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Termination results for hybrid approach of Joint Spectral Radius computation

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Contents

Zusammenfassung

Diese Arbeit präsentiert einen hybriden Ansatz zur Berechnung des gemeinsamen Spektralradius (JSR) einer endlichen Menge von Matrizen. Die vorgeschlagene Methode integriert die Invariante-Polytop und Endlicher-Baum Algorithmen, um deren jeweilige Stärken zu nutzen. Die breite Anwendbarkeit des baumbasierten Ansatzes wird mit der Effizienz der Polytop-basierten Techniken kombiniert. Der entwickelte Algorithmus konstruiert eine strukturierte Baumdarstellung und überprüft maximale Produkte mithilfe angepasster Normen, wodurch eine Terminierung in Fällen ermöglicht wird, in denen klassische Methoden an ihre Grenzen stoßen (Bedingungen an Terminierung oder Laufzeit). Theoretische Garantien werden bereitgestellt, um Korrektheit und Effizienz zu belegen. Es werden auch JSR-Berechnungen für Matrizenmengen, bei denen bestehende Methoden scheitern oder ineffizient sind, demonstriert.

Abstract

This thesis presents a hybrid approach for computing the joint spectral radius (JSR) of a finite set of matrices. The proposed method integrates the invariant polytope algorithm and the finite tree algorithm to leverage their respective strengths — integrating the vast applicability of the finite-tree-based approach with the efficiency of polytope-based techniques. The developed algorithm constructs a structured tree representation and verifies spectrum-maximizing products using adapted norms, enabling termination in cases where classical methods take too long or fail. Theoretical guarantees are provided to demonstrate correctness and efficiency.

Keywords: Joint spectral radius, hybrid algorithm, invariant polytope, finite tree method, matrix norms.

1 Introduction

The *Joint Spectral Radius* (JSR) was first introduced by G.-C. Rota and G. Strang in 1960 (Rota and Gilbert Strang, 1960). They described the JSR as the maximal exponential growth rate of a product of matrices taken from a finite set. Since its inception, the JSR has become a cornerstone in various mathematical and engineering disciplines due to its ability to encapsulate the asymptotic behavior of matrix long products.

The concept gained significant traction in the 1990s when researchers began exploring its theoretical properties and practical implications. Notable advancements include its application in wavelet theory, where it assists in the construction of refinable functions (Daubechies and Lagarias, 1992) as well as in control theory, where it is used to analyze the stability of switched linear systems (Blondel and Tsitsiklis, 2000b), for which we will give a small example in the following. The computational challenges associated with determining the JSR have inspired the development of several algorithms, such as the invariant-polytope method (Guglielmi and Protasov, 2013) and the finite-tree method (Möller and Reif, 2014).

Despite the progress, the JSR computation remains a challenging problem, particularly due to the exponential complexity of exploring all possible matrix products. This thesis seeks to contribute to this ongoing effort by leveraging the invariant-polytope algorithm and the finite-tree algorithm to create a hybrid methodology that mitigates their respective limitations.

Structure of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is structured as follows: Chapter 1 provides a sufficient background on the JSR and its basic properties. Chapters 2 and 3 present the ideas and concepts of the algorithms that will be exploited to form the proposed hybrid approach, outlining their theoretical foundation and algorithmic implementation. Chapter 4 discusses possible combinations of former approaches, proposes the so-called Tree-flavored-invariant-polytope algorithm, and brings proofs of termination which is the main result of this thesis. *Chapter 5* presents numerical results to analyze the efficiency and applicability of the hybrid algorithm. Chapter 6 concludes with insights and future directions.

1.1 Motivation of the JSR

[include linear switched dynamical system example]

1.2 Theoretical background

The *joint spectral radius* (JSR) of a set of matrices is a generalization of the spectral radius for a single matrix. For a finite set of matrices $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m\}$, the JSR is defined as:

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \|A_{i_k} \ldots A_{i_1}\|^{1/k}, \tag{1.1}$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes any submultiplicative matrix norm.

Theorem 1.2.1. *The JSR is well-defined and independent of the choice of the submultiplicative norm.*

Proof. well-definedness
Let $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ be two submultiplicative norms on $\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$. By equivalence of norms in finite-dimensional vector spaces, there exist constants $c, C > 0$ such that:

$$c\|P\|_1 \leq \|P\|_2 \leq C\|P\|_1 \quad \forall P \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$$

Now we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \|A_{i_k} \ldots A_{i_1}\|_1^{1/k} \\
\leq &\lim_{k\to\infty} \left(\frac{1}{c}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \|A_{i_k} \ldots A_{i_1}\|_2^{1/k} \\
= &\lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \|A_{i_k} \ldots A_{i_1}\|_2^{1/k} \\
\leq &\lim_{k\to\infty} C^{\frac{1}{k}} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \|A_{i_k} \ldots A_{i_1}\|_1^{1/k} \\
= &\lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}} \|A_{i_k} \ldots A_{i_1}\|_1^{1/k}
\end{aligned}$$

Which concludes the proof. □

To understand the state-of-the-art algorithms considered as well as the main results that will follow, it is necessary to introduce some basic properties of the JSR.

Homogeneity

Proposition 1.2.2. *The JSR is homogeneous, meaning for any set of matrices $\mathcal{A}$ and scalar α:*

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\alpha\mathcal{A}) = |\alpha| \,\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) \tag{1.2}$$

holds.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m\}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{JSR}(\alpha\mathcal{A}) &= \lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}^k} \|\alpha A_{i_k} \cdot \ldots \cdot \alpha A_{i_1}\|^{1/k} \\ &= |\alpha| \lim_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i \in \mathcal{A}^k} \|A_{i_k} \cdot \ldots \cdot A_{i_1}\|^{1/k} \\ &= |\alpha| JSR(\mathcal{A}) \end{aligned}$$

□

Irreducibility

Definition 1.2.3. A set of matrices is called *(commonly) reducible* if there exists a nontrivial subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$ that is invariant under all matrices in the set. This means there exists a change of basis that block-triangularizes all matrices in $\mathcal{A}$ at the same time. If $\mathcal{A}$ is not reducible it is called *irreducible*.

Example 1.2.4.

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

These matrices are reducible because there exists a nontrivial change of basis that transforms them into block-triangular form. The eigenvectors common to both matrices are:

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the change of basis matrix:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

we compute the similarity transformations:

$$P^{-1}A_1P = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P^{-1}A_2P = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since both matrices are upper triangular in this basis, they share a common invariant subspace, proving that they are reducible.

Three-member inequality

The *three-member inequality* provides essential bounds for the JSR.

Proposition 1.2.5. *For any submultiplicative matrix norm $\|\cdot\|$, the inequality*

$$\max_{P\in\mathcal{A}^k} \rho(P)^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq JSR(\mathcal{A}) \leq \max_{P\in\mathcal{A}^k} \|P\|^{\frac{1}{k}}, \tag{1.3}$$

holds for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. The left side of the inequality follows from the definition of the JSR, as $\rho(P^k) = \rho(P)^k$ for any matrix P. The right side follows from a special case of Fekete's lemma. □

This result forms a starting point for many computational approaches as the bounds are sharp in the sense that both sides converge to the JSR as $k \to \infty$ (left side in lim sup).

Proposition 1.2.6. *The* JSR *can be equally defined as:*

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \limsup_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i\in\mathcal{A}^k} \rho(A_{i_k}\cdots A_{i_1})^{1/k}$$

where $\rho(P)$ is the spectral radius of the matrix P.

Minimum over norms

Proposition 1.2.7. *The JSR can be equivalently defined as the minimum over all submultiplicative norms:*

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \min_{\|\cdot\|} \max_{A\in\mathcal{A}} \|A\|. \tag{1.4}$$

Proof. This is done by defining the family of norms $\|x\|_\epsilon := \max\{\|\frac{A}{\rho+\epsilon}x\|_2 : A \in \mathcal{A}\}$, where $\epsilon > 0$ and ρ is the JSR of the set $\mathcal{A}$. Now, using the induced matrix norm we arrive at:

$$\sup_{A\in\mathcal{A}} \|Ax\|_\epsilon \leq \rho + \epsilon$$

□

Finiteness Property

Definition 1.2.8. The matrix set $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \cdots, A_m\}$ is sayed to exhibit the *finiteness property*, if there exists a finite sequence of matrices $A_{i_1}, \ldots, A_{i_k}$, such that:

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \|A_{i_k}\cdots A_{i_1}\|^{1/k}. \tag{1.5}$$

While this property does not hold universally, it is essential for algorithmic approaches and termination in most cases.

Complexity

The computation of the joint spectral radius (JSR) is theoretically challenging due to several complexity results.

Determining whether the JSR of a given set of matrices is below a threshold is **NP-hard** (Tsitsiklis and Blondel, 1997), meaning no polynomial-time algorithm is expected unless P = NP. Moreover, for general sets of matrices, even deciding whether the JSR is strictly less than one is **undecidable** (Blondel and Tsitsiklis, 2000a). Despite these theoretical limitations, many practical cases allow for efficient numerical estimation.

Unlike the spectral radius of a single matrix, the JSR is often **non-algebraic** (Guglielmi and Protasov, 2011), meaning it cannot always be expressed as a root of a polynomial with rational coefficients.

While these complexity results highlight fundamental challenges, they rarely pose a barrier in applied settings where efficient approximation algorithms provide useful results.

Candidates and Generators

Approximating the JSR requires identifying candidate products or *generators* of the matrix set that contribute most significantly to the asymptotic growth rate. These generators are often derived through optimization techniques and their identification is a key step in computational algorithms.

Similarity and reducibility

Proposition 1.2.9. *For any invertable matrix T we have invariance of the* JSR *under similarity transformations:*

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathrm{JSR}(T^{-1}\mathcal{A}T) \tag{1.6}$$

Proof. This follows from the definition of the JSR and the properties of the spectral

radius.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{JSR}(T^{-1}\mathcal{A}T) &= \limsup_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i\in\mathcal{A}^k} \rho(T^{-1}A_{i_k}T\cdot\ldots\cdot T^{-1}A_{i_1}T)^{1/k}\\ &= \limsup_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i\in\mathcal{A}^k} \rho(T^{-1}A_{i_k}\cdot\ldots\cdot A_{i_1}T)^{1/k}\\ &= \limsup_{k\to\infty} \max_{A_i\in\mathcal{A}^k} \rho(A_{i_k}\cdot\ldots\cdot A_{i_1})^{1/k}\\ &= \mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A})\end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 1.2.10. *If $\mathcal{A}$ is reducible, then the following holds:*

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \max\{\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{B}), \mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{D})\} \tag{1.7}$$

where $\mathcal{B} = \{B_1, \cdots, B_m\}$ and $\mathcal{D} = \{D_1, \cdots, D_m\}$ are the blocks of the block-triangularized matrices.

The proof can be seen in (Jungers, 2009). This can be applied iteratively until the sets of blocks are all irreducible. The problem was split into similar problems of smaller dimension. For the following considerations we can now assume $\mathcal{A}$ to be irreducible.

1.3 Preprocessing

This thesis aims to address the challenge of computing the JSR by combining two existing algorithms that have demonstrated practical effectiveness in calculationg the JSR for nontrivial sets of matrices. Both algorithms are based on the following simple concept:

We want to find the JSR of the finite set of matrices $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \cdots, A_n\}$

1. **Assumptions**: $\mathcal{A}$ is irreducible and posesses the finiteness property.
2. **Candidates**: Efficiently find products $P = A_{i_k}\cdots A_{i_1}$ of matrices from $\mathcal{A}$ that maximize the averaged-spectral radius $\hat{\rho} := \rho(P)^{\frac{1}{k}}$ for a given maximal length $k_{\max}$.
3. **Rescaling**: Transform $\mathcal{A} \to \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ with $\tilde{A}_i := \frac{1}{\hat{\rho}}A_i$.
4. **Proofing**: Now establish the fact that $\mathrm{JSR}(\tilde{\mathcal{A}}) = 1$ using the three-member-inequality. By homogenity this is equivalent to $\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \hat{\rho}$.

The considered algorithms only differ in step 4, while the invariant-polytope algorithm tries to find a norm that bounds the products of length 1 already enough. The finite tree algorithm, on the other hand, bounds the products using some partitioning-space that separates every product into products that are 1-bounded and some rest-term that

doesnt grow fast enough to overcome the k-th root of the JSR definition (polynomial growth). By integrating these algorithms into a hybrid approach, this work aims to advance the computational tools available for JSR analysis combining efficiency and a vast space of matrix sets for which the algorithm terminates.

2 Invariant-polytope algorithm

In this chapter we bring our interest to the underlying invariant-polytope algorithm. One result about JSR computation, that every irreducable family possesses an invariant norm is helpful. We observe that there always exists an norm that is in some sense extremal.

2.1 Extremal norms

Definition 2.1.1. A norm $\|\cdot\|$ is called invariant if there is a number $\lambda \geq 0$ such that

$$\max_{j=1,\dots,J} \|A_j x\| = \lambda, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Theorem 2.1.2. *Every irreducible family $\mathcal{A}$ possesses an invariant norm.*

Definition 2.1.3. A norm $\|\cdot\|$ is called extremal for a family of matrices $\mathcal{A}$ if

$$\|A_j x\| \leq \mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A})\|x\| \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ and } A_j \in \mathcal{A}$$

Every invariant norm is extremal

2.2 Invariant polytope norms

For every polytope there exists a corrisponding *Minkowski norm* where the polytope is its unit ball.

2.3 Structure of the invariant-polytope algorithm

After the preprocessing 1.3 is over we start with the leading eigenvector of the calculated candidate as V. Now we add new vertices to V iteratively by multiplying with the matrices in $\mathcal{A}$ and checking if the polytope-norm corrisponding to V of the new vertex is greater than 1. The algorithm terminates when no new vertices are added.

Algorithm 1 invariant-polytope algorithm

V := $\{v_1, \cdots, v_M\}$
$V_{\text{new}} \leftarrow V$
while $V_{\text{new}} \neq \emptyset$ **do**
  $V_{\text{rem}} \leftarrow V_{\text{new}}$
  $V_{\text{new}} \leftarrow \emptyset$
  for $v \in V_{\text{rem}}$ **do**
    for $A \in \mathcal{A}$ **do**
      if $\|Av\|_{\text{co}_\text{s}(V)} \geq 1$ **then**
        $V \leftarrow V \cup Av$
        $V_{\text{new}} \leftarrow V_{\text{new}} \cup Av$
return $\text{co}_\text{s}(V)$

2.4 Stopping criterions

The runtime of the algorithm 1 is not finite in general. Suitable conditions for stopping or recalculating a candidate have to be put in place. Of course a bare minimum of an max iteration is implemented. The paper (Guglielmi and Protasov, 2013) promises at least good bounds on the real JSR value while also proposing a stopping criterion thats based on eigenplanes. This criterion also generates a new candidate if the last wasnt sufficient after finite time.

2.5 Termination conditions

The invariant-polytope algorithm is very efficient but has its caviat. It only is guaranteed to terminate in finite time if the leading eigenvector of the chosen candidate is unique and simple. In the following i will present the according proofs.

2.6 Rebalancing and added starting vertices

Three years after publishing the fundamental algorithm, the creators released a new paper on rebalancing multiple s.m.ps as well as starting with some extra vertices so the polytope is conditioned better (not as flat).

2.7 Eigenvector cases

If the eigenvector is complex, then a different norm must be used, a so called complex balanced polytope norm. Also in the case of nonnegative matrices a different norm is used.

3 Finite-tree algorithm

In this chapter I want to introduce the finite-tree algorithm and its theoretical background.

3.1 Notation and definitions

Throughout this thesis, we consider a finite set of matrices $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_J\}$ with $A_j \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$. The computation of the JSR using tree-based methods, requires a structured representation of matrix products.

Encoding of Matrix Products

The set $\mathcal{I}^n := \{1, \dots, J\}^n$ denotes the collection of all index sequences of length n. For an index sequence $i = [i_1, \dots, i_n] \in \mathcal{I}^n$, the corresponding matrix product is given by

$$A_i = A_{i_n} \cdots A_{i_1}.$$

For $n = 0$, we define the identity matrix $A_i = I$.

Definition of an finite-tree

An (A, G)-tree is a structured representation of matrix products used to decompose arbitrary matrix products from $\mathcal{A}$. Lets define it given a set of generator indices $G = \{g_1, \dots, g_I\} \subseteq J^n$:

Definition 3.1.1. A Tree with the following structure:

- The root node contains the identity matrix: $t_0 = \{I\}$.
- Each node $t \in T$ is either:
  - A leaf (i.e., it has no children),
  - A parent of exactly J children: $\{A_j P : P \in t\}, j = 1, \dots, J$ (positive children),
  - A parent of arbitrarily many generators: $\{A_g^n P : P \in t, n \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ for some $g \in G$ (negative children).

Is called $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree

Covered Nodes

A node in the tree is called *covered* if it is a subset of one of its ancestors in the tree. Otherwise, it is called *uncovered*.

Definition 3.1.2. The set of uncovered leaves is denoted as

$$\mathcal{L}(T) := \{L \in t : t \text{ is an uncovered leaf of } T\}.$$

and called leafage of the tree T.

1-Boundedness

An (A, G)-tree T is called *1-bounded* with respect to a matrix norm $\|\cdot\|$ if

$$\sup_{L \in \mathcal{L}(T)} \|L\| \leq 1.$$

If a stricter bound holds, i.e., $\sup_{L \in \mathcal{L}(T)} \|L\| < 1$, then the tree is called *strictly 1-bounded*.

3.2 Structure of the finite-tree algorithm

We start with the root node, the identity $t_0 = I$. Now we build up an $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree. For that we calculate the norms of the children of current leaf-nodes and if they are bigger than 1 we add them to the tree. The chosen norm in this case is arbitrary but changes the runtime dramatically. If the algorithm terminates a 1-bounded tree was found and by that we have proven that there exists a decomposition for every product of matrices from $\mathcal{A}$.

Algorithm 2 Finite-tree algorithm

Theorem 3.2.1. *If the finite-tree algorithm 2 terminates the* $\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A})$ *was found.*

Proof. The leafage of the generated tree is 1-bounded. Now we take an arbitrary product $P \in \mathcal{A}^n$. If the profduct is outside the current tree i.e. after applying lexicographic ordering on the encodings of the nodes the encoding of the product is bigger then every other encoding in the tree. That means the structure of (A, G)-trees allows us to find one leaf-node that is a valid prefix of the product. Now we have $P = P'L$ with $\|L\| \leq 1$.

Since every leaf-node is guaranteed to have at least length 1 (first branches must be $\mathcal{A}$) the length of P' is strictly smaller then the length of P. We can repeat that process until $P'^{(k)}$ is within the tree. If the product is within the tree, we can generate a polynomial $p(k)$ that is monotone and an upper bound on the norms of products within the tree, where k is the length of the product. For that we have to analyse the Jordan-Normalform of the products. Since the spectral radius of every matrix in $\mathcal{A}$ and of every generator is less than 1, we now the growth of potencies of the Jordan-blocks is bounded by a polynomial in the order of the size of the Jordan-block. Just taking a maximum over all factors of all such polynomials we generate a polynomial that bounds every product within the tree according to the length of the product. So every product $P \in \mathcal{A}^n$ is of the form $P = S \cdot P_k \cdot ... \cdot P_1$ where $\|P_i\| \leq 1$ and $\|S\| \leq p(k)$. We imply:

$$JSR(\mathcal{A}) = \lim_k \max_{P \in \mathcal{A}^k} \|P\|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq \lim_k p(k)^{\frac{1}{k}} = 1$$

The detailed proof can be read in (Möller and Reif, 2014). □

3.3 Efficiency results

Theorem 3.3.1. *If the invariant-polytope algorithm terminates so does the finite-tree algorithm.*

Proof. The proof can be seen in (Möller and Reif, 2014). □

Theorem 3.3.2. *The solution space of the finite-tree algorithm is strictly bigger then the one from the invariant-polytope algorithm.*

Proof. From theorem 3.3.1 we know that the finite-tree algorithm always terminates if the invariant-polytope algorithm does. But there exist cases where the finite-tree algorithm terminates but the ivariant-polytope algorithm does not. □

3.4 Ussage of generators

In (Möller and Reif, 2014), the authors show that the use of generators is essential for ensuring termination in cases where the invariant-polytope algorithm fails to terminate.

4 Hybrid approach

In this chapter we want to explore some possible combinations of the before mentioned algorithm schemes and then present the main result of this work, the tree-flavored-invariant-polytope-algorithm and its termination results.

4.1 Goal and options

In its heart the invariant-polytope algorithm tries to find a polytope, which corrisponding minkowski-norm is specifically optimized on the given problem, whilst the finite-tree algorithm connects growth-rate to decompositions of products. A clear combination scheme arises naturally, where we use the optimized polytope norm to estimate the products of the finite-tree. From there we can choose a specific order or level of concurrency.
The most modular approach would be to first run the invariant-polytope algorithm for a couple of runs and then use the calculated norm thats specially optimized for the finite-tree algorithm. But that seems to be wasteful since valuable matrix calculations from the finite-tree algorithm could have been used for an even more optimized norm and some polytopes might have already cleared insight for the decompositions that the finite-tree algorithm tries to find. In (Mejstrik and Reif, 2024a) the authors came up with a more concurrent algorithm that builds up norms and decompositions in every step.

4.2 Structure of the hybrid algorithm

We try to decompose arbitrary products $P \in \mathcal{A}^k$, such that their polytope-norms are less then $p(k)$ where p is a monotone polynomial. This removes the invariance property of the polytope to be build up, since the norms dont have to be less than 1 but it still proofes the JSR identity because we take the averaged norms in the length of the products in the three-member-inequality 1.3.
Starting the loop of the invariant-polytope algorithm with a cycle on top that is connected via the generators factors and also the first branches represented by images from the missing $J-1$ factors from $\mathcal{A}$. Instead of only adding images under vertices from V and matrices from $\mathcal{A}$ directly, from now on we try to find an $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree which is one-bounded i.e its leafage-polytope-norm is less than 1, for every $v \in V$. For that

we generate $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree patterns in the beginning and just go through every remaining vertex and calculate the leafage-norms. From the structure of those trees we can assume that every matrix in $\mathcal{A}$ represents a node for the first branches. For the branches that lead to a leafage-norm less than or equal 1 we are done, for the other branches we have the choice to go deeper or just add some points to V that changes the leafage-norm of those branches to less than 1. Here we decided to add the points since going deeper just would mean to consider possibly the same products but the tree generation would be more complex with options for depth-first- or breadth-first-search and even using some s.m.p and generator trickery. [might change it in the future]
First points that come to mind are the leafage-points itself since this is what we have tested but generators could be involved meaning there are possibly infinitely many leafage-points. So the next best thing would be the roots of the branches which are guaranteed to be a single matrix from $\mathcal{A}$. This makes tree generation easy and adds points with likely more distance to the faces of the polytope and makes the norm stronger more quickly.
So in principle for every $v \in V_{\text{rem}}$ take a tree from the generating pool, check the leafage-norm for every root branch, if it is larger than 1 add the point from the root branch to V_{new} and V. Repeat this as long as new vertices have been added. We use V for the polytope-norms and since new points are only being added the norms decrease over time so all 1-bounded trees stay bounded.
After termination the set of trees generated promise a valid decomposition for every product from $\mathcal{A}$ into chunks of norm lesser 1 and one suffix thats of norm less than $p(k)$ for some monotone polynomial, which proofes the question if the chosen radius is maximal.

Algorithm 3 Tree-flavored-invariant-polytope-algorithm

$V := \{v_1, \cdots, v_M\}$
$V_{\text{new}} \leftarrow V$
while $V_{\text{new}} \neq \emptyset$ **do**
  $V_{\text{rem}} \leftarrow V_{\text{new}}$
  $V_{\text{new}} \leftarrow \emptyset$
  for $v \in V_{\text{rem}}$ **do**
    Construct some $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree $\mathbf{T}$
    if $\exists L \in \mathcal{L}(T)$ with $\|Lv\|_{\text{co}_s(V)} \geq 1$ **then**
      $V \overset{\cup}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}v$
      $V_{\text{new}} \overset{\cup}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}v$
return

The following figure 4.1 shows an example of the generated tree structure as well as the

tested $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-trees that have been used to bound the products. Here $\mathcal{A}$ consists of two matrices A and B and the chosen candidate is $\Pi = ABA$. At the top you can see the cycle generated by the candidate and the starting vector v_1 as well as branches coming of, that are the products that stay in contrast to the cycle. This is what i call the crown and it is generated for every matrix set at the beginning, so no testing has been made so far. All the nodes that are connected through a solid arrow have been added to the vertices V.

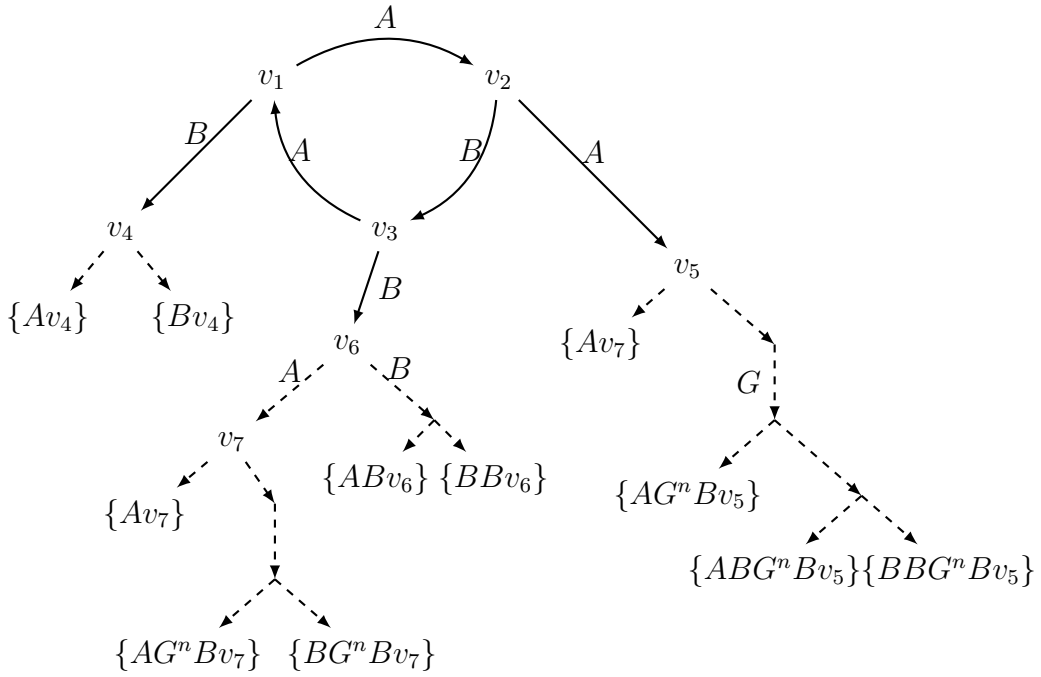

Figure 4.1: Cyclic tree structure generated by the algorithm. Vertices added to V (solid arrows) and finite-trees for bounding products (dashed arrows).

Now the finite-tree theory comes in and every vertex gets tested by a $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree (dashed arrows). Take the vector v_6 for example it has been tested by an tree and the branch starting with the matrix B was sufficient i.e. every leaf-node has a polytope-norm of less than 1 (at the time the polytope consists of the vertices $V = \{v_1, \cdots, v_6\}$). The branch starting with the matrix A on the other hand did not, so the vertex $v_7 = Av_6$ has been added to V and the next tree was tested, which was fully sufficient (on every branch). Since the other branches also terminated earlier the algorithm stops, no more vertices are beeing added and the candidate Π was proofen to be a s.m.p product.

4.3 Termination results

Lemma 4.3.1. *For every $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree T there exists a polynomial p such that for every node $N \in T$ and every product $P \in \mathcal{A}^k$ encoded by N, $\|P\|_{co_s(V)} \leq p(k)$ holds.*

Proof. Take an arbitrary node $N = [i_1, \cdots, i_n]$ of the tree T. Now every i_j encodes either a matrix from $\mathcal{A}$ or a generator from $\mathcal{G}$. Since all those matrices have a spectral radius less then or equal to 1, its Jordan-Normal forms grow utmost polynomially und thus, due to equality of norms in finite-dimensional vector spaces, we have that $\exists p_j : \forall e \in \mathbb{N}_0 : \|A_{i_j}^e\|_{\cos(V)} \leq p_j(e)$. Take now an arbitrary product $P = A_{i_n}^{e_n} \cdot ... \cdot A_{i_1}^{e_1}$ that is encoded by this node. With e_j being either 1 for positive i_j or an integer in $\mathbb{N}_0$ for negative i_j. We define:

$$\begin{aligned} p_N &:= p_n \cdot ... \cdot p_1 \\ p &:= \sum_{N \in T} p_N \end{aligned}$$

Now we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \|P\|_{\cos(V)} &= \|A_{i_n}^{e_n} \cdots A_{i_1}^{e_1}\|_{\cos(V)} \\ &\leq \|A_{i_n}^{e_n}\|_{\cos(V)} \cdots \|A_{i_1}^{e_1}\|_{\cos(V)} \\ &\leq p_n(e_n) \cdots p_1(e_1) \\ &\leq p_n(|P|) \cdots p_1(|P|) \\ &= p_N(|P|) \leq p(|P|) \end{aligned}$$

Since the node N and the product P were chosen arbitrary, this concludes the proof. □

Lemma 4.3.2. *If algorithm 3 terminates there exists an monotone polynomial p such that for every product $P \in \mathcal{A}^k$ and $v \in V$, $\|Pv\|_{cos(V)} \leq p(k)$ holds.*

Proof. If the algorithm terminates, then the set of vertices $V = \{v_1, \cdots, v_m\}$ is finite and for each $v \in V$ there exists an $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree T_v such that $\|Lv\|_{\cos(V)} \leq 1$ for every $L \in \mathcal{L}(T_v)$, which means there exists $\lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_m$ such that $Lv = \sum \lambda_j v_j$ with $\sum |\lambda_j| \leq 1$. According to Lemma 4.3.1, there exists a polynomial p_v such that for every product $P \in \mathcal{A}^k$ encoded by T_v, $\|Pv\|_{\cos(V)} \leq p_v(k)$. Take an arbitrary product $P \in \mathcal{A}^k$ and $v \in V$. Define:

$$\begin{aligned} p &:= \sum_{v \in V} p_v \\ P'L &:= P \text{ with } L \in \mathcal{L}(T_v) \text{ if } P \notin T_v \text{ and } L := I \text{ else} \\ P'_{i_1 \ldots i_r} L_{i_1 \ldots i_r} &:= P'_{i_1 \ldots i_{r-1}} \text{ with } L_{i_1 \ldots i_r} \in \mathcal{L}(T_{v_{i_{r-1}}}) \text{ if } P'_{i_1 \ldots i_{r-1}} \notin T_{v_{i_{r-1}}} \\ \text{and } L_{i_1 \ldots i_r} &:= I \text{ else.} \\ \text{Where } i_j \in \mathcal{I} &:= \{1, \cdots, m\} \end{aligned}$$

These decompositions exist and are unique because of the special structure of $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-trees. It follows the same principle as huffman-coding, where the tree structure is used to encode the product. Since in every branch we force all the possible children to be in the tree. An in depth explanaition of finding the decomposition can be found in (Möller and Reif, 2014).

Now we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\|Pv\|_{co_s(V)} &= \|P'Lv\|_{co_s(V)} \\
&= \|P' \sum_{i_1 \in \mathcal{I}} \lambda_{i_1} v_{i_1}\|_{co_s(V)} \\
&= \sum_{i_1 \in \mathcal{I}} |\lambda_{i_1}| \|P' v_{i_1}\|_{co_s(V)} \\
&= \sum_{i_1 \in \mathcal{I}} |\lambda_{i_1}| \|P'_{i_1} L_{i_1} v_{i_1}\|_{co_s(V)} \\
&= \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}^2} |\lambda_{i_1}||\lambda_{i_2}| \|P'_i v_{i_2}\|_{co_s(V)} \\
&\dots \\
&= \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}^k} |\lambda_{i_1}| \cdot \ldots \cdot |\lambda_{i_k}| \|P'_i v_{i_k}\|_{co_s(V)} \\
&\leq \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}^k} |\lambda_{i_1}| \cdot \ldots \cdot |\lambda_{i_k}| \; p_{v_{i_k}}(k) \\
&\leq p(k) \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}^k} |\lambda_{i_1}| \cdot \ldots \cdot |\lambda_{i_k}| \\
&= p(k) \sum_{i_1 \in \mathcal{I}} |\lambda_{i_1}| \sum_{i_2 \in \mathcal{I}} |\lambda_{i_2}| \; \ldots \sum_{i_k \in \mathcal{I}} |\lambda_{i_k}| \\
&\leq p(k) \cdot 1 \cdot \ldots \cdot 1 \\
&\leq p(k)
\end{aligned}$$

Here the first inequality works since after k steps the prefix P'_i is guaranteed to be in the tree $T_{v_{i_k}}$ and thus the norm is bounded by $p_{v_{i_k}}(k)$, which in turn is of course less then $p(k)$ by definition. The second to last inequality works since those sums of the absolute values of the coefficients of a linear combination of vectors are less than or equal to 1 from the 1-boundedness of the $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-trees. □

Theorem 4.3.3. *If algorithm 3 terminates then* $\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) \leq 1$

Proof. Due to the prework in the lemmas this is now easy to show. Lemma 4.3.2 implies that for every $P \in \mathcal{A}^k$ and $v \in V$, $\|Pv\|_{\mathrm{co_s}(V)} \leq p(k)$ trivially this implies:

$$\forall P \in \mathcal{A}^k : \|P\|_{\mathrm{co_s}(V)} \leq p(k)$$

Now we take the definition of the JSR and get:

$$\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = \lim_{k \geq 1} \max_{P \in \mathcal{A}^k} \|P\|^{\frac{1}{k}} \leq \lim_{k \geq 1} p(k)^{\frac{1}{k}} = 1$$

□

Of course, if the candidate had a spectral radius of 1 $\implies$ $\mathrm{JSR}(\mathcal{A}) = 1$.

Corollary 4.3.4. *If the chosen trees are always* $T_v = \mathcal{A}$*, then we would have exactly the*

invariant-polytope algorithm 1. Which makes the new approach a real generalization of the original.

4.4 Efficiency

Remarks

Used trees

It was proofen in (Möller and Reif, 2014) that in order to have a bigger solution space then algorithm 1 the use of generators is mandatory. The choice of the testing-trees is not trivial and subject to active research. We propose to use so-called minimal trees that fulfill every necessary and beneficial condition of the $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-trees but keep the amount of nodes minimal.

Stopping criterions

Some of the stopping criterions of the invariant-polytope algorithm can still be used as the structure is very similar. For this the eigenplane stopping condition is implemented.

Polytope invariance

Since the polytope-norms of matrices in $\mathcal{A}$ are allowed to be bigger than 1 just less than $p(1)$ it is possible and very likely the polytope is not invariant.

4.5 Implementation

Definition 4.5.1. An $(\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{G})$-tree with just one generator at the root, one path from root to the covered node and all neccessarily added branches, to make it comply with definition 3.1, is called a *minimal tree*. This tree only depends on the set $\mathcal{A}$ and the chosen generator G. Its denoted by $\min(G, \mathcal{A})$.

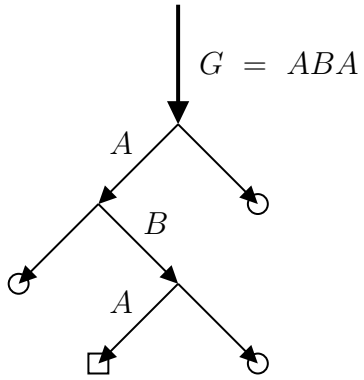

Figure 4.2: Minimal tree structure $\min(G, \mathcal{A})$ for the candidate $G = ABA$ and $\mathcal{A} = \{A, B\}$. The arrows marked with circles are uncovered-leafs, the arrow marked with a square is a covered-leaf

5 Numerics

5.1 Runtime of algorithm 3 on generated matrices

5.2 Comparison algorithm 3 and 1

5.3 Comparison algorithm 3 and 2

5.4 Solving open problems

6 Conclusion

6.1 New approach

6.2 Solved Problems

6.3 Efficiency

6.4 Unsolved problems

6.5 Further research

6.5.1 Complex case

6.5.2 Nonnegative case

6.5.3 Optimizing tree generation and vertex choice

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