

Randomized matrix-free quadrature

Tyler Chen (joint with Tom Trogdon and Shashanka Ubaru)

<https://chen.pw/slides.pdf>

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What is a matrix function?

An $n \times n$ symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} has **real eigenvalues** and **orthonormal eigenvectors**:

$$\mathbf{A} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^{\top}.$$

The matrix function $f(\mathbf{A})$, induced by $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and \mathbf{A} , is defined as

$$f(\mathbf{A}) := \sum_{i=1}^n f(\lambda_i) \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^{\top}.$$

Common functions are $1/x$, $\exp(-\beta x)$, \sqrt{x} , $\ln(x)$, etc.

Spectral sums and spectral measures

Spectral sums are integrals against a cumulative empirical **spectral measure**¹ (CSEM):

$$\operatorname{tr}(f(\mathbf{A})) = n \int f \, d\Phi, \quad \Phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n n^{-1} \mathbb{1}[\lambda_i \leq x].$$

¹also called density of states in physics

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Quadratic forms of matrix functions are integrals against a **weighted spectral measure** (wCSEM):

$$\mathbf{v}^\top f(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v} = \int f \, d\Psi, \quad \Psi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{u}_i|^2 \mathbb{1}[\lambda_i \leq x].$$

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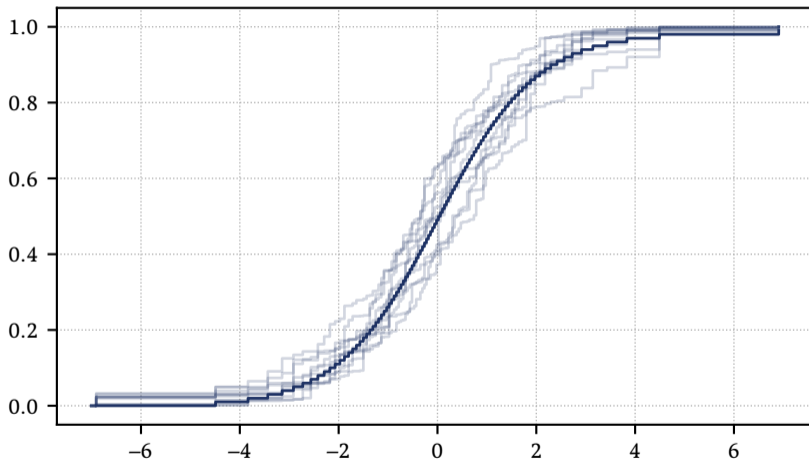
$$\mathbf{v}^\top f(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v} = \int f \, d\Psi, \quad \Psi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{u}_i|^2 \mathbb{1}[\lambda_i \leq x].$$

If $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^\top] = n^{-1}\mathbf{I}$, then $\Psi(x)$ is an unbiased estimator for $\Phi(x)$; see also quadratic trace estimation²: $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{B} \mathbf{v}] = n^{-1} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{B})$.

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Example: CSEM vs wCESM



Legend: CSEM Φ (—), samples of weighted CSEM Ψ corresponding to random \mathbf{v} (—).

A prototypical algorithm for randomized matrix free quadrature

Many **standard algorithms** approximate the CESM Φ in two stages:

1. approximate Φ by weighted CESM Ψ by sampling \mathbf{v}
2. approximate Ψ by a polynomial quadrature $[\Psi]_s^{\circ q}$

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We need to enforce that low-degree **polynomials are integrated exactly**. This can be done with knowledge of polynomial moments

$$m_i = \int p_i d\Psi = \mathbf{v}^T p_i(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v}.$$

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$$m_i = \int p_i d\Psi = \mathbf{v}^T p_i(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v}.$$

Moments m_0, m_1, \dots, m_{2k} can be computed from the **Krylov subspace**

$$\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v}) := \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{v}\}.$$

Polynomial quadrature

Fix a **reference measure** μ .

Examples of choices of $[f]_s^{\text{op}}$:

- truncated μ -orthogonal polynomial series of f
 - **Kernel polynomial method**³: μ fixed (e.g. arcsin), possibly apply damping kernel
- polynomial interpolate at roots of an orthogonal polynomial of μ
 - **Stochastic Lanczos quadrature**⁴: $\mu = \Psi$ (Gaussian quadrature)

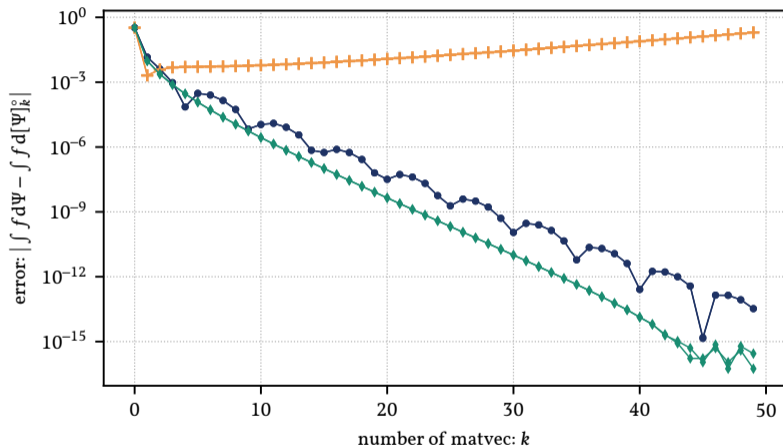
KPM and SLQ are probably the **most widely used**⁵ algorithms for spectrum and spectral sum approximation.

³Skilling 1989; Silver and Röder 1994; Weiße, Wellein, Alvermann, and Fehske 2006.

⁴Bai, Fahey, and Golub 1996; Golub and Meurant 2009.

⁵Weiße, Wellein, Alvermann, and Fehske 2006; Lin, Saad, and Yang 2016; Ubaru, Chen, and Saad 2017; Martinsson and Tropp 2020; Murray et al. 2023.

Choosing the reference measure/approximation



Legend: KPM with correct support ($\color{green}\blacklozenge$), 5% too large ($\color{blue}\bullet$), 5% too small ($\color{orange}\blackplus$).

Computing moments

Let p_i be the orthogonal polynomials of μ with three-term recurrence:

$$xp_i(x) = \beta_{i-1}p_{i-1}(x) + \alpha_i p_i(x) + \beta_i p_{i+1}(x).$$

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We can run a matrix version of the recurrence to compute $p_i(\mathbf{A})\mathbf{v}$. Then, to get moments:

- Compute $m_i = \mathbf{v}^\top p_i(\mathbf{A})\mathbf{v}$ as you go.
 - This works fine, but we only get degree k not $2k$.
- Instead store basis $\mathbf{B} = [p_0(\mathbf{A})\mathbf{v}, \dots, p_k(\mathbf{A})\mathbf{v}]$ and compute $\mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{B}$.
 - This gets degree $2k$, but requires high memory.

For Chebyshev polynomials, can get both from⁶:

$$T_{2i}(x) = 2T_i(x)^2 - 1, \quad T_{2i+1}(x) = 2T_i(x)T_{i+1}(x) - x.$$

⁶Skilling 1989; Weiße, Wellein, Alvermann, and Fehske 2006.

Connection coefficients for more modified moments

The connection coefficient matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}_{\mu \rightarrow \nu}$ is the upper triangular matrix representing a change of basis between the orthogonal polynomials $\{p_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ with respect to μ and the orthogonal polynomials $\{q_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ with respect to ν , whose entries satisfy,

$$p_s(x) = [\mathbf{C}]_{0,s}q_0(x) + [\mathbf{C}]_{1,s}q_1(x) + \cdots + [\mathbf{C}]_{s,s}q_s(x).$$

- Connection coefficient matrix can be computed recursively⁷ from recurrence formulas for orthogonal polynomials of μ and ν .
- If we have moments with respect to ν , we can get moments with respect to μ .

⁷Sack and Donovan 1971; Wheeler 1974; Webb and Olver 2021.

The Lanczos algorithm

The Lanczos algorithm (efficiently) computes an orthonormal basis for the Krylov subspace $\mathcal{K}_k(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{v})$.

Equivalently, **Lanczos computes the orthogonal polynomials of Ψ !** Resulting Gaussian quadrature integrates polynomials of degree $2k - 1$ exactly.

This can be done efficiently with a **three term recurrence**:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{q}_i = \beta_{i-1}\mathbf{q}_{i-1} + \alpha_i\mathbf{q}_i + \beta_i\mathbf{q}_{i+1}.$$

Compared with explicit polynomials: we already know the modified moments, but need to compute the recurrence coefficients.

Example: instability of Lanczos

In finite precision arithmetic, the Lanczos algorithm behaves **extremely differently** than in exact arithmetic.

Toy example⁸:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & & & & & & & \\ & 0.00025 & & & & & & & & & \\ & & 0.0005 & & & & & & & & \\ & & & 0.00075 & & & & & & & \\ & & & & 0.001 & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & 10 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

⁸Parlet and Scott 1979.

Example: instability of Lanczos

Denote by \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{Q} the finite precision arithmetic output of Lanczos and $\tilde{\mathbf{T}}, \tilde{\mathbf{Q}}$ the “exact” arithmetic output. How many digits of accuracy do we have for the following quantities:

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$$\begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{\mathbf{Q}} - \mathbf{Q} & \tilde{\mathbf{T}} - \mathbf{T} & \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{I} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} - & - & 12 & 7 & 1 \\ - & - & 12 & 7 & 0 \\ - & 17 & 13 & 11 & 0 \\ - & - & 12 & 7 & 0 \\ - & - & 12 & 7 & 1 \\ - & 17 & 8 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right] & \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} - & - & & & & \\ - & - & - & & & \\ & - & - & 19 & & \\ & & 19 & 14 & 10 & \\ & & & 10 & 5 & 2 \\ & & & & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right] & \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 16 & 16 & 17 & 8 & 4 & 0 \\ 16 & 16 & 12 & 8 & 3 & 0 \\ 17 & 12 & 16 & 15 & 7 & 4 \\ 8 & 8 & 15 & 15 & 15 & 9 \\ 4 & 3 & 7 & 15 & - & 17 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 9 & 17 & - \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

Stability of matrix-free quadrature

Practitioners (and theorists) are wary of using Lanczos-based methods ($\mu = \Psi$), at least without reorthogonalization⁹ (**expensive**)!

Instead, they prefer methods based on explicit polynomials (μ fixed) such as the Chebyshev polynomials.

⁹Jaklič and Prelovšek 1994; Aichhorn, Daghofer, Evertz, and Linden 2003; Weiße, Wellein, Alvermann, and Fehske 2006; Ubaru, Chen, and Saad 2017; Granzio, Wan, and Garipov 2019.

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However...

- Explicit methods are **not adaptive** to the spectrum
- Explicit methods are **exponentially unstable** unless certain hyperparameters are selected properly

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Lanczos in finite precision arithmetic

A lot is known: Perturbed Lanczos recurrence¹⁰, CG/Backwards stability¹¹, Matrix functions¹².

¹⁰Paige 1970; Paige 1972; Paige 1976; Paige 1980.

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A lot is known: Perturbed Lanczos recurrence¹⁰, CG/Backwards stability¹¹, Matrix functions¹².

Knizhnerman 1996¹³ shows that finite precision Lanczos approximates Chebyshev moments accurately:

$$\| \underbrace{\mathbf{v}^T T_i(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v}}_{\text{true moment}} - \underbrace{\mathbf{e}_1^T T_i(\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{e}_1}_{\text{Lanczos version}} \| \leq \epsilon_{\text{mach}} \cdot \text{poly}(k).$$

Proofs straightforward given Paige 1976 and Paige 1980.

Knizhnerman 1996 implies¹⁴ that **KPM can be implemented stably using Lanczos.**

¹⁰Paige 1970; Paige 1972; Paige 1976; Paige 1980.

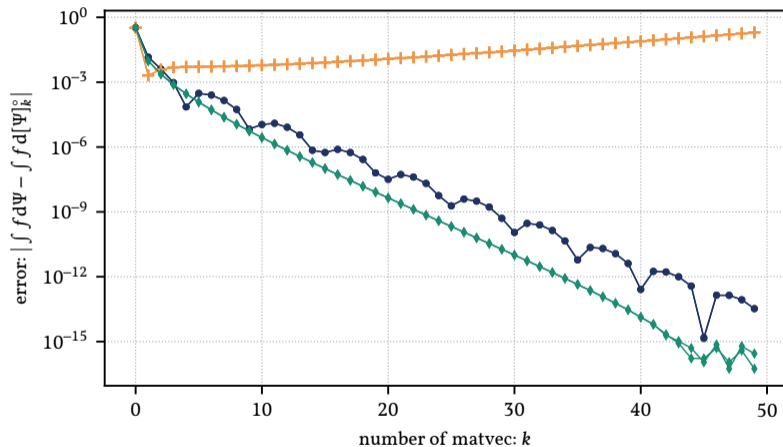
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Choosing the reference measure/approximation revisited



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The big picture

The ideas we described here are old¹⁵

¹⁵Gautschi 1970; Sack and Donovan 1971; Wheeler 1974; Golub and Meurant 1994; Gautschi 2006; Golub and Meurant 2009.

The big picture

The ideas we described here are old¹⁵, so what's the point?

More interaction with application domains is needed.

- Practitioners have lots of good algorithms (that we'll re-discover in 10 years)
- We have the tools to improve their algorithms

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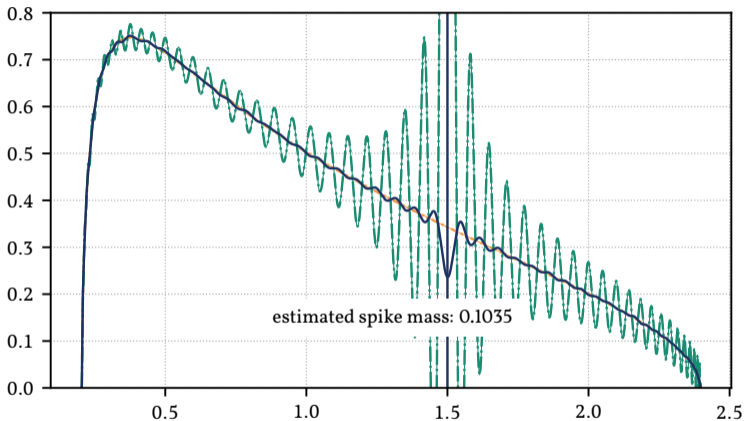
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This talk:

- We can cheaply try out lots of different quadrature rules (decouple computation from approximation) once we've run Lanczos.
 - This allows variants of KPM which are spectrum adaptive
 - We do not need to know hyperparameters ahead of time!
 - This avoids potential instabilities of KPM with bad parameter choices
- Better explanation of stability of Lanczos-based methods

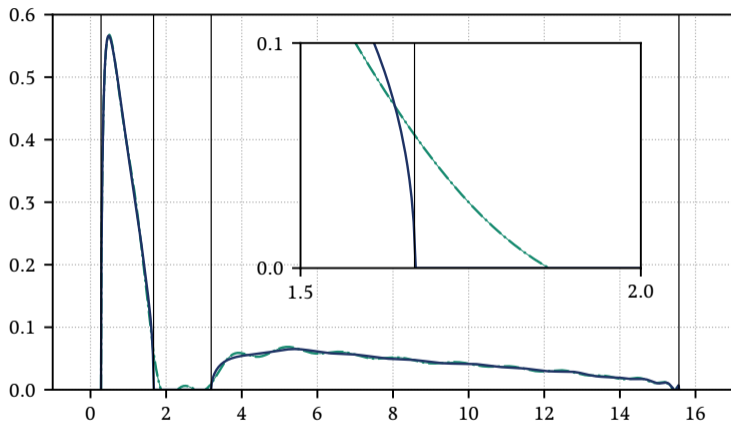
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Example: smooth spectrum with spike



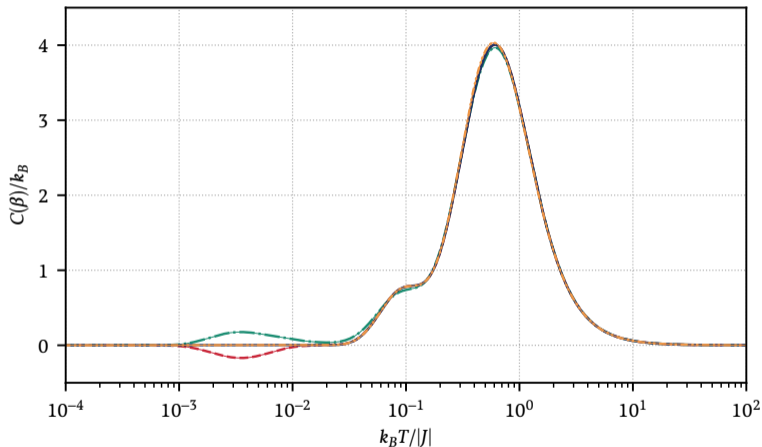
Legend: limiting density (—), kernel polynomial method: $\mu = (1 - p)\mu_{a,b}^U + p \delta(x - z)$ (- - -), kernel polynomial method: $\mu = \mu_{a,b}^U$ (—).

Example: spectrum with disjoint support



Legend: kernel polynomial method: $\mu = \mu_{a_1, b_2}^U$ (—), damped kernel polynomial method: $\mu = \frac{1}{2}\mu_{a_1, b_1}^U + \frac{1}{2}\mu_{a_2, b_2}^U$ (—).

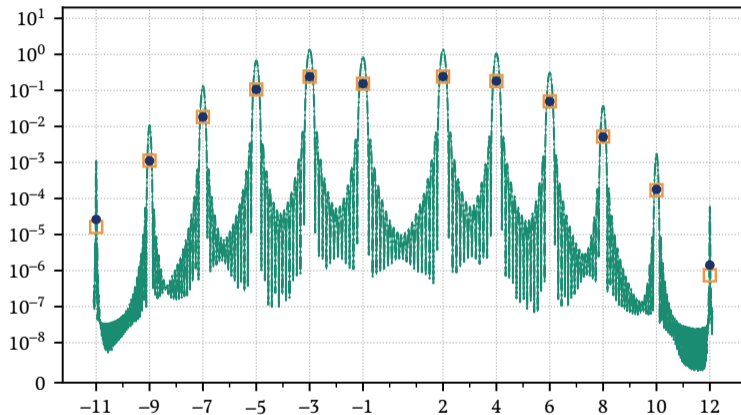
Example: heat capacity of quantum spin system¹⁶



Legend: exact diagonalization (—), stochastic Lanczos quadrature (—), kernel polynomial method (- - -), and damped kernel polynomial method (- · - ·).

¹⁶Schlüter, Gayk, Schmidt, Honecker, and Schnack 2021.

Example: a sparse spectrum



Legend: true spectrum (\square), stochastic Lanczos quadrature $k = 12$ (\bullet), kernel polynomial method $k = 250$ (---)

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