

# Randomized Methods for Joint Eigenvalue Problems

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## Linear Algebra 101

Symmetric  $A_1, \dots, A_d \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  **commute pairwise** if and only if there is orthogonal  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  that **jointly diagonalizes** them:

$$Q^T A_1 Q = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix}, \dots, Q^T A_d Q = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix}.$$

Questions one might ask:

- How does one actually compute  $Q$ ?
- Do commuting matrices ever show up in practice / applications?
- Why is randomization important?

## Linear Algebra 101

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Structure of talk:

1. Motivating example:  
Roots of polynomials
2. Detailed picture:  
Randomized joint diagonalization of symmetric commuting matrices
3. Further extensions and applications
4. Back to the roots

# Roots of polynomials

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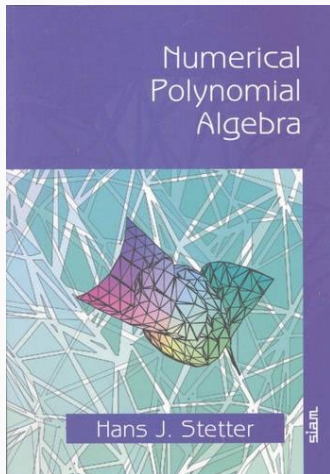
# Polynomial roots as eigenvalue problems

## 1 polynomial in 1 variable:

1. Build linearization, e.g., companion matrix
2. Solve matrix eigenvalue problem

## $m$ polynomials in $m$ variables:

1. Build  $m$  multiplication matrices
2. Solve **joint** matrix eigenvalue problem



# Construction of multiplication matrices

Example:

$$p_1(x, y) = x^2 - 1 = 0, \quad p_2(x, y) = y^2 - 1 = 0.$$

**Step 1:** Build basis for *quotient algebra*

$$A = \mathbb{C}[x, y]/I$$

with ideal  $I = \langle x^2 - 1, y^2 - 1 \rangle$ . Because  $x^2 \equiv 1$ ,  $y^2 \equiv 1$ ,  
can choose

$$B = \{1, x, y, xy\}.$$

General construction involves Gröbner bases or  
Sylvester-like / Macaulay-like resultant matrices.

# Construction of multiplication matrices

**Step 2:** Consider multiplication by  $x$  and  $y$ :

$$L_x : A \rightarrow A, \quad L_x : p(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot p(x, y),$$

$$L_y : A \rightarrow A, \quad L_y : p(x, y) \mapsto y \cdot p(x, y).$$

Find matrix representation with respect to  $B$ :

$$M_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Key property:**  $M_x M_y = M_y M_x$

(reflects that multiplication by  $x$  and  $y$  commute).

# Eigenvalues of multiplication matrices

Slightly nontrivial: A common root  $(\lambda_x, \lambda_y)$  of  $p_1, p_2$  is a **joint eigenvalue**

$$M_x v = \lambda_x v, \quad M_y v = \lambda_y v,$$

with **joint eigenvector**  $v$  (obtained from evaluating  $B$  in  $x = \lambda_x, y = \lambda_y$ ).

**Problem:**

$$M_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

have double eigenvalues  $\rightsquigarrow$

- $v$  not well-defined by individual matrices
- difficult to pair eigenvalues of  $M_x$  and  $M_y$



# Eigenvalues of multiplication matrices

Simple trick: Choose  $\mu_x, \mu_y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  and form

$$M = \mu_x M_x + \mu_y M_y.$$

Eigenvalues of  $M$  are simple a.s.!

Rayleigh quotients with each of the four eigenvectors  $v$  of  $M$  recover common roots:

$$\lambda_x = v^T M_x v, \quad \lambda_y = v^T M_y v.$$

Idea has been around for long time in root finding [Corless et al.'1997].

Difficulties encountered in general case:

- Multiplication matrices are generally nonsymmetric
- Multiplication matrices quickly become huge
- Joint eigenvector method only works well in generic situations (simple common roots / joint eigenvalues)
- Numerical stability issues [Graf/Townsend'2026]

# **Joint diagonalization of commuting symmetric matrices**

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# Nearly commuting matrices

## Linear Algebra 101 task

Given commuting symmetric matrices  $A_1, \dots, A_d$ , find orthogonal matrix  $Q$  that **jointly diagonalizes** family:

$$Q^T A_1 Q = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix}, \dots, Q^T A_d Q = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix}.$$

Problem: Not well-posed in finite-precision arithmetic. Roundoff destroys commutativity. Moreover, in many applications, commutativity is just an idealistic model assumption.

$A, B$  are *nearly commuting* if  $\exists \|\Delta A\|_2 \approx 0, \|\Delta B\|_2 \approx 0$  such that  $A + \Delta A, B + \Delta B$  commute.

# Nearly commuting matrices

## Robustified Linear Algebra 101 task

Given *nearly* commuting symmetric matrices  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  find orthogonal matrix  $Q$  that *nearly* diagonalizes  $A_1, \dots, A_d$ .

Applications beyond root finding:

- Blind Source Separation: Separation of source signal by joint diagonalization of cumulant tensor slices [Cardoso/Soloumiac'1993], covariance matrices [Pham/Cardoso'2001], autocorrelation matrices [Belouchrani et al.'1997].
- Parameter estimation in latent variable models through orthogonal decomposition of moment tensors = joint diagonalization of slices [Anandkumar et al.'2014]
- Manifold learning [Eynard et al.'2015]
- Parameter identification [Ehler et al.'2019]
- Computer graphics [Kovantsky et al.'2013]

# Existing optimization-based approaches

Most numerical algorithms for joint diagonalization based on optimization:

$$\min_{Q^T Q = I} \mathcal{L}(Q),$$

where loss function  $\mathcal{L}$  measures distance from being diagonal.

Popular choices:

- General symmetric  $A_1, \dots, A_d$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(Q) := \sum_{k=1}^d \|\text{offdiag}(Q^T A_k Q)\|_F^2,$$

where  $\text{offdiag}$  extracts off-diagonal part of a matrix.

- Symmetric positive definite  $A_1, \dots, A_d$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(Q) := \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{k=1}^d [\log \det \text{diag}(Q^T A_k Q) - \log \det(Q^T A_k Q)],$$

KL divergence [Pham'2001]

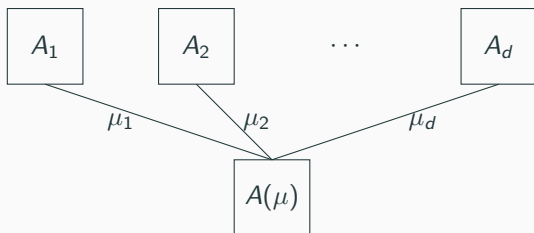
# Existing optimization-based approaches

Optimization algorithms:

- Jacobi-like algorithms = coordinate descent [Bunse-Gerstner et al.'1993]
- Block coordinate descent [Pham'2001]
- Quasi-Newton methods [Ziehe et al.'2003], [Ablin et al.'2018]
- Riemannian gradient descent [Afsari/Krishnaprasad'2004]
- Riemannian trust region [Absil/Gallivan'2006]
- Riemannian Newton [Alyani et al.'2017]
- ...

# Randomized approach

Sketched family:  $A(\mu) = \mu_1 A_1 + \mu_2 A_2 + \cdots + \mu_d A_d$  for  $\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_d)$ .



Simple idea: Obtain  $Q$  from diagonalizing symmetric matrix  $A(\mu)$ .

Proposed and applied several times in the literature:

- Parameter identification problems [Ehler et al.'2019]
- Joint eigenvector method for root finding [Corless et al.'1997]
- Orthogonal decomposition of tensors [Anandkumar et al.'2012/2014]
- CP and related decompositions for tensors [Evert et al.'2022],  
[Telen/Vannieuwenhoven'2021], . . .
- . . .

# How does randomness help?

Assume exact commutativity and  $n = 2$ .

Two cases:

- Every matrix  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_d$  has double eigenvalues:

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_1 \end{pmatrix}, A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, A_d = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_d & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Any orthogonal matrix  $Q$  will do.

- At least one matrix  $A_k$  has two simple eigenvalues  $\rightsquigarrow$

$$A(\mu) = \mu_1 A_1 + \mu_2 A_2 + \dots + \mu_d A_d$$

has two simple eigenvalues a.s. and, in turn,  $Q$  is essentially uniquely defined and can be obtained from diagonalizing  $A(\mu)$ .

**New contribution [He/DK'2024]:** Analysis when  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  *nearly* commute.

Note: Previous analyses either assume exact commutativity [Anandkumar et al.'2014] or sufficiently large eigenvalue gaps [Ehler et al.'2019].



# Idea of analysis for nearly commuting family

$A_1, \dots, A_d$  nearly commuting  $\rightsquigarrow \exists$  commuting  $D_1, \dots, D_d$  s.t.

$$A_k = D_k + E_k, \quad \|E_1\|_F^2 + \dots + \|E_d\|_F^2 \leq \varepsilon^2.$$

Let  $x$  be joint eigenvector for simple (joint) eigenvalue  $(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$  of  $D_1, \dots, D_d$ . Then

$$\tilde{x} = x + (\lambda(\mu)I - D(\mu))^\dagger E(\mu)x + O(\varepsilon^2).$$

is corresp. eigenvector of  $A(\mu)$  [Stewart/Sun'1990, Greenbaum/Li/Overton'2020].

Residual measures whether  $\tilde{x}$  is a good eigenvector for  $A_k$ :

$$r_k = \lambda_k \tilde{x} - A_k \tilde{x}.$$

Residuals determine off-diagonal part in  $Q^T A_k Q$ .

$$\|r_k\|_2 \lesssim \underbrace{\|(\lambda_k I - D_k)(\lambda(\mu)I - D(\mu))^\dagger\|_2}_{\text{wlog diagonal}} \|E(\mu)\|_2$$

# Idea of analysis for nearly commuting family

Norm of diagonal matrix

$$(\lambda_1 I - D_1)(\lambda(\mu)I - D(\mu))^\dagger$$

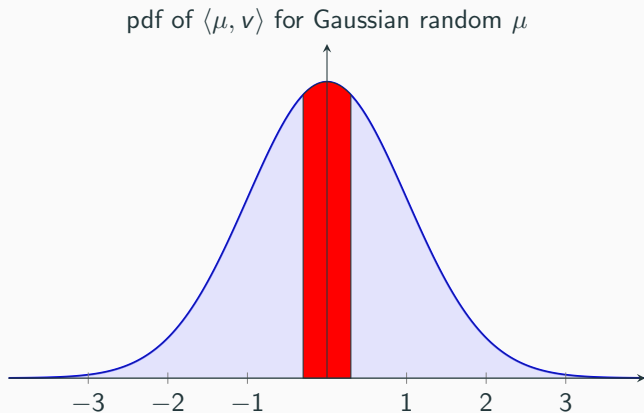
measures (asymptotically) magnification of input error. Given another joint eigenvalue  $(\xi_1, \dots, \xi_d)$ , diagonal entry takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\lambda_1 - \xi_1}{\mu_1(\lambda_1 - \xi_1) + \mu_2(\lambda_1 - \xi_2) + \dots + \mu_d(\lambda_1 - \xi_d)} \\ = & \frac{1}{\mu_1 + \mu_2 \frac{\lambda_1 - \xi_2}{\lambda_1 - \xi_1} + \dots + \mu_d \frac{\lambda_1 - \xi_d}{\lambda_1 - \xi_1}} = \langle \mu, \nu \rangle^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Important observations:

- Cancellation of (small/problematic) gap  $\lambda_1 - \xi_1$
- $\langle \mu, \nu \rangle \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \|\nu\|_2^2)$  and  $\|\nu\|_2 \geq 1$

# Anticoncentration



$$\mathbb{P}\{-R \leq \langle \mu, v \rangle^{-1} \leq R\} \sim R^{-1}$$

Small probability that  $|\langle \mu, v \rangle|$  is large!

# Idea of analysis for nearly commuting family

## Summary:

- Residual has norm  $\leq O(R\varepsilon)$  with probability  $\geq 1 - R^{-1}$ .
- Union bound: Off-diagonal parts of  $Q^T A_1 Q, \dots, Q^T A_d Q$  have norm  $\leq O(R\varepsilon)$  with probability  $\geq 1 - R^{-1}$

## BUT:

- Analysis assumes simple eigenvalues.
- Neglected higher-order terms in asymptotic perturbation result critically depend on eigenvalue gaps.

## Solution:

- Cluster eigenvalues and consider invariant subspaces belonging to each cluster.
- Use non-asymptotic perturbation results for invariant subspaces

[Stewart'1971, Karow/DK'2014]

## Robust recovery of $Q$ [He/DK'2024]

Suppose that  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  is  $\varepsilon$ -near to a commuting family and  $Q$  diagonalizes  $A(\mu) = \mu_1 + \dots + \mu_d$  for  $\mu \sim N(0, I_n)$ . Then:

$Q$  diagonalizes each matrix  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  up to error  $O(R\varepsilon)$

with probability at least  $1 - R^{-1}$ .

- + Universal result. No assumptions on eigenvalue gaps.
- Constant in  $O(R\varepsilon)$  proportional to  $n^{3.5}$ .

DRJD = Increased accuracy by combining several samples through successive deflation.

## Experiments for synthetic data

10 commuting randomly generated  $100 \times 100$  symm pos def matrices  
only perturbed by roundoff error

	Time (in msec)	Offdiag error
QNDIAG	400	$9.6 \times 10^{-10}$
FFDIAG	3600	$8.3 \times 10^{-11}$
JADE	2200	$2.6 \times 10^{-7}$
RJD	20	$2.8 \times 10^{-11}$
DRJD	25	$9.9 \times 10^{-12}$

**QNDIAG** Quasi-Newton method for Pham's cost function [Ablin et al.'2018].

**FFDIAG** Newton-like method for standard cost function [Ziehe et al.'2003].

**JADE** Jacobi method [Bunse-Gerstner et al.'1993], [Cardoso/Souloumiac'1996].

**RJD/DRJD** Randomized algorithms (3 trials for RJD).

## Experiments for synthetic data

10 commuting randomly generated  $100 \times 100$  symm pos def matrices  
perturbed by  $\approx 10^{-5}$

	Time (in msec)	Offdiag error
QNDIAG	290	$1.1 \times 10^{-5}$
FFDIAG	3400	$9.5 \times 10^{-6}$
JADE	2070	$9.5 \times 10^{-6}$
RJD	20	$8.1 \times 10^{-4}$
DRJD	310	$1.3 \times 10^{-5}$

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## Experiments for synthetic data

10 commuting randomly generated  $100 \times 100$  symm pos def matrices  
perturbed by  $\approx 10^{-1}$

	Time (in msec)	Offdiag error
QNDIAG	350	$1.1 \times 10^{-1}$
FFDIAG	3830	$9.5 \times 10^{-2}$
JADE	2530	$9.5 \times 10^{-2}$
RJD	20	1.94
DRJD	318	$1.4 \times 10^{-1}$

**QNDIAG** Quasi-Newton method for Pham's cost function [Ablin et al.'2018].

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**RJD/DRJD** Randomized algorithms (3 trials for RJD).



# Fun application: Diagonalizing normal matrices

## Linear Algebra 101

Square matrix  $A$  is normal iff its Hermitian part  $(A + A^*)/2$  and skew-Hermitian part  $(A - A^*)/2$  commute.

Structure-exploiting approach for diagonalizing normal matrix:

```
[U,~] = eig(randn*(A+A')+1i*randn*(A-A'));  
D = diag(diag(U'*A*U));
```

Requires 0.55 seconds and attains residual  $3 \times 10^{-11}$  for  $1000 \times 1000$  unitary matrix.

Versus unstructured approach:

```
[U,S] = schur(A); D = diag(diag(S));
```

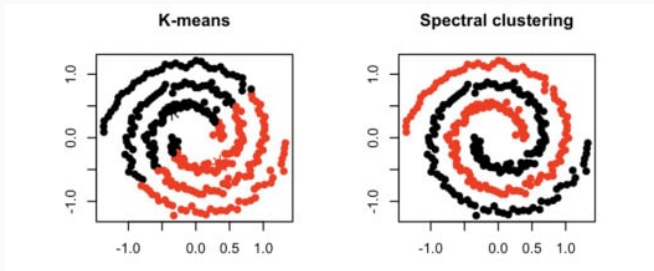
Requires 3.4 seconds and attains residual  $3 \times 10^{-14}$ .

# Partial joint diagonalization

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# Spectral clustering

Spectral clustering [von Luxburg'2007] uses eigenvectors belonging to smallest  $k$  nonzero eigenvalues of graph Laplacian  $L$  to cluster data.



Eigenvectors  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$  belonging to smallest  $k$  eigenvalues minimizes

$$\text{trace}(X^T L X)$$

among all matrices satisfying  $X^T X = I$ ,  $X^T \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}$ .

# Multi-modal spectral clustering

Graph Laplacians  $L_1, \dots, L_d$  capturing different modalities of the same data. Taking different modalities into account can improve robustness of clustering.

Existing multi-modal spectral clustering methods [Dodero et al.'2013, Eynard et al.'2015, Khachatryan et al.'2021] aim at computing shared approximate basis of eigenvectors across modalities. Computed through optimization-based joint diagonalization of  $L_1, \dots, L_d$ .

Measure for quality of joint embedding:

$$s(X) = \left\| \left[ \text{trace}(X^T L_1 X), \dots, \text{trace}(X^T L_d X) \right] \right\|_{\infty}.$$

# Multi-modal spectral clustering

## Theorem [He/Pados/DK'2025]

Letting  $\Delta^{d-1}$  denote standard  $d$ -dimensional simplex, it holds that

$$\min_{\substack{X^T \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0} \\ X^T X = I_k}} s(X) = \max_{\mu \in \Delta^{d-1}} \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i(L(\mu)).$$

Proof via duality.

Extends result for  $k = 1$  by [Coifman/Marshall/Steinerberger'2023].

$\rightsquigarrow$  Simple randomized method:

- Sample several random  $\mu \in \Delta^{d-1}$ .
- Choose  $L(\mu) = \mu_1 L_1 + \cdots + \mu_d L_d$  that has largest sum of  $k$  smallest eigenvalues.
- Return  $X =$  eigenvectors belonging to smallest  $k$  eigenvalues of  $L(\mu)$ .

# Results on benchmark examples

Clustering performance in terms of normalized mutual information (NMI); higher is better:

Method	Weighted SBM	Caltech-7	Digits
Single Laplacians	0.640 (1) 0.512 (2) 0.624 (3) 0.659 (4)	0.158 (Gabor) 0.322 (Wavelet) 0.355 (Centrist) 0.421 (HOG) 0.341 (GIST) 0.507 (LBP)	0.665 (DCT) 0.607 (Patch)
RJD Average	0.711 ( $\pm 0.012$ )	0.491 ( $\pm 0.002$ )	0.650 ( $\pm 0.001$ )
<b>RJD-BASE</b>	<b>0.803</b>	<b>0.531</b>	<b>0.665</b>
QN-Diag	0.743	0.285	0.627
QN-Diag (RJD-BASE init.)	0.743	0.274	0.627
JADE	0.773	0.415	0.650
JADE (RJD-BASE init.)	0.601	0.024	0.075
MVSC	0.737	0.476	0.661
CoReg-MVSC	0.688	0.431	0.679
MV-KMeans	–	–	0.489
MV-SphKMeans	–	–	0.528
Single-Dir. Smoothness	0.774	0.499	0.682
<b>BASE Smoothness</b>	<b>0.780</b>	<b>0.530</b>	<b>0.682</b>

RJD-BASE = random. method. (200 samples)

BASE Smoothness = projected GD applied to  $s(X)$ .

# Simultaneous diagonalization by congruence

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# Simultaneous diagonalization by congruence (SDC)

## SDC

Family of symmetric matrices  $A_1, \dots, A_d \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is SDC if there exists invertible  $X$  such that

$$X^T A_1 X = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix}, \dots, X^T A_d X = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix}.$$

[He/Nguyen'2022]: Family is SDC if and if there is invertible  $P$  such that  $P^T A_1 P, \dots, P^T A_d P$  commute pairwise.

Important special case: If  $\exists \theta$  such that

$$A(\theta) = \theta_1 A_1 + \dots + \theta_d A_d \quad \text{is positive definite,}$$

can choose  $P = L^{-1}$  for Cholesky factorization  $A(\theta) = LL^T$ .



# Simultaneous diagonalization by congruence (SDC)

## Applications:

- SDC equivalent to tensor rank- $n$  CP decomposition of third-order tensor with partial symmetries [Domanov/de Lathauwer'2015]
- Blind Source Separation [Chabriel et al.'2014]
- Remote sensing [Khachatryan et al.'2021]
- Quadratic Programming [Jiang/Li'2016]

## All previous algorithms optimization-based:

- General case: Riemannian optimization to minimize off-diagonal norm over  $\mathcal{OB}(n, n)$ .  
Riemannian trust region [Absil/Gallivan'2006], Riemannian BFGS [Bouchard et al.'2020], . . .
- Positive definite case: Minimization of KL divergence.  
Jacobi-like [Pham'2001], Quasi-Newton [Ablin/Cardoso/Gramfort'2018], . . .

# Randomized SDC (RSDC)

## Randomized SDC (RSDC)

Choose *two* independent  $\theta, \mu \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_d)$  and form

$$A(\mu) = \mu_1 A_1 + \cdots + \mu_d A_d, \quad A(\theta) = \theta_1 A_1 + \cdots + \theta_d A_d.$$

Diagonalize matrix pencil

$$X^T A(\mu) X - \lambda X^T A(\theta) X = \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \begin{bmatrix} \diagdown \end{bmatrix},$$

using, e.g., QZ algorithm (this may not be possible).

Exact recovery: If  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  is exactly SDC then  $X$  diagonalizes family by congruence a.s.

## Robust recovery [He/DK'2024]

Suppose that  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  is  $\varepsilon$ -near to SDC and  $X$  diagonalizes  $A(\mu) - \lambda A(\theta)$  for  $[\mu, \theta] \sim N(0, I_{2n})$ . Then:

$X$  diagonalizes each matrix  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  up to error  $O(R^2 \|X\|_2^2 \varepsilon)$

with probability at least  $1 - R^{-1}$ .

Simplifications when  $A_1, \dots, A_d$  are positive (semi-)definite:

- Choose  $\theta_1 = \dots = \theta_d = 1/d$ .
- Diagonalization of  $A(\mu) - \lambda A(\theta)$  via Cholesky of  $A(\theta)$ .
- Robust recovery guarantee improves to  $O(R \|X\|_2^2 \varepsilon)$ .

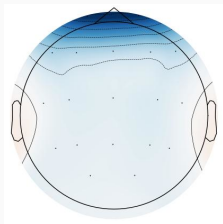
## Blind Source Separation for EEG recordings [Congedo et al.'2014]:

Joint diagonalization of sample covariance matrices by *congruence*:

Randomized SDC [He/DK'2024]

+ quasi-Newton opt [Ziehe et al.'2004]

requires 3s vs. 280s for SOTA (Pham's Jacobi-like method) applied to eye-blinking benchmark, at comparable accuracy.



## Back to the roots

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# Eigenvalues of multiplication matrices

Recall that computing roots of  $d$ -variate polynomials requires computing joint eigenvalues of (commuting) multiplication matrices:

$$M_{x_1}, M_{x_2}, \dots, M_{x_d}.$$

Randomized approaches based on linear combination

$$M(\mu) = \mu_1 M_{x_1} + \mu_2 M_{x_2} + \dots + \mu_d M_{x_d}, \quad \mu \sim \text{Unif}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathbb{C}}^{d-1}).$$

**RQ1** Compute (right) eigenvectors  $v$  of  $M(\mu)$  and obtain common roots from (one-sided) Rayleigh quotients:

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{v^T M_{x_1} v}{v^T v}, \lambda_2 = \frac{v^T M_{x_2} v}{v^T v}, \dots, \lambda_d = \frac{v^T M_{x_d} v}{v^T v}.$$

**RQ2** Compute right *and* left eigenvectors  $v, w$  of  $M(\mu)$  and obtain common roots from (two-sided) Rayleigh quotients:

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{w^T M_{x_1} v}{w^T v}, \lambda_2 = \frac{w^T M_{x_2} v}{w^T v}, \dots, \lambda_d = \frac{w^T M_{x_d} v}{w^T v}.$$

# Results for randomized approaches

## Robust computation of simple roots [He/DK/Plestenjak'2025]

Let  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_d)$  be simple common root of  $d$ -variate polynomial system. Suppose that  $\tilde{\lambda}^{\text{RQ1}}$  is computed from applying RQ1 to multiplication matrices **perturbed by error of norm  $\leq \varepsilon$** . Then

$$\|\lambda - \lambda^{\text{RQ1}}\| \lesssim R \cdot \text{cond}(\lambda) \cdot \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)$$

holds with probability  $1 - R^{-2}$ .

- Improved tail behavior  $R^{-2}$  thanks to using complex random numbers:  $\mu \sim \text{Unif}(\mathbb{S}_{\mathbb{C}}^{d-1})$ .
- $\text{cond}(\lambda)$ : condition number of  $\lambda$  as a joint eigenvalue of multiplication matrices.
- Result extends to semi-simple roots.
- Analysis of RQ2 more complicated / more pessimistic, although **RQ2 performs better in practice**.

## Results for randomized approaches

	random	rose	katsura7	redeco8
<b>Rschur</b>	1.31e-11	1.98e-08	1.74e-10	3.09e-12
<b>schur</b>	5.58e-12	1.12e-08	8.19e-10	2.75e-12
<b>RQ2</b>	9.72e-14	9.26e-09	1.61e-11	3.52e-12

Accuracy of different methods for computing common roots of four standard benchmark examples.

**Rschur** Common roots via Schur decomposition of randomized linear combination of multiplication matrices [Telen/Van Barel'2018].

**schur** Common roots via Schur decomposition of first multiplication matrix [Vermeersch/de Moor'2023]

**RQ2** Our method.

Timing nearly identical as compt of multiplication matrices expensive.



# Conclusions

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# Conclusions

- Randomization turns complicated joint eigenvalue problems into standard eigenvalue problems that can be solved with off-the-shelf software.
- Randomization yields highly competitive performance (time, accuracy) in a wide range of applications.  
For joint diagonalization tasks, randomization replaces optimization-based approaches or delivers excellent initial iterates.
- Analysis based on (lots of) perturbation analysis + anticoncentration.

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