

Matrix exponential

Note Title

2023-03-30

Backward error of Padé approximation:
can we write

$$r(A) = d(A)^{-1} n(A) = \exp(A+H)$$

for a (hopefully small) matrix H ?

$$\frac{n(x)}{d(x)} - e^x = O(x^{p+q+1}) \quad \begin{array}{l} p = \deg n(x) \\ q = \deg d(x) \end{array}$$

$x \rightarrow 0$

scalar version of the problem: find $h \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t.

$$\frac{n(x)}{d(x)} = e^{x+h} \quad h = \log e^{-x} \frac{n(x)}{d(x)}$$

For a Maclaurin series in \mathcal{O} ,

$$h(x) = c_{p+q+1} x^{p+q+1} + c_{p+q+2} x^{p+q+2} + \dots$$

all previous coefficients are 0.

$$\text{Indeed, } \frac{n(x)}{d(x)} - e^{-x} = O(x^{p+q+1}) \Rightarrow e^{-x} \frac{n(x)}{d(x)} = 1 + O(x^{p+q+1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \log \left(e^{-x} \frac{n(x)}{d(x)} \right) = O(x^{p+q+1}).$$

This motivates our expectation that $h(x)$ is very small around \mathcal{O} .

In the matrix case: idea: define $H = h(A)$ $h(x) = \log e^{-x} \frac{n(x)}{d(x)}$

$$H = \log \left(\underbrace{\exp(-A) n(A) d(A)^{-1}} \right)$$

↓
any order works, since they commute

Then,

$$\exp(H) = \exp(-A) n(A) d(A)^{-1}$$

$$\exp(A+H) = \exp(A) \exp(H) = n(A) d(A)^{-1}$$

↑
since A and H commute

Note that $|h(x)| \leq \varepsilon$ for $x \in [-\delta, \delta]$

$$\not\Rightarrow \|H\|_2 \leq \varepsilon \text{ for } \|A\| \in [-\delta, \delta]$$

Indeed, $A = VJV^{-1} \Rightarrow f(A) = Vf(J)V^{-1}$, but $f(J)$ involves also derivatives $h'(x), h''(x), \dots$ for which we do not have bounds



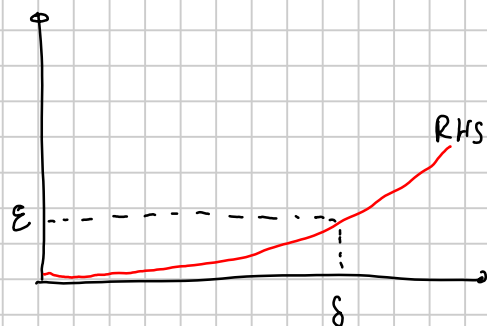
However, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \|H\| &= \|h(A)\| = \|c_{p+q+1} A^{p+q+1} + c_{p+q+2} A^{p+q+2} + \dots\| \\ &\leq |c_{p+q+1}| \cdot \|A\|^{p+q+1} + |c_{p+q+2}| \cdot \|A\|^{p+q+2} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Let δ be the positive sol. of $\underbrace{\varepsilon = |c_{p+q+1}| \delta^{p+q+1} + |c_{p+q+2}| \delta^{p+q+2} + \dots}_{\text{strictly increasing}}$

$$\text{Then, } \|A\| \leq \delta \Rightarrow \|H\| \leq \varepsilon$$

Matlab solution: for $\varepsilon = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-16}$,
 $\delta \approx 0.028$ for $p=q=2$



People found that for $p=q=13$, $\varepsilon = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-16}$, $\delta = 5.4$

So for $\|A\| \leq 5.4$, the (13, 13) Padé approximant has

a backward error of at most u (machine precision)

What happens if A has larger norm?

Another idea: scaling and squaring

The exponential satisfies $e^x = \left(e^{\frac{x}{s}}\right)^s$ for all $s > 0$

hence $\exp(A) = \left[\exp\left(\frac{1}{s}A\right)\right]^s$

This suggests an algorithm:

1. Find $s = 2^k$ s.t. $\left\|\frac{1}{2^k}A\right\| \leq 5.6$

2. compute $B = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2^k}A\right)$ using a Padé approximant

3. compute $\exp(A) \approx B^{2^k}$ with k successive squarings.

This is essentially Matlab's `expm`. Actually it does this

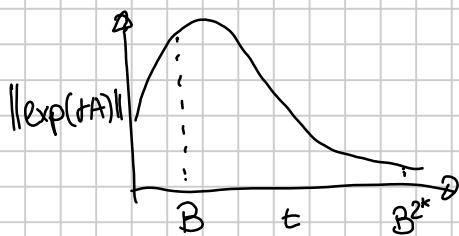
1. compute $QTQ^* = A$ (Schur decomposition)

2. compute $S = \expm(T)$ by scaling and squaring (previous algorithm)

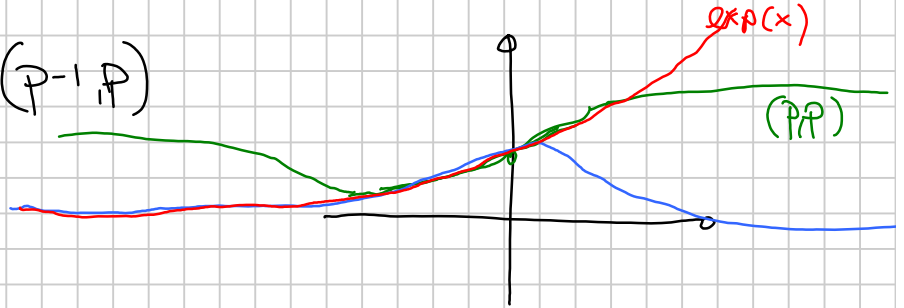
3. $S = \begin{bmatrix} s_{11} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & s_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$ has $s_{ii} \approx \exp(t_{ii})$, but not exactly equal, so we re-compute it: $s_{ii} \leftarrow \exp(t_{ii})$

4. $\exp(A) = QSQ^*$

Is this stable? Yes in practice, but no full proof yet.



(P,P) Padé approx \rightarrow (P-1,P)



Argument reduction: for certain matrices A and for suitably

chosen $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$, $\|A - \tau I\| \ll \|A\|$.

So one can compute $\exp(A) = \exp(B + \tau I) = \exp(B) \exp(\tau I)$

B and τI commute

$= \exp(B) \cdot e^\tau \cdot I$

Since $\|B\| \ll \|A\|$, I need fewer scaling and squaring steps.

e.g. $\exp \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = e^2 \cdot \exp \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

If B is a matrix such that $A = B + \tau I$ has all non-negative entries for some $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} A^k = \exp(A) = \exp(B + \tau I) = \exp(B) \cdot e^\tau$

has all non-negative entries

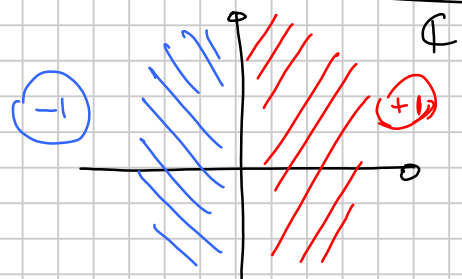
all non-negative entries, too!

Theorem: suppose B has $B_{ij} \geq 0$ for all $i \neq j$.

Then, $[\exp(B)]_{ij} \geq 0$ for all i, j .

The sign function:

$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{Re}(x) > 0 \text{ RHP} \\ -1 & \text{Re}(x) < 0 \text{ LHP} \\ \text{undef.} & \text{Re}(x) = 0 \end{cases}$



If $A = VJV^{-1}$ is a Jordan form, we can partition it (up to reordering) as

$$J = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} J_1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & J_2 \end{array} \right] \quad \text{where } \Lambda(J_1) \subset \text{LHP} \\ \Lambda(J_2) \subset \text{RHP}$$

$$\text{and } V = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } \text{sign}(A) &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \text{sign}(J_1) & 0 \\ \hline 0 & \text{sign}(J_2) \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right]^{-1} \\ &= \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} -I & 0 \\ \hline 0 & I \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right]^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Im}(\text{sign}(A) + I) &= \text{Im} \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right] \left(\left[\begin{array}{c|c} -1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] + I \right) \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right]^{-1} \\ &= \text{Im} \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} V_1 & V_2 \end{array} \right]^{-1} = \text{Im } V_2 \end{aligned}$$

and analogously $\text{Im}(\text{sign}(A) - I) = \text{Im } V_1$.

$\text{Im } V_1, \text{Im } V_2$ are the two invariant subspaces associated to eigenvalues in the LHP and RHP respectively.

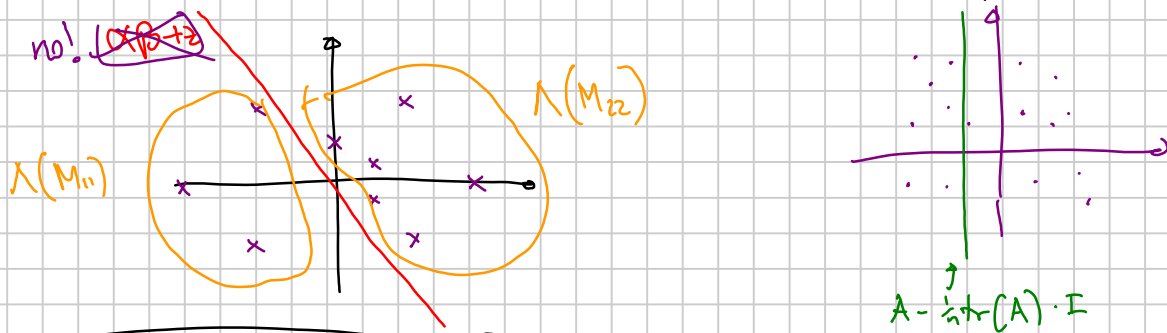
Application: computing eigenvalues by bisection: suppose you have an efficient algorithm to compute $\text{sign}(\cdot)$. Then, given a starting matrix M , one can compute $\text{sign}(\alpha M + \beta I)$ for given $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$. Then $Q = \text{orthogonal gr factor of}$

$\text{sign}(\alpha M + \beta I)$ is a matrix such that

$$Q^* M Q = \begin{bmatrix} M_{11} & M_{12} \\ 0 & M_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Lambda(M_{11})$ contains the eigenvalues of M s.t. $\text{Re}(\alpha A + \beta) < 0$,

$\Lambda(M_{22})$ contains the eigenvalues of M s.t. $\text{Re}(\alpha A + \beta) > 0$.



First method to compute $\text{sign}(A)$: Schur-Parlett:

1. Compute $M = Q U Q^*$, with Q orthogonal, U upper triangular

2. Reorder the factorization to $M = \hat{Q} \hat{U} \hat{Q}^*$, where

$$\hat{U} = \begin{bmatrix} A & C \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix} \text{ with } \Lambda(A) \subset \text{LHP}, \Lambda(B) \subset \text{RHP}$$

3. Then, $\text{sign}(\hat{U}) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & Z \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and we can determine Z

by using the relation $\hat{U} \cdot \text{sign}(\hat{U}) = \text{sign}(\hat{U}) \cdot \hat{U}$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & C \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & Z \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & Z \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & C \\ 0 & B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(1,2) \text{ block: } AZ + C = -C + ZB \Leftrightarrow AZ - ZB = -2C.$$

This is a Sylvester equation, it has unique solution because

$$\Lambda(A) \subset \text{LHP} \quad \Lambda(B) \subset \text{RHP} \text{ hence } \Lambda(A) \cap \Lambda(B) = \emptyset$$

and it is also easy to solve in practice because A, B are both triangular (since they come from a Schur form).

$$4. \text{sign}(M) = \hat{Q} \text{sign}(\hat{U}) \hat{Q}^* = \hat{Q} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \hat{Q}^*.$$

In particular, note that

$$\|Z\|_F \leq \left\| (\mathbb{I} \otimes A - B^T \otimes \mathbb{I})^{-1} \right\|_2 \|2C\|_F = \frac{2\|C\|_F}{\text{sep}(A, B)}.$$

The main reason why $\text{sep}(A, B)$ is small is the presence of two close-by eigenvalues in $\Lambda(A)$, $\Lambda(B)$.

