

Lecture 2: Computing e^{At}

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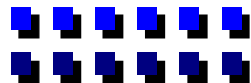
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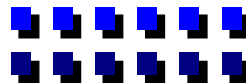


Outline of Lecture 2: Computing e^{At}

- What is the need for computing e^{At} ?
- Evaluation of matrix polynomials (**Horner's rule**)
- Truncation errors
- Chebyshev approximation
 - Properties
 - **Clenshaw recursion**
 - Concepts of **shifting, scaling, and doubling**
- Pade approximation
- Upper Schur transformation-based approach
- Special case: A is a stochastic matrix (*a la* Markov chains)
- How **not** to compute e^{At} ?

References:

1. R.C. Ward, "Numerical computation of matrix exponential with accuracy estimation", SIAM J. on Numerical Analysis, Vol. 14, 600-614, 1977.
2. C.B. Moler and C.F. Van Loan., "Nineteen dubious way to compute the exponential of a matrix", SIAM Review, 801-836, Oct. 1978.
3. T.H. Kerr, "Use of idempotent matrices to validate linear system software", IEEE Trans. on Aerospace and Electronic Systems, Vol. 26, No. 6, 935-953, Nov. 1990.





What is the need for Computing e^{At} ?- 1

□ What is the need for computing e^{At} ?

- e^{At} is a **transcendental** function that arises in a variety of applications. A representative set of examples are as follows:

I. $\dot{\underline{x}}(t) = A\underline{x}(t) + B\underline{u}(t) \Rightarrow \underline{x}(t) = e^{At} \underline{x}_0 + \int_0^t e^{A(t-\sigma)} B\underline{u}(\sigma) d\sigma$

II. Discrete-time version: $\underline{u}(t)$ piecewise constant over $t \in [k\delta, (k+1)\delta)$

$$\underline{x}_{k+1} = \Phi \underline{x}_k + \Gamma \underline{u}_k, \quad \Phi = e^{A\delta}, \quad \Gamma = \int_0^\delta e^{A\sigma} B d\sigma$$

III. $\dot{\underline{x}} = A\underline{x}(t) + B\underline{u}(t) + E\underline{w}(t); \underline{x}(0) = N(\underline{x}_0, X_0)$

$\underline{w}(t) =$ zero-mean white Gaussian noise with covariance

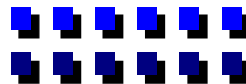
$$E\{\underline{w}(t)\underline{w}^T(\sigma)\} = W \delta(t - \sigma).$$

Define $X(t) = E\{\underline{x}(t)\underline{x}^T(t)\}$

$$\dot{X}(t) = AX(t) + X(t)A^T + EWE^T$$

$$X(t) = \int_0^t e^{A\sigma} EWE^T e^{A^T\sigma} d\sigma + e^{At} X_0 e^{A^T t}$$

IV. There exist many other control situations where e^{At} and various \int arise. See the paper by **Dorato and Levis, Dec. 1971 IEEE T-AC**.





What is the need for Computing e^{At} ?- 2

V. Continuous-time Markov Chains arise in a wide variety of applications:

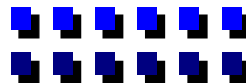
- Reliability/availability modeling
- Performability modeling
- Computer performance
- Manufacturing Systems
- Computer-communication network modeling.

The key equation to be solved is:

$$\dot{\underline{p}} = \underline{Q}^T \underline{p}; \quad \underline{p}(0) = \underline{p}_0 \Rightarrow \underline{p}(t) = e^{\underline{Q}^T t} \underline{p}_0$$

- $\underline{Q}=[q_{ij}]$ transition rate matrix, where:
 - q_{ij} = rate at which the chain jumps from state i to state j
- \underline{Q} is a stochastic matrix \Rightarrow each row of \underline{Q} sums to **zero**.
- If there is a reward rate f_i associated with each state i , then the *expected cumulative reward* of the chain over an interval $[0, T]$, termed average performability, is

$$\bar{y}_{[0 \ T]} = \underline{f}^T \left[\int_0^T e^{\underline{Q}^T t} dt \right] \underline{p}_0$$





Eigen Method for Computing e^{At}

- Most fundamental question:
 - How to compute the functions e^{At} and various \int for a given A and t
- In this lecture, we focus on the problem of computing e^{At}
- Computing e^{At} is a subset of a broader problem: Compute $f(A)$
e.g., $\sin A$, $\ln A$, e^A , $\cos A$, etc.
 - Since $A = P\Lambda P^{-1}$, $A^k = P\Lambda^k P^{-1}$

$$f(A) = Pf(\Lambda)P^{-1} = P\text{Diag}[f(\lambda_i)]P^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\lambda_i)\underline{\xi}_i\underline{\eta}_i^T$$

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{\xi}_1 & \underline{\xi}_2 & \dots & \underline{\xi}_n \end{pmatrix} \quad P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\eta}_1^T \\ \underline{\eta}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{\eta}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

- We will later see that this is one of the *worst* methods for computing $f(A)$.

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1+10^{-5} & 1 \\ 0 & 1-10^{-5} \end{bmatrix}; \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \times 10^{-5} \end{bmatrix}$



Computing e^{At} and Ill-conditioning

$$Pf(\Lambda)P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.718307 & 2.75000 \\ 0.00000 & 2.718524 \end{bmatrix}; \text{ actual} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.718309 & 2.718282 \\ 0.00000 & 2.718255 \end{bmatrix}$$

- We will see in Lecture 10 that condition number of the given Eigen value problem $\propto 1/|\lambda_i - \lambda_j|$

$\lambda_i \approx \lambda_j \Rightarrow \text{trouble} \Rightarrow \text{since condition number} \approx 10^5$

- Another way

- Suppose have an approximation to $f(a)$, e.g., a polynomial series

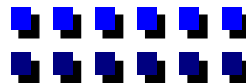
$$e^a \approx 1 + a + \frac{a^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{a^N}{N!} = \sum_{i=0}^N \frac{a^i}{i!} = \hat{f}(a)$$

- Then how much error do we make by approximating $f(a)$ by $\hat{f}(a)$?

- **Theorem:** Given a scalar function $f(a)$. Let $\hat{f}(a)$ be an approximation to $f(a)$ for $-c \leq a \leq c$ (or $|a| \leq c$). Then $\hat{f}(A)$ is an approximation of $f(A)$ valid for spectral radius $\rho(A) \leq c$ with truncation error:

$$\|f(A) - \hat{f}(A)\| \leq \|P\| \|P^{-1}\| \max_i |f(\lambda_i) - \hat{f}(\lambda_i)|$$

where P is the similarity transformation that diagonalizes A .



Error Analysis

Proof: $f(A) = P \text{Diag} [f(\lambda_i)] P^{-1}$
 $\hat{f}(A) = P \text{Diag} [\hat{f}(\lambda_i)] P^{-1}$ valid as long as $|\lambda_i| \leq c$
 $\Rightarrow f(A) - \hat{f}(A) = P \text{Diag} [f(\lambda_i) - \hat{f}(\lambda_i)] P^{-1}$
 $\|f(A) - \hat{f}(A)\| \leq \|P\| \|P^{-1}\| \max_i [|f(\lambda_i) - \hat{f}(\lambda_i)|]$

- So, the problem of computing $f(A)$ is reduced to finding a suitable, simple $f(a)$, a is a scalar
- This is a **scalar** numerical function approximation
- Note that most \hat{f} are often polynomials or ratio of polynomials (of some type).
- Example: Maclaurin's series for $f(a)$

$$f(a) = f(0) + f'(0)a + f''(0)\frac{a^2}{2!} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f^{(k)}(0) \frac{a^k}{k!}$$

□ **Key sub-problem: how to evaluate (truncated) polynomials efficiently.**

- Evaluation of scalar and matrix polynomials:

consider: $\hat{f}(a) = p_N(a) = b_0 + b_1 a + b_2 a^2 + \dots + b_N a^N$
 $\hat{f}(A) = p_N(A) = b_0 + b_1 A + b_2 A^2 + \dots + b_N A^N$



Horner's Rule

- ❑ A method called Horner's rule or *reverse nesting* gets around round-off error problems
- ❑ Horner's Rule
 - Consider $b_0I + b_1A + b_2A^2 = b_0I + A[b_2A + b_1I]$
 - Initialize $p_0 = b_2I$,
 - $p_1 = b_2A + b_1I$, n^2 Multiplications and n additions
 - $p_2 = Ap_1 + b_0I$, n^3 Multiplications and $n^3 + n$ additions
 - In general

$b_0I + b_1A + b_2A^2 + \dots + b_NA^N$ can be computed in $(N-1)$ matrix multiplications via:

$$A(A(A(A(b_NA + b_{N-1}I) + b_{N-2}I) + \dots + b_1I) + b_0I)$$

- Algorithm

initialize: $p_1 = b_NA + b_{N-1}I$

recursion: For $i = 2, \dots, N$

$$p_i = Ap_{i-1} + b_{N-i}I$$

end Do

Smarter Horner's Rule - 1

- We can do better than $(N-1)$ matrix multiplies

- Suppose have

$$p(A) = A^3[A^3\{b_9A^3 + (b_8A^2 + b_7A + b_6I)\} \\ + (b_5A^2 + b_4A + b_3I)] + b_2A^2 + b_1A + b_0I$$

$$A_2 = A^2; A_3 = AA_2$$

$$S = b_9A_3 + b_8A_2 + b_7A + b_6I$$

$$S = A_3S + b_5A_2 + b_4A + b_3I$$

$$S = A_3S + b_2A_2 + b_1A + b_0I$$

$$\Rightarrow O(4n^3) \text{ vs } O(8n^3)$$

- In general, if s is any integer satisfying $1 \leq s \leq N^{1/2}$, then

$$p(A) = \sum_{k=0}^r B_k (A^s)^k \quad r = \text{floor}(N/s)$$

$$\text{where } B_k = b_{sk+s-1}A^{s-1} + \dots + b_{sk+1}A + b_{sk}I; \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, r-1$$

$$B_k = b_N A^{N-sr} + \dots + b_{sr+1}A + b_{sr}I; \quad k = r$$

- Compute A^2, A^3, \dots, A^s and apply Horner' Rule to **new** polynomial.

- Operation count: $\approx (s + r - 2)n^3 \pm n^3$ if $s = \text{floor}(\text{sqrt}(N))$

\Rightarrow minimal computation of $N^{1/2}n^3$.



Smarter Horner's Rule - 2

- Previous example: $s = 3$ and $r = 3$

$$B_0 = b_2A^2 + b_1A + b_0I$$

$$B_1 = b_5A^2 + b_4A + b_3I$$

$$B_2 = b_8A^2 + b_7A + b_6I$$

$$B_3 = b_9I$$

Example 2: 13th order polynomial $s \leq (13)^{1/2}$

– Pick $S = 3$ and $r = \text{floor}(13/3) = 4$

– $B_0 = b_2A^2 + b_1A + b_0I$

– $B_1 = b_5A^2 + b_4A + b_3I$

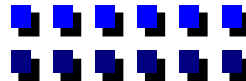
– $B_2 = b_8A^2 + b_7A + b_6I$

– $B_3 = b_{11}A^2 + b_{10}A + b_9I$

– $B_4 = b_{13}A + b_{12}I$

– Evaluate $A^3[A^3\{A^3\{A^3[b_{13}A + b_{12}I] + b_{11}A^2 + b_{10}A + b_9I\}$
 $+ b_8A^2 + b_7A + b_6I\} + b_5A^2 + b_4A + b_3I] + b_2A^2 + b_1A + b_0I$

- Q: How do we use these concepts of function approximation and evaluation of polynomials?



Computation of $f(A)$

□ Computation of $f(A)$

- If approximate $f(a)$ by $\hat{f}(a)$, then $\hat{f}(A)$ approximates $f(A)$
- There are basically three approaches:
 - MacLaurin's (Taylor's) series $|a| \leq 1$
 - Chebyshev polynomials
 - Pade rational approximation

□ MacLaurin's (Taylor's) series

- $f(a) = b_0 + b_1 a + b_2 a^2 + \dots + b_N a^N$

$$= f(0) + f'(0)a + f''(0)\frac{a^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{f^{(N)}(0)a^N}{N!}$$

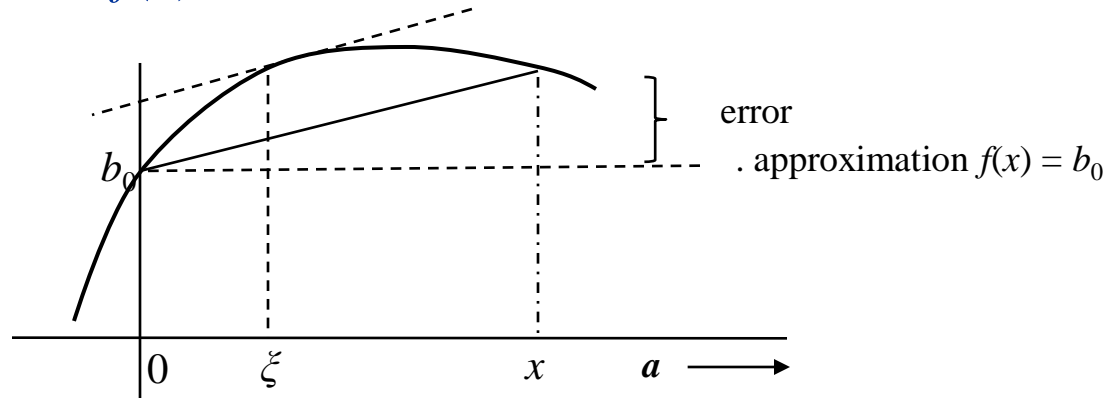
- Note that $b_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!}$

□ Q: What is the error involved in approximating $f(A)$ by $\hat{f}(A)$?

$$\left\| f(A) - \sum_{k=0}^N b_k A^k \right\|_2 \leq \frac{n}{(N+1)!} \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} \|f^{(N+1)}(Ax)\|_2$$

Approximation Error - 1

- Before we present proof, consider zeroth-order approximation to a scalar function $f(a)$ at $a = x$



- Error = $b_1x + b_2x^2 + \dots = f'(\xi) \cdot x$ (from derivative mean-value theorem)

- For n^{th} order approximation,

$$\text{error} = \frac{f^{N+1}(\xi)}{(N+1)!} \cdot x^{N+1}$$

- The result can be extended to matrices as well.

- **Proof:**

$$\text{Let } f(Ax) = \sum_{k=0}^N b_k (Ax)^k + E(x); \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$\text{then } f_{ij}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{f_{ij}^k(0)}{k!} x^k + \frac{f_{ij}^{N+1}(\xi_{ij})}{(N+1)!} x^{N+1} \quad \text{for some } \xi_{ij} \in [0, x]$$

Approximation Error - 2

$$\Rightarrow e_{ij}(x) = \frac{f_{ij}^{N+1}(\xi_{ij})}{N+1!} x^{N+1}$$

- Now f_{ij}^{N+1} is the $(i, j)^{th}$ entry of $f^{N+1}(Ax)$ and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} e_{ij}(x) &\leq \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} \frac{f_{ij}^{N+1}}{(N+1)!} \\ &\leq \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} \frac{\|A^{N+1} f^{N+1}(Ax)\|_2}{(N+1)!} \end{aligned}$$

since $\|E(x)\|_2 \leq n \max_{i,j} e_{ij}(x)$ we have

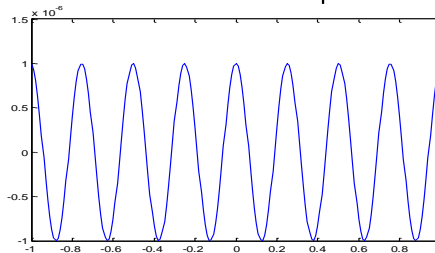
$$\left\| f(A) - \sum_{k=0}^N b_k A^k \right\| \leq \frac{n}{(N+1)!} \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} \|A^{N+1} f^{N+1}(Ax)\|_2$$



Chebyshev Polynomials

□ General series \rightarrow Chebyshev:

- Let $\{\Phi_k\}$ be a complete set of polynomials on $|a| \leq 1$
 $\Phi_k \sim k^{\text{th}}$ order polynomial
- Then, if $f(a) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k \Phi_k(a)$, suggest using $\hat{f}(a) = \sum_{k=0}^N b_k \Phi_k(a)$
- So error in $\hat{f}(a) \sim b_{N+1} \Phi_{N+1}(a) \approx |f(a) - \hat{f}(a)|$, an $(N+1)^{\text{th}}$ order polynomial



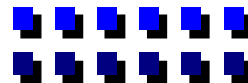
Want zero error at as many points as possible in $(-1, 1) = N+1$. Also want uniform error.

- The Chebyshev polynomials have this property:

$$T_k(a) \leftrightarrow \Phi_k(a), T_k(a) = \cos(k \cos^{-1} a); |a| \leq 1$$

$$\text{or if } \theta = \cos^{-1} a \text{ or } \cos \theta = a \rightarrow T_k(\cos \theta) = \cos(k\theta)$$

- Essentially we have made a change of variable $a = \cos \theta$

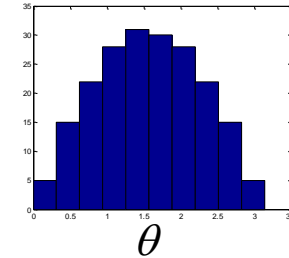
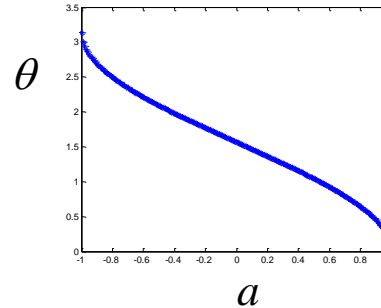




Chebyshev Polynomials - 2

- Chebyshev functions convert periodic functions into ordinary polynomials

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 1, & \cos \theta, & \cos 2\theta, & \cos 3\theta, \text{ etc.} \\
 \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
 & a, & 2a^2 - 1, & 4a^3 - 3a, \text{ etc.} \\
 \downarrow & \swarrow & \searrow & \swarrow \\
 T_0(a), & T_1(a), & T_2(a), & T_3(a)
 \end{array}$$



uniform $a \rightarrow \theta$ denser near the middle

Three-term recursion

$$T_{k+1}(a) = 2aT_k(a) - T_{k-1}(a)$$

$$\cos(k+1)\theta = \cos k\theta \cos \theta - \sin k\theta \sin \theta$$

$$\cos(k-1)\theta = \cos k\theta \cos \theta + \sin k\theta \sin \theta \Rightarrow$$

$$\cos(k+1)\theta = 2\cos \theta \cos k\theta - \cos(k-1)\theta$$

$$\cos 2\theta = 2\cos^2 \theta - 1 \Rightarrow$$

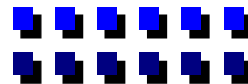
$$T_2(a) = 2a^2 - 1$$

$$\cos 3\theta = 4\cos^3 \theta - 3\cos \theta \Rightarrow$$

$$T_3(a) = 4a^3 - 3a$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cos 4\theta &= 2\cos 3\theta \cos \theta - 2\cos \theta \\
 &= 8\cos^4 \theta - 8\cos^2 \theta + 1 \Rightarrow
 \end{aligned}$$

$$T_4(a) = 8a^4 - 8a^2 + 1$$



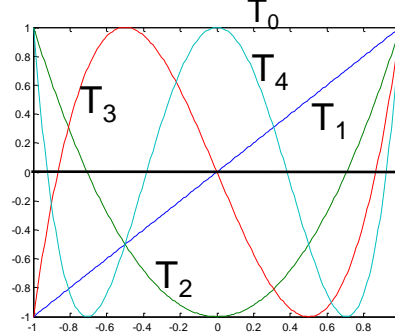


Properties of Chebyshev Polynomials

□ Nice properties of Chebyshev polynomials

- The leading coefficient 2^{k-1} for $k \geq 1$ and 1 for $k = 0$.
- Symmetry $T_k(-a) = (-1)^k T_k(a)$

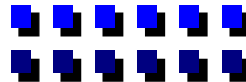
even \rightarrow even; odd \rightarrow odd



- Has k zeros in $(-1, 1)$ at $a_i = \cos\left(\frac{2i-1}{2k} \cdot \pi\right) = \cos\left[\left(i - \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{k}\right]$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$
- Has $(k+1)$ extrema (maxima and minima) at

$$a_i = \cos\left(\frac{i}{k} \cdot \pi\right), \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, k$$

$$T_k\left(\cos \frac{\pi i}{k}\right) = \cos \pi i = \begin{cases} 1 & i \text{ even} \\ -1 & i \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$





Properties of Chebyshev Polynomials

- Example: for $T_2(\cos \theta) = \cos 2\theta$ maximum at $\cos(i.\pi/2)$, $i=0,2 \Rightarrow T_2(a) = +1$
minimum at $\cos(i.\pi/2)$, $i=1 \Rightarrow T_2(a) = -1$
- Chebyshev polynomials are orthogonal in the interval $[-1,1]$ over a weight $1/\sqrt{1-a^2}$

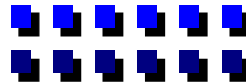
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{T_k(a)T_l(a)}{\sqrt{1-a^2}} da &= -\frac{2}{\pi} \int_{\pi}^0 \cos k\theta \cos l\theta d\theta = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \cos k\theta \cos l\theta d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} [\cos\{(k+l)\theta\} + \cos\{(k-l)\theta\}] d\theta = \begin{cases} 0 & k \neq l \\ 1 & k = l, k \geq 1 \\ 2 & k = l = 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow so, to find b_k , multiply $f(a)$ by $\frac{2}{\pi} \frac{T_k(a)}{\sqrt{1-a^2}}$ and integrate over $a \in (-1, 1)$

- Best to write $f(a) = \frac{b_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^N b_k T_k(a) = \sum_{k=0}^N b_k T_k(a) - \frac{b_0}{2}$

$$\Rightarrow b_k = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{f(a)T_k(a)}{\sqrt{1-a^2}} da = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f(\cos \theta) \cos k\theta d\theta \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

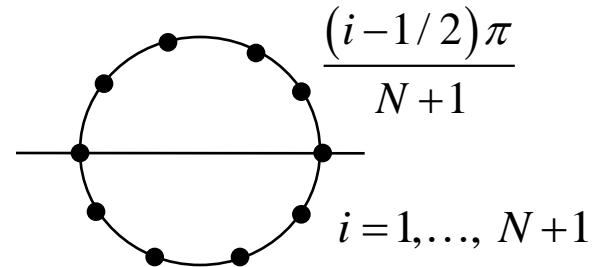
$\Rightarrow b_k$ can be obtained from the cosine transform of the function $k = 0, 1,$



Chebyshev Coefficients

- If we terminate at N (N^{th} order polynomial)

$$e_N(a) \sim c_{N+1} T_{N+1}(a) \leq \frac{1}{2^N} \cdot \frac{\max_{0 \leq \xi \leq a} |f^{N+1}(\xi)|}{(N+1)!}$$



or $\frac{1}{2^N}$ improvement over max. Taylor series error over interval $[-1, 1]$ or same accuracy for lot less N .

- A practical method of computing b_k is to use discrete approximation at the zeros of $T_{N+1}(a)$,

$$\text{i.e., at } a_i = \cos \frac{\pi(i-1/2)}{N+1}, \quad i=1, 2, \dots, (N+1)$$

- So,
$$b_k = \frac{2}{N+1} \sum_{k=1}^N f \left(\cos \frac{\pi(i-1/2)}{N+1} \right) \cos \left[\frac{\pi(i-1/2) \cdot k}{N+1} \right]$$

\Rightarrow function approximation is exact at all $(N+1)$ zeros of $T_{N+1}(x)$

Why Chebyshev?

□ Why Chebyshev is Good?

- T_k is bounded between -1 and +1 $\Rightarrow \left| f(a) - \sum_{k=0}^N b_k T_k(a) + \frac{b_0}{2} \right| \leq \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |b_k|$
- b_k^s decreases rapidly \Rightarrow error is dominated by $b_{N+1} T_{N+1}(a)$, an oscillatory term with $(N+1)$ zeros and $(N+2)$ equal extrema distributed smoothly over $[-1, 1] \Rightarrow$ error spreads out evenly
- Indeed Chebyshev is a close approximation to a minimax polynomial (of a specified degree) that optimizes $\min_{\hat{f}} \max_{|a| \leq 1} |f(a) - \hat{f}(a)|$

□ Application to $e^{\alpha a} = f(a) \quad |a| \leq 1$: an alternate method to obtain b_k

$$b_k = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} e^{\alpha \cos \theta} \cos k\theta d\theta = 2I_k(\alpha) = \text{modified Bessel function of the first kind}$$

$$I_k(\alpha) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)^{k+2r} \frac{1}{r!k+r!} \quad \text{can be precomputed or use tables or recursions, etc.}$$

$$\text{for } e^a, \alpha = 1 \Rightarrow e^a = I_0(1) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2I_k(1)T_k(a)$$

$$\alpha = 2 \Rightarrow e^{2a} = I_0(2) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2I_k(2)T_k(a), \quad I_k(2) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r!k+r!}$$

Chebyshev and e^{At}

□ Computing considerations:

- Pick $N \ni \frac{1}{2^N (N+1)!}$ sufficiently low ($\approx 1/10$ of round-off error)
- Note for $2x$ it is $1/(N+1)!$
- $e^x \rightarrow N=9 \Rightarrow 1/(512.3.6.10^5) = 5 \times 10^{-9}$
- $e^{2x} \rightarrow N=12$ for same accuracy
- Then, evaluate $\hat{f}(a) = \frac{b_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^N b_k T_k(a)$

□ Evaluation of the function in one of two ways:

- Write out $T_k(a)$ as a k^{th} order polynomial in a and evaluate $\hat{f}(a) = \sum d_k a^k$, $d_k \cong$ Taylor coefficients but not exact
 \Rightarrow bad way: since Chebyshev exhibits cancellation of terms!!
- Better way: **CLENSHAW RECURSION**

$$\hat{f}(a) = \frac{b_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^N b_k T_k(a) = \frac{c_0(a) - c_2(a)}{2} = \frac{b_0}{2} + ac_1(a) - c_2(a)$$

where $c_k(a) = b_k + 2ac_{k+1}(a) - c_{k+2}(a)$, $k = N-1, N-2, \dots, 0$; $c_{N+1} = 0$, $c_N = b_N$



Clenshaw Recursion

- Proof of Clenshaw recursion:

$$\hat{f}(a) = \frac{b_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^N b_k T_k(a); \text{ s.t. } T_k(a) = 2aT_{k-1}(a) - T_{k-2}(a)$$

Append with Lagrange multipliers c_k

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \hat{f}(a) &= \frac{b_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^N b_k T_k(a) - \sum_{k=0}^N c_k [T_k(a) - 2aT_{k-1}(a) + T_{k-2}(a)] \\ &= -\frac{b_0}{2} + \sum_{k=0}^N (b_k - c_k) T_k(a) + \sum_{l=-1}^{N-1} 2ac_{l+1} T_l(a) - \sum_{l=-2}^{N-2} c_{l+2} T_l(a) \\ &= -\frac{b_0}{2} + (b_N - c_N) T_N(a) + (b_{N-1} - c_{N-1} + 2ac_N) T_{N-1}(a) \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=0}^{N-2} (b_k - c_k + 2ac_{k+1} - c_{k+2}) T_k(a) + 2a^2 c_0 - c_0(2a^2 - 1) - c_1 a \end{aligned}$$

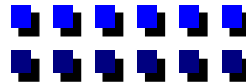
$$\begin{aligned} k=1: T_1(a) &= 2aT_0(a) - T_{-1}(a) \\ \Rightarrow a &= 2a - T_{-1}(a) \Rightarrow T_{-1}(a) = a \\ k=0: T_0(a) &= 2aT_{-1}(a) - T_{-2}(a) \\ \Rightarrow T_{-2}(a) &= 2a^2 - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Note: use Chebyshev recursion to get $T_{-1}(a)$ and $T_{-2}(a)$.

Selecting the multiplier sequence as: $c_k = b_k + 2ac_{k+1} - c_{k+2}$; $c_{N+1} = 0$, $c_N = b_N$;

we obtain
$$\hat{f}(a) = -\frac{b_0}{2} + c_0 - c_1 a = \frac{c_0 - c_2}{2}$$

since we are computing terms backwards, recursion is stable



Practicalities - 1

- Suppose want $f(a)$ for $x_1 \leq a \leq x_2$

$$\Rightarrow \text{define } y = \frac{a - (x_1 + x_2)/2}{(x_2 - x_1)} \Rightarrow |y| \leq 0.5 \Rightarrow e^a = e^{y(x_2 - x_1)} e^{(x_1 + x_2)/2}$$

- Computing e^{At}

- Have $e^a = \sum_{k=0}^N b_k T_k(a) - \frac{b_0}{2}$ with error $\frac{1}{2^N (N+1)!}$ valid in the region $|a| \leq 1$

- Similarly $e^{At} = \sum_{k=0}^N b_k T_k(At) - \frac{b_0}{2}$. need $|\lambda_i(At)| \leq 1 \forall i$ or $\rho(At) \leq 1$ *spectral radius*

- Three step process for computing e^{At}

- Make Eigen values cluster around zero $A \rightarrow \tilde{A}$ (SHIFTING)
- Make $\rho(\tilde{A}t) \leq 1$ (0.2 – 0.5) through scaling (SCALING)
- Use doubling concept (DOUBLING)

- SHIFTING

$$\text{Let } \beta = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(A) \text{ and } \tilde{A} = A - \beta I; \quad |\gamma I - \tilde{A}| = |(\gamma + \beta)I - A| = |\lambda I - A| = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_i = \lambda_i - \beta \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i - n\beta = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Eigen values clustered around zero.}$$

Note: $e^{At} = e^{\tilde{A}t} \cdot e^{\beta t}$, where $e^{\beta t}$ is a scalar

Practicalities - 2

□ SCALING

Find $\delta = \frac{t}{2^m} \ni \|\tilde{A}\delta\| \leq 0.2 \text{ to } 0.5 \Rightarrow \rho(\tilde{A}\delta) \in [0.2 \ 0.5]$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|\tilde{A}t\|}{2^m} \leq c \Rightarrow m \geq \left\lceil \log_2 \frac{\|\tilde{A}t\|}{c} \right\rceil$$

Compute $e^{\tilde{A}\delta}$ via Chebyshev $\Rightarrow e^{\tilde{A}\delta} = \frac{C_0(\tilde{A}\delta) - C_2(\tilde{A}\delta)}{2}$

where $C_k(\tilde{A}\delta) = b_k I + 2\tilde{A}\delta C_{k+1}(\tilde{A}\delta) - C_{k+2}(\tilde{A}\delta)$, $C_N = b_N I$, $C_{N+1} = 0$

□ DOUBLING

$$Y = e^{\tilde{A}\delta}$$

Do $i = 1, m$

$$Y = Y * Y$$

End Do

$$e^{\tilde{A}\delta} \rightarrow e^{2\tilde{A}\delta} \rightarrow e^{4\tilde{A}\delta} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow e^{2^m \tilde{A}\delta} = e^{\tilde{A}t}$$

□ PUT THE SHIFT BACK

Finally, $e^{At} = e^{\tilde{A}t} \cdot e^{\beta t}$

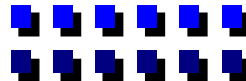


Pade Approximation - 1

□ Rational Function Approximation to e^a : Pade Approximation

- Pade approximation $\hat{f}(a) = \frac{n_0 + n_1 a + n_2 a^2 + \dots + n_m a^m}{1 + d_1 a + d_2 a^2 + \dots + d_n a^n} = R(m, n)$
- Idea is to pick (n_i, d_i) such that \hat{f} agrees with the Taylor series to maximum number of terms ($2m$ in general): $b_0 + b_1 a + b_2 a^2 + \dots + b_{2m} a^{2m}$
- Error would be $\frac{a^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!} f^{(2m+1)}(\tau)$ where $0 \leq \tau \leq a$
- Pade is like Taylor series, but generally somewhat better, but not as good as Chebyshev (MATLAB uses Pade)

$$\text{Application to } e^x = \begin{cases} n_0 = 1 \\ n_i = \frac{m!(2m-i)!}{i!(m-i)!2m!} = \binom{m}{i} \frac{(2m-i)!}{2m!} \\ d_i = (-1)^i n_i \end{cases}$$





Pade Approximation - 2

e.g., $m=1 \Rightarrow \frac{1+a/2}{1-a/2}$; $m=2 \Rightarrow \frac{1+a/2+a^2/12}{1-a/2+a^2/12}$ as good as or better than 4th order Taylor series i.e., error in a^5

$$\left(1 + \frac{a}{2}\right) \left(1 + \frac{a}{2} + \frac{a^2}{4} + \frac{a^3}{8} + \dots\right) = 1 + a + \frac{a^2}{2} + \frac{a^3}{4} \quad \text{need } \frac{a^3}{6} \Rightarrow \text{error } \frac{a^3}{12}$$

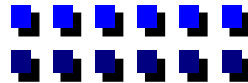
- For matrix computation $(I + n_1A + n_2A^2 + \dots)(I + d_1A + d_2A^2 + \dots + \dots)^{-1} = N_m(A)[D_m(A)]^{-1}$
- Total computation $2(m-1)$ multiplications +1 inverse $\Rightarrow (2m-1)$ same as $2m^{\text{th}}$ order Taylor.
- Of course, can use modified Horner's rule to reduce computations

□ We can exploit the similarity of numerator and denominator

- Compute $C = I + n_2A^2 + n_4A^4 + \dots = \sum \text{even powers}$
 $D = A[n_1I + n_3A^2 + \dots] = \sum \text{odd powers}$
 $N_m(A) = C + D, \quad D_m(A) = C - D$
- Requires m multipliers and solution of $A\underline{x}_i = \underline{b}_i$ (n of them)

then $(C - D)\hat{f}(A) = (C + D)$

$$(C - D)(\underline{\hat{f}}_1 \underline{\hat{f}}_2 \dots \underline{\hat{f}}_n) = (\underline{c}_1 + \underline{d}_1 \quad \underline{c}_2 + \underline{d}_2 \quad \dots \quad \underline{c}_n + \underline{d}_n)$$



Pade Approximation - 3

□ Algorithm:

1. Compute $\beta = \text{tr}(A) / n$; $\tilde{A} = A - \beta I$
2. Find $\delta = t / 2^M$ such that $\|\tilde{A}\| \delta \leq 0.5 (\approx 0.2)$
3. Compute $Y = e^{\tilde{A}\delta}$ via PADE
4. Use Doubling
Do $i = 1, M$
 $Y \leftarrow Y * Y$
End Do
5. $e^{At} = e^{\beta t} \cdot Y$

□ Use 4th order PADE for error $\approx 10^{-9}$

$$\text{Relative error} = \frac{\|e^A - Y\|_{\infty}}{\|e^A\|_{\infty}} \leq \|\tilde{A}\| e^{\|\tilde{A}\|} \text{ where } \epsilon = \frac{2^{3-2m} \cdot (m!)^2}{2m!(2m+1)!}$$

□ *Research Problem: Combine PADE and CHEBYSHEV*

$$\hat{f}(A) = \left[\sum_{i=0}^m n_i T_i(A) \right] \left[\sum_{i=0}^m d_i T_i(A) \right]^{-1} \text{ expect } d_i = (-1)^i n_i$$



Upper Schur Matrix Approach

- Transform A Matrix into Upper Schur Form (Lectures 10, 13 and 14)

$$R = Q^T A Q; Q = \text{Orthogonal} \Rightarrow A = Q R Q^T \Rightarrow e^{At} = Q e^{Rt} Q^T = Q G Q^T; G = e^{Rt}$$

$$R = \text{Block upper triangular matrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & \dots & R_{1p} \\ & R_{22} & \dots & R_{2p} \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & R_{pp} \end{bmatrix} \quad G = e^{Rt} \text{ is easy to compute}$$

where R_{ij} is 2x2 or 1 x 1

- G is relatively easy to compute

$$g_{ii} = e^{r_{ii}t}; i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

For $k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ Do

For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-k$ DO

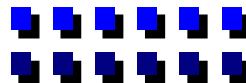
Set $j = i+k$

$$g_{ij} = \frac{1}{(r_{ii} - r_{jj})} [r_{ij} (g_{ii} - g_{jj}) + \sum_{p=i+1}^{j-1} (g_{ip} r_{pj} - r_{ip} g_{pj})]$$

End

End

**Problem when
Eigen values are
Close to each other**





e^{At} for Stochastic Matrices

□ Special case: $A=Q$ a stochastic matrix

- $Q=[q_{ij}]$ is a transition rate matrix (infinitesimal generator matrix) of the continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC)

Important property of Q : $q_{ii} = -\sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N q_{ij} \Rightarrow$ each row of Q sums to zero.

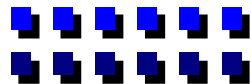
- Moreover, we are primarily interested in solving:

$$\dot{\underline{p}} = Q^T \underline{p}; \quad \underline{p}(0) = \underline{p}_0 \Rightarrow \underline{p}(t) = e^{Q^T t} \underline{p}_0$$

- One popular method is called “Uniformization.”

□ What is Uniformization?

- Let $q \geq \max | -q_{ii} |$
- Then, can construct an equivalent process for which the transition rate from each state i is q and a fraction $(1+q_{ii}/q)$ of these transitions return immediately to state i .
- Basically, this amounts to constructing a discrete-time Markov chain (DTMC) by scaling Q by $(1/q)$ and shifting the diagonals of the scaled matrix by 1, i.e., define $Q^* = Q/q + I \Rightarrow Q = q(Q^* - I)$



Uniformization

- The process of obtaining a DTMC from a CTMC as above is called *uniformization* (= special scaling & shifting)

- Clearly,
$$e^{Qt} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-qt} \frac{(qt)^n}{n!} [Q^*]^n$$

$$\text{then, } \underline{p}(t) = \sum_{n=0}^N e^{-qt} \frac{(qt)^n}{n!} \underline{\pi}_n \quad \text{where } \underline{\pi}_n = [Q^*]^T \underline{\pi}_{n-1} \quad \text{with } \underline{\pi}_0 = \underline{p}_0$$

This can be evaluated with matrix-vector operations only.

- For a specified accuracy ε , the number of terms N to be retained is computed from:

$$\varepsilon = \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} e^{-qt} \frac{(qt)^n}{n!} = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^N e^{-qt} \frac{(qt)^n}{n!}$$

- Although, this is basically Taylor series, it works for this case because of the special structure of Q .

□ Other methods for solving Markov chain models: ODE solvers.

Dubious Methods - 1

□ Bad (Dubious) Methods:

- Do not use exact formulae or Eigen value-based methods (unless by hand). May be OK if $A=A^T$
- Caley-Hamilton Theorem

$$A^n + \alpha_n A^{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_2 A + \alpha_1 I = 0 \Rightarrow A^k = -\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \beta_{ik} A^i$$

$$e^{At} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^k \cdot A^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^k}{k!} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \beta_{ik} A^i = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \beta_{ik} \frac{t^k}{k!} \right) A^i = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \gamma_i(t) \cdot A^i$$

- Lagrange interpolation (SYLVESTER'S THEOREM)

$$e^{At} = \sum_{i=1}^n e^{\lambda_i t} \prod_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \neq i}}^n \frac{(A - \lambda_k I)}{(\lambda_i - \lambda_k)}$$

$$\text{Alternate: } e^{At} = \sum_{i=1}^n e^{\lambda_i t} \underline{\xi}_i \underline{\eta}_i^T$$

Dubious Methods - 2

- Inverse Laplace Transform: *Leverrier and Faddeva* or *Sourian and Frame* Algorithm

$$(sI - A)^{-1} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{s^{k-1}}{d(s)} B_k$$

$$d(s) = |sI - A| = s^n + \alpha_n s^{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_2 s + \alpha_1 = 0$$

$$B_n = I \quad \rightarrow \quad \alpha_n = -\text{tr}(AB_n) / 1$$

$$B_{n-1} = AB_n + \alpha_n I \quad \rightarrow \quad \alpha_{n-1} = -\text{tr}(AB_{n-1}) / 2$$

$$B_{n-2} = AB_{n-1} + \alpha_{n-1} I \quad \rightarrow \quad \alpha_{n-2} = -\text{tr}(AB_{n-2}) / 3$$

$$B_1 = AB_2 + \alpha_2 I \quad \rightarrow \quad \alpha_1 = -\text{tr}(AB_1) / n$$

$$\text{Check: } AB_1 + \alpha_1 I = 0; \quad A^{-1} = -\frac{B_1}{\alpha_1}; \quad \det(A) = (-1)^n \alpha_1; \quad e^{At} = L^{-1} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{s^{k-1}}{d(s)} B_k \right\}$$

- Slick Test cases for e^{At} subroutines

Suppose A is an idempotent matrix, $A^2=A$

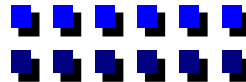
$$\text{Then, } e^{At} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{A^k t^k}{k!} = I + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{At^k}{k!} = I + A(e^t - 1)$$



How to Test e^{At} Software?

- How to construct idempotent matrices
 - Consider any $m \times n$ matrix C and its pseudo inverse C^\dagger . Then $(I_n - C^\dagger C)$ and $(I_m - C C^\dagger)$ are idempotent.
- Tests on the accuracy of computed e^{At}
 - 1) Known e^{At} as in idempotent case
 - 2) $e^{At} \cdot e^{-At} = I_n$ or $\|e^{At} \cdot e^{-At} - I_n\|$
 - 3) $|e^{At}| = |P e^{\Lambda t} P^{-1}| = |P| |e^{\Lambda t}| |P^{-1}| = e^{\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i t} = e^{\text{tr}(At)}$
- Test Examples:
 - 1) Idempotent matrices (e.g., Kerr, 1990)
 - 2) Bad problem for Taylor series (Moler and Van Loan, SIAM Review, 1978) (assume $t=1$)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -49 & 24 \\ -64 & 31 \end{bmatrix}$$



Test Examples

3) Other test cases from Moler and Van Loan

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\epsilon & 1 \\ 0 & 1+\epsilon \end{bmatrix}, \quad \epsilon = 10^{-5}, 10^{-6}, 10^{-7}$$

4) Some other test cases

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -0.5 & -1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}; \quad A = n \text{ by } n \text{ controllability matrix with zero } n^{\text{th}} \text{ row}$$

5) Terrestrial Navigation example

- Consider the local-level terrestrial navigator (Britting, K.S., 1971, “Inertial Navigation Systems Analysis,” New York, John Wiley) which has no vertical accelerometer.
- This type of system consists of a three-axis inertial platform and two accelerometers mounted orthogonally in the east and north directions

Test Examples

- The error equations for this class of system can be written as follows:

$$\dot{\underline{x}} = A\underline{x} + \underline{b}u$$

where $\underline{x}^T = [\epsilon_N, \epsilon_E, \epsilon_D, dL, dl, d\dot{L}, d\dot{l}]$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -W_{ie} \sin L & 0 & -W_{ie} \sin L & 0 & 0 & \cos L \\ -W_{ie} \sin L & 0 & -W_{ie} \sin L & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -W_{ie} \cos L & 0 & -W_{ie} \cos L & 0 & 0 & -\sin L \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & W_s^2 & W_s^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -W_s \sec L & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\underline{b}u = [q_1, q_2, q_3, 0, 0, q_{4/r}, q_{5/r} \cos L]^T$

- The transition matrix for the above system must be evaluated for the following parameters.

$$W_{ie} = \frac{15\pi}{180^\circ} \text{ rad/h}, \quad L = 45^\circ, \quad W_s = \sqrt{20.1} \text{ rad/h}$$



Summary

- What is the need for computing e^{At} ?
- Evaluation of matrix polynomials (**Horner's rule**)
- Truncation errors
- Chebyshev approximation
 - Properties
 - **Clenshaw recursion**
 - Concepts of **shifting**, **scaling**, and **doubling**
- Pade approximation
- Upper Schur transformation-based approach
- Special case: A is a stochastic matrix (*a la* Markov chains)
- How **not** to compute e^{At} ?