Relations between Rayleigh Quotient Iteration and Classical Root Finding Algorithms

Jens-Peter M. Zemke
zemke@tu-harburg.de

Institut für Numerische Simulation
Technische Universität Hamburg-Harburg

Universiteit Utrecht, The Netherlands
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Outline

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Newton's method

The best known method for the computation of a root of a rational function

$$f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}, \quad f(z) := \frac{p(z)}{q(z)}, \quad p, q \in \mathbb{P}_m$$

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Newton's method costs two function evaluations per step, one evaluation of the function, one evaluation of its derivative.

The secant method

If the derivative of the function $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ is not at hand, we could use the first divided difference which gives the secant method:

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In general, the secant method locally wins (Raydan, 1993).

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This family is nowadays known as "König's method":

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König's method for $s = 1$ is Newton's method,

$$z_{k+1} = z_k + \frac{(1/f)(z_k)}{(1/f)'(z_k)} = z_k - \frac{1/f(z_k)}{f'(z_k)/(f(z_k))^2} = z_k - \frac{f(z_k)}{f'(z_k)}.$$

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We will refer to this method as the Opitz-Larkin method. The Opitz-Larkin method is based on iterations of the form

$$x_{k+1} = z_k + \frac{[z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{k-1}](1/f)}{[z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{k-1}, z_k](1/f)}.$$

The Opitz-Larkin method

Mostly, the z_i are all distinct and the next iterate is used as new evaluation point $z_{k+1} = x_{k+1}$,

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This variant of the Opitz-Larkin method converges with R-order 2.

Frequently, the Opitz-Larkin method is used with truncation:

$$z_{k+1} = z_k + \frac{[z_{k-p}, \dots, z_{k-1}](1/f)}{[z_{k-p}, \dots, z_{k-1}, z_k](1/f)},$$

see (Opitz, 1958, Seite 277, Gleichung (9)) and (Larkin, 1981, Section 4, pages 98–99).

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When we use only confluent divided differences in the truncated Opitz-Larkin method with truncation parameter $p = s$, we recover König's method:

$$\begin{aligned} z_{k+1} &= z_k + \frac{[\overbrace{z_k, \ldots, z_k}^{s}](1/f)}{[\underbrace{z_k, \ldots, z_k, z_k}_{s+1}](1/f)} \\ &= z_k + \frac{(1/f)^{(s-1)}(z_k)/(s-1)!}{(1/f)^{(s)}(z_k)/s!} = z_k + s\frac{(1/f)^{(s-1)}(z_k)}{(1/f)^{(s)}(z_k)}. \end{aligned}$$

The Opitz-Larkin method

Truncated Opitz-Larkin with $p = 1$ is the secant method,

$$\begin{aligned}
z_{k+1} &= z_k + \frac{[z_{k-1}](1/f)}{[z_{k-1}, z_k](1/f)} \\
&= z_k + \frac{1}{f(z_{k-1})} \cdot \frac{z_{k-1} - z_k}{1/f(z_{k-1}) - 1/f(z_k)} \\
&= z_k + \frac{f(z_k)f(z_{k-1})}{f(z_{k-1})} \cdot \frac{z_{k-1} - z_k}{f(z_k) - f(z_{k-1})} \\
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In general, the Opitz-Larkin method is closely connected to rational interpolation of the inverse function (Larkin, 1981, Theorem 1, page 96):

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Theorem (Larkin 1981)

If, for any integer $k > 1$, there exists a rational function of the form

$$r_k(z) = \frac{q_d(z)}{z - \alpha}, \quad \forall\, z,$$

where q_d is a polynomial of degree $d \leqslant k - 2$, such that $q_d(\alpha) \neq 0$ and

$$r_k(z_j) = f(z_j)^{-1}, \quad j = 1, 2, \ldots, k,$$

then

$$z_k + \frac{[z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{k-1}](1/f)}{[z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{k-1}, z_k](1/f)} = \alpha.$$

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Most important are the articles (Tornheim, 1964) and (Jarratt and Nudds, 1965). We state the main results contained in these articles.

The Opitz-Larkin method

In the paper (Tornheim, 1964), Tornheim considered the case of direct

$$f^{(\ell_j)}(x_{i-j}) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{(\ell_j)}(x_{i-j})$$

and inverse rational interpolation

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where

$$\ell_j = 0, 1, \dots m_j - 1, \quad m = \sum_{j=0}^{k} m_j = \deg(p) + \deg(q) + 1,$$

and k given distinct points $\quad x_{i-j} \quad j = 1, \dots, k,$

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and gave its rate of convergence (Tornheim, 1964, Theorem 2).

The Opitz-Larkin method

Theorem (Tornheim 1964; conditions for the theorem)

Suppose an k-point iterative method is defined by the procedure to solve the equation $f(x) = 0$ by direct or inverse rational interpolation with m_j coincident interpolating points at x_{i-j} ($j = 1, \ldots, k$) for the i-th iteration.

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$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{vmatrix} a_d & a_{d-1} & \cdots & a_{2d+2-m} \\ a_{d+1} & a_d & \cdots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m-2} & & \cdots & a_d \end{vmatrix} \neq 0.$$

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Here d is the degree of the numerator and e is the degree of the denominator of the rational function used; $d + e + 1 = m$; a_i is 0 if $i < 0$, otherwise it is the ith derivative of $f(x)$ (for direct interpolation) or of its inverse function (for inverse interpolation) at $x = x^\star$.

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Then there is a neighborhood $N^\star$ *of* $x^\star$ *such that if* $x_1, \ldots, x_k$ *are in* $N^\star$, *the sequence* $\{x_i\}$ *converges to* $x^\star$.

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He also gave a “comparison result” that predicts faster convergence when the (inverse) function is evaluated to higher order at the last iterates.

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Lemma (Tornheim 1964)

Suppose that the coefficients of

$$a(x) := x^n - a_1 x^{n-1} - \cdots - a_n$$

satisfy

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By Descartes' rule of signs the polynomial a has a unique positive root $u > 1$. If the coefficients b_i of

$$b(x) := x^n - b_1 x^{n-1} - \cdots - b_n$$

are a permutation of the coefficients a_i, then the positive root v of b is less than u.

The Opitz-Larkin method

In the paper (Jarratt and Nudds, 1965), Jarratt and Nudds give a detailed treatment of the case of rational interpolation with

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As you might already have guessed: We are going to prove that RQI is the Opitz-Larkin method. One instance of RQI actually is the Opitz-Larkin method applied to the characteristic polynomial of the given matrix.

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> **The stationary property of the roots of Lagrange's determinant (3) § 84, suggests a general method of approximating to their values. Beginning with assumed rough approximations to the ratios $A_1 : A_2 : A_3 \ldots\ldots$ we may calculate a first approximation to p^2 from**
>
> $$p^2 = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\, c_{11}A_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}\, c_{22}A_2^2 + \ldots + c_{12}A_1A_2 + \ldots}{\frac{1}{2}\, a_{11}A_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}\, a_{22}A_2^2 + \ldots + a_{12}A_1A_2 + \ldots} \quad \ldots\ldots \text{(3).}$$
>
> **With this value of p^2 we may recalculate the ratios $A_1 : A_2 \ldots$ from any $(m-1)$ of equations (5) § 84, then again by application of (3) determine an improved value of p^2, and so on.]**

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Lord Rayleigh starts with an approximate eigenvector $\mathbf{v}_k$, computes its Rayleigh quotient

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and uses the linear system

$$(\mathbf{A} - \rho(\mathbf{v}_k)\mathbf{I}_n)\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \mathbf{e}_j$$

for some standard unit vector $\mathbf{e}_j$ to compute a new approximate eigenvector $\mathbf{v}_{k+1}$. He was, of course, only interested in its direction.

Original RQI

This is repeated several times, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = (\mathbf{A} - \rho(\mathbf{v}_k)\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_j, \quad k = 0, 1, \ldots$$

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Classical RQI can thus be stated in modern notation as

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for some suitably chosen $j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, which might vary, depending on the computed approximate eigenvector.

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Classical Rayleigh quotient iteration mostly converges locally with quadratic order of convergence.

Inverse Iteration

Closely connected to RQI is inverse iteration. Inverse iteration was developed by Helmut Wielandt in 1944, (Wielandt, 1944).

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In the most basic variant of inverse iteration the shift τ is never updated, but the right-hand side is replaced by the latest approximate eigenvector:

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \frac{(\mathbf{A} - \tau \mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k}{\|(\mathbf{A} - \tau \mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k\|}, \quad k = 0, 1, \ldots$$

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There exist variants which use other scalings, mostly using as left vector some standard unit vector $\boldsymbol{\ell} = \mathbf{e}_j$:

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \frac{(\mathbf{A} - \tau \mathbf{I}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{v}_k}{\mathbf{e}_j^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{A} - \tau \mathbf{I}_n)^{-1} \mathbf{v}_k}, \quad k = 0, 1, \ldots$$

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In the latter context, $\mathbf{e}_j^\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{A} - \tau\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k \approx (\lambda - \tau)^{-1}$ gives an eigenvalue approximation.

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$$\tau_{k+1} := \tau_k - \frac{1}{\mathbf{e}_j^\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{A} - \tau\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k}.$$

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In both variants also the Rayleigh quotient can be used, the Rayleigh quotient uniquely solves the least squares problem

$$\rho(\mathbf{v}_k) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\rho\in\mathbb{C}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_k - \mathbf{v}_k\rho\|$$

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Both these methods typically exhibit a quadratic convergence behavior.

Symmetric RQI

When automatic computers became available, the combination of inverse iteration with Rayleigh's original RQI resulted in the locally Q-cubically convergent (symmetric) RQI

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \frac{(\mathbf{A} - \rho(\mathbf{v}_k)\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k}{\|(\mathbf{A} - \rho(\mathbf{v}_k)\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k\|}, \quad k = 0, 1, \ldots$$

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Crandall was the first who investigated the three variants (the original Rayleigh quotient iteration; inverse iteration with fixed shift; symmetric RQI) and proved their convergence rates to be quadratic, linear, and cubic, respectively, see (Crandall, 1951).

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Crandall was the first who investigated the three variants (the original Rayleigh quotient iteration; inverse iteration with fixed shift; symmetric RQI) and proved their convergence rates to be quadratic, linear, and cubic, respectively, see (Crandall, 1951).

Ostrowski proved that unsymmetric RQI still has a quadratic convergence rate, (Ostrowski, 1959e). In (Ostrowski, 1959c), he also gave a variant that recovers the cubic convergence rate at the expense of the necessity to solve two linear systems every step instead of only one.

Two-Sided RQI

When $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is no longer Hermitean, the cubic convergence is lost and Ostrowski suggested in (Ostrowski, 1959c) the use of a two-sided RQI.

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Two-sided RQI is based on the two-sided Rayleigh quotient

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The iteration involves two sequences of vectors,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_{k+1} &= (\mathbf{A} - \rho(\mathbf{w}_k, \mathbf{v}_k)\mathbf{I}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{v}_k, \\ \mathbf{w}_{k+1} &= (\mathbf{A} - \rho(\mathbf{w}_k, \mathbf{v}_k)\mathbf{I}_n)^{-\mathsf{H}}\mathbf{w}_k, \end{aligned} \qquad k = 0, 1, \ldots$$

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This trick recovers the cubic convergence of RQI at the price of the solution of an additional system.

Two-Sided RQI

Ostrowski worked out a more detailed analysis than Crandall. He published a series of six papers on RQI, (Ostrowski, 1959b; Ostrowski, 1959c; Ostrowski, 1959d; Ostrowski, 1959e; Ostrowski, 1959a). He measured the rate of convergence with respect to the number of solutions of linear systems, which he called one “Horner”. He was a little unfair to the two-sided variant, as these two Horners are related to each other (one decomposition, two forward and backward substitutions with the same two triangular matrices).

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The proofs by Crandall and Ostrowski are beautiful and worth reading.

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The proofs by Crandall and Ostrowski are beautiful and worth reading.

But we feel that a more direct proof of convergence for the different variants of RQI and related algorithms would be very helpful, especially when we want to investigate the overall behavior: the basins of attraction; global convergence; effects of perturbation and inexact methods, . . .

Outline

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Hessenberg matrices are in some sense the closest computable normal form of square matrices under unitary similarity transformations.

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We use the implicit Q-Theorem to unitarily transform the pair $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{q})$ with $\|\mathbf{q}\|_2 = 1$ to the pair $(\mathbf{H}_n, \mathbf{e}_1)$, where $\mathbf{H}_n$ is upper Hessenberg and $\mathbf{e}_1$ denotes the first standard unit vector.

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The following Matlab-code gives the transformed pair:

```
[Q,R] = qr(q);
[P,H] = hess(Q'*A*Q);
signs = sign(diag(H,-1));
S = diag(cumprod([1;signs]));
P = P*S;
H = S'*H*S;
```

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The first resolvent identity (Chatelin, 1993, Lemma 2.2.1, p. 63), valid for $z_1 \neq z_2$ from the resolvent set, gives

$$ ({}^{z_1}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}({}^{z_2}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1} = (z_1\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}(z_2\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_n)^{-1} \quad \text{(1a)} $$

$$ = \frac{({}^{z_1}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1} - ({}^{z_2}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}}{z_2 - z_1} = -[z_1, z_2]({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}. \quad \text{(1b)} $$

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The first resolvent identity is based on the trivial observation that

$$ (z_2\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_n) - (z_1\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_n) = (z_2 - z_1)\mathbf{I}_n. $$

Simplification

This identity can be generalized to k distinct points of evaluation:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{k} ({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1} = (-1)^{k-1}[z_1, \dots, z_k]({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}. \tag{2}$$

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The inverse of the characteristic matrix ${}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n$ is the rational function

$$({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1} = \frac{\mathrm{adj}({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)}{\chi(z)} =: \frac{\mathbf{P}_n(z)}{\chi(z)}, \quad \chi(z) := \det\left({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n\right), \quad (3)$$

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where the elements $p_{ij}(z)$ of $\mathbf{P}_n(z)$ are polynomials. The matrix-valued function $({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}$ is meromorphic and analytic in the resolvent set.

Thus, confluent divided differences are well-defined and we do not need to restrict the points $\{z_i\}_{i=1}^{k}$ from the resolvent set.

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We only need here a well-known result on a recurrence for the determinants of unreduced Hessenberg matrices, see, e.g., (Franklin, 1968, Section 7.11, p. 252, Eqn. (8)), or, the probably earliest reference (Schweins, 1825, Erste Abtheilung, IV. Abschnitt, § 154, Seite 361, Gleichung 560)).

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There exist short proofs based on Laplace expansion and Cramer's rule.

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Polynomial vectors ν and $\check{\nu}$ are defined by

$$\nu(z) := \left(\frac{\chi_{j+1:n}(z)}{h_{j:n-1}}\right)_{j=1}^{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \check{\nu}(z) := \left(\frac{\chi_{1:j-1}(z)}{h_{1:j-1}}\right)_{j=1}^{n}. \tag{4}$$

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The elements are denoted by $\nu_j(z)$ and $\check{\nu}_j(z)$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$. We remark that $\nu_n \equiv 1 \equiv \check{\nu}_1$.

The polynomials $\chi_{i:j}$ are the characteristic polynomials of submatrices of $\mathbf{H}_n$,

$$\chi_{i:j}(z) := \det\left({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_{i:j}\right) = \det\left(z\mathbf{I}_{j-i+1} - \mathbf{H}_{i:j}\right).$$

Simplification

By (Z, 2006, Lemma 3.1, Eqn. (3.5)) for z in the resolvent set

$$({}^z\mathbf{H}_n)\nu(z) = \frac{\chi(z)}{h_{1:n-1}}\mathbf{e}_1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{\nu(z)h_{1:n-1}}{\chi(z)} = ({}^z\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1, \tag{5a}$$

$$\check{\nu}(z)^{\mathsf{T}}({}^z\mathbf{H}_n) = \mathbf{e}_n^{\mathsf{T}}\frac{\chi(z)}{h_{1:n-1}} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{h_{1:n-1}\check{\nu}(z)}{\chi(z)} = \mathbf{e}_n^{\mathsf{T}}({}^z\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}. \tag{5b}$$

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The repeated application of resolvents to $\mathbf{e}_1$ results in

$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\right)\mathbf{e}_1 = (-1)^{k-1}[z_1,\dots,z_k]({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1 \tag{6}$$

$$= (-1)^{k-1}[z_1,\dots,z_k]\frac{\nu(z)h_{1:n-1}}{\chi(z)}. \tag{7}$$

Simplification

By (Z, 2006, Lemma 3.1, Eqn. (3.5)) for z in the resolvent set

$$({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)\nu(z) = \frac{\chi(z)}{h_{1:n-1}}\mathbf{e}_1 \quad\Leftrightarrow\quad \frac{\nu(z)h_{1:n-1}}{\chi(z)} = ({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1, \tag{5a}$$

$$\check{\nu}(z)^{\mathsf{T}}({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n) = \mathbf{e}_n^{\mathsf{T}}\frac{\chi(z)}{h_{1:n-1}} \quad\Leftrightarrow\quad \frac{h_{1:n-1}\check{\nu}(z)}{\chi(z)} = \mathbf{e}_n^{\mathsf{T}}({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}. \tag{5b}$$

The repeated application of resolvents to $\mathbf{e}_1$ results in

$$\Big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\Big)\mathbf{e}_1 = (-1)^{k-1}[z_1,\dots,z_k]({}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1 \tag{6}$$

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We note that $z\mathbf{I}_n - {}^{z}\mathbf{H}_n = z\mathbf{I}_n - (z\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H}_n) = \mathbf{H}_n$.

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and thus the approximate eigenvalues are given by the Opitz-Larkin method:

$$x_{k+1} = \frac{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{H}_n\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1} = \frac{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}(z_k\mathbf{I}_n - ({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n))\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1} \tag{8a}$$

$$= z_k - \frac{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}{}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1} = z_k - \frac{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k-1}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_n^\mathsf{T}\big(\prod_{i=1}^{k}({}^{z_i}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\big)\mathbf{e}_1} \tag{8b}$$

$$= z_k + \frac{[z_1,\dots,z_{k-1}](1/\chi)}{[z_1,\dots,z_{k-1},z_k](1/\chi)}. \tag{8c}$$

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Inverse iteration with fixed shift $\tau = z_1 = z_2 = \ldots = z_k$ results in the recurrence

$$x_{k+1} = \tau + \frac{[\tau, \ldots, \tau](1/\chi)}{[\tau, \ldots, \tau, \tau](1/\chi)} = \tau + k \frac{(1/\chi)^{(k-1)}(\tau)}{(1/\chi)^{(k)}(\tau)}. \qquad (9)$$

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This knowledge together with an estimate for the cost of preprocessing (computing the LU decomposition; initializing a Krylov method using a seed system) and the cost of the (approximate) solutions of the systems enables to decide when to compute an update of the shift.

Simplification

The original Rayleigh quotient iteration (Strutt, 1894) with the symmetric Rayleigh quotient and, because of the symmetry, a tridiagonal Hermitean Hessenberg matrix $\mathbf{H}_n$, gives the update

$$z_{k+1} = \frac{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-\mathsf{H}}\mathbf{H}_n({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-\mathsf{H}}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1} = \frac{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{H}_n({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-2}\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-2}\mathbf{e}_1} \tag{10a}$$

$$= \frac{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}(z_k\mathbf{I}_n - {}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-2}\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-2}\mathbf{e}_1} \tag{10b}$$

$$= z_k - \frac{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-1}\mathbf{e}_1}{\mathbf{e}_1^\mathsf{T}({}^{z_k}\mathbf{H}_n)^{-2}\mathbf{e}_1} = z_k + \frac{[z_k](\chi_{2:n}/\chi)}{[z_k, z_k](\chi_{2:n}/\chi)} \tag{10c}$$

$$= z_k - \frac{r(z_k)}{r'(z_k)}, \qquad r(z) := \frac{\chi(z)}{\chi_{2:n}(z)}. \tag{10d}$$

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This is Newton's method on the meromorphic function r. As the poles of this meromorphic function are the eigenvalues of a submatrix, they interlace by Cauchy's interlace theorem the roots, which are the eigenvalues.

Simplification

Symmetric RQI for Hermitean matrices gives the update

$$z_{k+1} = z_k + \frac{[z_1, z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}, z_{k-1}, z_k](\chi_{2:n}/\chi)}{[z_1, z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}, z_{k-1}, z_k, z_k](\chi_{2:n}/\chi)}. \tag{11}$$

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i.e., the maximal eigenvalue of a Hessenberg matrix with ones in the lower diagonal and twos in the last column. The approximate eigenvector of all ones to the approximate eigenvalue 3 gives the backward error $1/\sqrt{k}$ and the only real positive eigenvalue of the matrix is well separated, the other eigenvalues lie close to a circle of radius one around zero.

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The picture changes if we apply the special inverse iteration to a general unreduced Hessenberg matrix, not necessarily Hermitean or symmetric.

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If we take another standard unit vector $\mathbf{e}_\ell$ as left vector, we obtain the Opitz-Larkin method applied to the meromorphic function

$$m_\ell(z) = \frac{\chi(z)}{h_{1:\ell-1}\chi_{1+\ell:n}(z)}. \tag{12}$$

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$$r(z;\mathbf{y}) = \frac{\chi(z)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i h_{1:i-1}\chi_{1+i:n}(z)} = \frac{\chi(z)}{p(z;\mathbf{y})}, \quad p(z;\mathbf{y}) \in \mathbb{P}_{<n}. \tag{13}$$

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The polynomials $\chi_{1+i:n}$ have degree $\deg(\chi_{1+i:n}) = n - i$ and leading coefficient one, thus they form a basis of the space of polynomials of degree less n.

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By luck or accident, we can construct a polynomial that is zero (of any order up to order $n-1$) at one eigenvalue. This is of interest in case of (algebraically) multiple eigenvalues. In theory, there is always a left starting vector which ensures that the root is simple, as the multiple zero is reduced to a simple one.

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The best choice is the starting vector $\mathbf{y}$ that represents the derivative of χ, i.e., the vector $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$ such that

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In this special case the rational function is the Newton's update

$$r(z; \bar{\mathbf{y}}) = \frac{\chi(z)}{\chi'(z)} \tag{15}$$

which has only simple zeros and poles between the eigenvalues.

Simplification

The Academic Example: The matrix $\mathbf{H}_4 = \mathrm{triu}(\mathrm{ones}(4), -1)$ has the eigenvalues 0 (double), 1, and 3, and the vector

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \tag{16}$$

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A variant of original RQI with starting vector $\mathbf{e}_1$ and test vector $\mathbf{y}$ and updated shifts performs Newton's method on the Newton's update χ/χ'.

Simplification

The two-sided RQI method corresponds to a confluent Opitz-Larkin method with double nodes. In this method the left vector determines a polynomial, which is formed as a linear combination of characteristic polynomials of trailing submatrices.

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In single-sided RQI for non-Hermitean matrices, we change the vector $\mathbf{y}$ that determines the denominator polynomial of the rational function

$$r(z;\mathbf{y}) = \frac{\chi(z)}{p(z;\mathbf{y})}$$

in every step and apply one step of the Opitz-Larkin method without confluent nodes. This gives second order convergence.

Conclusions and Outlook

- We sketched some well known and some less well known classical root finding algorithms, among these a method we refer to as the Opitz-Larkin method.

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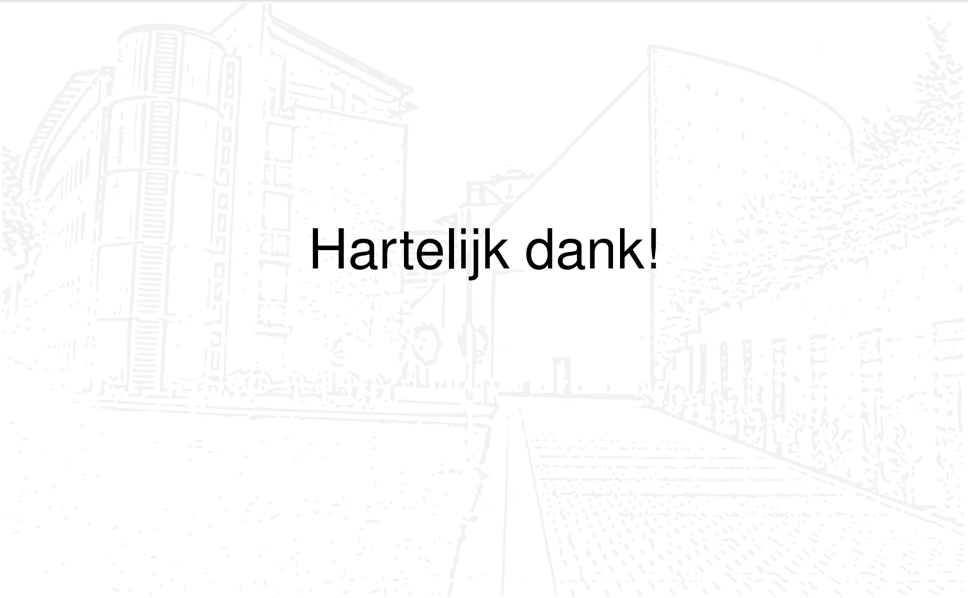
- We used our knowledge of Hessenberg matrices and the first resolvent identity to show that RQI is a clever implementation of the Opitz-Larkin method.
- We omitted the details of an impact analysis to deflation strategies in the QR algorithm.
- Much remains to be done . . .

Thank you very much for for your attention!



Hartelijk dank!

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