# NUMERICAL ALGORITHMS FOR THE LARGEST STRUCTURED SINGULAR VALUE OF A $\mu$-SYNTHESIS CONTROL SYSTEM 

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#### Abstract

Numerical algorithms for the computation of an upper bound of the largest structured singular value arising from the $\mu$-synthesis control problem are developed. Since the computation for the largest structured singular value has been shown to be an NP-hard problem in literatures, we concentrate the study on the computation for an upper bound of the largest structured singular value. A Newton's type method is proposed. Some theoretical results related to the method are investigated. Numerical implementation shows the efficiency of the method.


## 1. Introduction

In this paper, we study the numerical algorithms for the computation of an upper bound of the largest structured singular value corresponding to a rational matrix, say $M(s)$. Consider an internally stable feedback system as given in Fig. 1, where $M(s)=C(s \mathbf{I}-A)^{-1} B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is a transfer function matrix and $\triangle(s)$ is an $m \times m$ matrix function modelling uncertainty. An intuitive question is how large $\triangle(s)$ may go before it causes instability of the closed feedback system in Fig. 1. It means that we are interested in the margin $\|\triangle\|_{\infty}$ so that the closed loop system has poles in the closed right complex plane.

Since the poles of the closed loop system are determined by the roots of $\operatorname{det}(I-$ $M(s) \Delta(s))=0$, for an internally stable $M(s)$, the closed loop system is stable provided that $\|\triangle\|_{\infty}$ is sufficiently small. The small gain theorem [30] shows that the margin of stability can be determined by $\frac{1}{\|M\|_{\infty}}$ whenever $\triangle(s) \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is unstructured. Here $\|M\|_{\infty}$ is defined by

$$
\|M\|_{\infty}=\sup _{s \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}_{+}} \bar{\sigma}(M(s))=\sup _{\omega \in \mathbb{R}} \bar{\sigma}(M(\widehat{i} \omega))
$$

[^0]

Fig. 1. The block diagram.
which is usually named the $\mathcal{H}_{\infty}$-norm of $M(s)$, where $\widehat{i}=\sqrt{-1}$. Note that for any fixed $s \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}_{+}$, the largest singular value of $M(s)$, denoted by $\bar{\sigma}(M(s))$, is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\sigma}(M(s))=\frac{1}{\min _{\Delta \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}}\{\bar{\sigma}(\triangle) \mid \operatorname{det}(\mathrm{I}-M(s) \triangle)=0\}} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words, $\bar{\sigma}(M(s))$ gives a measure of the smallest unstructured uncertainty $\Delta \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ that causes instability of the closed loop system.

The results of (1.1) can be adopted whenever the uncertainty $\triangle$ is structured. It hence gives the definition of the largest structured singular value of $M(s)$ with respect to a structured $\triangle$. Consider the set of the structured uncertainty $\Delta$ as below.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Delta}=\left\{\operatorname{diag}\left(\delta_{1} I_{r_{1}}, \ldots, \delta_{S} I_{r_{S}}, \Delta_{1}, \ldots, \Delta_{F}\right) \mid \delta_{i} \in \mathbb{C}, \triangle_{j} \in \mathbb{C}^{m_{j} \times m_{j}}\right\}, \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{S} r_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{F} m_{j}=m
$$

The largest structured singular value for the matrix $M \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ with respect to the set of structured uncertainties, $\boldsymbol{\Delta}$, can be defined as the same as in [30],

$$
\mu_{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}(M)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\frac{1}{\min _{\Delta \in \boldsymbol{\Delta}}\{\bar{\sigma}(\triangle) \mid \operatorname{det}(I-M \triangle)=0\}}  \tag{1.3}\\
0, \text { if } \operatorname{det}(I-M \triangle) \neq 0 \text { for all } \triangle \in \boldsymbol{\Delta} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Note that since the triangle inequality is not always true for $\mu_{\Delta}(\cdot)$, the function $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}: \mathbb{C}^{m \times m} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+} \cup\{0\}$ cannot be a norm. However, the computation of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$,
usually plays a key role to the robust stability analysis for a control system having structured uncertainties. Unfortunately, the computation of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ has shown to be an NP-hard problem [5, 28]. Therefore, the study of the computation of upper and lower bounds of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ are ubiquitously blooming in literatures. Some native polynomial-time algorithms for computing upper and lower bounds of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ are assembled already in [2]. Some algorithms for the computation of upper bounds which convert the problems to linear matrix inequalities (LMIs) are available in $[10,16,18,26]$. On the study of the lower bounds, some literatures are proposed [ $9,17,24,30]$. Using the power iteration, $[25,29]$ focus on the estimation of the lower bounds. Using these bounds, [18] shows how to estimate the $\mu$-norm for a $\mu$-synthesis system, combining with an elegant algorithm given in [3].

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we summary some preliminaries related to the bounds of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ which have already been proposed in literatures. We also describe the problem to be investigated which is an optimization problem with linear matrix inequality constraints. Section 3 lists a basic algorithm for solving the problem prescribed in Section 2. Some theoretical results related to the development of a Newton's type method are included in Section 4. An appropriate Newton's type algorithm is hence developed in Section 5. The numerical implementation of the developed algorithms is in Section 6, together with some numerical results. Finally, we give some conclusions of this paper in Section 7.

## 2. Preliminaries and Problem Description

When a particular set of uncertainties $\boldsymbol{\Delta}=\left\{\delta I_{m} \mid \delta \in \mathbb{C}\right\}$, a set with least degree of freedom, $\mu_{\Delta}(M)=\rho(M) \equiv \max _{\lambda \in \lambda(M)}|\lambda|$, where $\lambda(M)$ denotes the set of eigenvalues of $M$. From the definition in (1.1), we have $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ satisfying

$$
\rho(M) \leq \mu_{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}(M) \leq \bar{\sigma}(M)
$$

To derive more general bounds for $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$, some sets of uncertainties with higher degree of freedom shall be investigated. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{U} & =\left\{U \in \boldsymbol{\Delta} \mid U U^{*}=I_{m}\right\} \\
\mathbb{D} & =\left\{\operatorname{diag}\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{S}, d_{1} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, d_{F} I_{m_{F}}\right) \mid D_{i} \in \mathbb{C}^{r_{i} \times r_{i}}, D_{i}=D_{i}^{*}>0, d_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, some associated bounds are listed in [30]:

$$
\rho(M) \leq \max _{U \in \mathbb{U}} \rho(U M) \leq \mu_{\Delta}(M) \leq \inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right) \leq \bar{\sigma}(M)
$$

In this paper, we are interested in the computation of the bound $\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right)$, instead of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ which leads to an NP-hard problem [10]. However, in general,
$\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right)$ is hard to compute unless a restricted subset of $\mathbb{D}$, denoted by $\mathbb{D}_{d}$, is adopted, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{D}_{d} & =\left\{\operatorname{diag}\left(D_{1}, \ldots, D_{S}, d_{1} I_{m_{1}}, \ldots, d_{F} I_{m_{F}}\right) \mid\right. \\
D_{i} & \left.\in \mathbb{C}^{r_{i} \times r_{i}}, D_{i}=D_{i}^{*} \text { is diagonal and positive definite, } d_{j} \in \mathbb{R}^{+}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{\Delta}(M) \leq \inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right) \leq \inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}_{d}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right) . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Straightforward calculations lead to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}_{d}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right) & =\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}_{d}}\left\{\gamma \mid\left(D M D^{-1}\right)^{*}\left(D M D^{-1}\right) \leq \gamma^{2} \mathrm{I}\right\} \\
& =\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}_{d}}\left\{\gamma \mid M^{*} D^{*} D M \leq \gamma^{2} D^{*} D\right\} \\
& =\inf _{P \in \mathbb{R}_{+}\left(\mathbb{D}_{d}\right)}\left\{\gamma \mid M^{*} P M \leq \gamma^{2} P\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathbb{R}_{+}\left(\mathbb{D}_{d}\right)$ is a subset of $\mathbb{D}_{d}$ with all diagonal elements being positive real numbers [18].

Define the following matrix functions of vector variable $x=\left[x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right]^{T} \in$ $\mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& A(x) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} A_{i}, \text { where } A_{i}=M^{*} e_{i} e_{i}^{T} M,  \tag{2.2}\\
& B(x) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} B_{i}, \text { where } B_{i}=e_{i} e_{i}^{T} \tag{2.3}
\end{align*}
$$

and
$e_{i}$ is the $i$-th column of the $m$-th indentity $I_{m}$,
$\mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}=\left\{x=\left[x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, x_{i}>0\right\}$.

Therefore, finding $\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}_{d}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right)$ is equivalent to solving a linear matrix inequality (LMI, in short), referred to as the generalized eigenvalue problem (GEVP) in [4] as below.

## Problem 1.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\min _{x} \lambda_{\max }(A(x), B(x)), \text { where } \lambda_{\max }(A(x), B(x)) \text { is the maximal } \\
\text { eigenvalue of } A(x)-\lambda B(x) \text {, subject to } x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Consequently, the upper bound for the largest structured singular value $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ in (2.1) can be computed by the fact of

$$
\inf _{D \in \mathbb{D}_{d}} \bar{\sigma}\left(D M D^{-1}\right)=\left[\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}} \lambda_{\max }(A(x), B(x))\right]^{1 / 2}
$$

whenever Problem 1 is solvable.

## 3. A Basic Algorithm for Problem 1

There have already been a lot of numerical methods for solving Problem 1; see [4]. We now give a brief description of a basic method, known as the ellipsoid algorithm, which can be considered a higher dimensional bisection method.

The key step of the ellipsoid algorithm is to find the "cutting plane" of an associated ellipsoid containing the feasible cone. The cutting plane of a feasible ellipsoid centered at $x$ is usually determined by the norm vector $g$ such that an optimal point of Problem 1 lies in the half-space $\left\{z \mid g^{*}(z-x)<0\right\}$. The following arguments are mainly from [4].

Without any ambiguity we denote $\lambda_{\max }(x)=\lambda_{\max }(A(x), B(x))$. Pick $u \neq 0$ to be the eigenvector satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(x) u=\lambda_{\max }(x) B(x) u \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Define $g=\left[g_{1}, \cdots, g_{m}\right]^{T}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{i}=-u^{*}\left(\lambda_{\max }(x) B_{i}-A_{i}\right) u, i=1, \cdots, m \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the definitions in (2.2) and (2.3), we know that $A(x), B(x)$ are both Hermitian and $B(x)$ is positive definite, so $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ has to be a real number. Using (2.2), (2.3) and (3.1), we conclude that

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{*} x=\sum_{i=1}^{m} g_{i}^{*} x_{i} & =-\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} u^{*}\left(\lambda_{\max }(x) B_{i}-A_{i}\right) u x_{i}\right] \\
& =-\left[u^{*}\left(\lambda_{\max } \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} B_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} A_{i}\right) u\right] \\
& =-u^{*}\left[\lambda_{\max } B(x) u-A(x) u\right]=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Similar, for any vector $z$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{*}(z-x)=g^{*} z & =\sum_{i=1}^{m} g_{i}^{*} z_{i} \\
& =-\sum_{i=1}^{m} u^{*}\left(\lambda_{\max }(x) B_{i}-A_{i}\right) u z_{i} \\
& =-u^{*}\left(\lambda_{\max }(x) \sum_{i=1}^{m} z_{i} B_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{m} z_{i} A_{i}\right) u \\
& =-u^{*}\left[\lambda_{\max }(x) B(z)-A(z)\right] u
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, if $g^{*}(z-x) \geqslant 0$, then

$$
u^{*}\left(\lambda_{\max }(x) B(z)-A(z)\right) u \leqslant 0
$$

This implies

$$
\lambda_{\max }(x)=\lambda_{\max }(A(x), B(x)) \leqslant \lambda_{\max }(A(z), B(z))=\lambda_{\max }(z)
$$

whenever $g^{*}(z-x) \geqslant 0$. Therefore, the vector $g$ in (3.2) gives a normal vector of the cutting plane, and indicates that the optimal point lies in the half-space $\left\{z \in \mathbb{C}^{m} \mid g^{*}(z-x)<0\right\}$.

We now give a brief summary of the ellipsoid algorithm, which is also named the bisection algorithm hereafter for solving Problem 1.

## Ellipsoid Algorithm (A Higher Dimensional Bisection Algorithm) [4]

Input: $M, x^{(1)}=\left[x_{1}^{(1)}, \cdots, x_{m}^{(1)}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}, \mathbb{E}^{(1)}=\operatorname{diag}\left(2^{2 L}, \cdots, 2^{2 L}\right)$, $L=$ a sufficient large number, $\epsilon=$ a small tolerance, $k=1$.
Output: a minimizer $x_{*}$ for Problem 1.
Repeat until convergence.
step 1: Evaluate $A\left(x^{(k)}\right), B\left(x^{(k)}\right)$ by using definitions in (2.2) and (2.3).
step 2: Compute the maximal eigenpair $\left(\lambda_{\max }^{(k)}, u^{(k)}\right)$ such that

$$
\left(\lambda_{\max }^{(k)} B\left(x^{(k)}\right)-A\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right) u^{(k)}=0
$$

step 3: Compute $g^{(k)}=\left[g_{1}^{(k)}, \ldots, g_{m}^{(k)}\right]^{T}$ by

$$
g_{\imath}^{(k)}=-u^{(k)^{*}}\left(\lambda_{\max }^{(k)} B_{i}-A_{i}\right) u^{(k)}, \text { for } i=1,2, \ldots, m .
$$

step 4: Set $\tilde{g}=g^{(k)} / \sqrt{g^{(k)^{*}} \mathbb{E}^{(k)} g^{(k)}}$.
Update

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{(k+1)} & =x^{(k)}-\frac{1}{m+1} \mathbb{E}^{(k)} \tilde{g} \\
\mathbb{E}^{(k+1)} & =\frac{m^{2}}{m^{2}-1}\left(\mathbb{E}^{(k)}-\frac{2}{m+1} \mathbb{E}^{(k)} \tilde{g} \tilde{g}^{*} \mathbb{E}^{(k)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

step 5: The stopping criteria:
If $\left\|x^{(k+1)}-x^{(k)}\right\|<\epsilon$, accept $x_{*}=x^{(k+1)}$, stop.
If $e^{2 m L-\frac{k}{2 m}}<\epsilon$, accept $x_{*}=x^{(k+1)}$, stop.
step 6: $k=k+1$, return to Repeat.
Note that the volume of $k$-th ellipsoid is always less than $e^{2 m L-\frac{k-1}{2 m}}$.

Remark. The bisection algorithm is definitely reliable because the method is always convergent. However, a more effective algorithm is still being sought for solving Problem 1. A well-known class of algorithms, the interior point methods, has been developed for solving nonlinear optimization problems [11, 18]. A suitable interior point method for Problem 1 can be found in the MatLab LMI toolbox, with an executable MatLab command "gevp" [21]. Since the theory of interior point methods has been well studied, we omit the discussion of this method here. Furthermore, in practice (see Section 6), the efficiency of gevp in MatLab is not satisfactory, and other more efficient numerical methods have to be developed.

## 4. Some Theoretical Results Related to Newton's Method

Let $u(x)$ be the eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda_{\max }(x)$. The Rayleigh-quotient formula shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{\max }(x)=\frac{u^{*}(x) A(x) u(x)}{u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Problem 1 can be possibly solved by finding critical points of $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ in the feasible set. That is, it suffices to find a solution of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla \lambda_{\max }(x)=0 \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the feasible set $\mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}=\left\{x=\left[x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, x_{i}>0, i=1, \cdots, m\right\}$. Instead of Problem 1, we now investigate the Newton-type methods for solving the nonlinear problem (4.2).

Remark. Equation (4.2) yields the critical points of $\lambda_{\max }(x)$, and we need to calculate all the partial derivatives of $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ and $u(x)$ with respect to each component $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}$. Without loss of the generality, we assume that $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ is a simple eigenvalue. Then $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ gives an analytic function in a neighborhood of $x$ [1]. This guarantees the existence of partial derivatives of $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ and $u(x)$. When $\lambda_{\max }$ is not a simple eigenvalue of $A(x)-\lambda B(x)$, the symmetry of $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ implies that $\lambda_{\text {max }}$ has to be semi-simple. For that case, the existence of those derivatives is an straightforward extension. For more details related to the semi-simple eigenvalue, refer to [1].

The following lemma expresses $\nabla \lambda_{\max }(x)$ in terms of $\lambda_{\max }, u$ and the coefficient matrices $A_{i}, B_{i}, i=1, \cdots, m$.

Lemma 1. If $A(x) u(x)=\lambda_{\max } B(x) u(x)$, and $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$, then for $i=1, \ldots, m$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{i}}=u^{*}(x) A_{i} u(x)-\lambda_{\max } u^{*}(x) B_{i} u(x) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. If $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$, we have $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left(u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)\right)=0$. This implies

$$
u_{x_{i}}^{*} B u+u^{*} B_{i} u+u^{*} B u_{x_{i}}=0 .
$$

Since $\left(u_{x_{i}}^{*} B u\right)^{*}=u^{*} B u_{x_{i}}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \Re e\left(u_{x_{i}}^{*} B u\right)+u^{*} B_{\imath} u=0 \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\Re e\left(u_{x_{i}}^{*} B u\right)$ stands for the real part of $u_{x_{i}}^{*} B u$. From (4.4) and $A(x) u(x)=$ $\lambda_{\text {max }} B(x) u(x)$, we have

$$
\Re e\left(u_{x_{i}}^{*} A u\right)=-\frac{\lambda_{\max }}{2} u^{*} B_{i} u
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{i}} & =\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left(u^{*}(x) A(x) u(x)\right) \\
& =u_{x_{i}}^{*} A u+u^{*} A_{i} u+u^{*} A u_{x_{i}} \\
& =2 \Re e\left(u_{x_{i}}^{*} A u\right)+u^{*} A_{i} u \\
& =u^{*} A_{i} u-\lambda_{\max } u^{*} B_{i} u
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2. If $A(x) u(x)=\lambda_{\max } B(x) u(x)$, and $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$, then for $i=1, \cdots, m, j=1, \cdots, m$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}=2 \Re e\left(u^{*}(x) A_{i} u_{x_{j}}(x)\right)  \tag{4.5}\\
- & \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j}} u^{*}(x) B_{i} u(x)-2 \lambda_{\max } \Re e\left(u^{*}(x) B_{i} u_{x_{j}}(x)\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. Lemma 1 gives $\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{i}}=u^{*}(x) A_{i} u(x)-\lambda_{\max } u^{*}(x) B_{i} u(x)$. This implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{i}}\right) \\
= & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}\left(u^{*}(x) A_{i} u(x)-\lambda_{\max }(x) u^{*}(x) B_{i} u(x)\right) \\
= & u_{x_{j}}^{*} A_{i} u+u^{*} A_{i} u_{x_{j}}-\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j}} u^{*} B_{i} u-\lambda_{\max } u_{x_{j}}^{*} B_{i} u-\lambda_{\max } u^{*} B_{i} u_{x_{j}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\left(u_{x_{j}}^{*} A_{i} u\right)^{*}=u^{*} A_{i} u_{x_{j}},\left(u_{x_{j}}^{*} B_{i} u\right)^{*}=u^{*} B_{i} u_{x_{j}}$ and $\lambda_{\max } \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}=2 \Re e\left(u^{*} A_{i} u_{x_{j}}\right)-\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j}} u^{*} B_{i} u-2 \lambda_{\max } \Re e\left(u^{*} B_{i} u_{x_{j}}\right)
$$

Lemma 3. Let $A(x) u(x)=\lambda_{\max } B(x) u(x)$, and $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}}(x) x_{i}=\left(-\frac{1}{2}+b \hat{i}\right) u(x) \text { for some } b \in \mathbb{R} \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\hat{i}=\sqrt{-1}$.
Proof. Differentiating both sides of $A(x) u(x)=\lambda_{\max } B(x) u(x)$ yields

$$
A_{i} u+A u_{x_{i}}=\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}} B u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B u_{x_{i}}
$$

This implies

$$
\left(A-\lambda_{\max } B\right) u_{x_{i}}=B u \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}-A_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(A-\lambda_{\max } B\right) \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}} x_{i} \\
= & B u\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}} x_{i}\right)-\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{i} x_{i}\right) u+\lambda_{\max }\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} B_{i} x_{i}\right) u \tag{4.7}
\end{align*}
$$

From Lemma 1, and definitions of $A(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{i} x_{i}, B(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} B_{i} x_{i}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}} x_{i}=0 \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and hence (4.7) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A-\lambda_{\max } B\right) \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}} x_{i}=0 \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\lambda_{\max }$ is simple, (4.9) implies that $\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}} x_{i}$ is parallel to $u$. We hence conclude that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}}(x) x_{i}=c u(x), \text { for some } c \in \mathbb{C} \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Differentiating both sides of $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$ and using the similar arguments of the proof of Lemma 1, we derive

$$
\Re e\left[u^{*}(x) B(x) u_{x_{i}}(x)\right]=-\frac{1}{2} u^{*}(x) B_{i} u(x) .
$$

This implies

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Re e\left[u^{*}(x) B(x)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}}(x) x_{i}\right)\right]  \tag{4.11}\\
= & -\frac{1}{2} u^{*}(x)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i} B_{i}\right) u(x)=-\frac{1}{2} u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=-\frac{1}{2} .
\end{align*}
$$

Hence $\Re e(c)=-\frac{1}{2}$ and (4.10) concludes

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{x_{i}}(x) x_{i}=\left(-\frac{1}{2}+b \hat{i}\right) u(x) \text { for some } b \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Theorem 2. Let $\left\{x^{(k+1)}\right\}_{k=0}$ be a sequence of the Newton's iteration by

$$
x^{(k+1)}=x^{(k)}-\left[D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right]^{-1} \nabla \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right),
$$

where $D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)=\left[\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}\right]_{m \times m}$. Then

$$
x^{(k+1)}=2 x^{(k)}, \quad \text { for } k=1,2, \cdots
$$

Proof. Using Lemma 2, the $i$-th component of $D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right) x^{(k)}$ becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{1}} x_{1}+\cdots+\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{m}} x_{m} \\
= & \sum_{j=1}^{m}\left[2 \Re e\left(u^{*} A_{i} u_{x_{j}}\right)-\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j}} u^{*} B_{i} u-2 \Re e\left(\lambda_{\max } u^{*} B_{i} u_{x_{j}}\right)\right] x_{j} \\
= & 2 \Re e\left(u^{*} A_{i}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{x_{j}} x_{j}\right)\right)-\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j}} x_{j}\right) u^{*} B_{i} u \\
& -2 \Re e\left(u^{*} \lambda_{\max } B_{i}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{x_{j}} x_{j}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

By (4.8), we have $\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j}} x_{j}=0$, hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}} x_{j}=2 \Re e\left[u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right) \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_{x_{j}} x_{j}\right] \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

By applying Lemma 3 to (4.12), we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}} x_{j} \\
= & 2 \Re e\left(u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2}+b \hat{i}\right) u\right)  \tag{4.13}\\
= & 2 \Re e\left(u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2} u\right)\right)+2 \Re e\left(u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right) u b \hat{i}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Since $\lambda_{\max } \in \mathbb{R}$ and $A_{i}, B_{i}$ are Hermitian, $u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right) u \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus $\left(u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\right.\right.$ $\left.\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right) u b \hat{i}$ ) has to be a pure imaginary number. Using Lemma 1 again, (4.13) becomes

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}} x_{j}=2 u^{*}\left(A_{i}-\lambda_{\max } B_{i}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2} u\right)=-\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}
$$

Thus we can conclude that

$$
D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right) x^{(k)}=-\nabla \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)
$$

or equivalently

$$
\left[D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right]^{-1} \nabla \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)=-x^{(k)}
$$

provided that $\left[D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right]^{-1}$ exists. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{(k+1)} & =x^{(k)}-\left[D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right]^{-1} \nabla \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right) \\
& =2 x^{(k)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark. Since $A(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{i} x_{i}$ and $B(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} B_{i} x_{i}$ are both linear of $x$, $A(\alpha x)=\alpha A(x)$ and $B(\alpha x)=\alpha B(x)$ for any nonzero scalar $\alpha \neq 0$. This implies

$$
\operatorname{det}(A(\alpha x)-\lambda B(\alpha x))=\alpha^{m} \operatorname{det}(A(x)-\lambda B(x)) .
$$

Thus

$$
\lambda_{\max }(\alpha x)=\lambda_{\max }(A(\alpha x), B(\alpha x))=\lambda_{\max }(A(x), B(x))=\lambda_{\max }(x),
$$

for $\alpha \neq 0$. This means that $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ is a degree- 1 homogeneous function of $x$. Using the homogeneity of $\lambda_{\max }(x)$, Theorem 2 shows that

$$
\lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k+1)}\right)=\lambda_{\max }\left(2 x^{(k)}\right)=\lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right),
$$

where $\left\{x^{(k)}\right\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is generated by the Newton's iteration. Hence, the Newton's method cannot be applied to solve the problem $\nabla \lambda_{\max }(x)=0$ unless the constraint of homogeneity of $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ is considered. Therefore, from now on, we study on the nonlinear problem having homogeneity constraint as below.

## Problem 2.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\nabla \lambda_{\max }(x)=0 \\
\text { subject to } x=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{m}\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m} \quad \text { and } \quad x_{m}=1 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

## 5. Newton-type Algorithm for Problem 2

To develop a Newton-type method for solving Problem 2, we need to know the second derivatives, $\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }(x)}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}, 1 \leq i, j \leq m$, in terms of $\lambda_{\max }(x), u(x), A_{i}$, and $B_{i}$, $(1 \leq i \leq m)$. As a result of Lemma 2, we firstly express $u_{x_{i}}(x)$ for $i=1, \cdots, m$.

For the case of $M \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ we have $A(x)$ and $B(x) \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$. Without loss of the generality, we assume that $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ is a simple eigenvalue of $A(x)-\lambda B(x)$ and $u(x)$ is its associated eigenvector satisfying $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$.

Differentiating both sides of $A(x) u(x)=\lambda_{\max } B(x) u(x)$ yields

$$
A_{i} u+A u_{x_{i}}=\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}} B u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B u_{x_{i}}
$$

This implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A-\lambda_{\max } B\right) u_{x_{i}}=B u \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}-A_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$, we have $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left(u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)\right)=0$. This derives

$$
u_{x_{i}}^{*} B u+u^{*} B_{i} u+u^{*} B u_{x_{i}}=0
$$

and thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Re e\left(u^{*} B u_{x_{i}}\right)=-\frac{1}{2} u^{*} B_{i} u \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Define $\Phi=\left[\begin{array}{ll}A-\lambda_{\max } B & u\end{array}\right]$, then (5.1) implies

$$
\Phi\left[\begin{array}{c}
u_{x_{i}}  \tag{5.3}\\
1
\end{array}\right]=B u \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}-A_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u+u
$$

Since $\lambda_{\max }$ is assumed to be a simple eigenvalue of the Hermitian matrix pencil $A(x)-\lambda B(x), \Phi$ must have full row rank. This implies that system (5.3) is solvable. A particular solution of (5.3) using the pseudo-inverse $\Phi^{+}=\Phi^{*}\left(\Phi \Phi^{*}\right)^{-1}$ is as follows

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\hat{u}_{x_{i}}  \tag{5.4}\\
1
\end{array}\right]=\Phi^{*}\left(\Phi \Phi^{*}\right)^{-1}\left(B u \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}-A_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u+u\right)
$$

So a general solution satisfying (5.3) can be given as

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{x_{i}}=\hat{u}_{x_{i}}+\beta u, \text { for an arbitrary scalar } \beta \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is remarkable the way $u_{x_{i}}$ appears in $\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}=2 \Re e\left(u^{*} A_{j} u_{x_{i}}\right)-\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}} u^{*} B_{j} u-$ $2 \lambda_{\max } \Re e\left(u^{*} B_{j} u_{x_{i}}\right)$ from (4.5) in Lemma 2. This implies that only the real part of the scalar $\beta$ in (5.5) has a contribution to $\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}$. We hence study the case with $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ only.

Since $\lambda_{\max }$ is simple, it remains to compute $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ for identifying $u_{x_{i}}$. Substituting (5.5) into (5.2) and using $u^{*}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$, yields $\Re e\left(u^{*} B \hat{u}_{x_{i}}\right)+\beta=$ $-\frac{1}{2} u^{*} B_{i} u$. This implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=-\Re e\left(u^{*} B \hat{u}_{x_{i}}\right)-\frac{1}{2} u^{*} B_{i} u \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently, we briefly describe the Newton's method for solving Problem 2.

## Algorithm (Newton's Method)

Input: $M \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}, x^{(0)}=\left[x_{1}^{(0)}, \cdots, x_{m}^{(0)}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}$, with $x_{m}^{(0)}=1, \epsilon=$ a small tolerance, $k=1$.
Output: $x_{*}$ gives the solution of Problem 2. Hence, $x_{*} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}$ is the minimizer for Problem 1 or (GEVP).
Repeat until convergence.
step 1: Evaluate $A\left(x^{(k)}\right), B\left(x^{(k)}\right)$ by using (2.2), (2.3).
step 2: Compute $\lambda_{\max }^{(k)}, u^{(k)}$ such that

$$
\left(\lambda_{\max }^{(k)} B\left(x^{(k)}\right)-A\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right) u^{(k)}=0
$$

step 3: Compute $\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)=\nabla \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)(1: m-1)$ by applying Lemma 1.
step 4: Compute $u_{x_{i}}$ for $i=1, \cdots, m-1$, by solving (5.3) and applying (5.5), (5.6).
step 5: Compute $\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}\left(x^{(k)}\right), 1 \leq i, j \leq m-1$, by applying Lemma 2.
step 6: Let $\hat{x}^{(k)}=x^{(k)}(1: m-1)$. Update

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{x}^{(k+1)} & =\hat{x}^{(k)}-\left[D_{m-1}^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right]^{-1} \widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right) \\
x^{(k+1)} & =\left[\begin{array}{c}
\hat{x}^{(k+1)} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $D_{m-1}^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)$ is the $(m-1)$-st principal submatrix of $D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)$.
step 7: Stopping criteria:
If $\left\|\hat{x}^{(k+1)}-\hat{x}^{(k)}\right\|<\epsilon$ or $\left\|\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right\|<\epsilon$, accept $x_{*}=x^{(k+1)}$, stop.
step 8: $k=k+1$, go to Repeat.
Remark. Formula (5.4) gives a theoretical formula of a particular solution to the equation (5.3). However, in view of the computation, there is no cheap way to accomplish formula (5.4) accurately. Fortunately, there are several reliable and efficient numerical methods for solving (5.3), for instance, the SVD method or QR factorization method [15].

For the case of $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ : we have $A(x), B(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$. Let $\left(\lambda_{\max }, u(x)\right)$ be the eigenpair of the pencil $A(x)-\lambda B(x)$ corresponding to the maximal eigenvalue $\lambda_{\max }$. Assume that $\lambda_{\max }$ is simple and $u^{T}(x) B(x) u(x)=1$. Since $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, clearly $u(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$.

We now express $u_{x_{i}}(x)$ whenever $\left(\lambda_{\max }, u(x)\right)$ is computed. From

$$
A(x) u(x)=\lambda_{\max } B(x) u(x) \text { and } u^{T}(x) B(x) u(x)=1
$$

differentiating both equations with respect to $x_{i}$, yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{i} u+A u_{x_{i}}=\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}} B u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B u_{x_{i}} \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 u^{T} B u_{x_{i}}+u^{T} B_{i} u=0 \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Reordering (5.7) derives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A-\lambda_{\max } B\right) u_{x_{i}}-B u \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}=-A_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u \tag{5.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Grouping (5.8) and (5.9) in a matrix-vector form, we have

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A-\lambda_{\max } B & -B u  \tag{5.10}\\
u^{T} B & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
u_{x_{i}} \\
\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-A_{i} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{i} u \\
-\frac{1}{2} u^{T} B_{i} u
\end{array}\right]
$$

To verify the system (5.10) is solvable so that $u_{x_{i}}$ and $\frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}$ are computable, it suffices to show that the matrix $\left[\begin{array}{cc}A-\lambda_{\max } B & -B u \\ u^{T} B & 0\end{array}\right]$ is nonsingular. Suppose that there is a nonzero vector $\left[\begin{array}{ll}z^{T} & \gamma\end{array}\right]^{T}$ such that

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A-\lambda_{\max } B & -B u \\
u^{T} B & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
z \\
\gamma
\end{array}\right]=0
$$

Than

$$
\left(A-\lambda_{\max } B\right) z-\gamma B u=0, \quad \text { and } \quad u^{T} B z=0
$$

If $\gamma \neq 0$, then

$$
A z=\lambda_{\max } B z+\gamma B u
$$

This implies $A(x)-\lambda B(x)$ has a Jordan block corresponding to $\lambda_{\max }$. This is a contradiction, because both $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ are symmetric and $B(x)$ is positive definite.

If $\gamma=0$, then $\lambda_{\max }(x)$ must be a multiple eigenvalue of $A(x)-\lambda B(x)$. This contradicts to the assumption that $\lambda_{\max }$ is a simple eigenvalue of $A(x)-\lambda B(x)$. However, the assumption is always true in the generic sense. Therefore, for the case of $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, system (5.10) is solvable and $u_{x_{i}}, \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{i}}$ are hence computable.

We now give the real-valued Newton's method for solving Problem 2.

## Algorithm (Newton's Method for Real-Valued Case)

Input: $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, x^{(0)}=\left[x_{1}^{(0)}, \cdots, x_{m}^{(0)}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}$ with $x_{m}^{(0)}=1, \epsilon=$ a small tolerance, $k=1$.
Output: $x_{*}$ gives the solution of Problem 2. Hence, $x_{*} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m}$ solves Problem 1, i.e., (GEVP).

Repeat until convergence.
step 1: Compute $A\left(x^{(k)}\right), B\left(x^{(k)}\right)$, by using (2.2), (2.3).
step 2: Compute $\lambda_{\max }^{(k)}, u^{(k)}$ such that

$$
\left(\lambda_{\max }^{(k)} B\left(x^{(k)}\right)-A\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right) u^{(k)}=0
$$

step 3: Compute $\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)=\nabla \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)(1: m-1)$ by applying Lemma 1.
step 4: For $\ell=1, \cdots, m-1$,
Solve $\left[\begin{array}{cc}A-\lambda_{\max } B & -B u \\ u^{T} B & 0\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}u_{x_{\ell}} \\ \frac{\partial \lambda_{\max }}{\partial_{\ell}}\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}-A_{\ell} u+\lambda_{\max } B_{\ell} u \\ -\frac{1}{2} u^{T} B_{\ell} u\end{array}\right]$
End for
step 5: Compute $\frac{\partial^{2} \lambda_{\max }}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{i}}\left(x^{(k)}\right), 1 \leq i, j \leq m-1$, by applying Lemma 2 .
step 6: Let $\hat{x}^{(k)}=x^{(k)}(1: m-1)$. Update

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{x}^{(k+1)}=\hat{x}^{(k)}-\left[D_{m-1}^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right]^{-1} \widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right), \\
& x^{(k+1)}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\hat{x}^{(k+1)} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $D_{m-1}^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)$ is the $(m-1)$-st principal submatrix of $D^{2} \lambda_{\max }\left(x^{(k)}\right)$.
step 7: Stopping criteria:
If $\left\|\hat{x}^{(k+1)}-\hat{x}^{(k)}\right\|<\epsilon$ or $\left\|\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right\|<\epsilon$, accept $x_{*}=x^{(k+1)}$, stop.
step 8: $k=k+1$, go to Repeat.
Remark. Step 4 of the algorithm which solves an $m+1$ linear system constitutes the main cost of computation for each iteration of Newton's method (for real-valued cases). To save the computation cost, we usually adopt the $L U$-decomposition of $\left[\begin{array}{cc}A-\lambda_{\max } B & -B u \\ u^{T} B & 0\end{array}\right]$ for solving the corresponding linear system. The cost is hence about $3 \mathrm{~m}^{3}$ operations [7].

## 6. Numerical Implementation

The numerical implementation is accomplished by MatLab codes on a $\operatorname{Intel}(\mathrm{R})$ Pentium 4, CPU 2.00 GHz machine with 256 MB of RAM.

Example 1. Let

$$
M=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
c & b
\end{array}\right] .
$$

For this case, whenever a normalized condition is imposed by $x_{2}=1$, the exact solution of Problem 1 is

$$
x_{*}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
c \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Let $c=2$ and $b=3$. Fig. 2, shows the curve of $\lambda_{\max }$ versus $x_{1}$. The perfect convexity of the curve shows that $\lambda_{\max }$ has the minimum at $x_{1}=2$.

Example 1


Fig. 2. $\lambda_{\text {max }}$ versus $x_{1}$.

Figs. 3, 4 illustrate the numerical results for Example 1 by applying the bisection and Newton's methods, respectively, with the initial guess $\left[\begin{array}{cc}1 & 1\end{array}\right]^{T}$. The quadratic convergence of Newton's method is realistic in Fig. 4. Fig. 5 gives the comparison of efficiency of the bisection method, Newton's method and the method associated with "gevp" in MatLab LMI Toolbox [21]. Numerical results here indicate that the Newton's is the most efficient one among proposed three methods. The stopping criteria in the numerical experiment for Example 1 are $\left\|\widehat{x}^{(k+1)}-\widehat{x}^{(k)}\right\|<10^{-8}$ and $\left\|\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right\|<10^{-8}$, respectively. Note that in all figures of this section, we denote $x_{*}$ to be the exact solution and $x_{k}$ to be the $k$-th iterative vector generated by the corresponding method.

Example 2. The example is from [19]. Consider

$$
M=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
4+i & 4 i \\
-1 & i
\end{array}\right] .
$$

The exact solution is

$$
x_{*}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0.25 \\
1.00
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Figs. 6, 7 illustrate the numerical results for Example 2 by applying the bisection and Newton's method, respectively, with initial guess $\left[\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1\end{array}\right]^{T}$. The comparison of numerical results of proposed algorithms are illustrated in Fig. 8. The stopping criteria for test numerical methods are $\left\|\hat{x}^{(k+1)}-\hat{x}^{(k)}\right\|<10^{-8}$ and $\left\|\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right\|<10^{-8}$. Once again, Fig. 7 highlights the quadratic convergence of Newton's method. Fig. 8 shows that Newton's method is most efficient among the proposed three methods.


Fig. 3. Numerical results for Example 1 by using the bisection method.


Fig. 4. Numerical results for Example 1 by using Newton's method.


Fig. 5. Comparisons of the efficiency of numerical methods.


Fig. 6. Numerical results for Example 2 by using the bisection method.


Fig. 7. Numerical results for Example 2 by using Newton's method.


Fig. 8. Comparisons of the efficiency of numerical methods.

Example 3. The example is from[30]. Consider

$$
M=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1+i & 10-2 i & -20 i \\
5 i & 3+i & -1+3 i \\
-2 & i & 4-i
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since there is no exact solution to Example 3, we exploit the computation results by using the bisection method to obtain an acceptable solution,

$$
\tilde{x}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0.1565412174129063 \\
0.4692003612185643 \\
1.0000000000000000
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Since Newton's method is locally convergent, obtaining an appropriate initial guess is a crucial step for Newton's method. In this example, we adopt the iterative vector $x^{(k)}$ generated by the bisection method so that $\left\|\widehat{x}^{(k+1)}-\widehat{x}^{(k)}\right\|<0.05$ or $\left\|\widehat{\nabla \lambda_{\max }}\left(x^{(k)}\right)\right\|<0.05$, to be an initial vector for Newton's method.

Figs. 9, 10, illustrate the numerical results for Example 3 by applying the bisection and "bisection + Newton's" method, respectively, with initial guess $\left[\begin{array}{lll}1 & 1 & 1\end{array}\right]^{T}$. Here "bisection + Newton's" method means that we use the bisection method first to obtain a reliable initial vector and then apply the Newton's method to compute the solution of the problem. Fig. 11 illustrate the numerical results for Example 3 by applying Newton's method with a good initial guess $\left[\begin{array}{lll}0.1 & 0.4 & 1.0\end{array}\right]^{T}$ which is closer to the target vector $\tilde{x}$. The results in Fig. 11 show the quadratic convergent behavior of Newton's method. Finally, we show the comparison of numerical results of proposed algorithms in Fig. 12. The results of comparison conclude that the method associated with gevp in MatLab LMI Toolbox which realize the interior point method for Problem 1 is very competitive with the bisection method. However, Newton's method is the most efficient algorithm for Example 3.

## 7. Conclusion

In this paper, we investigate the computation for the largest structured singular value, $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$, under a diagonal uncertainty which can be seen to be an upper bound of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ for the case of a general structured uncertainty. We develop a Newton's type method for computing the upper bound of $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$. The related theoretical results are studied as well. Numerical implementation shows the efficiency for the developed Newton's method. In addition, the numerical results illustrate that the Newton's method converges local quadratically. Recently, the computation of the largest structured singular value $\mu_{\Delta}(M)$ with various structured uncertainties, becomes an important problem [18, 19, 20, 23] because that the computation is the kernel issue for the optimal $\mu$-synthesis controller designment which is more close
to the real-world application than $\mathcal{H}_{2}$ or $\mathcal{H}_{\infty}$ control. However, a fast algorithm for the computation of the largest structured singular value with various structured uncertainty is under investigated.


Fig. 9. Numerical results for Example 3 by using the bisection method.


Fig. 10. Numerical results for Example 3 by using bisection + Newton's method.


Fig. 11. Numerical results for Example 3 by Newton's method with initial guess $\left[\begin{array}{lll}0.1 & 0.4 & 1.0\end{array}\right]^{T}$.


Fig. 12. Comparisons of the efficiency of numerical methods.

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