTE=5
NITEM=10
NITEM=40
REWIN NMASS
READ (NMASS) B
ETA=2.0
NGV=0
JS=1
NSK=0
NNA=NMA
NSC=1000
CALL SECOND (ITI)
RA=0.0
RB=0.0
CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,NMA,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
FA=DETA
FB=FA
DETR=DETA
PRINT 1010
DC 100 I=1,N
W(I)=B(I)
SECA 40 100
SECA 41 100
SECA 42 100
SECA 43 100
SECA 44 100
SECA 45 110
SECA 46 120
SECA 47 120
SECA 48 120
SECA 49 120
SECA 50 120
SECA 51 130
SECA 52 130
SECA 53 180
SECA 54 180
SECA 55 180
SECA 56 140
SECA 57 140
SECA 58 140
SECA 59 140
SECA 60 140
SECA 61 140
SECA 62 140
SECA 63 140
SECA 64 140
SECA 65 140
SECA 66 140
SECA 67 140
SECA 68 140
SECA 69 140
SECA 70 140
SECA 71 140
SECA 72 140
SECA 73 140
SECA 74 140
SECA 75 140

```

```

SECA 64 W(I)M(I)/ZS
SECA 65 RT=Q
SECA 66 IF (IITE,LT,IITEM) GO TO 110
SECA 67 C
SECA 68 DO 170 I=1,N
SECA 69 W(I)=V(I)/ZS
SECA 70 RB=RB*(1.0-AMINI*(0.1,100*TOL))
SECA 71 IS=0
SECA 72 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,AWA,RC,NSCH,DETA,ISC,I)
SECA 73 PRINT 1020,RB,NSCH
SECA 74 FR=DETB
SECA 75 IF (NSCH.EQ.0) GO TO 300
SECA 76 IS=IS+1
SECA 77 IF (IS.LE.NTF) GO TO 240
SECA 78 PRINT 1030
SECA 79 STOP
SECA 80 RB=RB/(NSCH+1)
SECA 81 GO TO 230
SECA 82 C
SECA 83 C ITEM FOR INDIVIDUAL ROOTS
SECA 84 PRINT 1040
SECA 85 NITE(J)=1
SECA 86 PRINT 1050,JR,NITE(JR),RA,DETA,FA,FTA,ISC
SECA 87 NITE(JR)=2
SECA 88 PRINT 1050,JR,NITE(JR),RP,DETB,FR,ETA,ISC
SECA 89 C
SECA 90 C WE STOP WHEN WE HAVE THE REQUIRED NO OF ROOTS SMALLER THAN RC AND
SECA 91 C NDV=0
SECA 92 C 310 IF (NSCH+GE,ARCOT) GO TO 300
SECA 93 C
SECA 94 OI=FR-FA
SECA 95 IF (OI.FE,0.0) GO TO 320
SECA 96 PRINT 1060
SECA 97 GO TO 300
SECA 98 OI=FR*(PR-PA)/OIF
SECA 99 OI=OB-ETA*DEL
SECA 100 TO=RCB/OL*RC
SECA 101 IF (ABS(OL*RB).GT.TOL) GO TO 330
SECA 102 PRINT 1070
SECA 103 GOOT(JR)=RB
SECA 104 GO TO 400
SECA 105 C
SECA 106 CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXA,N,AWA,RC,NSCH,DETC,ISC,I)
SECA 107 FC=DE/RC-ROOT(K)
SECA 108 NITE(JR)=NITE(JR)+1
SECA 109 IF (J,EG,II) GO TO 340
SECA 110 JJ=JR-1
SECA 111 DO 350 K=1,JJ
SECA 112 FC=FC/(RC-ROOT(K))
SECA 113 340 PRINT 1050,JR,NITE(JR),RC,DETC,FC,ETA,ISC
SECA 114 C
SECA 115 C IF WE HAVE MORE SIGNCHANGES THAN EIGENVALUES SMALLER THAN RC WE
SECA 116 C STAFF INV. ITERATION
SECA 117 NES=0
SECA 118 IF (J,EG,II) GO TO 380
SECA 119 DO 360 I=1,JJ
SECA 120 IF (ROOT(I)).LT.(RC) NES=NES+1
SECA 121 ADV=NSCH-NES
SECA 122 380 IF (NDV.EQ.0) GO TO 370
SECA 123 PRINT 1080,NDV
SECA 124 ACOT(JR)=RC
SECA 125 IF (NDV.GT.1) NSK=1
SECA 126 C
SECA 127 60 TO 400
SECA 128 FR=FR
SECA 129 OI=FR-DETA
SECA 130 RA=RB
SECA 131 FA=FR
SECA 132 DETA=DETR
SECA 133 RB=RC
SECA 134 FR=FC
SECA 135 DETA=DETC
SECA 136 C
SECA 137 C WE RESET ETA IF NECESSARY
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SECA 214  RD=SQRT/SCA
SECA 215  PCDT(JP)=RODT(JP)*PQ
SECA 216  ER=SQRT(ERRO/ROBI)
SECA 217  FPAVL(JR)=RODT(JR)*EPR
SECA 218  ERRVR(JP)=RODT(JP)*ERR
SECA 219
SECA 220  C
SECA 221  DS=SQRT(PQP)
SECA 222  DO 500 I=1,N
SECA 223  W(I)=W(I)/DS
SECA 224  V(I)=V(I)/DS
SECA 225  DO 600 I=1,N
SECA 226  W(I,J)=W(I)
SECA 227  V(I,J)=V(I)
SECA 228
SECA 229  C
SECA 230  CALL SECOND(TIM2)
SECA 231  TIME=TIME-TIM3
SECA 232  PRINT 11ZC,TIM3
SECA 233  TIME(JR)=TIME
SECA 234  TIME=TIME
SECA 235  C
SECA 236  DECIDE STRATEGY FOR ITERN TOWARDS NEXT ROOT
SECA 237  TOL=RTOL*RODT(JR)
SECA 238  IF (NOV,GT,0) GO TO 700
SECA 239  IF (ABS(RODT(JR)-RB),GT,TOL) GO TO 710
SECA 240  IF (RA,GT,0) GO TO 720
SECA 241  RA=RB/2.
SECA 242  CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXZ,N,NWA,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
SECA 243  PA=DETA
SECA 244  RB=RA
SECA 245  FB=FA
SECA 246  DETB=DETA
SECA 247  RA=RB
SECA 248  DETB=DETR
SECA 249  GO TO 710
SECA 250  C
SECA 251  IF (RODT(JR),GT,PC) NSK=1
SECA 252  IF (NSK,EQ,1) GO TO 730
SECA 253  IF (ABS(FC-KNOT(JR)),LT,TOL) GO TO 740
SECA 254  IF (ABS(RODT(JP)-RP),LT,TOL) GO TO 750
SECA 255  RA=PR
SECA 256  FA=FR
SECA 257  DETB=DETR
SECA 258  GO TO 710
SECA 259  C
SECA 260  DETB=DETR
SECA 261  RB=RC
SECA 262  FB=FC
SECA 263  GO TO 710
SECA 264  IF (ABS(RODT(JR)-RB),GT,TOL) GO TO 710
SECA 265  IF (RA,GT,0) GO TO 760
SECA 266  CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXZ,N,NWA,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
SECA 267  PA=DETA
SECA 268  RB=RA
SECA 269  DETB=DETA
SECA 270  RA=RR
SECA 271  FB=FR
SECA 272  DETB=DETR
SECA 273  PA=PA/IRA-RODT(JR)
SECA 274  FB=FB/IRB-RODT(JR)
SECA 275  JR=JR+1
SECA 276  ETA=2.0
SECA 277  GO TO 300
SECA 278  C
SECA 279  IF (RA,GT,0) GO TO 780
SECA 280  RA=RB/2.
SECA 281  CALL BANDET (A,B,V,MAXZ,N,NWA,RA,NSCH,DETA,ISC,1)
SECA 282  PA=DETA
SECA 283  RB=RA
SECA 284  FB=FR
SECA 285  DETB=DETA
SECA 286  RA=RR
SECA 287  FA=FR
SECA 288  DETB=DETR
SECA 289
SECA 290  C
SECA 291  RR=RT/RODT(JR)
SECA 292  RR=RR+ETA
SECA 293  RR=RR
SECA 294  RR=RR
SECA 295  RR=RR
SECA 296  RR=RR
SECA 297  RR=RR
SECA 298  RR=RR
SECA 299  RR=RR
SECA 300  C
SECA 301  NRDOT=JP-1
SECA 302  IF (NRDOT,EQ,0) RETURN
SECA 303  PRINT 11Z0
SECA 304  PRINT 1004,(RODT(J),J=1,NRDOT)
SECA 305  PRINT 1140
SECA 306  PRINT 1006,(NITE(J),J=1,NRDOT)
SECA 307  PRINT 1150
SECA 308  PRINT 1008,(TIM(J),J=1,NRDOT)
SECA 309  PRINT 1160
SECA 310  PRINT 1004,(ERRVL(J),J=1,NRDOT)
SECA 311  PRINT 1004,(ERRVR(J),J=1,NRDOT)
SECA 312  C
SECA 313  C ARRANGE EIGENVALUES AND VECTORS IN ASCENDING ORDER
SECA 314  IF (JP,SEQ,2) GO TO 950
SECA 315  JR=JR-2
SECA 316  IS=0
SECA 317  DO 920 I=1,JR
SECA 318  IF (RODT(I+1),GE,RODT(I)) GO TO 920
SECA 319  IS=IS+1
SECA 320  RT=RODT(I+1)
SECA 321  RODT(I+1)=RODT(I)
SECA 322  RODT(I)=RT
SECA 323  DO 930 K=1,N
SECA 324  RT=VV(K,I+1)
SECA 325  VV(K,I)=VV(K,I)
SECA 326  VV(K,I)=RT
SECA 327  GO TO 920
SECA 328  CONTINUE
SECA 329  IF (IS,GT,0) GO TO 910
SECA 330  C
SECA 331  PRINT 1170
SECA 332  NRDOT=NSCH
SECA 333  PRINT 1130
SECA 334  PRINT 1004,(RODT(J),J=1,NRDOT)
SECA 335  PRINT 1140
SECA 336  DC 940 J=1,NRDOT
SECA 337  PRINT 1002,(VV(I,J),I=1,J)
SECA 338  RETURN
SECA 339  C
SECA 340  FORMAT (1H,12E11.4)
SECA 341  FORMAT (1HC,6E20.12)
SECA 342  FORMAT (1HC,6I2C)
SECA 343  FORMAT (1HC,6I2C,2)
SECA 344  FORMAT (1H1,6HINTERSE ITERN GIVES FOLLOWING APPROXIMATE LINES
SECA 345  IT EIGENVALUE )
SECA 346  FORMAT (4I10NE ABANDON ITERN BECAUSE NO UP ITERN IS
SECA 347  IT 12 )
SECA 348  FORMAT (5HCR8 = 630.12,7H NSCH = 14)
SECA 349  FORMAT (30HNE RETES CHECK THE MATRICES )
SECA 350  FORMAT (1H1,4X,4HRODT,4X,4HRITE,18X,2HRC,15X,12HNET (A-R-C),15X,
SECA 351  /2HFC,13X,3HEP,4Y,3HISC)
SECA 352  FORMAT (1HC,4X,14.4X,11.6X,3E-2,14.4X,7.2,16)
SECA 353  FORMAT (42H0THE DEFLATED POLYNOMIAL HAS NO MORE ROOTS )
SECA 354  FORMAT (29H0RC-RE) IS SMALLER THAN 1E-11
SECA 355  FORMAT (10H0NE JUMPED OVER 14,16= UNKNOWN ROOT(S) )
SECA 356  FORMAT (1H1,36" MORE STORAGE FOR VECTORS WE QUIT )
SECA 357  FORMAT (1HC,4X,4HRODT,18X,2HRO,18X,4HRO=1,2)
SECA 358  FORMAT (1HC,4X,14.4X,14.8X,2E2,14)
SECA 359  FORMAT (20H0TIME FOR INV ITERN IS,2)
SECA 360  FORMAT (42H0THE EIGENVALUES ARE /)
SECA 361  FORMAT (30H0TIME USED FOR EACH EIGENVALUE /)
SECA 362  FORMAT (43H0FOLLOWING ARE ERROR BOUNDS ON EIGENVALUES )
SECA 363  FORMAT (1H1,42HNE ACCEPT FOLLOWING EIGENVALUES, AND VECTORS ARRANG

```

```

SECA 364      1ED IN (PDBR 1)
SECA 365      1180  FORMAT (22H+THE EIGENVECTORS ARE  /)
SECA 366      C
SECA 367      END

BAND 1
BAND 2
BAND 3
BAND 4
BAND 5
BAND 6
BAND 7
BAND 8
BAND 9
BAND 10
BAND 11
BAND 12
BAND 13
BAND 14
BAND 15
BAND 16
BAND 17
BAND 18
BAND 19
BAND 20
BAND 21
BAND 22
BAND 23
BAND 24
BAND 25
BAND 26
BAND 27
BAND 28
BAND 29
BAND 30
BAND 31
BAND 32
BAND 33
BAND 34
BAND 35
BAND 36
BAND 37
BAND 38
BAND 39
BAND 40
BAND 41
BAND 42
BAND 43
BAND 44
BAND 45
BAND 46
BAND 47
BAND 48
BAND 49
BAND 50
BAND 51
BAND 52
BAND 53
BAND 54
BAND 55
BAND 56
BAND 57
BAND 58
BAND 59
BAND 60
BAND 61
BAND 62
BAND 63
BAND 64

SUBROUTINE BANDET (A,R,V,MAXA,NA,NNA,RA,NSCH,DET,ISCALE,KKI)
COMMON /TAPES/INSTIF,APED,NL,NR,NT,NMASS
DIMENSION A(NNA),R(1),V(1),MAXA(1)
NR=NR-1
IF (KK-2) 100,700,800
TOL=1.0E+07
RTOL=1.0E-10
SCALE=2.0**900
NTE=3
ISE=1
REWIND INSTIF
DO 140 I=1,NN
A(I)=A(I)-R*A(R(I))
IF (NNA.EQ.NN) GO TO 230
I=N+NA-NN
DO 200 N=1,NR
I=I+NA-N
IF (A(I)) 220,215,220
I=I+NA-N
GO TO 210
IF (A(I)) 220,215,220
I=I+NA-N
GO TO 210
MAXA(N)=I
PIV=MIN
IF (PIV) 221,226,221
IL=N+NN
DO 240 I=IL,IH,NN
L=L+1
C=A(I)
IF (C) 225,240,225
C=C/PIV
IF (ABS(C)*L.T.TOL) GO TO 235
IS=IS+1
IF (IS.LE.NTE) GO TO 245
PRINT 1000,NTE
STOP
RA=RA*(1.0-RTOL)
GO TO 120
J=L-1
DO 260 K=I,IH,NN
A(K+J)=A(K+J)-C*A(K)
A(I)=C
CONTINUE
IF (A(NN).NE.0.0) GO TO 280
AA=ABS(A(I))
DO 290 I=2,NR
AA=AA*ABS(A(I))
A(NN)=-(AA/NR)*L*CE-16
NSCH=0
ISC=0
DET=1.0
DP 300 I=1,NN
IF (ABS(DET)*L.T.SCALE) GO TO 320
DET=DET/SCALE
ISC=ISC+1
DET=DET*A(I)
DO 320 I=1,NN
IF (A(I)*L.T.C.) NSCH=NSCH+1
IF (ISCALE.LT.L*CC) GO TO 340
ISCALE=ISC

```

```

BAND 65      GC TO 900
BAND 66      IC (LISC=ISCALF) 950,900,370
BAND 67      DET=DE/SCALE
BAND 68      GO TO 900
BAND 69      DET=DE/SCALE
BAND 70      GC TO 900
BAND 71      C
BAND 72      DC 400 N=L,NR
BAND 73      C=V(N)
BAND 74      V(N)=C/A(N)
BAND 75      IF (NNA=NN) 410,400,410
BAND 76      I=IL+1
BAND 77      I=MAXAIN
BAND 78      K=N
BAND 79      DO 420 I=IL,IH,NN
BAND 80      K=K+1
BAND 81      V(K)=V(K)-C*A(I)
BAND 82      CONTINUE
BAND 83      VENN)=VENN/A(NN)
BAND 84      C
BAND 85      IF (NNA=NN) 430,900,430
BAND 86      N=NN
BAND 87      DC 640 L=7,NN
BAND 88      N=N-1
BAND 89      I=MAXAIN
BAND 90      K=N
BAND 91      DO 460 I=IL,IH,NN
BAND 92      K=K+1
BAND 93      V(N)=V(N)-A(I)*V(K)
BAND 94      CONTINUE
BAND 95      RETURN
BAND 96      FORMAT (1H1,20H TRIANG FACTORIZATN I3,12H TIMES APANDRNEF,CHECK
BAND 97      I MATRICES )
BAND 98      END
BAND 99
BAND 100

SSPA 1
SSPA 2
SSPA 3
SSPA 4
SSPA 5
SSPA 6
SSPA 7
SSPA 8
SSPA 9
SSPA 10
SSPA 11
SSPA 12
SSPA 13
SSPA 14
SSPA 15
SSPA 16
SSPA 17
SSPA 18
SSPA 19
SSPA 20
SSPA 21
SSPA 22
SSPA 23
SSPA 24
SSPA 25
SSPA 26
SSPA 27
SSPA 28
SSPA 29
SSPA 30
SSPA 31
SSPA 32

SUBROUTINE SSPACER (NEG,BRAND,NBLOCK,NE,DE,NP,NV,NWC,NRW,NRV,NRVV,NTBI)
COMMON /TAPES/INSTIF,NRED,NL,NR,NT,NMASS
LOGICAL CHECK
NITE=12
CHECK=.TRUE.
C
C FACTORIZE STIFFNESS MATRIX
N2=N2+NA
N2=N2+NA
CALL SECOND (TIM1)
CALL DECOMP (A(1),A(N2),A(NB),NE,DE,ABAND,NBLOCK,NA,NT,NSCH,NEO)
CALL SECOND (TIM2)
C ESTABLISH STARTING TRANSDUCTION VECTORS ON TAPE NR
N2=N2+NEOB
CALL INVECT (A(1),A(N2),A(NB),NBLOCK,NE,DE,NV)
CALL SECOND (TIM3)
TIM1=TIME-TIM1
TIM2=TIME-TIM2
PRINT 1000,TIM
PRINT 1010,TIM2
C
C PERFORM SUBSPACE ITERN
DO 100 I=1,NV
A(I)=0.0
NITE=NITE+1
PRINT 1020,NITE

```

```

SSPA 33 CALL SECOND (TIME)
SSPA 34 N1=I+2*NV
SSPA 35 N2=N1+NKA
SSPA 36 N3=N2+KXV
SSPA 37 N4=N3+KXV
SSPA 38 CALL REDRAX (A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),NEQ,AV,MAX,NTB,
INBLOCK)
SSPA 39
SSPA 40 SOLVE SUBSPACE EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
SSPA 41 N2=I+NV
SSPA 42 N3=N2+NV
SSPA 43 N4=N3+NV+NV
SSPA 44 N5=N4+NV+NV
SSPA 45 N6=N5+NV+NV
SSPA 46 N7=N6+NV
SSPA 47 N8=N7+NV
SSPA 48 N9=N8+NV
SSPA 49
SSPA 50 CALL SECOND (TIME2)
SSPA 51 CALL EIGSOL (A(I),A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),A(N9),
L,NF,NV,NBLOCK,NEQB,NITE)
SSPA 52 CALL SECOND (TIME3)
SSPA 53 TIME=TIME2-TIME1
SSPA 54 TIME=TIME3-TIME2
SSPA 55 PRINT 1030,TIME
SSPA 56 PRINT 1040,TIME2
SSPA 57
SSPA 58 IF (NITE*LT,NITEM) GO TO 200
SSPA 59
SSPA 60
SSPA 61 PRINT 1050
SSPA 62 PRINT 1060,(A(I),I=1,NF)
SSPA 63 PRINT 1070
SSPA 64 N1=2*NV+1
SSPA 65 N2=N1+NF*NEQB
SSPA 66 DC 300 I=1,NBLOCK
SSPA 67 PRINT 1075,I
SSPA 68 BACKSPACE N2
SSPA 69 READ (NR) (A(I),I=1,N1,N2)
SSPA 70 BACKSPACE NR
SSPA 71 DC 320 K=1,NF
SSPA 72 N3=(K-1)*NEQB+2*NV+1
SSPA 73 N4=K*NEQB+2*NV
SSPA 74 PRINT 1080,(A(I),I=1,N3,N4)
SSPA 75 CONTINUE
SSPA 76
SSPA 77 IF (.NOT.CHECK) GO TO 600
SSPA 78
SSPA 79 APPLY STURM SEQUENCE CHECK
SSPA 80 CALL SECOND (TIME)
SSPA 81 N2=I+NV
SSPA 82 N3=N2+KXV
SSPA 83 N4=N3+NKA
SSPA 84 N5=N4+NEQB
SSPA 85 N6=N5+NV
SSPA 86 N7=N6+NV
SSPA 87 CALL SCHK (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),NKA,
INQB,NBLOCK,NF,NV,SHIFT,NFI)
SSPA 88 PRINT 1085,SHIFT
SSPA 89
SSPA 90 N2=I+NKA
SSPA 91 N3=N2+NKA
SSPA 92 CALL DECOMP (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),NEQB,NKAND,NBLOCK,NKA,NTB,NSCH,NFQ)
SSPA 93 IF (NSCH*EQ,NFI) GO TO 500
SSPA 94 NSCH=NSCH-NFI
SSPA 95 PRINT 1090,NSCH
SSPA 96 GO TO 540
SSPA 97 PRINT 1100,NSCH
SSPA 98 CALL SECOND (TIME2)
SSPA 99 TIME2=TIME2-TIME1
SSPA 100 PRINT 1110,TIME2
SSPA 101
SSPA 102 RETURN
SSPA 103
SSPA 104
SSPA 105
SSPA 106
SSPA 107
SSPA 108
SSPA 109
SSPA 110
SSPA 111
SSPA 112
SSPA 113
SSPA 114
SSPA 115
SSPA 116
SSPA 117
SSPA 118
SSPA 119

```

```

1030 FORMAT (2X,TIME USED IN ITERN STEP F6.2)
1040 FORMAT (2X,OTIME FOR EIGENVALUE SOLV F6.2)
1050 FORMAT (1X,1,2,4,THE FINAL EIGENVALUES ARE /)
1060 FORMAT (1X,6,F22.14)
1070 FORMAT (40H,PRINT OF EIGENVECTORS BLOCK BY BLOCK /)
1075 FORMAT (4H,CLOCK /4)
1080 FORMAT (1X,1,2,8,11,4)
1085 FORMAT (1X,1,2,2H,CHECK APPLIED AT SHIFT F22.14)
1090 FORMAT (10H,OTHERE ARE 14,21H EIGENVALUES MISSING /)
1100 FORMAT (20H,OF FOUND THE LOWEST 14,21H EIGENVALUES /)
1110 FORMAT (3X,OTIME FOR STURM SEQUENCE CHECK F6.2)
END

```

```

SUBROUTINE DECOMP (A,B,MAX,NEQB,NKAND,NBLOCK,NKA,NTB,NSCH,NFQ)
COMMON /TAPES/INSTIF,NREDAVAL,NV,NT,NSPASS
DIMENSION A(NMAI),R(NMAI),R(NMAI),R(NREQR)
NEQB1=NEQB-I
N1=NL
N2=NR
REWIND INSTIF
REWIND NRED
REWIND N1
REWIND N2
NSCH=0
DO 600 N=1,NBLOCK
IF (N.NE.1) GO TO 10
READ (INSTIF) A
GO TO 110
IF (INTD*EQ,1) GO TO 110
REWIND N1
REWIND N2
READ (N1) A
600 CONTINUE

```

```

DECO 1 C
DECO 2
DECO 3
DECO 4
DECO 5 C
DECO 6
DECO 7
DECO 8
DECO 9
DECO 10
DECO 11
DECO 12
DECO 13 C
DECO 14
DECO 15
DECO 16
DECO 17
DECO 18
DECO 19
DECO 20
DECO 21
DECO 22 C
DECO 23 C
DECO 24 C
DECO 25 110
DECO 26
DECO 27
DECO 28
DECO 29
DECO 30
DECO 31
DECO 32
DECO 33
DECO 34
DECO 35
DECO 36
DECO 37
DECO 38
DECO 39
DECO 40
DECO 41
DECO 42
DECO 43
DECO 44
DECO 45
DECO 46
DECO 47
DECO 48
DECO 49
DECO 50
DECO 51
DECO 52
DECO 53
DECO 54
DECO 55
DECO 56

```

```

DO 300 I=1,NEQB1
PIV=A(I)
IF (PIV) 120,115,130
11=IN-1)*NEQB+I
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II
STOP
NSCH=NSCH+1
14=I+NKA-NEQB
IF (A(11)) 160,150,160
14=14-NEQB
GO TO 140
MAXB(1)=14
JL=I+1
11=1
DO 200 J=JL,NEQB
11=11+NEQB
IF (11.NWA) 170,176,180
C=A(11)
IF (C) 180,200,180
C=C/PIV
K=K/J
MAX=MAX*(J)
DO 250 J=11,MAX,NEQ
A(KK+K*NEB)=C*A(J)
K=K+NEQB
4111=C
CONTINUE
IF (A(NEQB)) 30,60,70
11=N*NEQB
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II

```

```

1000 FACTORIZE LEADING BLOCK
110 DC 300 I=1,NEQB1
PIV=A(I)
IF (PIV) 120,115,130
11=IN-1)*NEQB+I
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II
STOP
NSCH=NSCH+1
14=I+NKA-NEQB
IF (A(11)) 160,150,160
14=14-NEQB
GO TO 140
MAXB(1)=14
JL=I+1
11=1
DO 200 J=JL,NEQB
11=11+NEQB
IF (11.NWA) 170,176,180
C=A(11)
IF (C) 180,200,180
C=C/PIV
K=K/J
MAX=MAX*(J)
DO 250 J=11,MAX,NEQ
A(KK+K*NEB)=C*A(J)
K=K+NEQB
4111=C
CONTINUE
IF (A(NEQB)) 30,60,70
11=N*NEQB
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II

```

```

CALL SECOND (TIME)
N1=I+2*NV
N2=N1+NKA
N3=N2+KXV
N4=N3+KXV
CALL REDRAX (A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),NEQ,AV,MAX,NTB,
INBLOCK)
SOLVE SUBSPACE EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
N2=I+NV
N3=N2+NV
N4=N3+NV+NV
N5=N4+NV+NV
N6=N5+NV+NV
N7=N6+NV
N8=N7+NV
N9=N8+NV
CALL SECOND (TIME2)
CALL EIGSOL (A(I),A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),A(N9),
L,NF,NV,NBLOCK,NEQB,NITE)
CALL SECOND (TIME3)
TIME=TIME2-TIME1
TIME=TIME3-TIME2
PRINT 1030,TIME
PRINT 1040,TIME2
IF (NITE*LT,NITEM) GO TO 200
PRINT 1050
PRINT 1060,(A(I),I=1,NF)
PRINT 1070
N1=2*NV+1
N2=N1+NF*NEQB
DC 300 I=1,NBLOCK
PRINT 1075,I
BACKSPACE N2
READ (NR) (A(I),I=1,N1,N2)
BACKSPACE NR
DC 320 K=1,NF
N3=(K-1)*NEQB+2*NV+1
N4=K*NEQB+2*NV
PRINT 1080,(A(I),I=1,N3,N4)
CONTINUE
IF (.NOT.CHECK) GO TO 600
APPLY STURM SEQUENCE CHECK
CALL SECOND (TIME)
N2=I+NV
N3=N2+KXV
N4=N3+NKA
N5=N4+NEQB
N6=N5+NV
N7=N6+NV
CALL SCHK (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),NKA,
INQB,NBLOCK,NF,NV,SHIFT,NFI)
PRINT 1085,SHIFT
N2=I+NKA
N3=N2+NKA
CALL DECOMP (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),NEQB,NKAND,NBLOCK,NKA,NTB,NSCH,NFQ)
IF (NSCH*EQ,NFI) GO TO 500
NSCH=NSCH-NFI
PRINT 1090,NSCH
GO TO 540
PRINT 1100,NSCH
CALL SECOND (TIME2)
TIME2=TIME2-TIME1
PRINT 1110,TIME2
RETURN

```

```

1000 FACTORIZE LEADING BLOCK
110 DC 300 I=1,NEQB1
PIV=A(I)
IF (PIV) 120,115,130
11=IN-1)*NEQB+I
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II
STOP
NSCH=NSCH+1
14=I+NKA-NEQB
IF (A(11)) 160,150,160
14=14-NEQB
GO TO 140
MAXB(1)=14
JL=I+1
11=1
DO 200 J=JL,NEQB
11=11+NEQB
IF (11.NWA) 170,176,180
C=A(11)
IF (C) 180,200,180
C=C/PIV
K=K/J
MAX=MAX*(J)
DO 250 J=11,MAX,NEQ
A(KK+K*NEB)=C*A(J)
K=K+NEQB
4111=C
CONTINUE
IF (A(NEQB)) 30,60,70
11=N*NEQB
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II

```

```

CALL SECOND (TIME)
N1=I+2*NV
N2=N1+NKA
N3=N2+KXV
N4=N3+KXV
CALL REDRAX (A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),NEQ,AV,MAX,NTB,
INBLOCK)
SOLVE SUBSPACE EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
N2=I+NV
N3=N2+NV
N4=N3+NV+NV
N5=N4+NV+NV
N6=N5+NV+NV
N7=N6+NV
N8=N7+NV
N9=N8+NV
CALL SECOND (TIME2)
CALL EIGSOL (A(I),A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),A(N9),
L,NF,NV,NBLOCK,NEQB,NITE)
CALL SECOND (TIME3)
TIME=TIME2-TIME1
TIME=TIME3-TIME2
PRINT 1030,TIME
PRINT 1040,TIME2
IF (NITE*LT,NITEM) GO TO 200
PRINT 1050
PRINT 1060,(A(I),I=1,NF)
PRINT 1070
N1=2*NV+1
N2=N1+NF*NEQB
DC 300 I=1,NBLOCK
PRINT 1075,I
BACKSPACE N2
READ (NR) (A(I),I=1,N1,N2)
BACKSPACE NR
DC 320 K=1,NF
N3=(K-1)*NEQB+2*NV+1
N4=K*NEQB+2*NV
PRINT 1080,(A(I),I=1,N3,N4)
CONTINUE
IF (.NOT.CHECK) GO TO 600
APPLY STURM SEQUENCE CHECK
CALL SECOND (TIME)
N2=I+NV
N3=N2+KXV
N4=N3+NKA
N5=N4+NEQB
N6=N5+NV
N7=N6+NV
CALL SCHK (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),NKA,
INQB,NBLOCK,NF,NV,SHIFT,NFI)
PRINT 1085,SHIFT
N2=I+NKA
N3=N2+NKA
CALL DECOMP (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),NEQB,NKAND,NBLOCK,NKA,NTB,NSCH,NFQ)
IF (NSCH*EQ,NFI) GO TO 500
NSCH=NSCH-NFI
PRINT 1090,NSCH
GO TO 540
PRINT 1100,NSCH
CALL SECOND (TIME2)
TIME2=TIME2-TIME1
PRINT 1110,TIME2
RETURN

```

```

1000 FACTORIZE LEADING BLOCK
110 DC 300 I=1,NEQB1
PIV=A(I)
IF (PIV) 120,115,130
11=IN-1)*NEQB+I
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II
STOP
NSCH=NSCH+1
14=I+NKA-NEQB
IF (A(11)) 160,150,160
14=14-NEQB
GO TO 140
MAXB(1)=14
JL=I+1
11=1
DO 200 J=JL,NEQB
11=11+NEQB
IF (11.NWA) 170,176,180
C=A(11)
IF (C) 180,200,180
C=C/PIV
K=K/J
MAX=MAX*(J)
DO 250 J=11,MAX,NEQ
A(KK+K*NEB)=C*A(J)
K=K+NEQB
4111=C
CONTINUE
IF (A(NEQB)) 30,60,70
11=N*NEQB
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II

```

```

CALL SECOND (TIME)
N1=I+2*NV
N2=N1+NKA
N3=N2+KXV
N4=N3+KXV
CALL REDRAX (A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),NEQ,AV,MAX,NTB,
INBLOCK)
SOLVE SUBSPACE EIGENVALUE PROBLEM
N2=I+NV
N3=N2+NV
N4=N3+NV+NV
N5=N4+NV+NV
N6=N5+NV+NV
N7=N6+NV
N8=N7+NV
N9=N8+NV
CALL SECOND (TIME2)
CALL EIGSOL (A(I),A(N1),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),A(N9),
L,NF,NV,NBLOCK,NEQB,NITE)
CALL SECOND (TIME3)
TIME=TIME2-TIME1
TIME=TIME3-TIME2
PRINT 1030,TIME
PRINT 1040,TIME2
IF (NITE*LT,NITEM) GO TO 200
PRINT 1050
PRINT 1060,(A(I),I=1,NF)
PRINT 1070
N1=2*NV+1
N2=N1+NF*NEQB
DC 300 I=1,NBLOCK
PRINT 1075,I
BACKSPACE N2
READ (NR) (A(I),I=1,N1,N2)
BACKSPACE NR
DC 320 K=1,NF
N3=(K-1)*NEQB+2*NV+1
N4=K*NEQB+2*NV
PRINT 1080,(A(I),I=1,N3,N4)
CONTINUE
IF (.NOT.CHECK) GO TO 600
APPLY STURM SEQUENCE CHECK
CALL SECOND (TIME)
N2=I+NV
N3=N2+KXV
N4=N3+NKA
N5=N4+NEQB
N6=N5+NV
N7=N6+NV
CALL SCHK (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),A(N4),A(N5),A(N6),A(N7),A(N8),NKA,
INQB,NBLOCK,NF,NV,SHIFT,NFI)
PRINT 1085,SHIFT
N2=I+NKA
N3=N2+NKA
CALL DECOMP (A(I),A(N2),A(N3),NEQB,NKAND,NBLOCK,NKA,NTB,NSCH,NFQ)
IF (NSCH*EQ,NFI) GO TO 500
NSCH=NSCH-NFI
PRINT 1090,NSCH
GO TO 540
PRINT 1100,NSCH
CALL SECOND (TIME2)
TIME2=TIME2-TIME1
PRINT 1110,TIME2
RETURN

```

```

1000 FACTORIZE LEADING BLOCK
110 DC 300 I=1,NEQB1
PIV=A(I)
IF (PIV) 120,115,130
11=IN-1)*NEQB+I
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II
STOP
NSCH=NSCH+1
14=I+NKA-NEQB
IF (A(11)) 160,150,160
14=14-NEQB
GO TO 140
MAXB(1)=14
JL=I+1
11=1
DO 200 J=JL,NEQB
11=11+NEQB
IF (11.NWA) 170,176,180
C=A(11)
IF (C) 180,200,180
C=C/PIV
K=K/J
MAX=MAX*(J)
DO 250 J=11,MAX,NEQ
A(KK+K*NEB)=C*A(J)
K=K+NEQB
4111=C
CONTINUE
IF (A(NEQB)) 30,60,70
11=N*NEQB
IF (11.GT,NEQ) GO TO 520
PRINT 1000,II

```

```

DECO 57      STOP
DECO 58      NSCF=NSCH*1
DECO 59      DC 50 J=NECR,K*MAX,NEQ3
DECO 60      IF (A(J),NE=0.0) MAXR(NECR)=J
DECO 61      C CAPRY OVER INTO TRAILING BLCKS
DECO 62      DO 400 N=1,NTR
DECO 63      IF ((N+K).GT.NBLOCK) GO TO 400
DECO 64      NI=NI
DECO 65      IF ((I+EQ,II).GT.(N+EQ,NTR)) NI=NSTIF
DECO 66      READ (UNIT,B)
DECO 67      II=I+N*NEQ3*NEQ3
DECO 68      DC 420 I=I,NEQ3
DECO 69      II=II
DECO 70      DC 440 K=I,NEQ3
DECO 71      IF ((I+I-NWA) 410,410,440
DECO 72      CALL I,430,440,490
DECO 73      410
DECO 74      430
DECO 75      CEG/A(6)
DECO 76      MAX=MAX(K)
DECO 77      KK=I
DECO 78      DO 460 JJ=II,MAX,NEQ3
DECO 79      BKX(I)=BKX(I)+C*(JJ)
DECO 80      460
DECO 81      A(II)=C
DECO 82      II=II+NEQ3
DECO 83      IF ((NTR,NG=1) GO TO 480
DECO 84      DC 500 I=I,NWA
DECO 85      GC TO 600
DECO 86      WRITE (N2) B
DECO 87      A(II)=B(1)
DECO 88      CONTINUE
DECO 89      600
DECO 90      M=NI
DECO 91      NI=N2
DECO 92      N2=M
DECO 93      WRITE (NRED) A,MAXB
DECO 94      520
DECO 95      CONTINUE
DECO 96      C
DECO 97      RETURN
DECO 98      FORMAT (22HPIVOT IS ZERO IN ROW 14)
DECO 99      END

INVE 1      SUBROUTINE INVECT (VA,X,IEQ,NBLOCK,NCR,NV)
INVE 2      COMMON /TAPES/INSTIF,NRED,NL,NR,NT,NMASS
INVE 3      DIMENSION VAI(NB),X(NEQ3),IEQ(L)
INVE 4      NVI=NV-1
INVE 5      C
INVE 6      K=1
INVE 7      INVE 7
INVE 8      IND=0
INVE 9      NV=KK*((NVI-1)/NBLOCK+1)
INVE 10     IF (NBV+GT.NEQ3) NBV=NEQ3
INVE 11     IF (NBV+EQ.NEQ3) IND=1
INVE 12     NPVN=0
INVE 13     ICOUNT=0
INVE 14     LL=0
INVE 15     C
INVE 16     REWIND NMASS
INVE 17     REWIND NSTIF
INVE 18     READ (NMASS) X
INVE 19     READ (NSTIF) VA
INVE 20     ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1
INVE 21     DC 20 I=1,NEQ3
INVE 22     IF (VA(I),EQ=0.0) GO TO 70
INVE 23     VAI(I)=X(I)/VA(I)
INVE 24     CONTINUE
INVE 25     C

INVE 26     NVV=NEQ3/NV
INVE 27     DO 40 L=1,NV
INVE 28     P1=0.0
INVE 29     NA=L*NV
INVE 30     DC 30 I=1,NV
INVE 31     IF (VA(I+L,RT)) GO TO 34
INVE 32     RT=VA(I)
INVE 33     IJ=I
INVE 34     CONTINUE
INVE 35     DO 30 I=NN,NEQ3
INVE 36     IF (VA(I),LE,RT) GO TO 30
INVE 37     RT=VA(I)
INVE 38     IJ=I
INVE 39     CONTINUE
INVE 40     IF (VA(IJ),NF,C.0) GO TO 32
INVE 41     NVA=NVA+1
INVE 42     GO TO 40
INVE 43     LL=LL+1
INVE 44     IEQ(LL)=(ICOUNT-1)*NEQ+IJ
INVE 45     IF (LL,GE,NVI) GO TO 50
INVE 46     VAI(IJ)=0
INVE 47     CONTINUE
INVE 48     IF (IND,EQ,1) GO TO 45
INVE 49     IF ((NBV,EG,0).OR.(ICOUNT,EG,NBLOCK)) GO TO 45
INVE 50     NBV=KK*(NVI-LL-1)/(NBLOCK-ICOUNT)+1
INVE 51     IF (NBV,GT,NEQ3) NBV=NEQ3
INVE 52     NBV=0
INVE 53     C
INVE 54     45
INVE 55     IF ((IND,EG,1) GO TO 40
INVE 56     KK=2*KK
INVE 57     GO TO 90
INVE 58     PRINT 1000
INVE 59     STOP
INVE 60     C
INVE 61     REWIND NMASS
INVE 62     REWIND NR
INVE 63     DO 100 I=1,NBLOCK
INVE 64     READ (NMASS) X
INVE 65     DC 120 I=1,NEQ3
INVE 66     VAI(I)=X*(I)
INVE 67     DC 120 J=2,NV
INVE 68     VAI(J)=0.0
INVE 69     DC 140 K=2,NV
INVE 70     I=IEQ(K-1)
INVE 71     NLE=I+NEQ3
INVE 72     NLT=L+NEQ3
INVE 73     IF (I+NEQ3) 140,140,160
INVE 74     160
INVE 75     180
INVE 76     VAI(I,K)=1.
INVE 77     CONTINUE
INVE 78     WRITE (NR) VA
INVE 79     CONTINUE
INVE 80     PRINT 1010
INVE 81     PRINT 1020,(IEQ(I),I=1,NV)
INVE 82     C
INVE 83     RETURN
INVE 84     1000
INVE 85     1010
INVE 86     1020
INVE 87     END

REDR 1      SUBROUTINE REDRAK (A,VA,VV,MAX3,NEQ3,NV,NWA,NV,SKOV,ATB,NBLOCK)
REDR 2      COMMON /TAPES/INSTIF,NRED,NL,NR,NT,NMASS
REDR 3      DIMENSION A(NWA),VA(NV),VV(NV),MAX3(NEQ3)
REDR 4      REDR 4
REDR 5      C
REDR 6      NED=ATB*NEQ3

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REDF 7 NEPT=NEB+NEQB
REDF 8 C
REDF 9 C REDUCE VECTORS ON TAPE NR
REDF 10 REMIND NREB
REDF 11 REMIND NR
REDF 12 REMIND NL
REDF 13 REMIND NT
REDF 14 READ (NRD) A,MAXB
REDF 15 ISV=I*V+1
REDF 16 DO 20 J=1,NV
REDF 17 DO 20 L=1,ISV
REDF 18 READ (NR) VA
REDF 19 K=0
REDF 20 DO 30 I=1,NEQB
REDF 21 KA=LL
REDF 22 DO 20 J=1,NV
REDF 23 KK=I
REDF 24 KK=KK+1
REDF 25 VV(KK)=VA(K)
REDF 26 KK=KK+NR
REDF 27 LL=LL+NEQB
REDF 28 ISM=I
REDF 29 C
REDF 30 DO 100 I=1,NEQB
REDF 31 IL=I*NEQB
REDF 32 MAX=MAXB(I)
REDF 33 J=0
REDF 34 DO 120 I=IL,MAX,NEQB
REDF 35 J=J+1
REDF 36 C=AL(I)
REDF 37 IF (C) 110,120,11C
REDF 38 KK=I+J
REDF 39 JJ=I
REDF 40 DO 140 L=1,NV
REDF 41 VV(KK)=VV(KK)-C*VV(JJ)
REDF 42 KK=KK+NR
REDF 43 JJ=JJ+NR
REDF 44 120 CONTINUE
REDF 45 180 CONTINUE
REDF 46 DO 200 I=1,NEQB
REDF 47 C=AL(I)
REDF 48 IF (C) 180,200,18C
REDF 49 KK=I
REDF 50 DO 210 L=1,NV
REDF 51 VV(KK)=VV(KK)/C
REDF 52 KK=KK+NR
REDF 53 CONTINUE
REDF 54 IF (ISA.EQ.NBLOCK) GO TO 400
REDF 55 READ (NRD) A,MAXB
REDF 56 ISA=ISA+1
REDF 57 C
REDF 58 C STORE REDUCED VECTORS ON TAPE NT
REDF 59 K=0
REDF 60 DO 240 J=1,NV
REDF 61 DO 220 I=1,NEQB
REDF 62 K=K+1
REDF 63 KK=KK+1
REDF 64 VV(K)=VV(KK)
REDF 65 KK=KK+NR
REDF 66 WRITE (NT) VA
REDF 67 X=I
REDF 68 DO 310 J=1,NV
REDF 69 DO 300 I=1,NEB
REDF 70 KK=K+NEQB
REDF 71 VV(K)=VV(KK)
REDF 72 K=K+1
REDF 73 DO 300 J=1,NV
REDF 74 DO 300 I=1,NEQB
REDF 75 IF (ISV.EQ.NBLOCK) GO TO 500
REDF 76 READ (NR) VA
REDF 77 ISV=ISV+1
REDF 78 KK=NR
REDF 79 K=0
REDF 80 DO 340 J=1,NV
REDF 81 DO 320 I=1,NEQB

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REDF 82 K=K+1
REDF 83 VV(KK)=VA(K)
REDF 84 DO 370 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 85 DO 370 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 86 DO 370 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 87 C
REDF 88 C BACKSUBSTITUTE VECTORS ON TAPE NT
REDF 89 DO 400 BACKSPACE NREB
REDF 90 ISM=I
REDF 91 DO 420 DO 600 I=1,NEQB
REDF 92 J=NEQB+1-I
REDF 93 MAX=MAXB(I)
REDF 94 IF (AL(J)) 440,600,440
REDF 95 KK=J
REDF 96 DO 620 L=1,NV
REDF 97 JJ=KK+1
REDF 98 IL=J+NEQB
REDF 99 C=VV(KK)
REDF 100 DO 640 I=IL,MAX,NEQB
REDF 101 C=C-AL(I)*VV(JJ)
REDF 102 JJ=JJ+1
REDF 103 VV(KK)=C
REDF 104 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 105 600 CONTINUE
REDF 106 KK=0
REDF 107 K=0
REDF 108 DO 660 J=1,NV
REDF 109 DO 670 I=1,NEQB
REDF 110 KK=K+1
REDF 111 VV(K)=VV(KK)
REDF 112 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 113 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 114 WRITE (NL) VA
REDF 115 IF (ISA.EQ.NBLOCK) GO TO 800
REDF 116 BACKSPACE NREB
REDF 117 READ (NRD) A,MAXB
REDF 118 BACKSPACE NREB
REDF 119 ISA=ISA+1
REDF 120 BACKSPACE NT
REDF 121 READ (NT) VA
REDF 122 BACKSPACE NT
REDF 123 K=NR
REDF 124 DO 700 J=1,NV
REDF 125 DO 720 I=1,NEB
REDF 126 KK=K+NEQB
REDF 127 VV(K)=VV(KK)
REDF 128 K=K+1
REDF 129 KK=K+NEB+NEB
REDF 130 K=0
REDF 131 KK=0
REDF 132 DO 740 J=1,NV
REDF 133 DO 760 I=1,NEQB
REDF 134 K=K+1
REDF 135 KK=KK+1
REDF 136 VV(K)=VV(KK)
REDF 137 DO 740 KK=KK+NEB
REDF 138 GO TO 420
REDF 139 RETURN
REDF 140 END

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EIGS 1 SUBROUTINE EIGSOL (OL,ATCLV,AR,ES,VFC+VL,VE,DO,X,MYNE,NV,NBLOCK,
EIGS 2 INEB,NITE)
EIGS 3 C
EIGS 4 COMMON /TAPES/ASTIP,NREB,NL,NR,NT,NMAXS
EIGS 5 DIMENSION AR(NV,NV),AP(NV),VV(VE(NV),NV),VL(NEQB,NV),VNR(NV)
EIGS 6 DIMENSION D(NV),DL(NV),R(LV(NV)),X(NV)
EIGS 7 C
EIGS 8 NITEM=12
EIGS 9 EPTL=1.0E-04

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JACO 16 C WE START ITERATION
JACO 17 C
JACO 18 40 NSWEEP=NSWEEP1
JACO 19 PRINT 1000*NSWEEP
JACO 20 EPS=(0.01**NSWEEP)**.2
JACO 21 DC 50 J=1,NR
JACO 22 JJ=J+1
JACO 23 DO 50 K=JJ,N
JACO 24 TT=AIJ,K*AIJ,K
JACO 25 TB=AIJ,K*AIK,K
JACO 26 FTOLA=ABS(TT/TB)
JACO 27 TT=BIJ,K*BIJ,K
JACO 28 TB=BIJ,K*BIK,K
JACO 29 EPTOLA=TT/TB
JACO 30 IF ((EPTOLA*LT*EPS).AND.(EPTOLA*LT*EPS)) GO TO 50
JACO 31 AKK=A(K)*B(J,K)-AIK,K*AIJ,K
JACO 32 AJJ=A(J)*B(J,K)-BIJ,K*BIJ,K
JACO 33 AB=AIJ,K*BIK,K-AIK,K*BIJ,K
JACO 34 CHECK=(AB*AB+.00AKK*AJJ)/4.0
JACO 35 IF (CHECK) 60,70,7C
JACO 36 PRINT 1004,CHECK
JACO 37 STOP
JACO 38 SOCH=SORT(CHECK)
JACO 39 DI=AR/2.0+SOCH
JACO 40 DP=AR/2.0-SOCH
JACO 41 DEN=D1
JACO 42 IF (ABS(D2)-GT*.ABS(D1)) DEN=D2
JACO 43 IF (DEN) 9C,80,9C
JACO 44 CA=0.
JACO 45 CC=AIJ,K/AIK,K
JACO 46 GO TO 100
JACO 47 CA=AKK/DEN
JACO 48 CC=-AJJ/DEN
JACO 49 C
JACO 50 WE PERFORM THE GENERALIZED ROTATION
JACO 51 100 IF (N-2) 95,10C,95
JACO 52 95 J1=N-1
JACO 53 J1=N-1
JACO 54 K1=N+1
JACO 55 K1=N-1
JACO 56 C
JACO 57 IF (J1-1) 120,11C,11C
JACO 58 DO 105 I=1,J1
JACO 59 PJ=PII,J
JACO 60 BJ=B(I,J)
JACO 61 AK=AII,K
JACO 62 BK=BI(I,K)
JACO 63 A(I,J)=AJ+CG*AK
JACO 64 B(I,J)=BJ+CG*BK
JACO 65 A(I,K)=AK+CA*AJ
JACO 66 B(I,K)=BK+CA*BJ
JACO 67 C
JACO 68 IF (K1-N) 130,130,14C
JACO 69 DO 125 I=K1,N
JACO 70 AJ=AIJ,I
JACO 71 BJ=BIJ,I
JACO 72 AK=AIK,I
JACO 73 PK=PIK,I
JACO 74 A(J,I)=AJ+CG*AK
JACO 75 B(J,I)=BJ+CG*BK
JACO 76 A(I,K)=AK+CA*AJ
JACO 77 B(I,I)=BK+CA*BJ
JACO 78 C
JACO 79 140 IF (J1-K1) 15C,150,11C
JACO 80 DO 160 I=J1,K1
JACO 81 AJ=AIJ,I
JACO 82 PJ=PIJ,I
JACO 83 AK=AI(I,K)
JACO 84 BK=BI(I,K)
JACO 85 A(I,I)=AJ+CG*AK
JACO 86 B(I,I)=BJ+CG*BK
JACO 87 A(I,K)=AK+CA*AJ
JACO 88 B(I,K)=BK+CA*BJ
JACO 89 160 AK=AIK,K
JACO 90 BK=BIK,K
JACO 91
JACO 92
JACO 93
JACO 94
JACO 95
JACO 96
JACO 97 C UPDATE EIGENVECTORS
JACO 98 DC 190 I=1,N
JACO 99 XJ=X(I,J)
JACO 100 XR=X(I,K)
JACO 101 XI=XI+XJ+CG*XR
JACO 102 X(I,J)=XJ+CG*XR
JACO 103 XI(K)=XR+CA*XJ
JACO 104 C
JACO 105 CONTINUE
JACO 106 DO 220 I=1,N
JACO 107 EIGV(I)=ABS(XI)/ABS(XI)
JACO 108 PRINT 1005
JACO 109 PRINT 1002,EIGV(I),I=1,N
JACO 110 C
JACO 111 CHECK FOR CONVERGENCE
JACO 112 DO 240 I=1,N
JACO 113 TOL=RTOL*(I)
JACO 114 DIF=ABS(EIGV(I)-O(I))
JACO 115 IF (DIF*GT.TOL) GO TO 30C
JACO 116 C
JACO 117 CHECK IF ALL OFF-DIAG ELEMENTS ARE SATISFACTORILY SMALL
JACO 118 EPS=RTOL**2
JACO 119 DO 260 J=1,NR
JACO 120 JJ=J+1
JACO 121 TT=AIJ,K*AIJ,K
JACO 122 TB=AIJ,K*AIK,K
JACO 123 EPSA=ABS(TT/TB)
JACO 124 TT=BIJ,K*BIJ,K
JACO 125 TB=BIJ,K*BIK,K
JACO 126 EPSB=TT/TB
JACO 127 IF ((EPSA*LT*EPS).AND.(EPSB*LT*EPS)) GO TO 260
JACO 128 GO TO 30C
JACO 129 CONTINUE
JACO 130 DO 310 I=1,N
JACO 131 DO 310 J=1,N
JACO 132 R(I,I)=R(I,I)
JACO 133 A(I,I)=A(I,I)
JACO 134 RETURN
JACO 135 C
JACO 136 DO 320 I=1,N
JACO 137 DO 320 J=1,N
JACO 138 O(I)=EIGV(I)
JACO 139 IF (NSWEEP*LT*NSMAX) GO TO 40
JACO 140 DO 330 I=1,N
JACO 141 DO 330 J=1,N
JACO 142 BJF=BI(I,J)
JACO 143 AIJF=AI(I,J)
JACO 144 RETURN
JACO 145 C
JACO 146 1000 FORMAT (10C,14HNO OF SWEEP = 14)
JACO 147 1002 FORMAT (1P,12E11.4)
JACO 148 1004 FORMAT (8F10.4)
JACO 149 1005 FORMAT (24HCURRENT EIGENVALUES ARE )
JACO 150 END

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SCHE 1 SUBROUTINE SCHECK (DL,RTOLV,A,XX,M,B,P,BL,C,GPIC,INEIV,NWA,NEDC,
SCHE 2 INBLOCK,NF,NV,SHIFT,NEI)
SCHE 3 C
SCHE 4 COMMON /TAPES/ASTI,ANRED,NL,IP,INT,NMAX,
SCHE 5 DIMENSION A(NWA),XMINER(I,P,IP,NI),PL(I,NI),RAPE(NVI,DL,IP,NI)
SCHE 6 (RTOLV,NI)

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