

#### **Term Project Presentation**

A Comparison of Algorithms Related to Trace Minimization to Compute a Small Number of Eigenvalues of a Real Symmetric Matrix

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# Outline

- Tasks
- Trace Theorem and a Proof
- Trace Minimization Method
- Trace Minimization Method as a Quasi-Newton Method
- Jacobi-Davidson / Newton with Subspace Acceleration
- Davidson-Type Trace Minimization Method
- Conclusion

# Tasks

- 1. Detailed formulation of the problem, including proof of the trace theorem
- 2. Formulation of the trace minimization method as a Newton method
- 3. Derive TraceMin and Jacobi-Davidson algorithms and compare them

#### **Problem Description**

Compute a few of the smalles eigenvalues or eigenvectors of the large, sparse, generalized eigenvalue problem

$$Ax = \lambda Bx \quad , \tag{1}$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and A, B are  $n \times n$  symmetric matrices, with B being positive-definite.

• The matrix  $A - \lambda B$  is called a matrix *pencil* 

## Theorem 1 [5]

Let A and B be symmetric  $n \times n$  matrices. If B is positive-definite then there is an  $n \times n$  matrix Z for which

$$Z^T B Z = I_n$$
 and  $Z^T A Z = \Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ , (2)

where  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of the pencil (A, B) from problem (1) and the columns of Z are their associated eigenvectors. Furthermore, if A is positive-definite, then all of the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  are positive.

#### Theorem 2: The Trace Theorem [8]

Let A and B be given as in Theorem 1 and  $\mathcal{Y}^*$  be the set of all  $n \times p$ matrices Y for which  $Y^T B Y = I_p$ . Then

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{Y}\in\mathcal{Y}^*} \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y}) = \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i.$$
(3)

In other words,

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{Y}\in\mathcal{Y}^*} \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y}) = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{X})$$
(4)

with

$$\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{I}_p \text{ and } \boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{X} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p),$$
 (5)

where X corresponds to the first p columns of the matrix Z of Theorem 1.

## Proof of the Trace Theorem (1/6)

Theorem 3 (Poincaré Separation Theorem [4, 6])

Let A be a real symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \ldots \leq \lambda_n$ , and let G be a semi-unitary  $n \times k$  matrix  $(1 \leq k \leq n)$ , so that  $G^T G = I_k$ . Then the eigenvalues  $\mu_1 \leq \mu_2 \leq \ldots \leq \mu_k$  of  $G^T A G$  satisfy

$$\lambda_i \le \mu_i \le \lambda_{n-k+i} \qquad (i = 1, 2, \dots, k).$$
(6)

#### Proof of the Trace Theorem (2/6)

Let A and B given as in Theorem 1, i.e.,  $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the matrix for which  $Z^T B Z = I_n$  and  $Z^T A Z = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ , where  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of the pencil (A, B).

Let  $Y \in \mathcal{Y}^*$  and set Y = ZG for some  $G \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ .  $Y^T B Y = I_p \implies G$  is unitary and

$$\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{G}^T \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{G} \,. \tag{7}$$

## Proof of the Trace Theorem (3/6)

From Theorem 3, for the eigenvalues  $\mu_i$  of  $G^T \Lambda G$  it follows that  $\lambda_i \leq \mu_i$  for i = 1, ..., p and thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i \le \sum_{i=1}^{p} \mu_i \,. \tag{8}$$

#### Proof of the Trace Theorem (4/6)

 $G^T \Lambda G$  is symmetric  $\implies$  there exists a spectral decomposition [10, Theorem 4.33] of the form

$$\boldsymbol{Q}^{T}(\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{G})\,\boldsymbol{Q} = \operatorname{diag}(\mu_{1},\mu_{2},\ldots,\mu_{p})\,,\tag{9}$$

where Q is a unitary matrix with columns  $q_i$  being the eigenvectors of  $G^T \Lambda G$ .

## Proof of the Trace Theorem (5/6)

Consider the trace of the spectral decomposition in Eq. (9):

$$\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Q}^{T}(\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{G})\boldsymbol{Q}) = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{Q}^{T}(\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{G})) = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{G}^{T}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{G}) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \mu_{i}.$$
 (10)

From Eqs. (7), (8) and (10) it follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i \le \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y}).$$
(11)

## Proof of the Trace Theorem (6/6)

By the the spectral decomposition [10, Theorem 4.33] equality holds if  $Y = Z_p = [z_1, ..., z_p]$ , where the columns  $z_i$  are the eigenvectors of the pencil (A, B).

 $\boldsymbol{Z}_p$  hence diagonalizes the matrix  $\boldsymbol{A}$  from problem (1) and thus leads to

$$\boldsymbol{Z}_p^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Z}_p = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_p).$$

Trace Minimization (TRACEMIN): Use trace theorem (Theorem 2) and treat problem (1) as the quadratic minimization problem

minimize 
$$\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y})$$
  
subject to  $\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{I}_p$ . (12)

Idea is to compute a correction term  $\mathbf{\Delta}_k$  that is chosen as to

minimize 
$$\operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}_k - \boldsymbol{\Delta}_k)^T \boldsymbol{A} (\boldsymbol{Y}_k - \boldsymbol{\Delta}_k))$$
  
subject to  $\boldsymbol{Y}_k^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{\Delta}_k = \boldsymbol{0}$ . (13)

Next iterate  $Y_{k+1}$  is formed by *B*-orthonormalizing  $Y_k - \Delta_k$ . By also enforcing  $Y_k^T B \Delta_k = 0$  in the minimization problem (13) it guarantees that

$$\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k+1}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y}_{k+1}) \leq \operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}_k - \boldsymbol{\Delta}_k)^T \boldsymbol{A}(\boldsymbol{Y}_k - \boldsymbol{\Delta}_k)) \leq \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{Y}_k^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y}_k).$$
(14)

Solution of the minimization problem (13) can be obtained by solving the saddle-point problem

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}_k \\ \mathbf{Y}_k^T \mathbf{B} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Delta_k \\ \mathbf{L}_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Y}_k \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(15)

where  $L_k$  represents the Lagrange multipliers

The saddle-point problem is further reduced to the following positivesemidefinite system

$$(\boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{P})\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} = \boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}, \qquad \boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} = \boldsymbol{0}$$
 (16)

where

$$\boldsymbol{P} = \boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_k (\boldsymbol{Y}_k^T \boldsymbol{B}^2 \boldsymbol{Y}_k)^{-1} \boldsymbol{Y}_k^T \boldsymbol{B}$$
(17)

is the orthogonal projector onto the space *B*-orthogonal to  $Y_k$ , which guarantees that  $Y_k^T B \Delta_k = 0$ .

If the projected system in Eq. (16) is solved exactly at each iteration step, TRACEMIN is mathematically equiv. to inverse iteration.

- Inherits robust global convergence property
- Also inherits linear convergence rate
  - TRACEMIN can be accelerated by using shifting strategies

Newton's method: Solve

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{0}. \tag{18}$$

Newton step: Use  $F(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{grad} f(\mathbf{x})$ , then:

$$\boldsymbol{p}_k = -\operatorname{Hess}_f(\boldsymbol{x}_k)^{-1} \operatorname{grad} f(\boldsymbol{x}_k).$$
 (19)

Quasi-Newton step:

$$\boldsymbol{p}_k = -\boldsymbol{B}_k^{-1} \operatorname{grad} f(\boldsymbol{x}_k),$$
 (20)

with  $B_k$  being an approximation of the true Hessian  $\operatorname{Hess}_f(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ .

TRACEMIN's objective function is given by

$$f: \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}_* \to \mathbb{R}: \boldsymbol{Y} \mapsto \operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{Y})^{-1}(\boldsymbol{Y}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{Y})), \quad (21)$$

where  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times p}_{*}$  denotes the set of full-rank  $n \times p$  matrices.

A second-order expansion of f around  $\Delta_k = 0$  gives:

$$f(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k} + \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}) = \operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})) + \operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}^{T}2\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}) + \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}^{T}2(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}) - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})) + H.O.T.$$

$$(22)$$

Introduce  $P = I - BY_k (Y_k^T B^2 Y_k)^{-1} Y_k^T B$  as the orthogonal projector onto the space *B*-orthogonal to  $Y_k$ 

Further, introduce the inner product [1, 3]

$$\langle \boldsymbol{Z}_1, \boldsymbol{Z}_2 \rangle := \operatorname{tr}((\boldsymbol{Y}_k^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{Y}_k)^{-1} \boldsymbol{Z}_1^T \boldsymbol{Z}_2), \quad \boldsymbol{Z}_1, \boldsymbol{Z}_2 \text{ B-orthogonal to } \boldsymbol{Y}_k.$$
(23)

Now rewrite second-order expansion as

$$f(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k} + \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}) = f(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}) + \langle \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}, 2\boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}, 2\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} \quad (24) - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}) \rangle + H.O.T.$$

Identify 2PAY to be the gradient of f at  $\Delta_k = 0$  and the operator

$$\operatorname{Hess}_{f}: \boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} \mapsto 2\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})$$
(25)

to be the Hessian of f at  $\mathbf{\Delta}_k = \mathbf{0}$  [1, 3]

Newton correction equation now becomes

$$\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}-\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k}(\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})^{-1}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}_{k})=-\boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}.$$
 (26)

Substitute the Hessian of f with the approximate Hessian 2PAP and the correction equation becomes

$$(\boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{P})\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} = -\boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{Y}, \quad \boldsymbol{Y}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{k} = \boldsymbol{0},$$
 (27)

which is the same as Eq. (16) solved in the TRACEMIN method [3, 4.3.2].

Important to mention: further calculations needed to capture TRACEMIN's global convergence theory; see [3, § 4.3.2] for further details.

Nonetheless, TRACEMIN can be described as inexact, quasi-Newton method.

- Method yields linear (instead of quadratic) convergence rate due to the usage of approx. Hessian
- Authors of TRACEMIN knew this result due to relationship between TRACEMIN and inverse iteration

In [1], the authors present a two-phase algorithm using a Riemannian trust-region algorithm:

- 1. Use basic TRACEMIN far away from solution, i.e. use approximate Hessian
- 2. When a switching criterion is satisfied (i.e. algorithm is close to solution), continue calculations with exact Hessian

**Result**: superlinear convergence.

## Jacobi-Davidson [9, 2]

The Jacobi-Davidson (JD) method calculates the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the pencil (A, B) by constructing a correction, for a given eigenvector approximation, in a subspace orthogonal to the given approximation.

Name follows from two basic principles:

- 1. Jacobi's idea: compute orthogonal corrections
- 2. Davidson approach: Computation of the correction in a given subspace different from Krylov subspaces

#### Jacobi-Davidson: Newton with Subspace Acceleration [9, 2]

Derive a Newton update from the generalized Rayleigh quotient

$$\rho(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x}}{\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{x}}, \quad \forall \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\boldsymbol{0}\}.$$
(28)

The Newton equation  $\operatorname{Hess}_{\rho}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)\boldsymbol{t}_k = -\operatorname{grad}\rho(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$  becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{I} - \frac{2}{\boldsymbol{x}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}^{T} \end{pmatrix} (\boldsymbol{A} - \rho(\boldsymbol{x}_{k})\boldsymbol{B}) \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{I} - \frac{2}{\boldsymbol{x}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}^{T}\boldsymbol{B} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= -(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}_{k} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}_{k}\rho(\boldsymbol{x}_{k})).$$

$$(29)$$

**Problem:** Hessian is always singular when x is an eigenvector, because then  $\operatorname{Hess}_{\rho}(x)x = -F(x) = 0$  [2]

#### Jacobi-Davidson: Newton with Subspace Acceleration [9, 2]

Apply the Newton method instead to

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}, \lambda) := \begin{pmatrix} (\boldsymbol{A} - \lambda \boldsymbol{B})\boldsymbol{x} \\ \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{x} - 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (30)

New Newton step:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{A} - \lambda_k \boldsymbol{B} & \boldsymbol{B} \boldsymbol{x}_k \\ \boldsymbol{x}_k^T \boldsymbol{B} & \boldsymbol{0} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{t}_k \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\boldsymbol{r}_k \\ \boldsymbol{0} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (31)$$

Note: Is only singular if  $(x_k, \lambda_k)$  is an eigenpair of the pencil (A, B) with  $\lambda_k$  being a multiple eigenvalue [2]

## Jacobi-Davidson: Newton with Subspace Acceleration [9, 2]

Davidson's approach: consecutive corrections  $t_k$  are now used to build the search space.

- Solution t<sub>k</sub> of the Jacobian correction equation is appended to V<sub>k</sub>, resulting in V<sub>k+1</sub> = [V<sub>k</sub>, t<sub>k</sub>]
- Speeds up convergence by increasing dimension of trial space by one

Block JD approx. l eigenvalues simultaneously. Further, the trial space dimension is increased by l.

# Davidson-Type Trace Minimization Method [7]

Problems of block JD:

- Shifting strategy forces algorithm to converge to eigenvalues closest to Ritz values (often far away from desired eigenvalues at the beginning)
- 2. Subspace expanding decreases Ritz values; block JD is forced to converge to smalles eigenpairs
- 3. Ill-conditioning when Ritz value approaches multiple eigenvalue or cluster of eigenvalues

# Davidson-Type Trace Minimization Method [7]

Solution:

- 1. Use multiple dynamic shifting strategy
- 2. Use implicit deflation technique ( $\mathbf{Y}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{d}_{k,i} = 0$ )
- 3. Use dynamic stopping strategy for accuracy when solving inner system

## Conclusion

- Proof of trace theorem using Poincaré separation theorem
- Trace minimization characterization as quasi-Newton more difficult than expected (requires background in differential geometry)
- Block JD and TRACEMIN are quite similar
- Although JD has better convergence rate in some cases, it still depends on a good starting subspace
  - Davidson-type TRACEMIN is not affected; is more robust

# References

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