

STAT 309: MATHEMATICAL COMPUTATIONS I
FALL 2019
LECTURE 15

1. RATE OF CONVERGENCE AND SPECTRAL RADIUS

- we kept referring to the spectral radius of the iteration matrix $\rho(B)$ as the rate of convergence but if you think about it, since

$$\|\mathbf{e}^{(k+1)}\|_2 \leq \|B\|_2 \|\mathbf{e}^{(k)}\|_2,$$

it should be $\|B\|_2$ that controls the convergence rate

- of course if the iteration matrix B is symmetric, then it makes no difference since $\|B\|_2 = \rho(B)$ but in general they are not equal, in fact is possible for $\rho(B) = 0$ and $B \neq 0$
- the reason is because we look at the **average rate of convergence**
- for any iteration matrix $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ (not necessarily symmetric) and any consistent norm $\|\cdot\|$ (not necessarily submultiplicative), after k steps, we get

$$\|\mathbf{e}^{(k)}\| \leq \|B^k\| \|\mathbf{e}^{(0)}\| \tag{1.1}$$

- the average reduction in error per step after k steps is then

$$\left(\frac{\|\mathbf{e}^{(k)}\|}{\|\mathbf{e}^{(0)}\|} \right)^{1/k}$$

and by (1.1) is bounded by

$$\|B^k\|^{1/k}$$

- the spectral radius then drops out when we take limits

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|B^k\|^{1/k} = \rho(B),$$

which holds for any consistent norm (i.e., $\|\cdot\|$ satisfies $\|A\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|A\| \|\mathbf{x}\|$ for any $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$)

2. METHOD OF STEEPEST DESCENT

- to speed up Richardson method, we consider varying the parameter α from one iteration to the next, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{r}^{(k)} \tag{2.1}$$

where α_k is to be chosen at the k th iteration

- again we will assume that A is symmetric positive definite
- given that

$$\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha_k A\mathbf{r}^{(k)} = \mathbf{r}^{(k)} - \alpha_k A\mathbf{r}^{(k)}$$

- we wish to choose α_k so that $\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}$ is minimized
- note that this is just the Mahalanobis norm $\|\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}\|_{A^{-1}}^2$ (why not minimize the 2-norm $\|\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}\|_2^2$ instead?)

- now

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)} &= (\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} - \alpha_k \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A) A^{-1} (\mathbf{r}^{(k)} - \alpha_k A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}) \\ &= \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} - 2\alpha_k \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} + \alpha_k^2 \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}\end{aligned}\quad (2.2)$$

- to find the minimum, we differentiate with respect to α_k and obtain

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha_k} \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)} = -2\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} + 2\alpha_k \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}$$

which yields

$$\hat{\alpha}_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)}}{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}}$$

- note that this is well-defined (denominator not zero) since A is symmetric positive definite
- with this choice of α_k , this method is known as the *method of steepest descent*
- note that

$$0 < \lambda_{\min}(A) \leq \frac{\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}} \leq \lambda_{\max}(A)$$

and therefore

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}(A)} \leq \hat{\alpha}_k \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}(A)}$$

- substituting $\hat{\alpha}_k$ into (2.2) yields

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)} &= \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} - 2\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} \frac{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)}}{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}} + \left(\frac{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)}}{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}} \right)^2 \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)} \\ &= \mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} - \frac{(\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)})^2}{\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)}}\end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}\|_{A^{-1}}^2}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k)}\|_{A^{-1}}^2} = 1 - \frac{(\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{r}^{(k)})^2}{(\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A^{-1} \mathbf{r}^{(k)})(\mathbf{r}^{(k)\top} A \mathbf{r}^{(k)})}$$

- the **Kantorovich inequality**, which comes up very often in applications such as optimization and statistics, states that for a symmetric positive definite A ,

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}^\top A^{-1} \mathbf{x}}{(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x})^2} \leq \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} + \sqrt{\kappa}^{-1}}{2} \right)^2, \quad \kappa = \kappa_2(A) = \frac{\lambda_{\max}(A)}{\lambda_{\min}(A)}$$

- to prove this inequality, let $\lambda_{\max}(A) = \mu_1$ and $\lambda_{\min}(A) = \mu_n$
 - then $A - \mu_n I$ and $\mu_1 I - A$ are both symmetric positive semidefinite
 - since A^{-1} is also symmetric positive definite, the product of these three matrices

$$(\mu_1 I - A)(A - \mu_n I)A^{-1}$$

is symmetric positive semidefinite and so

$$\mathbf{x}^\top (\mu_1 I - A)(A - \mu_n I)A^{-1} \mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- multiplying out the three matrices, we get

$$\mathbf{x}^\top [(\mu_1 + \mu_n)I - \mu_1 \mu_n A^{-1} - A] \mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

or

$$\mu_1 \mu_n \mathbf{x}^\top A^{-1} \mathbf{x} \leq (\mu_1 + \mu_n) \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} \quad (2.3)$$

- now observe that for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $(a - 2b)^2 \geq 0$ which may be rewritten as

$$a - b \leq \frac{a^2}{4b}$$

if $b \neq 0$

- now set $a = (\mu_1 + \mu_n)\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}$ and $b = \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}$ and we see that the right-hand side of (2.3) may be further bounded by

$$(\mu_1 + \mu_n)\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} \leq \frac{(\mu_1 + \mu_n)^2 (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x})^2}{4\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}} \quad (2.4)$$

- combining (2.3) and (2.4) gives

$$\mu_1 \mu_n \mathbf{x}^\top A^{-1} \mathbf{x} \leq \frac{(\mu_1 + \mu_n)^2 (\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x})^2}{4\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}}$$

and thus

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}^\top A^{-1} \mathbf{x}}{(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x})^2} \leq \frac{(\mu_1 + \mu_n)^2}{4\mu_1 \mu_n} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} + \sqrt{\kappa}^{-1}}{2} \right)^2$$

where $\kappa = \mu_1/\mu_n$

- it follows from the Kantorovich inequality that

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}\|_{A^{-1}}^2}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k)}\|_{A^{-1}}^2} \leq \left(\frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1} \right)^2$$

- thus,

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(1)}\|_{A^{-1}}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(0)}\|_{A^{-1}}} \cdot \frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(2)}\|_{A^{-1}}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(1)}\|_{A^{-1}}} \cdots \frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k)}\|_{A^{-1}}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k-1)}\|_{A^{-1}}} \leq \left(\frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1} \right)^k$$

which yields

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{r}^{(k)}\|_{A^{-1}}}{\|\mathbf{r}^{(0)}\|_{A^{-1}}} \leq \left(\frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1} \right)^k$$

- in other words, the rate of convergence is the same as when the parameter α_k is chosen a priori to be

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{2}{\mu_1 + \mu_n}$$

- so it would appear that we might as well have used Richardson's method in the first place
- but that's not quite the case — the problem is that we must know μ_1 and μ_n in order to determine the optimal $\hat{\alpha}$
- steepest descent does not require us to know μ_1 and μ_n
- however the price we pay for steepest descent is that we need to compute α_k at each step
- if you know some optimization, the steepest descent method described above is the same as applying the steepest descent method in continuous optimization to the problem

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{x}$$

3. CHEBYSHEV ITERATION

- again we are interested in solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
- let us rewrite the steepest descent iteration (2.1) in the form

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} &= \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{r}^{(k)} \\ &= (I - \alpha_k A) \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{b} \end{aligned}$$

- this time, instead of picking only α_k to minimize some quantity at the k th step, we will pick $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k$ simultaneously to minimize some quantity at the k th step

- since the exact solution \mathbf{x} satisfies

$$\mathbf{x} = (I - \alpha_k A)\mathbf{x} + \alpha_k \mathbf{b},$$

it follows that

$$\mathbf{e}^{(k+1)} = (I - \alpha_k A)\mathbf{e}^{(k)}$$

where $\mathbf{e}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

- so we have

$$\mathbf{e}^{(1)} = (I - \alpha_0 A)\mathbf{e}^{(0)}$$

\vdots

$$\mathbf{e}^{(k)} = (I - \alpha_{k-1} A)(I - \alpha_{k-2} A) \cdots (I - \alpha_0 A)\mathbf{e}^{(0)}$$

- in other words,

$$\mathbf{e}^{(k)} = P_k(A)\mathbf{e}^{(0)}$$

where

$$P_k(A) = (I - \alpha_{k-1} A)(I - \alpha_{k-2} A) \cdots (I - \alpha_0 A).$$

is a polynomial of degree k

- by the Cayley–Hamilton theorem, the minimal polynomial $\psi(x)$ of A has the following property:

$$\psi(A) = \prod_{k=0}^{d-1} (A - \mu_k I) = 0$$

where d is the number of distinct eigenvalues μ_k of A , by Homework 1, Problem 5(a)

- in other words

$$\prod_{k=0}^{d-1} \left(I - \frac{1}{\mu_k} A \right) = (-1)^d \mu_0 \cdots \mu_{d-1} \psi(A) = 0$$

so we could choose $\alpha_k = 1/\mu_k$ and

$$P_d(A) = \prod_{k=0}^{d-1} \left(I - \frac{1}{\mu_k} A \right)$$

but this is a bad choice because we almost never know the eigenvalues of A and even if we do, this choice is unstable because μ_k can vary immensely in magnitude

- however, no matter what P_k we have, it is always true that

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{e}^{(k)}\|}{\|\mathbf{e}^{(0)}\|} \leq \|P_k(A)\|_2,$$

which allows us to use approximation theory to find a suitable P_k as follows

- if $A = Q\Lambda Q^\top$ where $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)$, then $P_k(A) = QP_k(\Lambda)Q^\top$, and therefore

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{e}^{(k)}\|}{\|\mathbf{e}^{(0)}\|} \leq \|P_k(\Lambda)\|_2$$

- since

$$P_k(\Lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} P_k(\mu_1) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & P_k(\mu_n) \end{bmatrix},$$

it follows that

$$\|P_k(\Lambda)\|_2 = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |P_k(\mu_i)|$$

- so we want a polynomial P_k that minimizes

$$\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |P_k(\mu_i)|$$

but this is trivial since we can pick $P_k(x) = 0$

- so we need to restrict the coefficients of P_k and we will impose the condition

$$P_k(1) = 1$$

- if $P_k(x) = a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$, then $P_k(1) = 1$ means

$$a_k + a_{k-1} + \cdots + a_1 + a_0 = 1$$

- so we want to solve the problem

$$\min_{P_k(1)=1} \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |P_k(\mu_i)|$$

but this is still too difficult

- so we are content with an upper bound

$$\min_{P_k(1)=1} \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |P_k(\mu_i)| \leq \min_{P_k(1)=1} \max_{\mu_n \leq \mu \leq \mu_1} |P_k(\mu)| \leq \min_{P_k(1)=1} \max_{\alpha \leq \mu \leq \beta} |P_k(\mu)|$$

where $\alpha \leq \mu_n \leq \mu_1 \leq \beta$

- ideally we want $\alpha = \mu_n$ and $\beta = \mu_1$ but often we don't have the eigenvalues but only lower and upper bounds (e.g., from Gerschgorin theorem)
- the solution to this problem is given by the **Chebyshev polynomials**, suitably normalized so that it is monic
- the Chebyshev polynomial of degree k is most easily defined to be the polynomial expression that gives the expansion of $\cos(k\theta)$ in terms of $\cos(\theta)$, formally,

$$C_k(\cos x) = \cos kx$$

or

$$C_k(x) = \cos(k \cos^{-1}(x))$$

- for example,

$$C_0(x) = 1, \quad C_1(x) = x, \quad C_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1, \quad C_3(x) = 4x^3 - 3x, \quad C_4(x) = 8x^4 - 8x^2 + 1$$