# Outer Bounds for the Extremal Eigenvalues of Positive Definite Matrices 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we show how the outer bounds of the extremal eigenvalues of real positive definite symmetric irreducible matrices may be improved by the simple application of optimizing the Gerschgorin bounds. The method is easy to apply and yields fairly accurate results with minimal effort.


Index Terms-positive definite matrix, eigenvalues, bounds.

## I. Introduction

THE role of the extremal eigenvalues of a matrix cannot be overemphasized. These values serve an important aspect in determining the conditioning of a linear algebraic system [1]. They are vital to the approximation of normal operators [2]. Their distribution on the complex plane determines the stability of the solution of a system of differential equations. As the solution of the characteristic equation of a matrix $\mathbf{A}$, is a difficult task for large dimensions, many methods have been proposed for approximating the extremal eigenvalues. Some crude bounds are obtained by an application of Gerschgorin's theorem [3], and the ovals of Cassini [4]. For positive definite symmetric matrices Dembo bounds [5] arise by examining the characteristic equation of $\mathbf{A}$ and rely on bounds of a principal submatrix. Ma and Zarowski [6] improved on Dembo's lower bound by ensuring that it was always positive. This idea was also used to further improve the lower bounds of the minimal eigenvalue [7] and to Toeplitz matrices by Melman [8] for both upper and lower bounds. Recently trace bounds [9], [10] have given reasonably good results. However the lower bound is not guaranteed to be positive as expected, for the class of positive definite real symmetric matrices. Also, an improvement using trace bounds [11] requires much more effort. The application of Rayleigh's theorem [3] provides good inner bounds. Recently, Huang et al. [12] bounded the minimum eigenvalue of the Hadamard product of an $M$ matrix and its inverse. No single approach has proven dominant, so all are to be considered in the proper context to isolate the extremal eigenvalues.

## II. Theory

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a symmetric positive definite and irreducible matrix, and let $|\mathbf{A}|=\left|a_{i j}\right|$ denote the nonnegative matrix derived from $\mathbf{A}$. Furthermore, let $\mathbf{D}=\left(\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{i i}}\right)$

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denote the diagonal part of $\mathbf{A}$ and note that $a_{i i}>0$ follows from positive definiteness. Also, recall that the spectrum $\sigma(\mathbf{A})>0$ and $\mathbf{A}$ is diagonalizable with a real eigenbasis. Denote the distinct eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}$ by $\lambda_{i}, i=1,2, \cdots, k$, where $k \leq n$. Let $m_{i}$ denote the algebraic multiplicity of $\lambda_{i}$, $\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}=n$. Arrange the eigenvalues in descending order

$$
\lambda_{1}>\lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \lambda_{k-1}>\lambda_{k}
$$

where we assume strict separation for the minimal and maximal eigenvalues. Since $A$ is symmetric it is orthogonally diagonalizable and from the spectral theorem [3] we may write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{I} & =\sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbf{G}_{i} \\
\mathbf{A} & =\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} \mathbf{G}_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathbf{G}_{i}$ is the orthogonal projector onto the nullspace $N\left(\mathbf{A}-\lambda_{i} \mathbf{I}\right)$. Consequently $\mathbf{G}_{i} \mathbf{G}_{j}=\delta_{i j} \mathbf{G}_{i}$ and

$$
\mathbb{R}^{n}=\stackrel{k}{i=1} \underset{i=1}{ } N\left(\mathbf{A}-\lambda_{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{I}\right)
$$

Lemma 2.1 (Rayleigh): Let $\mathrm{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, where $\|\mathrm{x}\|_{\mathbf{2}}=\mathbf{1}$, then it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{k} \leq R(\mathbf{x})=\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle \leq \lambda_{1} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We prove the right-hand side of (1) as the left-hand side is proved in a similar manner.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle & =\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left\langle\lambda_{i} \mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\right\rangle \\
& \leq \lambda_{1}\left\langle\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\right\rangle \\
& =\lambda_{1}\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle \\
& =\lambda_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2.2: Let $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}} \in N\left(\mathbf{A}-\lambda_{p} \mathbf{I}\right)$ such that $\left\|\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}\right\|_{2}=1$ and consider a perturbation of $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}$ given by

$$
\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}^{\prime}=\frac{\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}+\beta \mathbf{x}}{\sqrt{1+\beta^{2}}}
$$

where $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}=1, \mathbf{x} \perp N\left(\mathbf{A}-\lambda_{p} \mathbf{I}\right)$ and $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}{ }^{\prime}$ has been normalized to unity. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{p}^{\prime}-\lambda_{p}=\mathcal{O}\left(\beta^{2}\right)\left(\langle\mathbf{A x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle-\lambda_{p}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{p}^{\prime}=R\left(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}{ }^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
R\left(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}{ }^{\prime}\right) & =\left(1+\beta^{2}\right)^{-1}\left\langle\mathbf{A}\left(\mathbf{x}_{p}+\beta \mathbf{x}\right), \mathbf{x}_{p}+\beta \mathbf{x}\right\rangle \\
& =\left(1+\beta^{2}\right)^{-1}\left(\left\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{p}, \mathbf{x}_{p}\right\rangle+2 \beta\left\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{p}, \mathbf{x}\right\rangle+\beta^{2}\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle\right) \\
& =\frac{\lambda_{p}+\beta^{2}\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle}{\left(1+\beta^{2}\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R\left(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{p}}{ }^{\prime}\right)-\lambda_{p} & =\frac{\beta^{2}(\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle)-\lambda_{p}}{\left(1+\beta^{2}\right)} \\
& \left.=\mathcal{O}\left(\beta^{2}\right)(\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle)-\lambda_{p}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, an $\mathcal{O}(\beta)$ approximation to an eigenvector results in a "better" $\mathcal{O}\left(\beta^{2}\right)$ approximation to the corresponding eigenvalue. For $p=k$ in (2), we have an upper bound $\lambda_{k}^{\prime} \geq \lambda_{k}$ and for $p=1$ in (2), we have a lower bound $\lambda_{1}^{\prime} \leq \lambda_{1}$.

By Gerschgorin's theorem, the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}$ are all contained in the union of the $n$ intervals given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\lambda-a_{i i}\right| & \leq r_{i} \\
& =\sum_{\substack{p=1 \\
p \neq i}}^{n}\left|a_{i p}\right|,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $i=1,2, \cdots, n$. These radii are assembled in a vector $\mathbf{r}$ and are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r} & =|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{e}-\mathbf{D e} \\
& =|\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{D}| \mathbf{e},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathbf{e}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}=[1,1, \cdots, 1]^{t}$.
The left bound of the Gerschgorin intervals are given by

$$
b_{i}=a_{i i}-r_{i}
$$

and can be written more compactly in a vector $\mathbf{b}$ as

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{b} & =\mathbf{D e}-\mathbf{r} \\
& =(2 \mathbf{D}-|\mathbf{A}|) \mathbf{e} . \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that if $b_{i} \leq 0$, for any $i$, then no information can be established regarding the lower bound for $\lambda_{k}$, which is already known to be positive.

Let $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}$ be a diagonal matrix with all the positive elements denoted by $s_{i i}^{k}$, and consider the similarity transformation $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}=\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}$, then clearly $\sigma(\mathbf{A})$ is preserved. The Gerschgorin left bounds are now given by the vector $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{b}^{\prime} & =\left(2 \mathbf{D}-\left|\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right|\right) \mathbf{e} \\
& =\left(2 \mathbf{D}-\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right)^{-1}|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right) \mathbf{e} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the diagonal elements of $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$ and $\mathbf{A}$ are identical, and the similarity transformation neither affects the signs of the elements of $\mathbf{A}$ nor makes any element zero.

Consider the matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{k}}=\left[2 \mathbf{D}-\lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) \mathbf{I}\right]^{-1}|\mathbf{A}| \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $0 \leq \epsilon<1$, and $\lambda_{k}^{\prime}$ is a good upper bound approximation of $\lambda_{k}$. consequentially it follows from (1) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda_{k} & \leq R\left(\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) \\
& =\left\langle\mathbf{A e}_{\mathbf{i}}, \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}\right\rangle \\
& =a_{i i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{k}}$ is non-negative and irreducible, it follows from the Perron Frobenius theorem for non-negative matrices [3] that $\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{k}}$ has a unique positive eigenvector $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{k}}$ corresponding to the Perron root $\rho_{k}=\rho\left(\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{k}}\right)$, which is the spectral radius of $\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{k}}$. Let $s_{i i}^{k}=v_{i}^{k}$ or equivalently write $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{k}}=\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}} \mathbf{e}$ then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[2 \mathbf{D}-\lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) \mathbf{I}\right]^{-1}|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}} \mathbf{e}=\rho_{k} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}} \mathbf{e} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rewrite (5) as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right)^{-1}|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}} \mathbf{e} & =\rho_{k}\left[2 \mathbf{D}-\lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) I\right] \mathbf{e} \\
\left(2 \mathbf{D}-\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right)^{-1}|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{k}}\right) \mathbf{e} & =\left[2\left(1-\rho_{k}\right) \mathbf{D}+\rho_{k} \lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) I\right] \mathbf{e} \\
& =2\left(1-\rho_{k}\right) \mathbf{D e}+\rho_{k} \lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) \mathbf{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, it follows from (3) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{b}^{\prime}=2\left(1-\rho_{k}\right) \mathbf{D e}+\rho_{k} \lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) \mathbf{e} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the elements of $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}$, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{i}^{\prime}=2\left(1-\rho_{k}\right) a_{i i}+\rho_{k} \lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon), \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

are not constant and vary with the value of $a_{i i}$, for fixed $\epsilon$. An ideal requirement is that all components of $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ be equal. If $b_{i}^{\prime}=b_{j}^{\prime}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-\rho_{k}\right)\left(a_{i i}-a_{j j}\right)=0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly $\rho_{k}=1$, thus (6) simplifies to

$$
\mathbf{b}^{\prime}=\lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) \mathbf{e}>\mathbf{0}
$$

which is a constant and represents a lower bound of $\lambda_{k}$, for suitable $\epsilon$. However in practice it is not always possible to choose an ideal value for $\epsilon$, hence for the value of $\epsilon$ such that $\rho_{k}$ is close to unity, we choose the minimum component of $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ as a lower bound of $\lambda_{k}$.

We now consider the special case, when the diagonal elements of A are equal. Let $a_{i i}=a$ and note from (4), that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{k}=\frac{\rho(|\mathbf{A}|)}{2 a-\lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\varepsilon)} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

consequently, from (9), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\varepsilon)=\frac{2 a \rho_{k}-\rho(|\mathbf{A}|)}{\rho_{k}} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting (10) into (6) we write

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{b}^{\prime} & =2\left(1-\rho_{k}\right) a \mathbf{e}+\rho_{k} \lambda_{k}^{\prime}(1-\epsilon) \mathbf{e} \\
& =\left(2 a-2 a \rho_{k}\right) \mathbf{e}+\left(2 a \rho_{k}-\rho(\mid \mathbf{A}) \mid\right) \mathbf{e} \\
& =(2 a-\rho(\mid \mathbf{A})) \mathbf{e} . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, the lower bounds are independent of $\lambda_{k}^{\prime}, \varepsilon$, and $\rho_{k}$. Algorithm
(i) Use a few iterates of the inverse power method on $\mathbf{A}$ to generate an approximate eigenvector $\mathbf{x}_{k}^{\prime}$, corresponding to $\lambda_{k}$, that is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{A} \mathbf{z}_{i+1} & =\mathbf{y}_{i} \\
\mathbf{y}_{i+1} & =\frac{\mathbf{z}_{i+1}}{\left\|\mathbf{z}_{i+1}\right\|_{2}},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathbf{y}_{0}=\frac{\mathbf{e}}{\sqrt{n}}, \quad i=0,1,2, \cdots, N_{\mathbf{A}}-1$ and $\mathbf{x}_{k}^{\prime}=\mathbf{y}_{N_{\mathrm{A}-1}}$.
(ii) Set $\lambda_{k}^{\prime}=\left\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{k}^{\prime}, \mathbf{x}_{k}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ as an upper bound of $\lambda_{k}$.
(iii) Choose a suitable $\epsilon$, where $0<\epsilon<1$, and use the power method on matrix $\mathbf{C}$ to get an approximation of $\rho$ (close to 1 ) that corresponds to a positive eigenvector

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{z}_{i+1} & =\mathbf{C} \mathbf{y}_{i} \\
\mathbf{y}_{i+1} & =\frac{\mathbf{z}_{i+1}}{\left\|\mathbf{z}_{i+1}\right\|_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathbf{y}_{0}=\frac{\mathbf{e}}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $i=0,1,2, \cdots, N_{\mathbf{C}}-1$.
(iv) Generate the lower bound vector $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ from (6), then choose $\min _{i} b_{i}^{\prime}$ as a lower bound of $\lambda_{k}$.
The right bound of the Gerschgorin intervals is given by

$$
b_{i}=a_{i i}+r_{i},
$$

which can be written more compactly as a vector $\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}}$, given by

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}} & =\mathbf{D e}+\mathbf{r} \\
& =|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{e} . \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

Consider the matrix $\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{1}}=\left[\lambda_{1}^{\prime}(1+\epsilon)\right]^{-1}|\mathbf{A}|$, where $0 \leq$ $\epsilon<1$, and $\lambda_{1}^{\prime}$ is a good lower bound approximation of $\lambda_{1}$. Consequentially it follows from (1) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda_{1} & \geq R\left(\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) \\
& =\left\langle\mathbf{A} \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}, \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}\right\rangle \\
& =a_{i i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{1}}$ is non-negative and irreducible, it follows from the Perron Frobenius theorem for non-negative matrices [3] that $\mathbf{C}^{1}$ has a unique positive eigenvector $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$, corresponding to the Perron root $\rho_{1}=\rho\left(\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{1}}\right)$. Let $s_{i i}^{1}=v_{i}^{1}$ or equivalently write, $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}=\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{e}$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{|\mathbf{A}|}{\lambda_{1}^{\prime}(1+\epsilon)} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{e} & =\rho_{1} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{e} \\
\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}\right)^{-\mathbf{1}}|\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{e} & =\rho_{1} \lambda_{1}^{\prime}(1+\epsilon) \\
\left|\left(\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}\right)^{-\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}\right| \mathbf{e} & =\rho_{1} \lambda_{1}^{\prime}(1+\epsilon) \\
\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\prime} & =\rho_{1} \lambda_{1}^{\prime}(1+\epsilon) \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

Hence, the upper bounds are all equal. In fact,

$$
\begin{align*}
\rho_{1} & =\rho\left(\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{1}}\right) \\
& =\frac{\rho(|\mathbf{A}|)}{\lambda_{1}^{\prime}(1+\varepsilon)}, \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

and consequently from (13),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{b}_{1}^{\prime}=\rho(|\mathbf{A}|) . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$



Fig. 1. Lower bound vs epsilon for example 3.1


Fig. 2. Lower bound vs spectral radius for example 3.1

## III. Results

Example 3.1: Consider the test matrix [9], which is positive definite and irreducible,

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
4 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & 5 & 0 & 1 \\
2 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\
3 & 1 & 0 & 7
\end{array}\right]
$$

with a minimum eigenvalue of 1.425687 and maximum eigenvalue of $\mathbf{9 . 3 7 5 9 3 9}$, accurate to six decimal places. We use $N_{\mathrm{A}}=3$ to determine $\mathrm{x}_{k}^{\prime}$ and $\lambda_{k}^{\prime}$ from (ii). We use $N_{\mathbf{C}}=10$ to determine $\rho_{k}$, for $\epsilon=0.1$. The same parameters are used to determine the upper bound for $\lambda_{1}$. We obtain the following results

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda_{k}^{\prime}=1.548137, \rho_{k}=0.997039 \\
& \mathbf{b}^{\prime}=[1.412885,1.418807,1.424728,1.43065]^{T} \\
& \lambda_{1}^{\prime}=9.350228, \rho_{1}=0.91228
\end{aligned}
$$

from which a lower bound of 1.412885 and an upper bound of 9.383023 is obtained.

Example 3.2: Consider the test matrix below, which is positive definite and irreducible,

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrrr}
10 & 3 & 2 & -0.5 \\
3 & 4 & 3.5 & 5 \\
2 & 3.5 & 10 & 1.5 \\
-0.5 & 5 & 1.5 & 12
\end{array}\right]
$$

with a minimum eigenvalue of 6.323996 and a maximum eigenvalue of $\mathbf{2 0 . 2 5 0 4 6 6}$, accurate to six decimal places. We use $N_{\mathbf{A}}=3$ to determine $\mathbf{x}_{k}^{\prime}$ and $\lambda_{k}^{\prime}$ is determined from step from (ii) in the algorithm. We use $N_{\mathbf{C}}=10$ to determine $\rho_{k}$, for $\epsilon=0.5$. The same parameters are used to determine


Fig. 3. Lower bound vs epsilon for example 3.2


Fig. 4. Lower bound vs spectral radius for example 3.2
the upper bound of $\lambda_{1}$. We obtain the following results:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda_{k}^{\prime}=6.562099, \rho_{k}=0.980824 \\
& \mathbf{b}^{\prime}=[3.60166,3.755072,3.60166,3.678366]^{T} \\
& \lambda_{1}^{\prime}=20.236249, \rho_{1}=0.676565
\end{aligned}
$$

from which a lower bound 3.60166 and an upper bound 20.536707 is obtained.

From figures 1 and 3, we can determine the optimal value of $\varepsilon$ for which the lower bound is maximum. Examining figures 2 and 4 , we note that the lower bound is maximized when $\rho_{k}$ is close to unity, as discussed in equation 8. Although we have shown in equation (15) that it is theoretically and practically possible to have the upper bound components equal, the same statement is only true for the lower bounds, if a suitable value for $\varepsilon$ is known in advance, where $\rho_{k}=1$. However in practice the lower bound components differ slightly from each other, even if $\varepsilon$ is not optimal.

Example 3.3: Consider the Stieltjes matrix [13], which is irreducible, given by

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
2 n & -1 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\
-1 & 2 n & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\
-1 & -1 & 2 n & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
-1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 n & -1 \\
-1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 n
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $n$ is the dimension of $\mathbf{A}$. The matrix $\mathbf{A}$ can be written in the form $\mathbf{A}=(2 n+1) \mathbf{I}-\mathbf{e e}{ }^{\mathbf{t}}$. The matrix $\mathbf{e e}^{\mathbf{t}}$ has a rank of unity which implies that $\sigma\left(\mathbf{e e}^{\mathbf{t}}\right)=\{0, n\}$, with zero having a multiplicity of $n-1$. Note that the eigenvalue $n$ corresponds to the eigenvector e. Hence, $\sigma(\mathbf{A})=\{n+$ $1,2 n+1\}$, where the eigenvalue $2 n+1$ has a multiplicity o $n-1$. We illustrate the validity of (11), in figures 5 and 6 ,


Fig. 5. Lower bound vs epsilon for example 3.3


Fig. 6. Lower bound vs spectral radius for example 3.3
for $n=20$, that is the independence of the lower bound on $\epsilon$ and $\rho_{k}$. We obtain exactly 21 and 59 , for the lower and upper bound, respectively, which is in agreement with (15).
Example 3.4: When the Poisson partial differential equation is discretized by a five-point finite different scheme, it results in a $n \times n$ Stieltjes tridiagonal matrix $\mathbf{A}$, that has the form

$$
\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
4 & -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
-1 & 4 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 4 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 4
\end{array}\right]
$$

Clearly $\mathbf{A}$ is irreducible and the eigenvalues are explicitly given by [14]

$$
\lambda_{k}=4-2 \cos \left(\frac{k \pi}{n+1}\right), \quad k=1,2, \cdots, n .
$$

Thus, $\sigma(\mathbf{A}) \in\left[\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{n}\right] \approx[2.152241,5.847759]$, for $n=7$.
Once again, we observe from figure 7 and figure 8 that since the diagonal elements are equal, the lower bound is independent of $\varepsilon$ and $\rho_{k}$. This further validates (11). We obtain 2.109941 for the lower bound and 5.890058 for the upper bound.

## IV. Conclusion

We have presented a simple and relatively cost-effective method of improving the outer bounds of real symmetric positive definite matrices, which are irreducible. Some important matrices from engineering, as well as special cases have been considered. We have also shown that our method does indeed yield the outer bounds.


Fig. 7. Lower bound vs epsilon for example 3.4


Fig. 8. Lower bound vs spectral radius for example 3.4

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