Solution of eigenvalue problems

- Introduction motivation
- Projection methods for eigenvalue problems
- Subspace iteration, The symmetric Lanczos algorithm
- Nonsymmetric Lanczos procedure;
- Implicit restarts
- Harmonic Ritz values, Jacobi-Davidson's method
- Text: Chaps. 4 to 8 of:

https://www-users.cse.umn.edu/~saad/eig_book_2ndEd.pdf

Background. Origins of Eigenvalue Problems

- Structural Engineering $[Ku = \lambda Mu]$ (Goal: frequency response)
- Electronic structure calculations [Schrödinger equation..]
- Stability analysis [e.g., electrical networks, mechanical system,..]
- Bifurcation analysis [e.g., in fluid flow]
- Large eigenvalue problems in quantum chemistry use up biggest portion of the time in supercomputer centers

Background. New applications in data analytics

- Machine learning problems often require a (partial) Singular Value Decomposition -
- Somewhat different issues in this case:
- Very large matrices, update the SVD
- Compute dominant singular values/vectors
- Many problems of approximating a matrix (or a tensor) by one of lower rank (Dimension reduction, ...)
- ➤ But: Methods for computing SVD often based on those for standard eigenvalue problems

Background. The Problem (s)

Standard eigenvalue problem:

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

Often: *A* is symmetric real (or Hermitian complex)

- Figure 2. Generalized problem $Ax = \lambda Bx$ Often: B is symmetric positive definite, A is symmetric or nonsymmetric
- ightharpoonup Quadratic problems: $(A + \lambda B + \lambda^2 C)u = 0$
- Nonlinear eigenvalue problems (NEVP)

$$oxed{A_0 + \lambda B_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(\lambda) A_i} u = 0$$

- ightharpoonup General form of NEVP $A(\lambda)x = 0$
- Nonlinear eigenvector problems:

$$[A+\lambda B+F(u_1,u_2,\cdots,u_k)]u=0$$

What to compute:

- A few λ_i 's with smallest or largest real parts;
- All λ_i 's in a certain region of \mathbb{C} ;
- A few of the dominant eigenvalues;
- All λ_i 's (rare).

Large eigenvalue problems in applications

- Some applications require the computation of a large number of eigenvalues and vectors of very large matrices.
- ➤ Density Functional Theory in electronic structure calculations: 'ground states'
- ➤ Excited states involve transitions and invariably lead to much more complex computations. → Large matrices, *many* eigen-pairs to compute

Background: The main tools

Projection process:

- (a) Build a 'good' subspace K = span(V);
- (b) get approximate eigenpairs by a Rayleigh-Ritz process:

$$ilde{\lambda},\, ilde{u}\in K$$
 satisfy: $(A- ilde{\lambda}I) ilde{u}\,\perp\,K\,\longrightarrow\,$

$$V^H(A- ilde{\lambda}I)Vy=0$$

- $ightharpoonup \tilde{\lambda} = \text{Ritz value}, \ \tilde{u} = Vy = \text{Ritz vector}$
- Two common choices for K:
 - 1) Power subspace $K = \operatorname{span}\{A^k X_0\}$; or $\operatorname{span}\{P_k(A) X_0\}$;
 - 2) Krylov subspace $K = \operatorname{span}\{v, Av, \cdots, A^{k-1}v\}$

Background. The main tools (cont)

Shift-and-invert: If we want eigenvalues near σ , replace A by $(A - \sigma I)^{-1}$.

Example: power method: $v_j = Av_{j-1}$ /scaling replaced by

$$v_j = rac{(A - \sigma I)^{-1} v_{j-1}}{ ext{scaling}}$$

- \blacktriangleright Works well for computing *a few* eigenvalues near σ /
- Used in commercial package NASTRAN (for decades!)
- Requires factoring $(A \sigma I)$ (or $(A \sigma B)$ in generalized case.) But convergence will be much faster.
- ➤ A solve each time Factorization done once (ideally).

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Background. The main tools (cont)

Deflation:

Once eigenvectors converge remove them from the picture (e.g., with power method, second largest becomes largest eigenvalue after deflation).

Restarting Strategies:

Restart projection process by using information gathered in previous steps

- ALL available methods use some combination of these ingredients.
- [e.g. ARPACK: Arnoldi/Lanczos + 'implicit restarts' + shift-and-invert (option).]

Current state-of-the art in eigensolvers

- Eigenvalues at one end of the spectrum:
 - Subspace iteration + filtering [e.g. FEAST, Cheb,...]
 - Lanczos+variants (no restart, thick restart, implicit restart, Davidson,..),
 e.g., ARPACK code, PRIMME.
 - Block Algorithms [Block Lanczos, TraceMin, LOBPCG, SlepSc,...]
 - + Many others more or less related to above
- 'Interior' eigenvalue problems (middle of spectrum):
 - Combine shift-and-invert + Lanczos/block Lanczos. Used in, e.g., NASTRAN
 - Rational filtering [FEAST, Sakurai et al.,...]

Projection Methods for Eigenvalue Problems

General formulation:

- Projection method onto K orthogonal to L
- \triangleright Given: Two subspaces K and L of same dimension.
- Find: $\tilde{\lambda}$, \tilde{u} such that:

$$ilde{\lambda} \, \in \, \mathbb{C}, ilde{u} \, \in \, K; \quad (ilde{\lambda}I - A) ilde{u} \perp L$$

Two types of methods:

- ightharpoonup Orthogonal projection methods: situation when L=K.
- ightharpoonup Oblique projection methods: When $L \neq K$.

Rayleigh-Ritz projection

Given: a subspace X known to contain good approximations to eigenvectors of A.

Question: How to extract good approximations to eigenvalues/ eigenvectors from this subspace?

Answer: Rayleigh Ritz process.

Let $Q=[q_1,\ldots,q_m]$ an orthonormal basis of X. Then write an approximation in the form $\tilde{u}=Qy$ and obtain y by writing

$$Q^H(A- ilde{\lambda}I) ilde{u}=0$$

$$ightharpoonup Q^HAQy= ilde{\lambda}y$$

Procedure:

- 1. Obtain an orthonormal basis of X
- 2. Compute $C = Q^H A Q$ (an $m \times m$ matrix)
- 3. Obtain Schur factorization of C, $C = YRY^H$
- 4. Compute $\tilde{U} = QY$

Property: if X is (exactly) invariant, then procedure will yield exact eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

<u>Proof:</u> Since X is invariant, $(A - \tilde{\lambda}I)u = Qz$ for a certain z. $Q^HQz = 0$ implies z = 0 and therefore $(A - \tilde{\lambda}I)u = 0$.

➤ Can use this procedure in conjunction with the subspace obtained from subspace iteration algorithm

Subspace Iteration

- Original idea: projection technique onto a subspace if the form $Y = A^k X$
- In practice: Replace A^k by suitable polynomial [Chebyshev]

Advantages: • Easy to implement (in symmetric case);

• Easy to analyze:

Disadvantage: Slow.

Often used with polynomial acceleration: A^kX replaced by $C_k(A)X$. Typically C_k = Chebyshev polynomial.

Algorithm: Subspace Iteration with Projection

- 1. Start: Choose an initial system of vectors $X = [x_0, \dots, x_m]$ and an initial polynomial C_k .
- 2. Iterate: Until convergence do:
 - (a) Compute $\hat{Z} = C_k(A) X_{old}$.
 - (b) Orthonormalize \hat{Z} into Z.
 - (c) Compute $B = Z^H A Z$ and use the QR algorithm to compute the Schur vectors $Y = [y_1, \dots, y_m]$ of B.
 - (d) Compute $X_{new} = ZY$.
 - (e) Test for convergence. If satisfied stop. Else select a new polynomial $C'_{k'}$ and continue.

THEOREM: Let $S_0 = span\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m\}$ and assume that S_0 is such that the vectors $\{Px_i\}_{i=1,\ldots,m}$ are linearly independent where P is the spectral projector associated with $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$. Let \mathcal{P}_k the orthogonal projector onto the subspace $S_k = span\{X_k\}$. Then for each eigenvector u_i of A, $i = 1,\ldots,m$, there exists a unique vector s_i in the subspace S_0 such that $Ps_i = u_i$. Moreover, the following inequality is satisfied

$$\|(I - \mathcal{P}_k)u_i\|_2 \le \|u_i - s_i\|_2 \left(\left| \frac{\lambda_{m+1}}{\lambda_i} \right| + \epsilon_k \right)^k, \tag{1}$$

where ϵ_k tends to zero as k tends to infinity.

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Krylov subspace methods

Principle: Projection methods on Krylov subspaces:

$$K_m(A,v_1)=\mathsf{span}\{v_1,Av_1,\cdots,A^{m-1}v_1\}$$

- The most important class of iterative methods.
- Many variants exist depending on the subspace L.

Simple properties of K_m $[\mu \equiv \deg$ of minimal polynomial of v_1 .]

- ullet $K_m = \{p(A)v_1|p = ext{polynomial of degree} \leq m-1\}$
- $K_m = K_\mu$ for all $m \ge \mu$. Moreover, K_μ is invariant under A.
- $ullet dim(K_m)=m ext{ iff } \mu > m.$

Arnoldi's Algorithm

- \triangleright Goal: to compute an orthogonal basis of K_m .
- ▶ Input: Initial vector v_1 , with $||v_1||_2 = 1$ and m.

ALGORITHM: 1 • Arnoldi's procedure

For
$$j=1,...,m$$
 do
$$\textit{Compute } w:=Av_j$$

$$\textit{For } i=1,...,j, \textit{ do } \begin{cases} h_{i,j}:=(w,v_i) \\ w:=w-h_{i,j}v_i \end{cases}$$

$$h_{j+1,j}=\|w\|_2; v_{j+1}=w/h_{j+1,j}$$
 End

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Result of Arnoldi's algorithm

Let

- 1. $V_m = [v_1, v_2, ..., v_m]$ orthonormal basis of K_m .
- 2. $AV_m=V_{m+1}\overline{H}_m=V_mH_m+h_{m+1,m}v_{m+1}e_m^T$
- 3. $V_m^T A V_m = H_m \equiv \overline{H}_m$ last row.

Appliaction to eigenvalue problems

ightharpoonup Write approximate eigenvector as $\tilde{u} = V_m y$ + Galerkin condition

$$(A- ilde{\lambda}I)V_my \;\perp\; \mathcal{K}_m
ightarrow V_m^H(A- ilde{\lambda}I)V_my = 0$$

 \blacktriangleright Approximate eigenvalues are eigenvalues of H_m

$$H_m y_j = ilde{\lambda}_j y_j$$

Associated approximate eigenvectors are

$$ilde{u}_j = V_m y_j$$

Typically a few of the outermost eigenvalues will converge first.

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Restarted Arnoldi

In practice: Memory requirement of algorithm implies restarting is necessary

Restarted Arnoldi for computing rightmost eigenpair:

ALGORITHM: 2 Restarted Arnoldi

- 1. Start: Choose an initial vector v_1 and a dimension m.
- 2. Iterate: Perform m steps of Arnoldi's algorithm.
- 3. Restart: Compute the approximate eigenvector $u_1^{(m)}$
- 4. associated with the rightmost eigenvalue $\lambda_1^{(m)}$.
- 5. If satisfied stop, else set $v_1 \equiv u_1^{(m)}$ and goto 2.

Example:

Small Markov Chain matrix [Mark(10), dimension = 55]. Restarted Arnoldi procedure for computing the eigenvector associated with the eigenvalue with algebraically largest real part. We use m=10.

\overline{m}	$\Re(\lambda)$	$\Im(\lambda)$	Res. Norm
10	0.9987435899D+00	0.0	0.246D-01
20	0.9999523324D+00	0.0	0.144D-02
30	0.1000000368D+01	0.0	0.221D-04
40	0.1000000025D+01	0.0	0.508D-06
50	0.999999996D+00	0.0	0.138D-07

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Deflation

- Very useful in practice.
- Different forms: locking (subspace iteration), selective orthogonalization (Lanczos), Schur deflation, ...

A little background Consider Schur canonical form $A = URU^H$

where U is a (complex) upper triangular matrix.

- Vector columns u_1, \ldots, u_n called Schur vectors.
- Note: Schur vectors are not unique. In particular, they depend on the order of the eigenvalues

Wiedlandt Deflation: Assume we have computed a right eigenpair λ_1, u_1 . Wielandt deflation considers eigenvalues of

$$A_1 = A - \sigma u_1 v^H$$

Note:

$$\Lambda(A_1) = \{\lambda_1 - \sigma, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n\}$$

Wielandt deflation preserves u_1 as an eigenvector as well all the left eigenvectors not associated with λ_1 .

- ightharpoonup An interesting choice for v is to take simply $v=u_1$. In this case Wielandt deflation preserves Schur vectors as well.
- Can apply above procedure successively.

ALGORITHM: 3 Explicit Deflation

- 1. $A_0 = A$
- 2. For $j = 0 \dots \mu 1$ Do:
- 3. Compute a dominant eigenvector of A_j
- 4. Define $A_{j+1} = A_j \sigma_j u_j u_j^H$
- 5. End

- ightharpoonup Computed $u_1, u_2, ...$ form a set of Schur vectors for A.
- In Arnoldi: Accumulate each new converged eigenvector in columns 1, 2,
- 3, ... ['locked' set of eigenvectors.] + maintain orthogonality
- Alternative: implicit deflation (within a procedure such as Arnoldi).

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Deflated Arnoldi

For k = 1,NEV do: /* Eigenvalue loop */

- 1. For j = k, k + 1, ..., m do: /* Arnoldi loop*/
 - Compute $w := Av_i$.
 - ullet Orthonormalize w against $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_j \ o \ v_{j+1}$
- 2. Compute next approximate eigenpair $\tilde{\lambda}$, \tilde{u} .
- 3. Orthonormalize \tilde{u} against $v_1, \ldots, v_j \succ$ Result = \tilde{s} = approximate Schur vector.
- 4. Define $v_k := \tilde{s}$.
- 5. If approximation not satisfactory go to 1.
- 6. Else define $h_{i,k} = (Av_k, v_i), i = 1,..,k,$

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Thus, for
$$k = 2$$
:

$$V_m = egin{bmatrix} v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_m \ Locked \end{bmatrix}$$

- Similar techniques in Subspace iteration [G. Stewart's SRRIT]
- Run example with restarted Arnoldi with Deflation in testArnRD

Example: Matrix Mark(10) – small Markov chain matrix (N = 55).

Continued from earlier example. [First eigenpair by iterative Arnoldi with m=10] We now compute next 2 eigenvalues

Eig.	Mat-Vec's	$\Re e(\pmb{\lambda})$	$\Im m(\lambda)$	Res. Norm
2	60	0.9370509474	0.0	0.870D-03
	69	0.9371549617	0.0	0.175D-04
	78	0.9371501442	0.0	0.313D-06
	87	0.9371501564	0.0	0.490D-08
3	96	0.8112247133	0.0	0.210D-02
	104	0.8097553450	0.0	0.538D-03
	112	0.8096419483	0.0	0.874D-04
	1	ı	I	ı
	152	0.8095717167	0.0	0.444D-07

Hermitian case: The Lanczos Algorithm

The Hessenberg matrix becomes tridiagonal:

$$A=A^H$$
 and $V_m^HAV_m=H_m$ $ightarrow H_m=H_m^H \longrightarrow$

$$eta_{j+1}v_{j+1}=Av_j-lpha_jv_j-eta_jv_{j-1}$$

Hermitian matrix + Arnoldi → Hermitian Lanczos

ALGORITHM: 4. Lanczos

- 1. Choose v_1 of norm unity. Set $\beta_1 \equiv 0, v_0 \equiv 0$
- 2. For j = 1, 2, ..., m Do:
- $3. w_j := Av_j \beta_j v_{j-1}$
- 4. $\alpha_j := (w_j, v_j)$
- $5. w_i := w_i \alpha_i v_i$
- 6. $\beta_{j+1} := \|w_j\|_2$. If $\beta_{j+1} = 0$ then Stop
- 7. $v_{j+1} := w_j/\beta_{j+1}$
- 8. EndDo
- \triangleright In theory v_i 's defined by 3-term recurrence are orthogonal.
- However: in practice severe loss of orthogonality;

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Lanczos with reorthogonalization

Observation [Paige, 1981]: Loss of orthogonality starts suddenly, when the first eigenpair converges. It indicates loss of linear indedependence of the v_i s. When orthogonality is lost, then several copies of the same eigenvalue start appearing.

Forms of Re-orthogonalization

Full – reorthogonalize v_{j+1} against all previous v_i 's every time.

Partial – reorthogonalize v_{j+1} against all previous v_i 's only when needed

Selective – reorthogonalize v_{j+1} against computed eigenvectors

None – Do not reorthogonalize - but take measures to deal with 'spurious' eigenvalues.

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Partial reorthogonalization

- ➤ Partial reorthogonalization: reorthogonalize only when deemed necessary.
- Main question is when?
- Uses an inexpensive recurrence relation
- ➤ Work done in the 80's [Parlett, Simon, and co-workers] + more recent work [Larsen, '98]
- Package: PROPACK [Larsen] V 1: 2001, most recent: V 2.1 (Apr. 05)
- Often, need for reorthogonalization not too strong

The Lanczos Algorithm in the Hermitian Case

Assume eigenvalues sorted increasingly

$$\lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \dots \le \lambda_n$$

- \triangleright Orthogonal projection method onto K_m ;
- To derive error bounds, use the Courant characterization

$$egin{aligned} ilde{\lambda}_1 &= \min_{u \;\in\; K,\; u
eq 0} rac{(Au,u)}{(u,u)} = rac{(A ilde{u}_1, ilde{u}_1)}{(ilde{u}_1, ilde{u}_1)} \ ilde{\lambda}_j &= \min_{\left\{egin{aligned} u \;\in\; K,\; u
eq 0 \ u \;\perp ilde{u}_1,..., ilde{u}_{j-1} \end{aligned}
ight.} rac{(Au,u)}{(u,u)} = rac{(A ilde{u}_1, ilde{u}_1)}{(ilde{u}_j, ilde{u}_j)} \end{aligned}$$

- \triangleright Bounds for λ_1 easy to find similar to linear systems.
- Ritz values approximate eigenvalues of A inside out:



Run testLan to see an illustration

A-priori error bounds

Theorem [Kaniel, 1966]: Let $\gamma_1 = \frac{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}{\lambda_N - \lambda_2}$; Then:

$$0 \leq \lambda_1^{(m)} - \lambda_1 \leq (\lambda_N - \lambda_1) \left[rac{ anangle(v_1,u_1)}{T_{m-1}(1+2\gamma_1)}
ight]^2.$$

Theorem [Kaniel, Paige, YS]. Let $\gamma_i = \frac{\lambda_{i+1} - \lambda_i}{\lambda_N - \lambda_{i+1}}$, $\kappa_i^{(m)} = \prod_{j < i} \frac{\lambda_j^{(m)} - \lambda_N}{\lambda_j^{(m)} - \lambda_i}$ Then:

$$0 \leq \lambda_i^{(m)} - \lambda_i \leq (\lambda_N - \lambda_1) \left[\kappa_i^{(m)} rac{ an oldsymbol{\angle}(v_i, u_i)}{T_{m-i}(1+2\gamma_i)}
ight]^2$$

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The Lanczos biorthogonalization $(A^H \neq A)$

ALGORITHM: 5 Lanczos bi-orthogonalization

- 1. Choose two vectors v_1, w_1 such that $(v_1, w_1) = 1$.
- 2. Set $\beta_1 = \delta_1 \equiv 0$, $w_0 = v_0 \equiv 0$
- 3. For j = 1, 2, ..., m Do:
- 4. $\alpha_i = (Av_i, w_i)$
- 5. $\hat{v}_{j+1} = Av_j \alpha_j v_j \beta_j v_{j-1}$
- 6. $\hat{w}_{j+1} = A^T w_j \alpha_j w_j \delta_j w_{j-1}$
- 7. $\delta_{j+1} = |(\hat{v}_{j+1}, \hat{w}_{j+1})|^{1/2}$. If $\delta_{j+1} = 0$ Stop
- 8. $\beta_{j+1} = (\hat{v}_{j+1}, \hat{w}_{j+1})/\delta_{j+1}$
- 9. $w_{j+1} = \hat{w}_{j+1}/\beta_{j+1}$
- 10. $v_{j+1} = \hat{v}_{j+1}/\delta_{j+1}$
- 11. EndDo

> Builds a pair of biorthogonal bases for the two subspaces

$$\mathcal{K}_m(A,v_1)$$
 and $\mathcal{K}_m(A^H,w_1)$

 \blacktriangleright Many choices for $\delta_{j+1}, \beta_{j+1}$ in lines 7 and 8. Only constraint:

$$\delta_{j+1}eta_{j+1} = (\hat{v}_{j+1}, \hat{w}_{j+1})$$

Let

 $\blacktriangleright \ v_i \ \in \ \mathcal{K}_m(A,v_1)$ and $w_j \ \in \mathcal{K}_m(A^T,w_1).$

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If the algorithm does not break down before step m, then the vectors $v_i, i = 1, \ldots, m$, and $w_j, j = 1, \ldots, m$, are biorthogonal, i.e.,

$$(v_j, w_i) = \delta_{ij}$$
 $1 \leq i, j \leq m$.

Moreover, $\{v_i\}_{i=1,2,...,m}$ is a basis of $\mathcal{K}_m(A,v_1)$ and $\{w_i\}_{i=1,2,...,m}$ is a basis of $\mathcal{K}_m(A^H,w_1)$ and

$$egin{aligned} AV_m &= V_m T_m + \delta_{m+1} v_{m+1} e_m^H, \ A^H W_m &= W_m T_m^H + ar{eta}_{m+1} w_{m+1} e_m^H, \ W_m^H A V_m &= T_m \ \ . \end{aligned}$$

ightharpoonup If θ_j, y_j, z_j are, respectively an eigenvalue of T_m , with associated right and left eigenvectors y_j and z_j respectively, then corresponding approximations for A are

Ritz value	Right Ritz vector	Left Ritz vector
$oldsymbol{ heta_j}$	$V_m y_j$	$W_m z_j$

[Note: terminology is abused slightly - Ritz values and vectors normally refer to Hermitian cases.]

Advantages and disadvantages

Advantages:

- ➤ Nice three-term recurrence requires little storage in theory.
- Computes left and a right eigenvectors at the same time

Disadvantages:

- Algorithm can break down or nearly break down.
- Convergence not too well understood. Erratic behavior
- \triangleright Not easy to take advantage of the tridiagonal form of T_m .

Explore the litterature on "Look-ahead Lanczos" which aims at resolving some of these issues.

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