

7. Discrete Fourier Transform

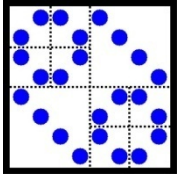
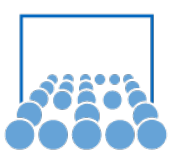
$$\bar{\omega} = \text{conj}(\omega) = \exp(-2\pi i/n)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{n} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \bar{\omega} & \bar{\omega}^2 & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{n-1} \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^2 & \bar{\omega}^4 & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{2(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \bar{\omega}^{n-1} & \bar{\omega}^{2(n-1)} & \dots & \bar{\omega}^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} v_j \bar{\omega}^{jk}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$

$c = \text{DFT}(v)$. Vector c is the Discrete Fourier Transform of vector v .

Important application: values \rightarrow coefficients, frequency analysis



Discrete Fourier Transform

$$c_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} v_j \overline{\omega}^{jk}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$

DFT is nothing else than matrix times vector or n inner products.

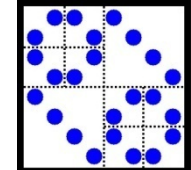
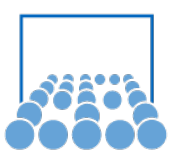
Therefore, costs sequentially: $O(n^2)$

in parallel: $n \cdot \log(n)$ processors, $\log(n)$ time steps by n fan-in processes.

DFT is very important in many applications.

Therefore, fast algorithms have been developed by divide-and-conquer

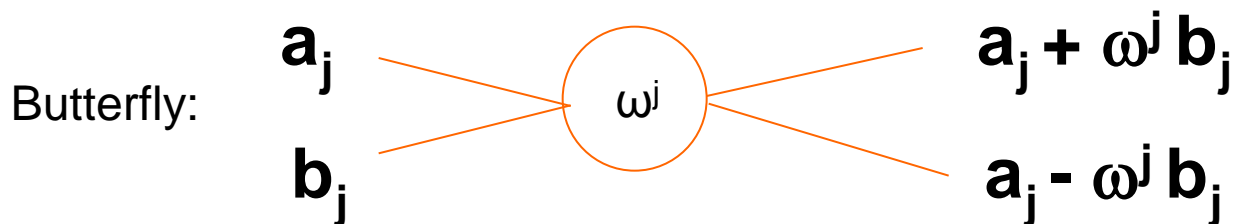
→ FFT = Fast Fourier Transform

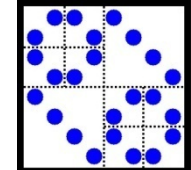
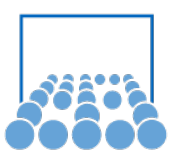


Odd – even Partitioning

$$\begin{aligned}
 v_j &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2\pi ijk}{n}\right) = \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} c_{2k} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2\pi ij2k}{n}\right) + \sum_{k=0}^{n/2-1} c_{2k+1} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2\pi ij(2k+1)}{n}\right) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} c_{2k} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2\pi ijk}{m}\right) + \omega^j \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} c_{2k+1} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2\pi ijk}{m}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 v_{m+j} &= \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} c_{2k} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2i\pi(j+m)k}{m}\right) + \omega^{j+m} \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} c_{2k+1} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2i\pi(j+m)k}{m}\right) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} c_{2k} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2ijk\pi}{m}\right) - \omega^j \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} c_{2k+1} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{2ijk\pi}{m}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

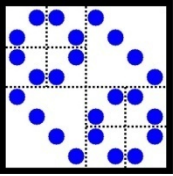
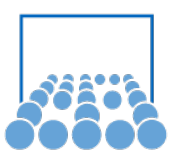




FFT: Recursive Algorithm

Partitioning the sums in the IDFT in odd and even coefficients delivers the first and the second part of $v = \text{IDFT}(c)$:

```
FUNCTION( $v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}$ ) = IDFT( $c_0, \dots, c_{n-1}, n$ )
  IF  $n == 1$ 
     $v_0 = c_0$  ;
  ELSE
     $m = n/2$  ;
    ( $g_0, \dots, g_{m-1}$ ) = IDFT( $c_0, c_2, \dots, c_{n-2}, m$ ) ;
    ( $u_0, \dots, u_{m-1}$ ) = IDFT( $c_1, c_3, \dots, c_{n-1}, m$ ) ;
     $\omega = \exp(2i\pi/n)$  ;
    FOR  $j = 0:m-1$ 
       $v_j = g_j + \omega^j u_j$  ;
       $v_{j+m} = g_j - \omega^j u_j$  ;
    END
  END
END
```

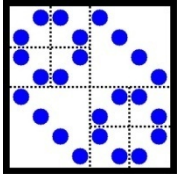
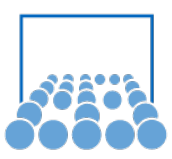


$(c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_6, c_7)$

(c_0, c_2, c_4, c_6)

(c_0, c_4)

(c_0)



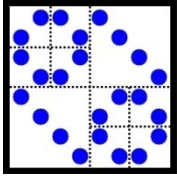
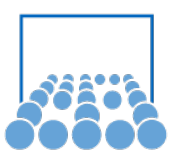
$(c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_6, c_7)$

(c_0, c_2, c_4, c_6)

(c_0, c_4)

(c_0)

(c_4)



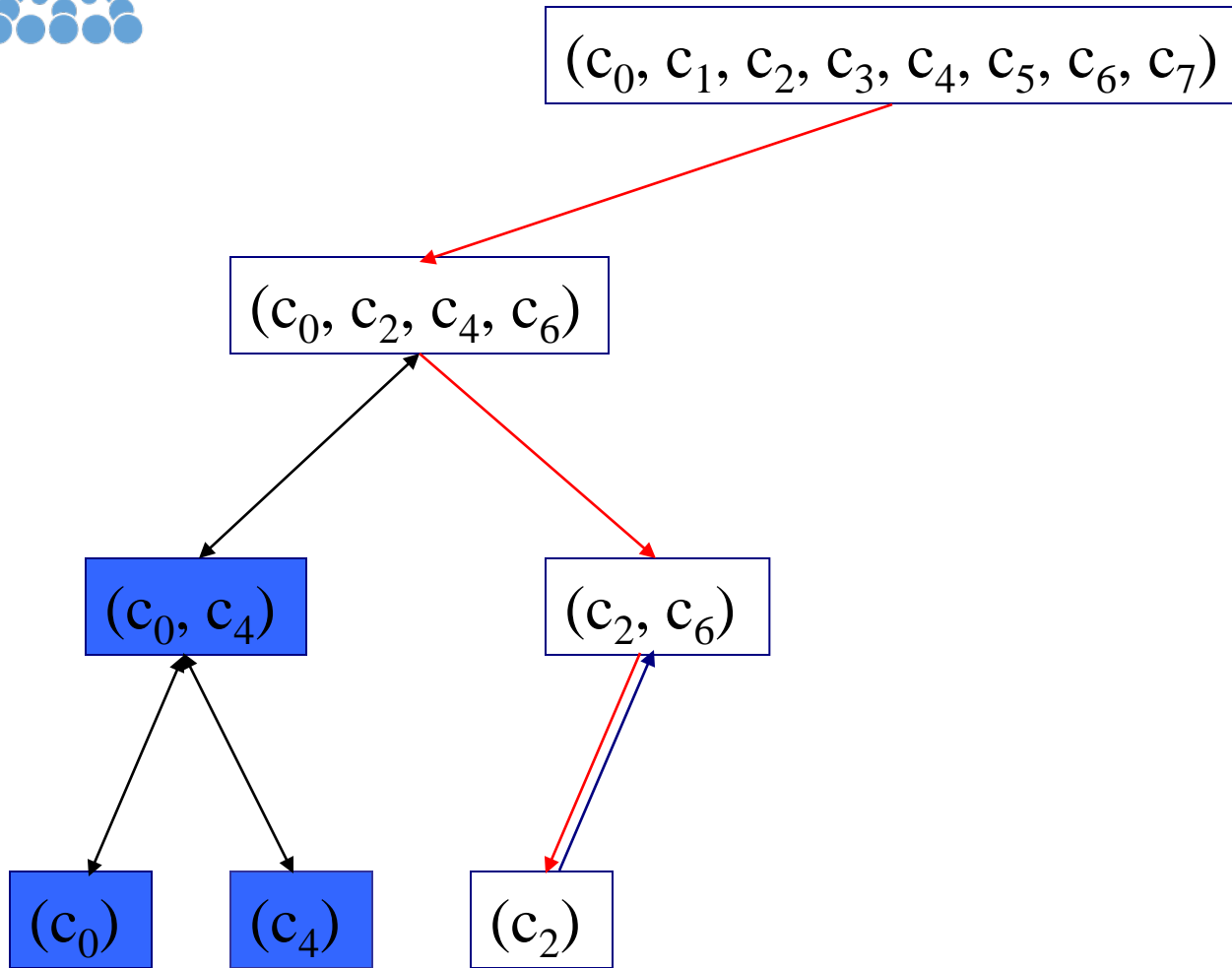
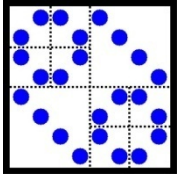
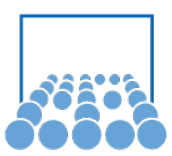
$(c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_6, c_7)$

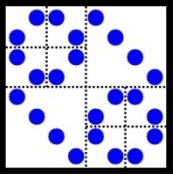
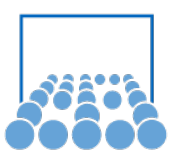
(c_0, c_2, c_4, c_6)

(c_0, c_4)

(c_0)

(c_4)





$(c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_6, c_7)$

(c_0, c_2, c_4, c_6)

(c_0, c_4)

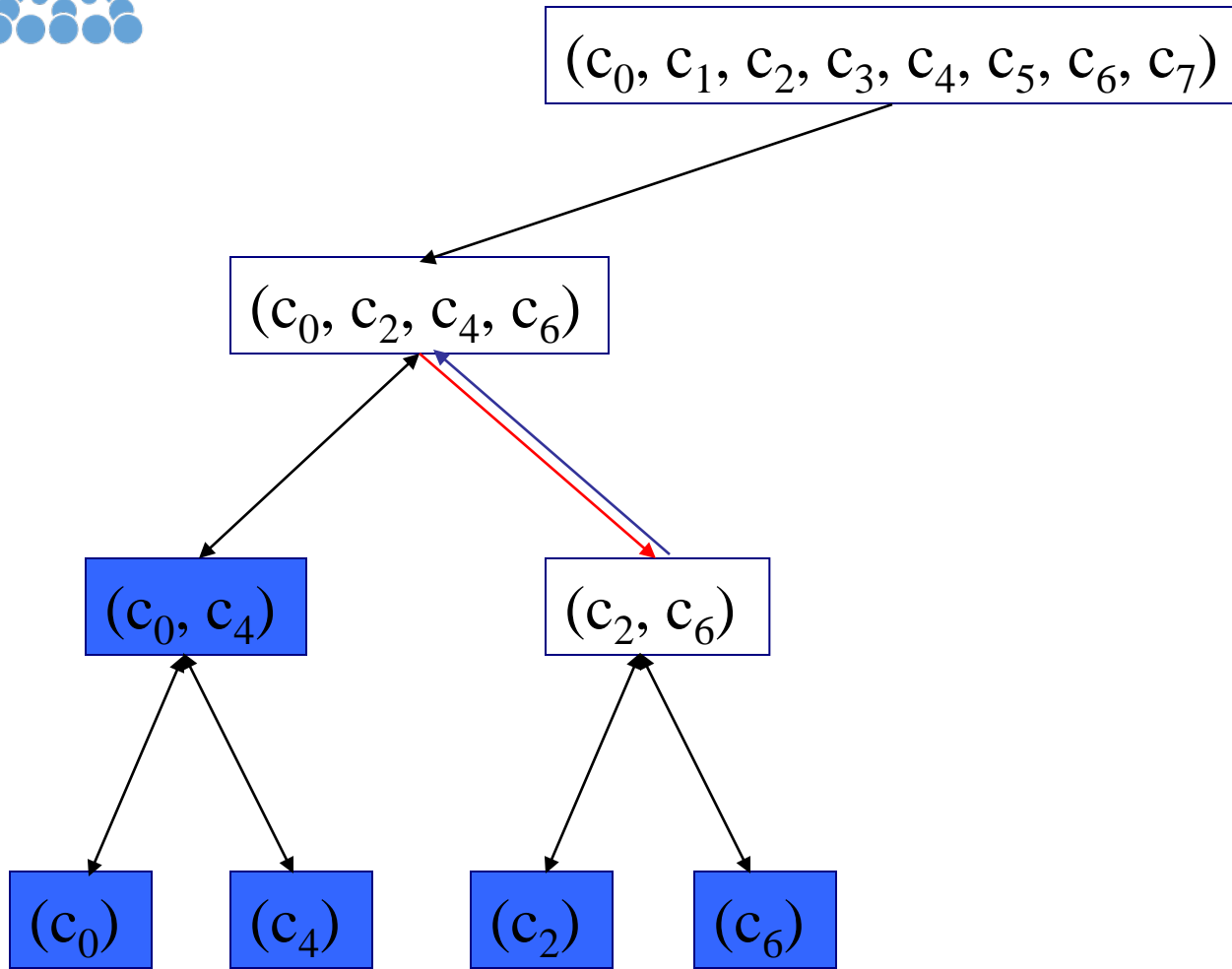
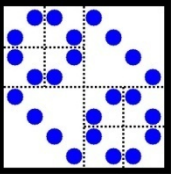
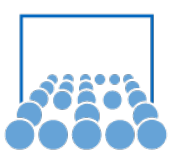
(c_2, c_6)

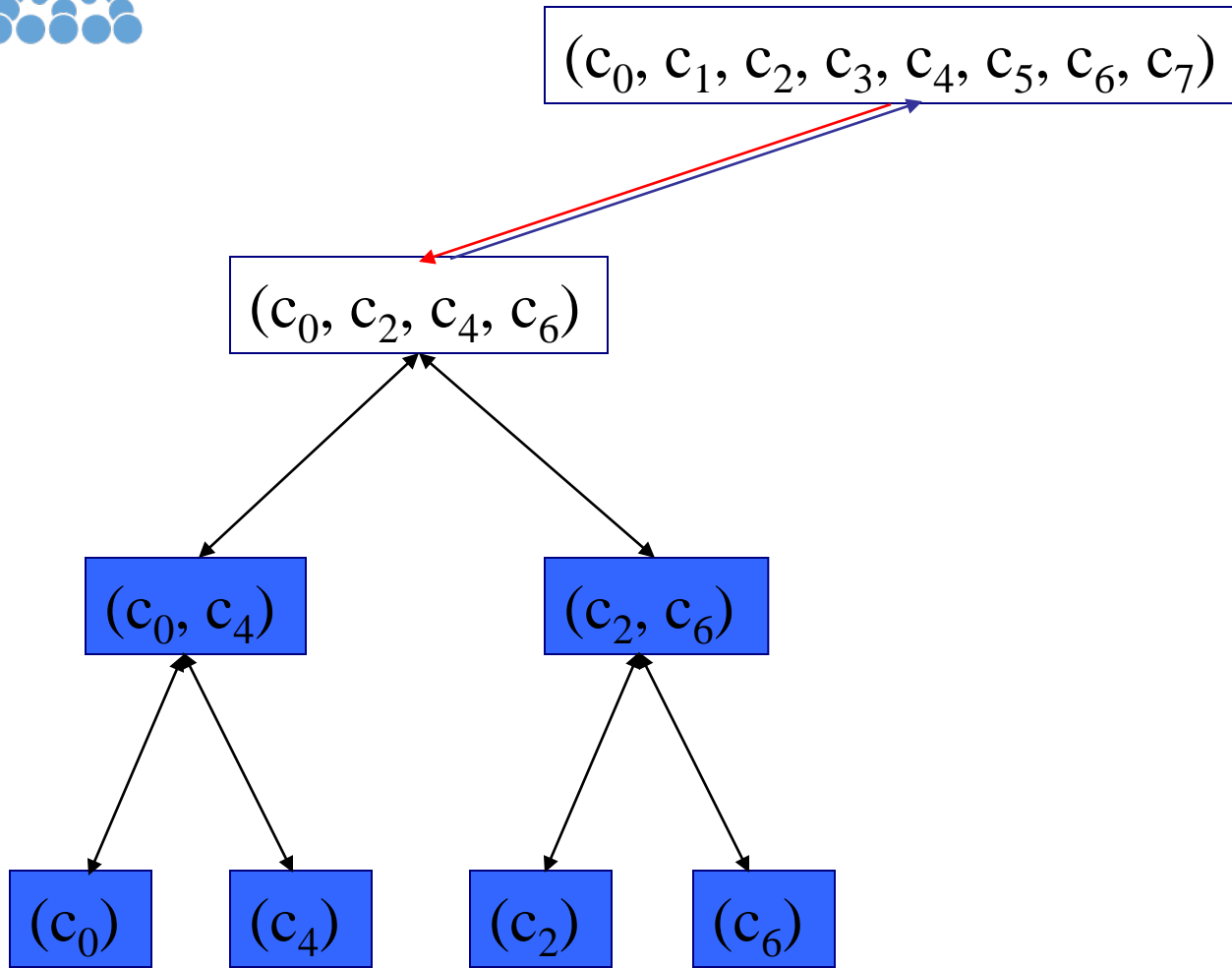
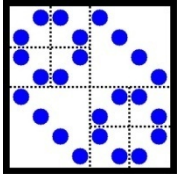
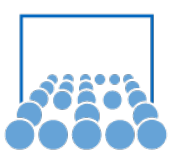
(c_0)

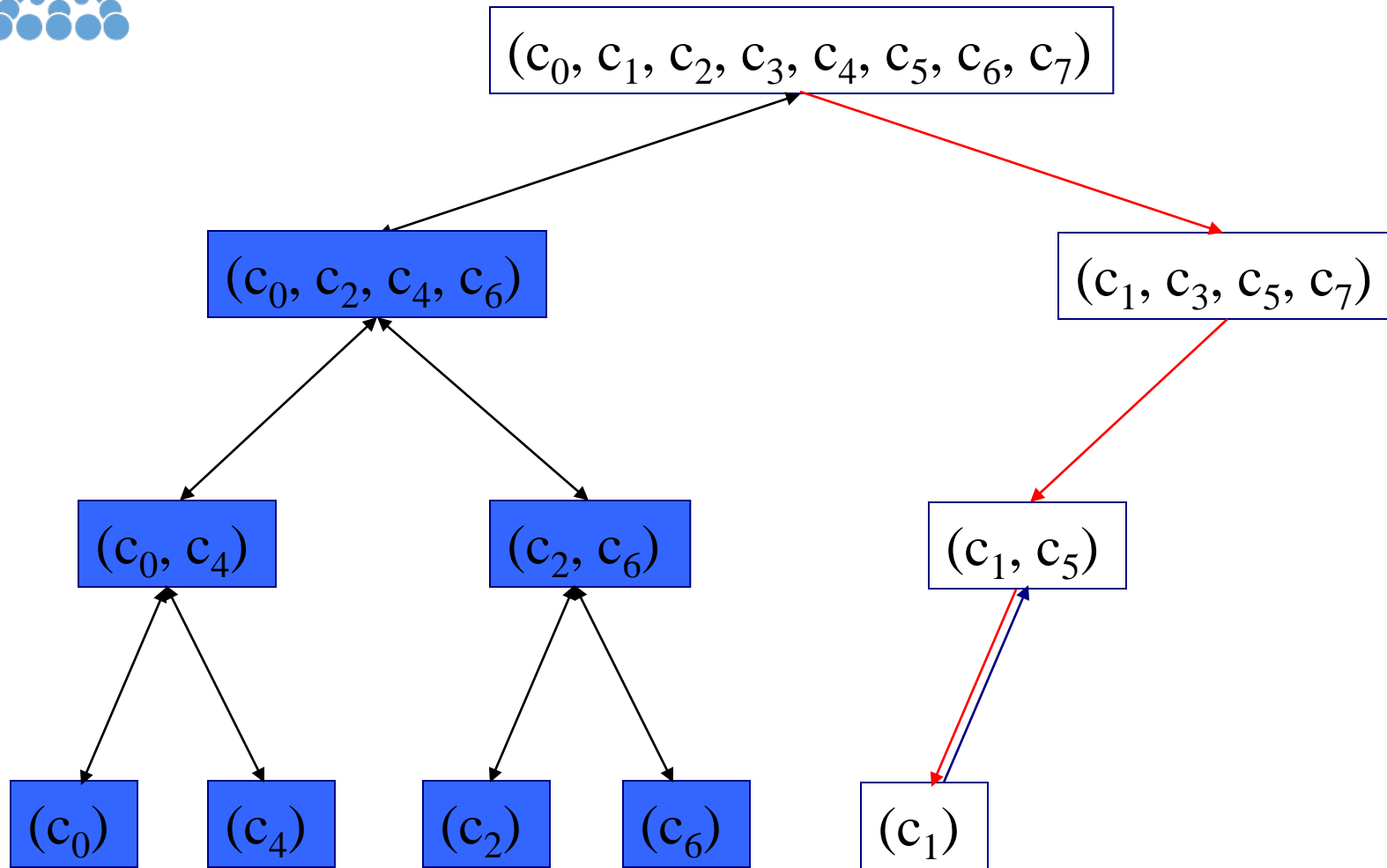
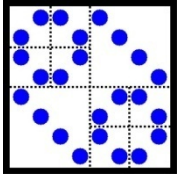
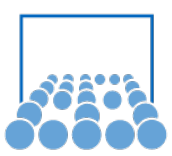
(c_4)

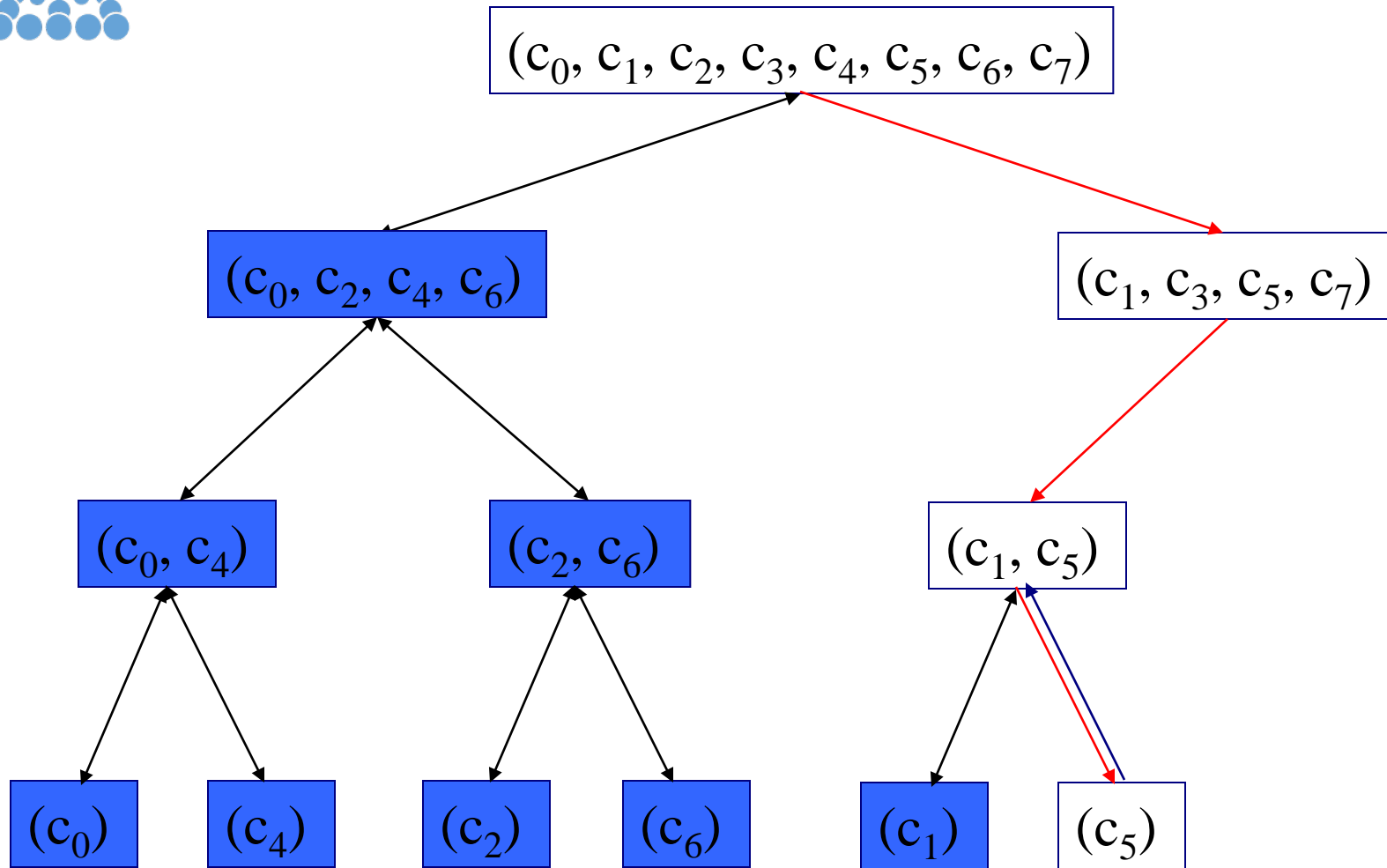
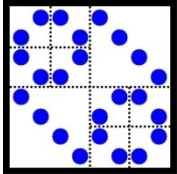
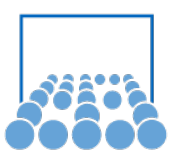
(c_2)

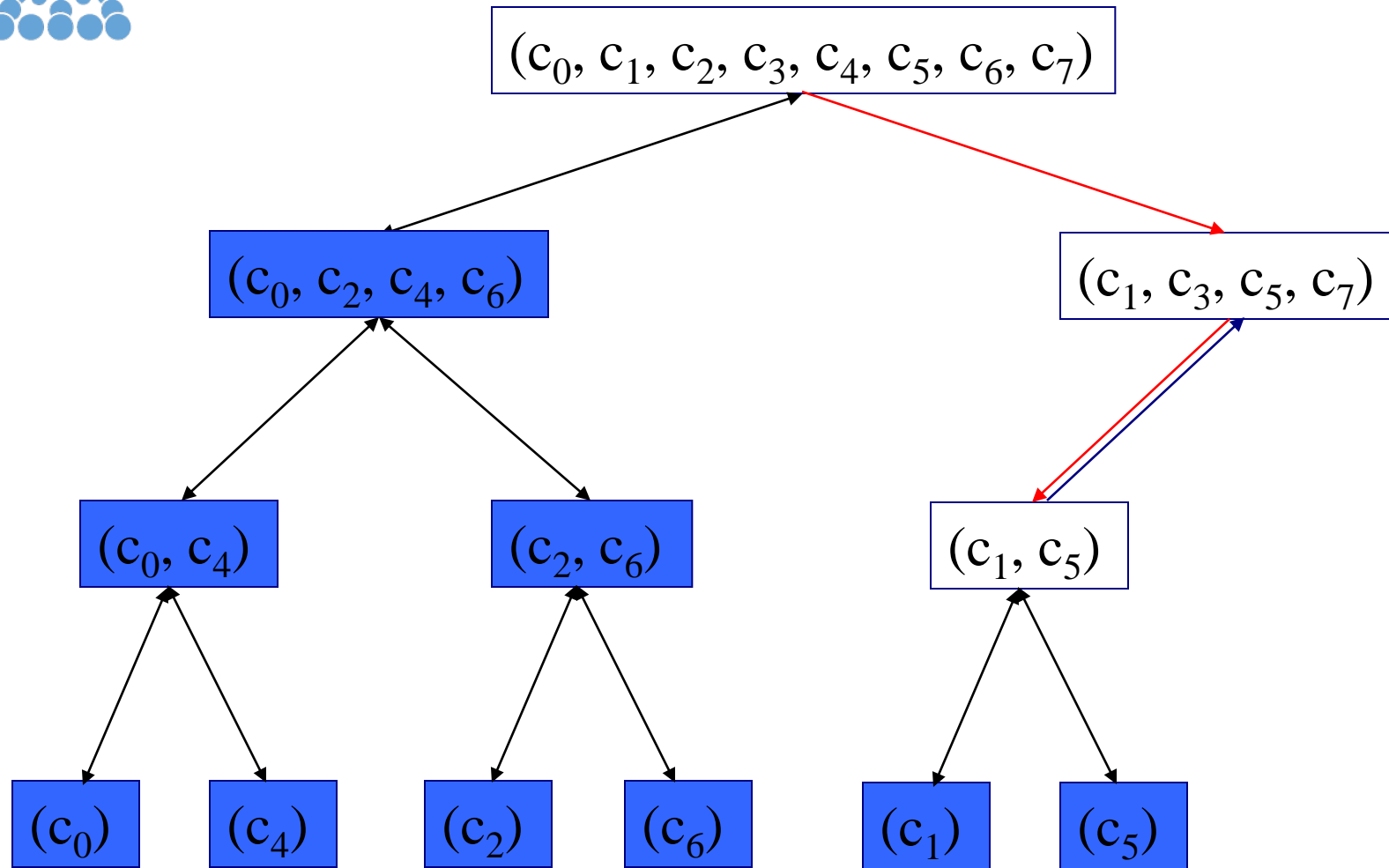
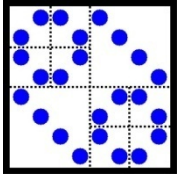
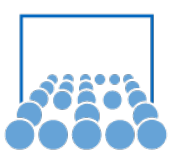
(c_6)

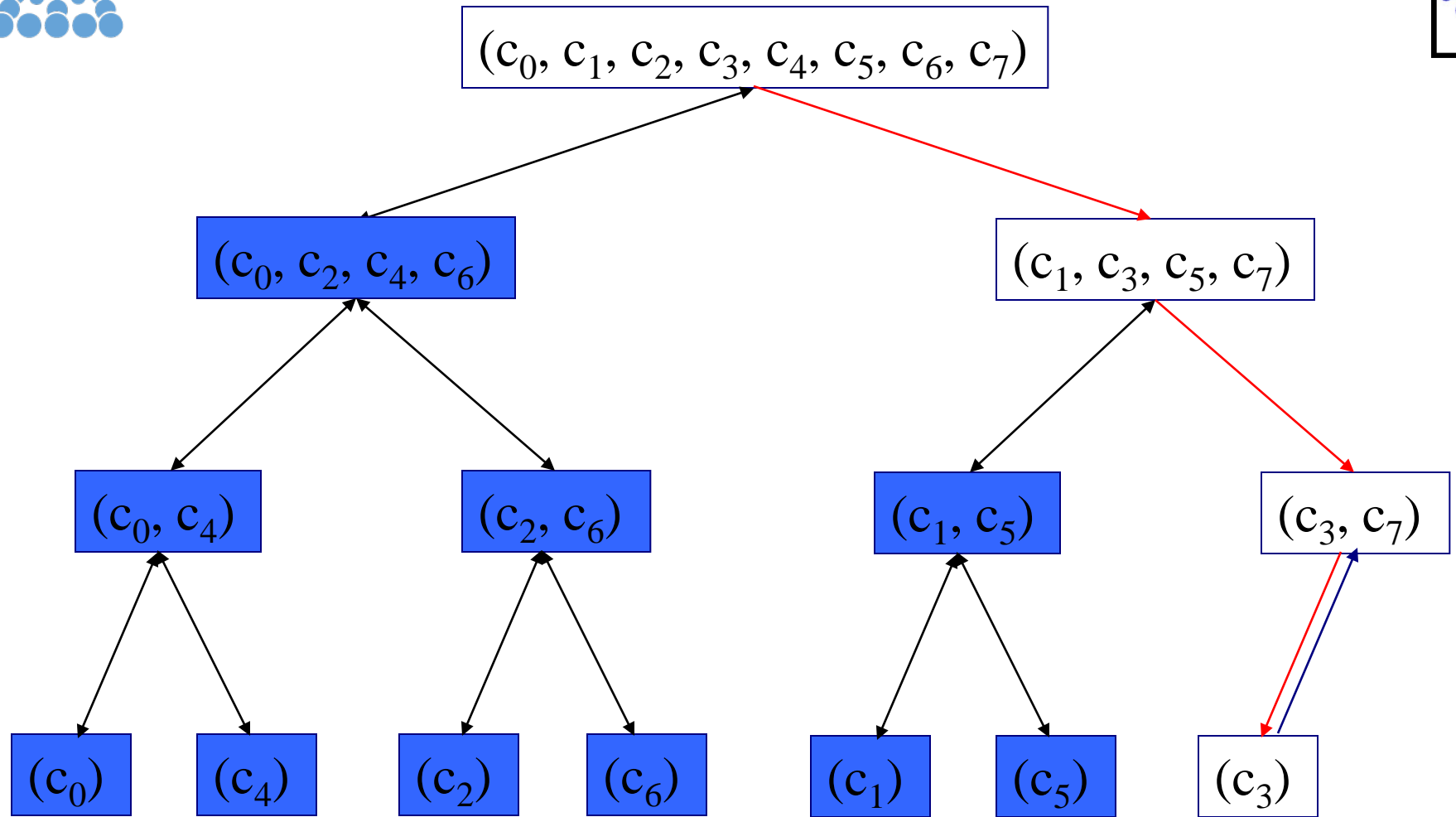
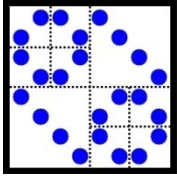
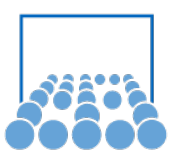


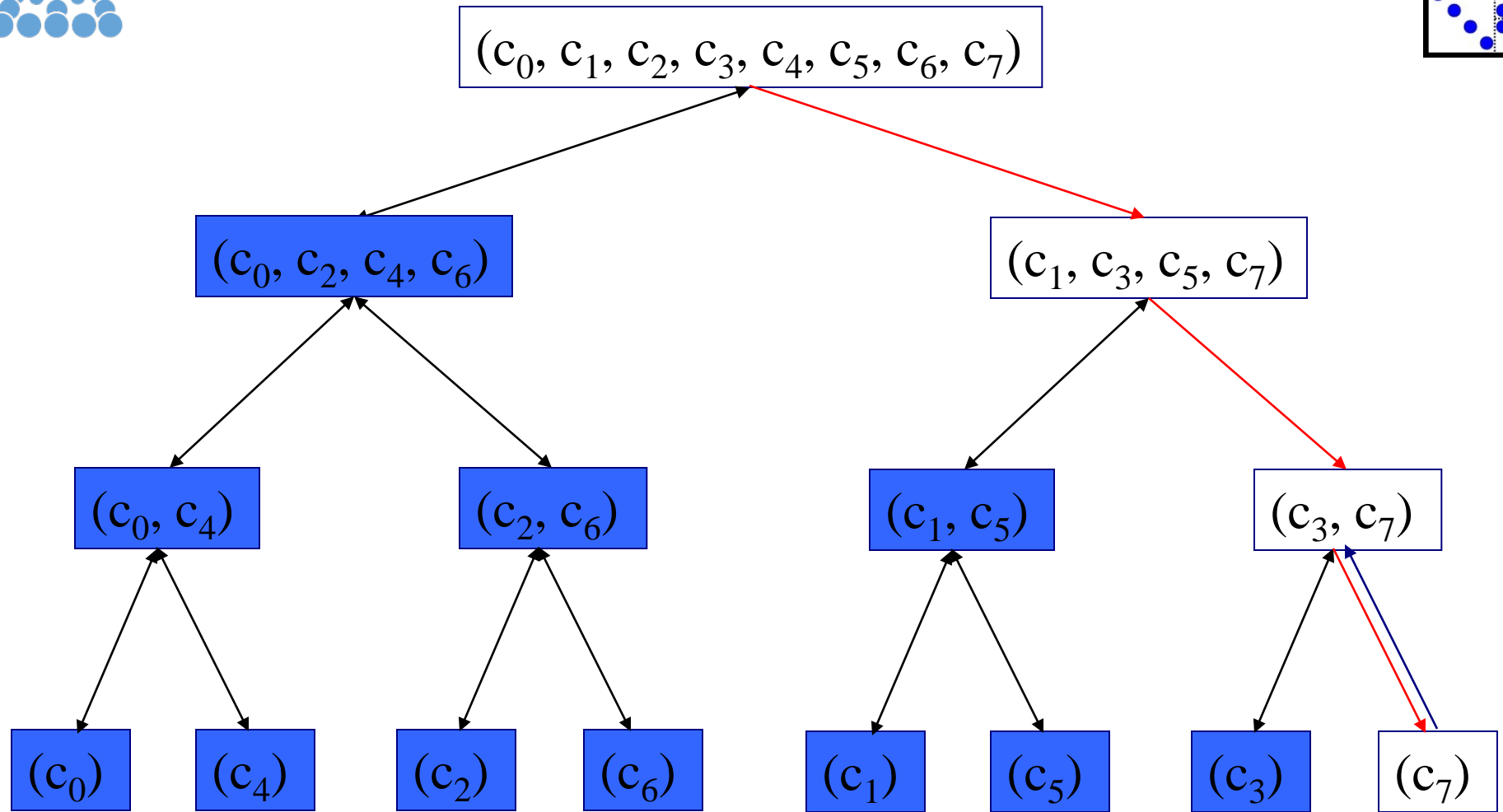
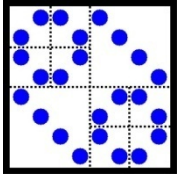
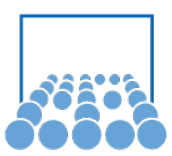


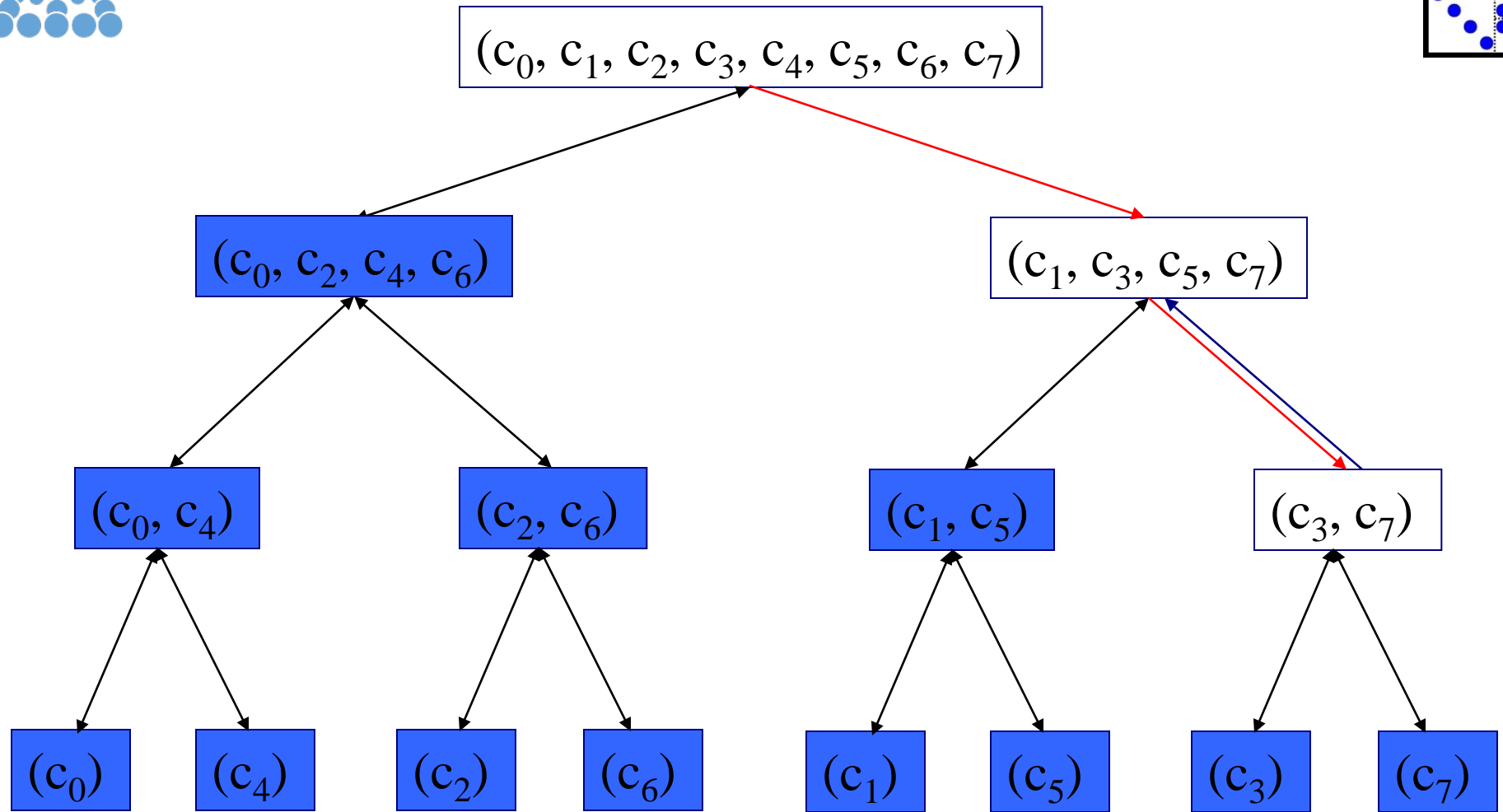
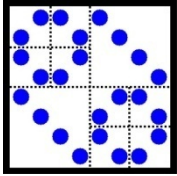
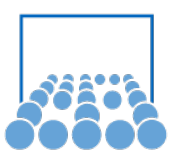


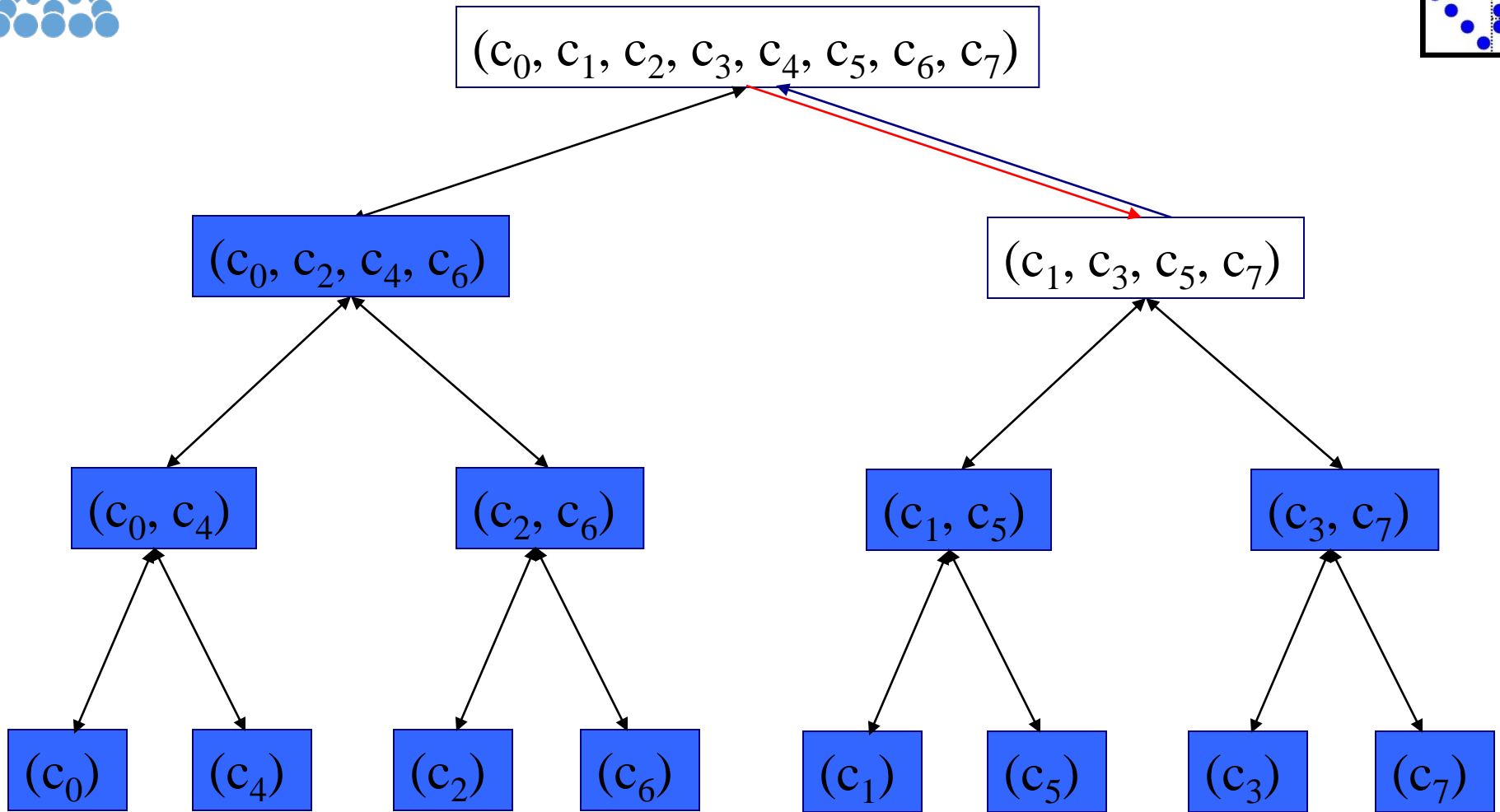
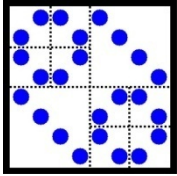
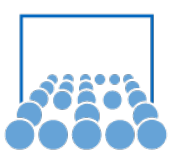


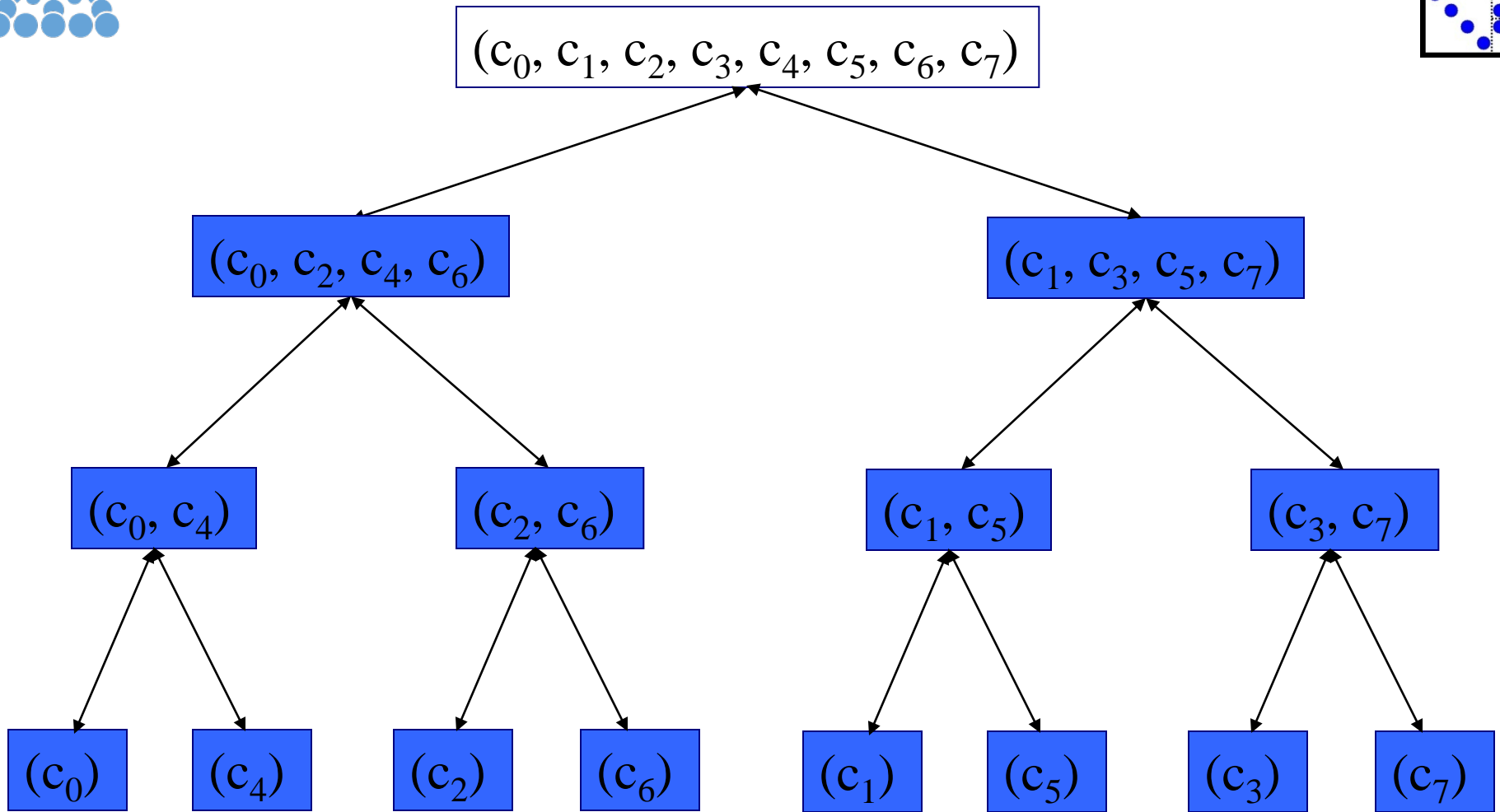
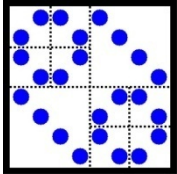
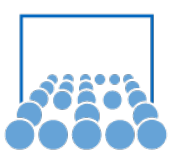


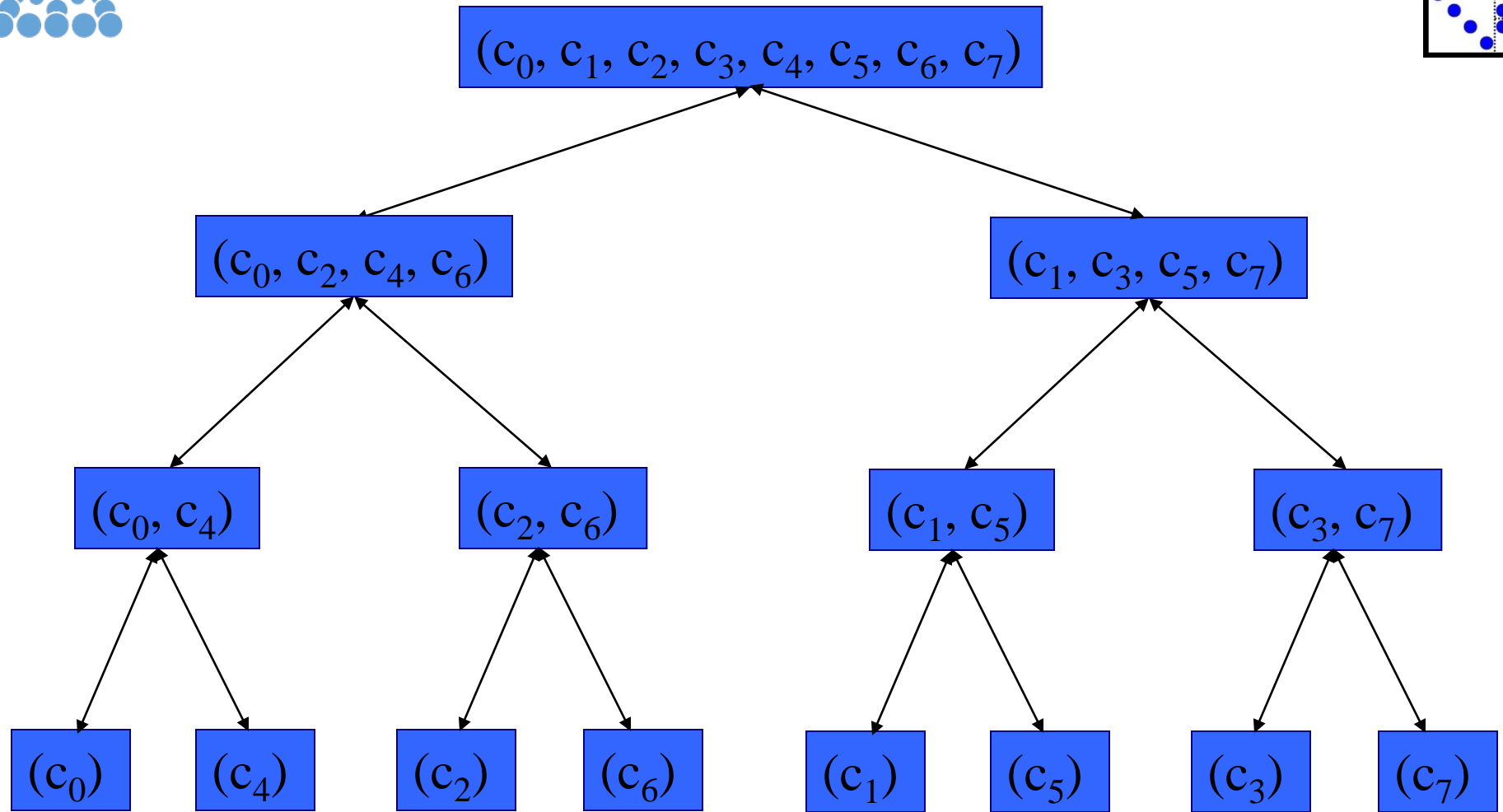
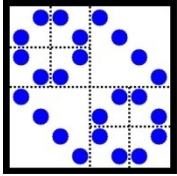
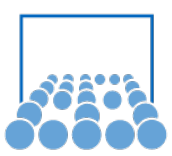


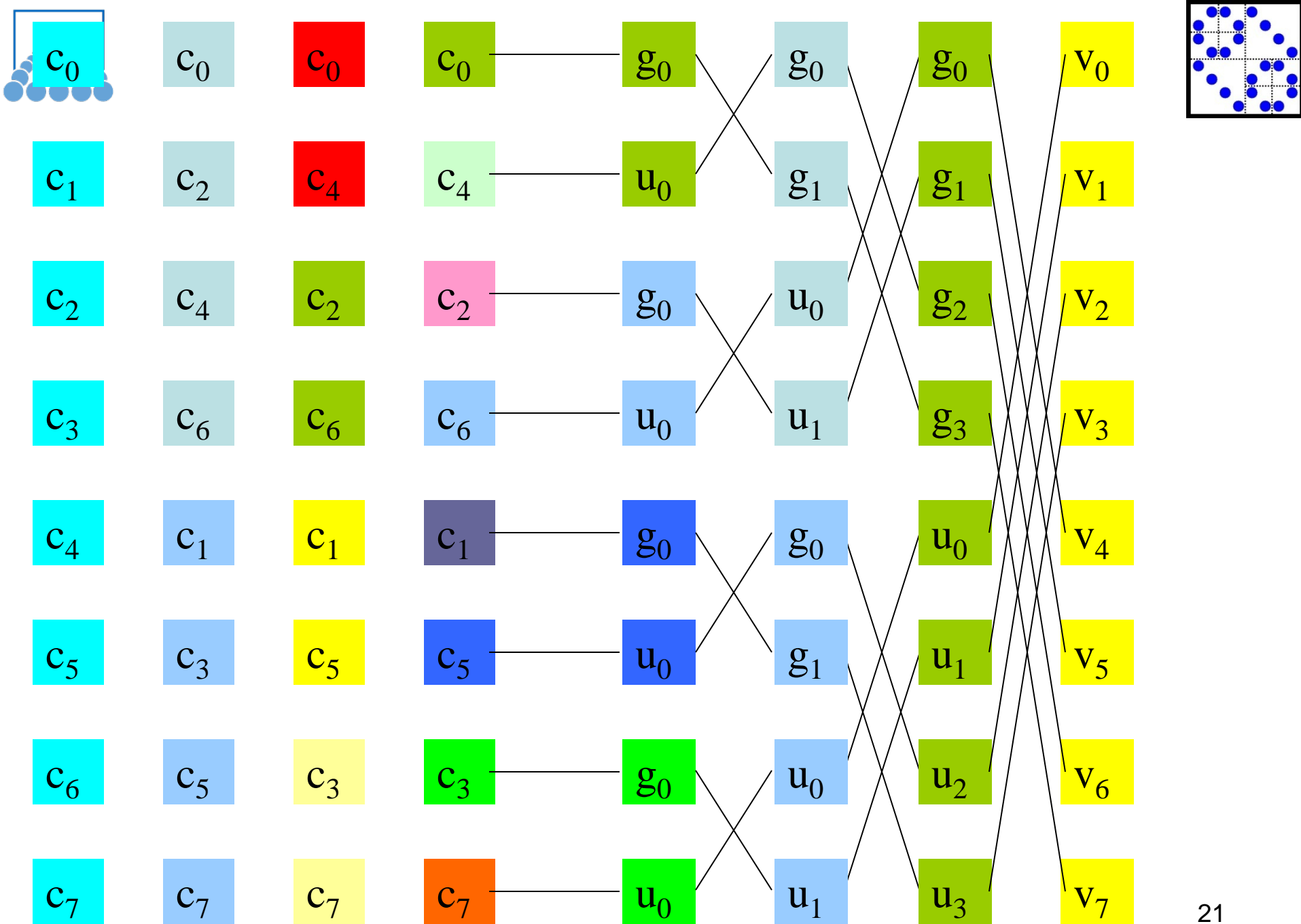


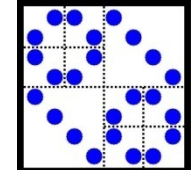
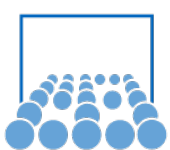












FFT sequentially

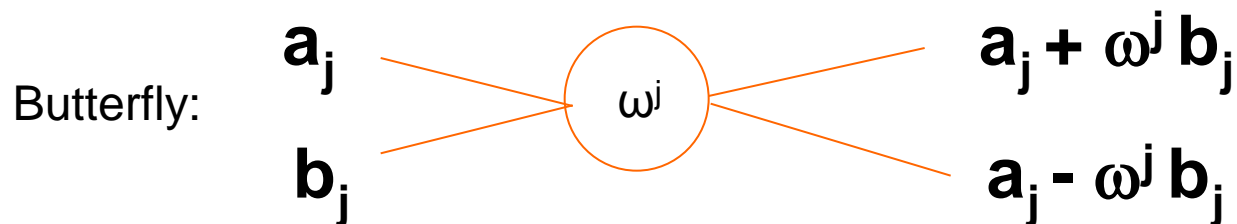
The recursive formulation of the FFT can be written by $\log(n)$ simple loops.

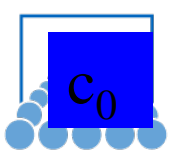
Thereby, the first step is the reordering of the variables \rightarrow Bitreversal

Index $k = (k_p, \dots, k_1)_2 \rightarrow (k_1, \dots, k_p)_2$,

e.g. $5 = (00101)_2 \rightarrow (10100)_2 = 16 + 4 = 20, c_5 \rightarrow c_{20}$

After permutation, the butterflies have to be applied between elements of certain distance.





c_1

c_2

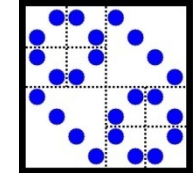
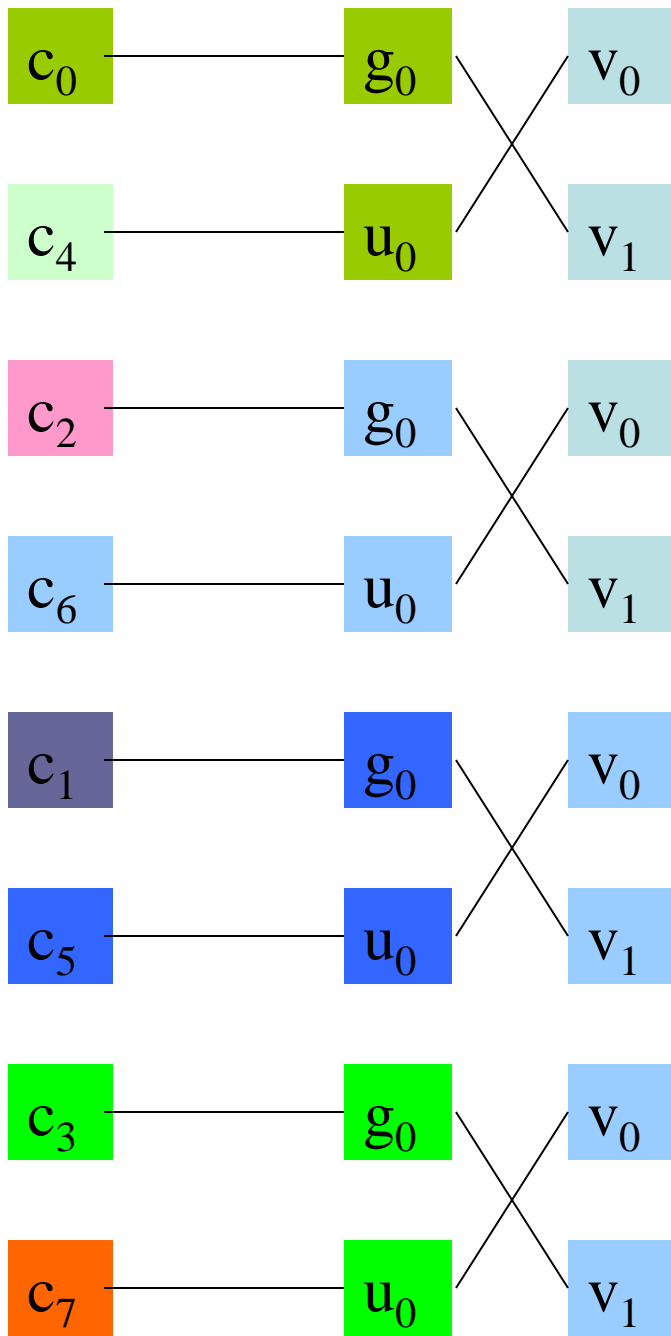
c_3

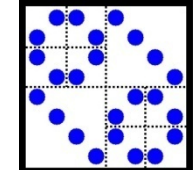
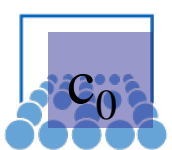
c_4

c_5

c_6

c_7





c_1

c_2

c_3

c_4

c_5

c_6

c_7

c_0

c_4

c_2

c_6

c_1

c_5

c_3

c_7

g_0

u_0

g_0

u_0

g_0

u_0

g_0

u_0

g_0

g_1

u_0

u_1

g_0

g_1

u_0

u_1

v_0

v_1

v_2

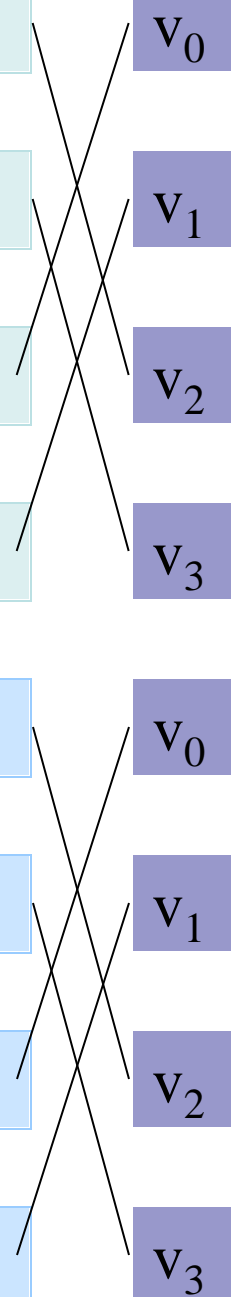
v_3

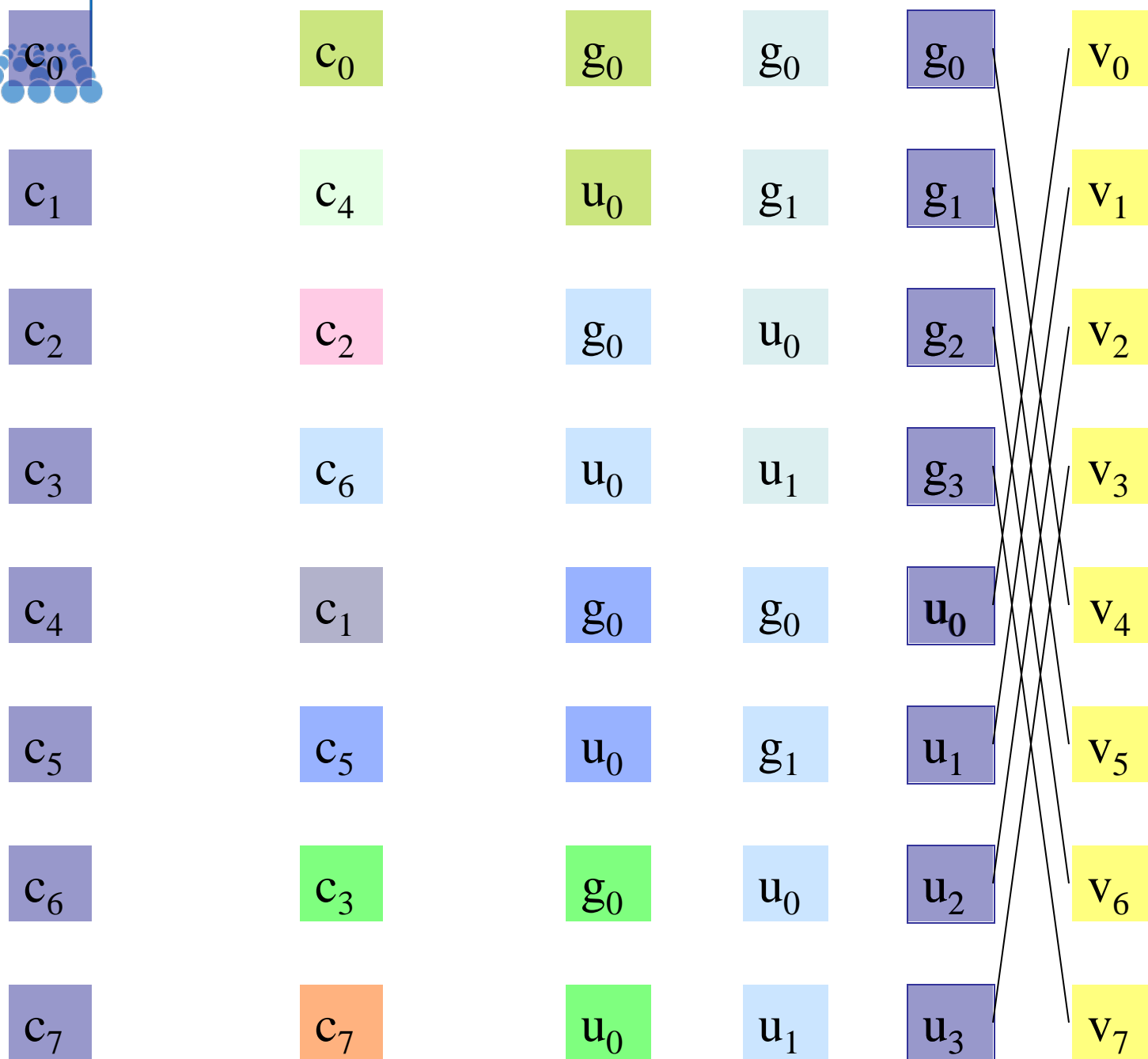
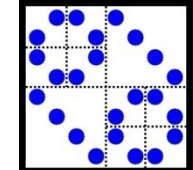
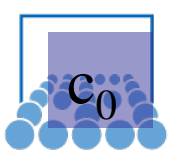
v_0

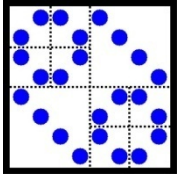
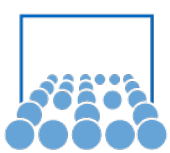
v_1

v_2

v_3







FFT in Parallel

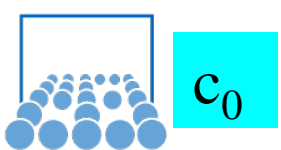
Costs in parallel: n processors $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^p$

each processor computes Bitreversal k and sends its entry to the resulting processor $\pi(k)$

Then each two neighbouring processors compute butterfly, $\log(n)$ times with growing distance

n processors, $\log(n)$ time steps.

Advantage over trivial parallelization only in number of processors



c_1

c_2

c_3

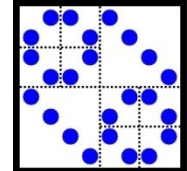
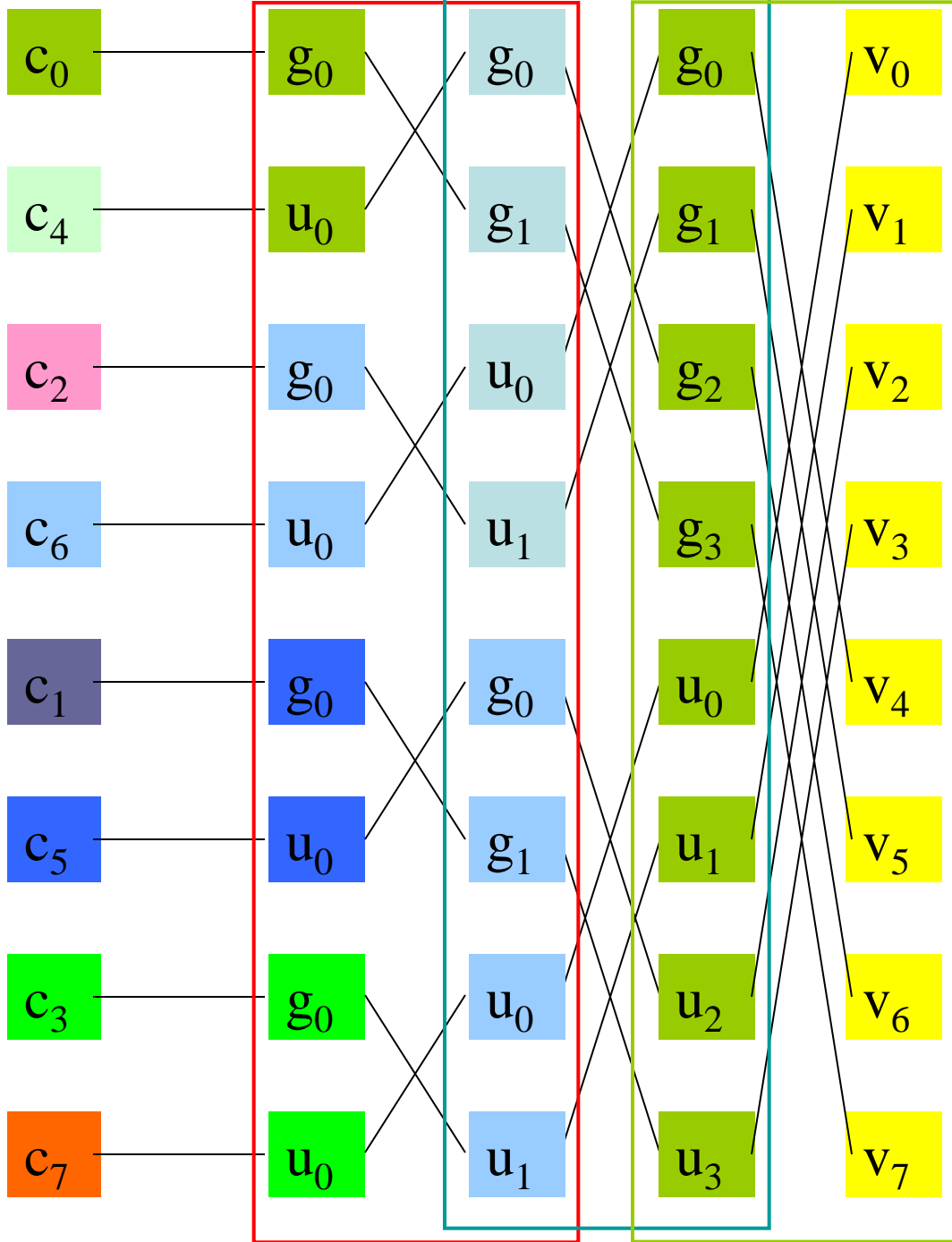
Bitreversal \rightarrow

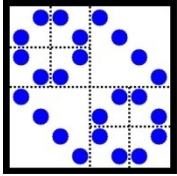
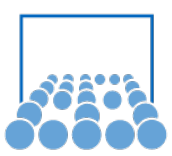
c_4

c_5

c_6

c_7





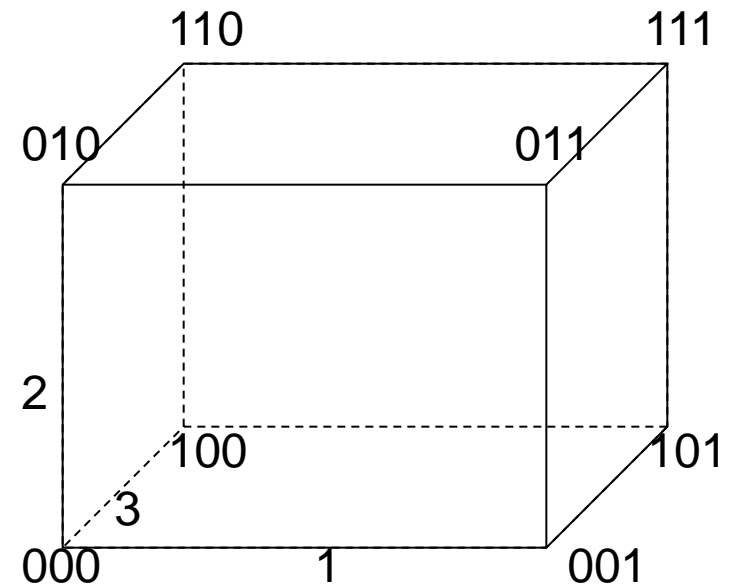
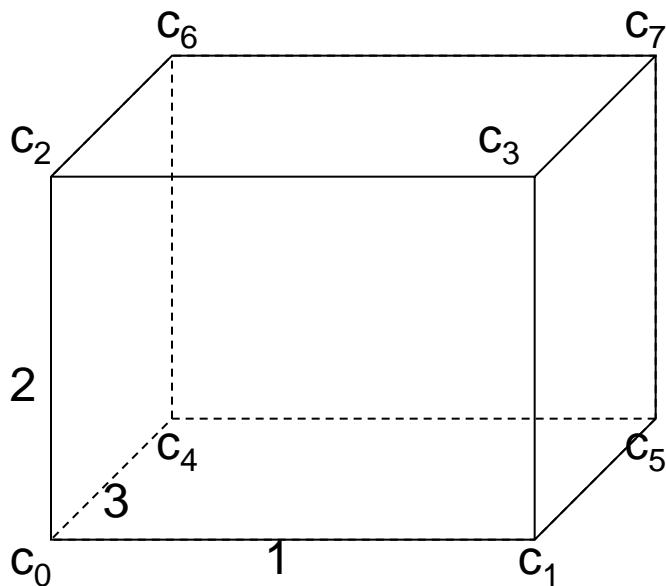
FFT on Hypercube

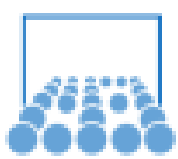
Distribute entries on vertices of hypercube.

Butterfly has to be applied always between neighbors in distance 1,2,4,...

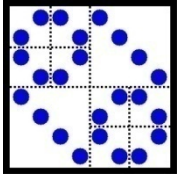
Hence, the binary indices differ only at one position.

Therefore, butterflies have to be computed only between neighboring vertices





8. Computing Eigenvalues in Parallel



8.1 Introduction

x eigenvector with eigenvalue λ , iff: $Ax = \lambda x, x \neq 0$

A spd, there exists an orthogonal basis of eigenvectors $Au_i = \lambda_i u_i, i=1,2,\dots,n$

$$A = U\Lambda U^T \quad \text{or} \quad AU = U\Lambda$$

$$U = (u_1, \dots, u_n), \quad \Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

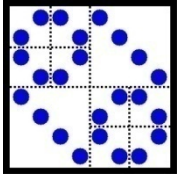
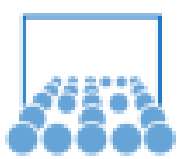
The eigenvalues of A are the zeros of the characteristic polynomial:

$$p_n(A) = 0 \iff p_n(\lambda_i) = 0 \quad \text{for all eigenvalues } \lambda_i, i=1,2,\dots,n$$

$$\lambda_{\min}(A) \leq r(A) = x^H A x / x^H x \leq \lambda_{\max} : \quad \text{Rayleigh quotient}$$

In general U may be complex unitary and Λ an upper triangular complex matrix (Schur decomposition)

Allowed operations that do not change the eigenpair: $Q \cdot A \cdot Q^H$ with unitary Q



Jacobi Method

Effect of application of J on A on the nondiagonal entries $\text{off}(A)$.

Consider p, q – part of $J^T A J = B$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{pp} & 0 \\ 0 & b_{qq} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{pp} & b_{pq} \\ b_{qp} & b_{qq} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} a_{pp} & a_{pq} \\ a_{qp} & a_{qq} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & s \\ -s & c \end{pmatrix}$$

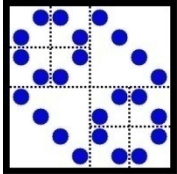
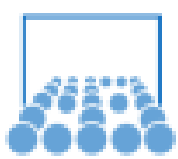
$$b_{pq} = b_{qp} = a_{pq}(c^2 - s^2) + (a_{pp} - a_{qq})cs = 0 \Rightarrow \theta, \cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)$$

J orthogonal \rightarrow Frobeniusnorm of A and B are the same:

$$a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2 = b_{pp}^2 + b_{qq}^2$$

$$\text{off}^2(B) = \|B\|_F^2 - \sum b_{ii}^2 = \|A\|_F^2 - \sum_{p \neq i \neq q} b_{ii}^2 - (a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2) =$$

$$= \|A\|_F^2 - \sum_{p \neq i \neq q} a_{ii}^2 - (a_{pp}^2 + a_{qq}^2 + 2a_{pq}^2) = \|A\|_F^2 - \sum a_{ii}^2 - 2a_{pq}^2 = \text{off}^2(A) - 2a_{pq}^2 < \text{off}^2(A)$$



Elimination Sequence

Choose p and q such that a_{pq} is very large (maximum).

Then by $J^T A J$ the size of the off-diagonal entries is reduced by $2(a_{pq})^2$.

Repeat this transformation for next choice of p and q : $A \rightarrow$ diagonal.

Monotonic decreasing sequence.

Different strategies for choosing a sequence of p, q :

Maximum a_{pq} optimal, but sequential and expensive!

Cyclic by row:

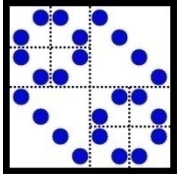
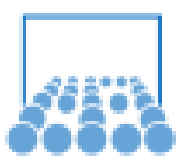
First use a_{11} to eliminate first row: $(p, q) = (1, 2), (1, 3), \dots, (1, n)$

Then a_{22} for second row: $(p, q) = (2, 3), \dots, (2, n)$

$a_{33}, \dots, a_{n-1, n-1}$

Repeat

Again sequential!



Jacobi Method in Parallel

Choose sequence (p,q) such that it allows strong parallelism:

First sweep: $(p,q) = (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (7,8)$ (in parallel)

Second sweep: $(p,q) = (1,4), (2,6), (3,8), (5,7)$

Third $(1,6), (4,8), (2,7), (3,5)$

Fourth $(1,8), (6,7), (4,5), (2,3)$

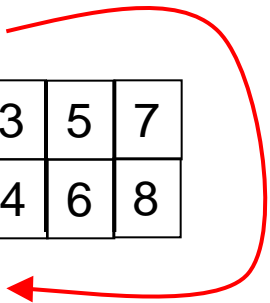
..
..

1	3	5	7
2	4	6	8

1	2		5
4	6	8	7

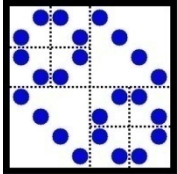
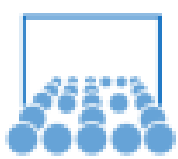
1	4	2	3
6	8	7	5

.....



$n-1$ different positions define $(n-1)n/2$ deleted entries = subdiagonal

Find sequence of partitionings of $(1, \dots, n)$ in pairs, such that all indices appear with the same frequency.



Parallel Transformation

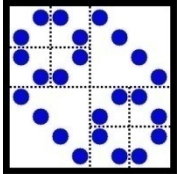
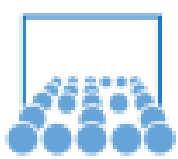
$J^T A$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * & * & * & * \\ \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# \\ \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# & \# \\ + & + & + & + & + & + & + & + \\ + & + & + & + & + & + & + & + \\ \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim \\ \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim & \sim \end{pmatrix}$$

$(J^T A) J$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \\ * & * & \# & \# & + & + & \sim & \sim \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiplications with J^T , resp. J
can be done in parallel.



1	3
2	4

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & + & * & * \\ + & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & + \\ * & * & + & * \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & 0 & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

1	2
4	3

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & + \\ * & * & + & * \\ * & + & * & * \\ + & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & 0 & * \\ * & 0 & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

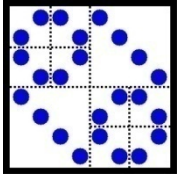
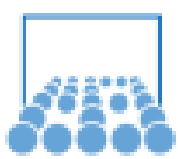
1	4
3	2

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & + & * \\ * & * & * & + \\ + & * & * & * \\ * & + & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 & * \\ * & * & * & 0 \\ 0 & * & * & * \\ * & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Twelve zeros after three sweeps \leftrightarrow twelve nondiagonal entries

Repeat until convergence to diagonal matrix.



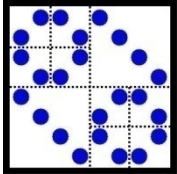
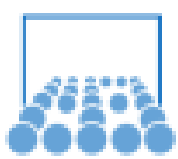
8.3 Divide & Conquer for tridiagonal A

A divide and conquer approach for computing eigenvalues of a symmetric tridiagonal matrix T .

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & & & \\ b_1 & a_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & b_{n-1} & \\ & & & b_{n-1} & a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Idea: Split T in two tridiagonal matrices T_1 and T_2 .
Compute eigenvalues of T_1 and T_2 .
Recover the original eigenvalues of T as perturbations.

Repeat recursively.



Splitting of T

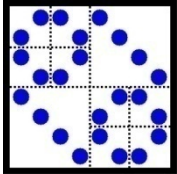
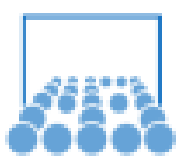
Set $v := (0 \ \dots \ 0 \ 1 \mid \theta \ 0 \ \dots \ 0)^T$

$$\tilde{T} := T - \rho v v^T \quad \text{Rank-1 perturbation of T}$$

Aim: Generate zeros at the sub/superdiagonal entries in the middle of T

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{T}(m:m+1, m:m+1) &= \begin{pmatrix} a_m & b_m \\ b_m & a_{m+1} \end{pmatrix} - \rho \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \theta \\ \theta & \theta^2 \end{pmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a_m - \rho & b_m - \rho\theta \\ b_m - \rho\theta & a_{m+1} - \rho\theta^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} * & 0 \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\rho\theta = b_m \quad \longrightarrow \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} T_1 & 0 \\ 0 & T_2 \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T$$



Relation between T and T_1, T_2

Assume, that we know the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of T_1 and T_2 .

How can we get the eigenpairs of T ?

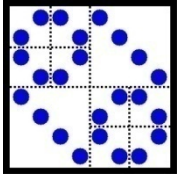
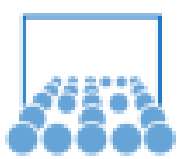
$$T_1 = U_1 \Lambda_1 U_1^T, \quad T_2 = U_2 \Lambda_2 U_2^T, \quad \stackrel{?}{\Rightarrow} \quad T = U \Lambda U^T$$

Note, that T is a rank-1 perturbation of $\text{diag}(T_1, T_2)$.

Recover the original eigenvalues as perturbations of eigenvalues of T_1 and T_2 .

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} T_1 & 0 \\ 0 & T_2 \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 \Lambda_1 U_1^T & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \Lambda_2 U_2^T \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \Lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U_1^T & 0 \\ 0 & U_2^T \end{pmatrix} + \rho v v^T$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} U_1^T & 0 \\ 0 & U_2^T \end{pmatrix} T \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & 0 \\ 0 & U_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \Lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} + \rho \tilde{v} \tilde{v}^T$$



Computing the eigenvector

Hence, we need to compute the eigenvalues of a matrix

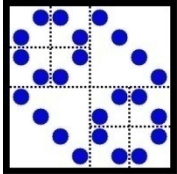
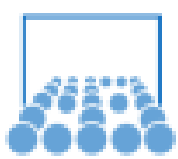
of the form “diagonal + rank-1”: $D + \rho \tilde{v} \tilde{v}^T$

Let λ_i and u_i be an eigenpair of $D + \rho v v^T$. Then it holds

$$(D + \rho \tilde{v} \tilde{v}^T) u_i = \lambda_i u_i \Leftrightarrow (D - \lambda_i I) u_i + \rho (\tilde{v}^T u_i) \tilde{v} = 0$$

$$u_i = \text{const} \cdot (D - \lambda_i I)^{-1} \tilde{v}$$

Hence, if we know λ_i , then we easily get the eigenvector u_i .



Eigenvalues as Zeros

Furthermore, we get the equation

$$\tilde{v}^T (D - \lambda_i I)^{-1} \cdot [(D - \lambda_i I) u_i + \rho(\tilde{v}^T u_i) \tilde{v}] = 0$$

$$\tilde{v}^T u_i + \rho[\tilde{v}^T (D - \lambda_i I)^{-1} \tilde{v}] \cdot [\tilde{v}^T u_i] = 0$$

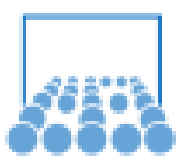
$$f(\lambda) = 1 + \rho[\tilde{v}^T (D - \lambda I)^{-1} \tilde{v}] = 1 + \rho\left(\frac{\tilde{v}_1^2}{d_1 - \lambda} + \dots + \frac{\tilde{v}_n^2}{d_n - \lambda}\right) = 0$$

Use Newton's method, to determine the zeroes of function $f(\lambda)$

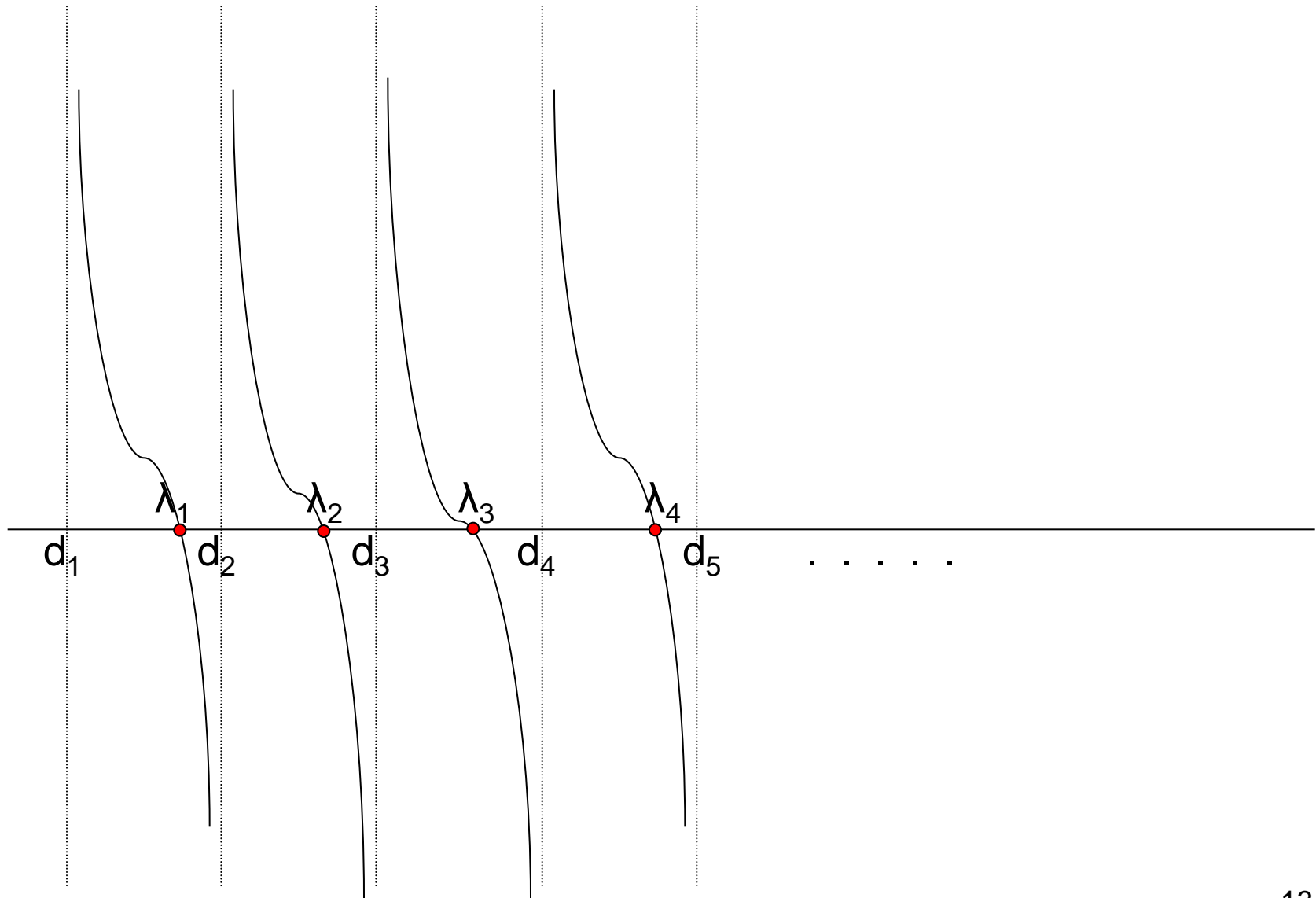
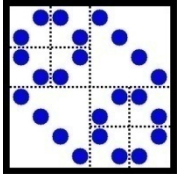
These zeroes are the eigenvalues of $D + \rho\tilde{v}\tilde{v}^T$

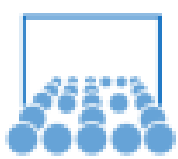
and therefore also of T .

Repeat recursively for T_1 and T_2 .

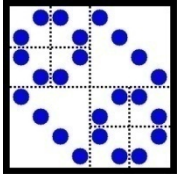


Zeros and poles of $f(\lambda)$:





8.4 Algorithms for computing a few eigenpairs:



Vector iteration:

$$x^{(k)} = \frac{A^k x^{(0)}}{\|A^k x^{(0)}\|} \rightarrow v \quad \text{eigenvector to eigenvalue with maximum absolute value}$$

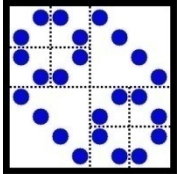
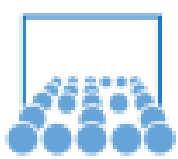
Easy to parallelize (only Ax), but slow convergence! Only λ_{\max} !
Compare Krylov!

Subspace Iteration: Apply the same idea to set of vectors $U^{(0)} = (x^{(0)}, \dots, x^{(m)})$
Consider eigenvalues of $U^{(k)H} A U^{(k)}$ and then replace $U^{(k)}$ by $A U^{(k)}$

Inverse iteration:

Apply vector iteration on shifted problem $(A - \sigma I)^{-1}$
for computing the eigenvector nearest to σ .

Expensive! Ill-conditioned linear system!



Rayleigh Quotient Iteration

Rayleigh Quotient iteration: Start with vector y and real $\rho = y^T A y / y^T y$ and repeat:

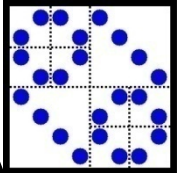
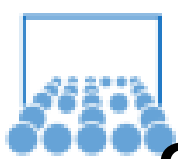
$$v = \frac{y}{\|y\|}; \quad y_{new} = (A - \rho I)^{-1} v; \quad \rho = \rho + \frac{y_{new}^T v}{\|y_{new}\|^2};$$

Inverse Iteration with replacing the shift σ by the newest eigenvalue estimate.

y : new eigenvector estimate \rightarrow leads to new eigenvalue estimate:

$$\rho_{new} = \frac{y_{new}^T A y_{new}}{y_{new}^T y_{new}} = \frac{y_{new}^T (A - \rho I + \rho I) y_{new}}{y_{new}^T y_{new}} = \frac{y_{new}^T (A - \rho I) y_{new}}{y_{new}^T y_{new}} + \rho = \frac{y_{new}^T v}{\|y_{new}\|^2} + \rho$$

Fast convergence, but uncertain to which eigenvalue we will converge.
Expensive! Ill-conditioned!



8.5 Arnoldi (Lanczos) for sparse A

Use the transformation on Hessenberg (tridiagonal) form described for GMRES.

Compute the eigenvalues of the small Hessenberg matrix and use them as approximations for the eigenvalues of the original matrix.

By Arnoldi Orthogonalization of the Krylov subspace (b, Ab, A^2b, \dots) we get the relation

$$Au_{j-1} = \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} h_{k,j-1} u_k + \tilde{u}_j = \sum_{k=1}^j h_{k,j-1} u_k$$

$$A \cdot U_m = A(u_1 \quad \dots \quad u_m) = (u_1 \quad \dots \quad u_{m+1}) \cdot \tilde{H}_{m+1,m} = U_m H_{m,m} + h_{m+1,m} u_{m+1}$$

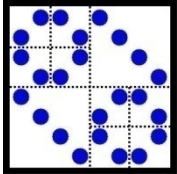
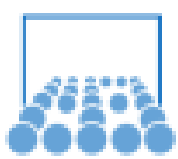
Eigenvalues of $H_{m,m}$ as approximations for A.

(Small $h_{m+1,m} \rightarrow$ good approximation).

Good approximation for extreme eigenvalues.

For symmetric A, H is tridiagonal.

The same approach can be applied on: $f(A)b$



8.6 Jacobi-Davidson for sparse A

- Idea:
- No Krylov subspace, more related to Rayleigh quotient and subspace it.
 - choose subspace relative to eigenvalue we are looking for
 - include preconditioning;

Starting point:

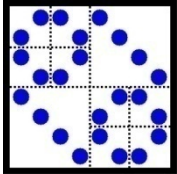
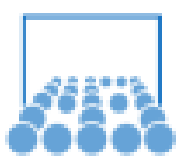
Consider eigenvalue approximations derived by $V_m^H A V_m$ for subspace relative to V_m .

The eigenpairs of $V_m^H A V_m$ are used as approximations to eigenvalues of A

How to choose new subspace V_{m+1} with additional vector u such that the new approximation for special eigenvalues is strongly improved?

For first eigenpair approximation u_m and $t_m = (u_m^H A u_m) / (u_m^H u_m)$, we try to improve these approximations by small corrections u and t to get better estimates $u_m + u$ and $t_m + t$

$$A(u_m + u) = (t_m + t)(u_m + u), \quad u \perp u_m, \quad u_m^H u_m = 1$$



Jacobi-Davidson II

$$A(u_m + u) = (t_m + t)(u_m + u), \quad u \perp u_m$$



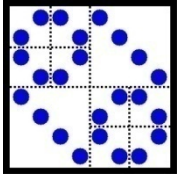
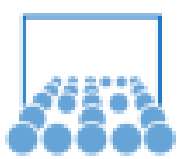
$$(A - t_m I)u = tu_m - (A - t_m I)u_m + \cancel{tu}$$

ignore correction tu of second order

Use orthogonal projection with $I - u_m u_m^H$ from the left.

This leads to

$$\begin{aligned} (I - u_m u_m^H)(A - t_m I)(I - u_m u_m^H)u &= -(I - u_m u_m^H)(A - t_m I)u_m \\ (I - u_m u_m^H)(A - t_m I)(I - u_m u_m^H)u &= -(A - t_m I)u_m + \cancel{u_m (u_m^H A u_m)} - \cancel{t_m u_m (u_m^H u_m)} \end{aligned}$$



Jacobi-Davidson III

For new approximation we have to solve

$$\left(I - u_m u_m^H\right) \left(A - t_m I\right) \left(I - u_m u_m^H\right) u = -\left(A - t_m I\right) u_m$$

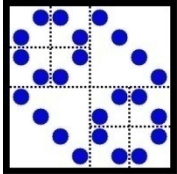
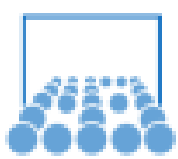
$$P\left(A - t_m I\right) P u = -r_m \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{\tilde{A} u = -r_m}$$

$A - t_m I$ gets ill-conditioned for t_m near eigenvalue, but P is a projection orthogonal to the near singular vector!

\tilde{A} is singular, but linear system is still solvable.

Compared to Inverse Iteration/RQI:

Replace ill-conditioned by singular system.



Jacobi-Davidson IV

New eigenvector estimate $u_m + u \rightarrow v_{m+1}$ also leads to new eigenvalue estimate $t_{m+1} \rightarrow (v_{m+1}^H A v_{m+1}) / (v_{m+1}^H v_{m+1})$.

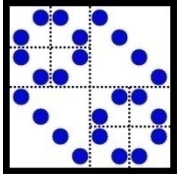
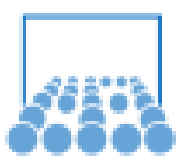
Choose the new estimate v_{m+1} to enlarge the subspace V_m by the new vector u to V_{m+1} .

Compute eigenpairs of $V_{m+1}^H A V_{m+1}$ and choose next eigenvector approximation u_{m+1} appropriately, e.g. maximum, minimum, close to σ .

Repeat this step a few times.

Restart the whole process with last best approximation as starting vector u_1 , resp. 1-dim subspace V_1 .

Advantages: Allows to compute also inner eigenvalues without solving more and more ill-conditioned problems like Rayleigh QI.



Jacobi-Davidson V

Main step: Solve linear system

$$P(A - t_m I)Pu = -r_m \quad \text{or} \quad P(A - t_m I)\tilde{u} = -r_m$$

approximately.

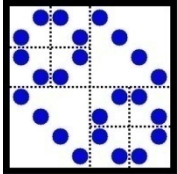
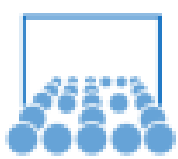
Therefore, we use a few steps of preconditioned cg or GMRES.

Preconditioner: M^{-1} preconditioner for $A \rightarrow PM^{-1}P$ preconditioner for PAP

In each iteration step we have to multiply with A , with P , and solve in M .

Simple preconditioner: $M = \text{diag}(A)$

Better preconditioner: SPAI or MSPAI, ILU



8.7 Bisection for computing eigenvalues of a tridiagonal matrix

Observation: The characteristic polynomial of a tridiagonal matrix can be evaluated via the matrix entries in form of a sequence of polynomials with increasing degree:

$$p(\lambda) = \det(T - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \delta_1 - \lambda & \gamma_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \gamma_2 & \delta_2 - \lambda & \gamma_3 & & \vdots \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \gamma_{n-1} & \delta_{n-1} - \lambda & \gamma_n \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \gamma_n & \delta_n - \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

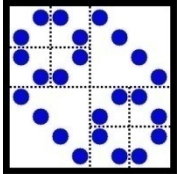
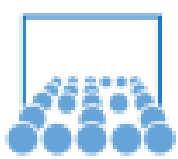
$$p_0(\lambda) = 1$$

$$p_1(\lambda) = \delta_1 - \lambda$$

$$p_2(\lambda) = (\delta_2 - \lambda)p_1(\lambda) - \gamma_2^2 p_0(\lambda)$$

$$p_i(\lambda) = (\delta_i - \lambda)p_{i-1}(\lambda) - \gamma_i^2 p_{i-2}(\lambda), \quad i = 3, 4, \dots, n$$

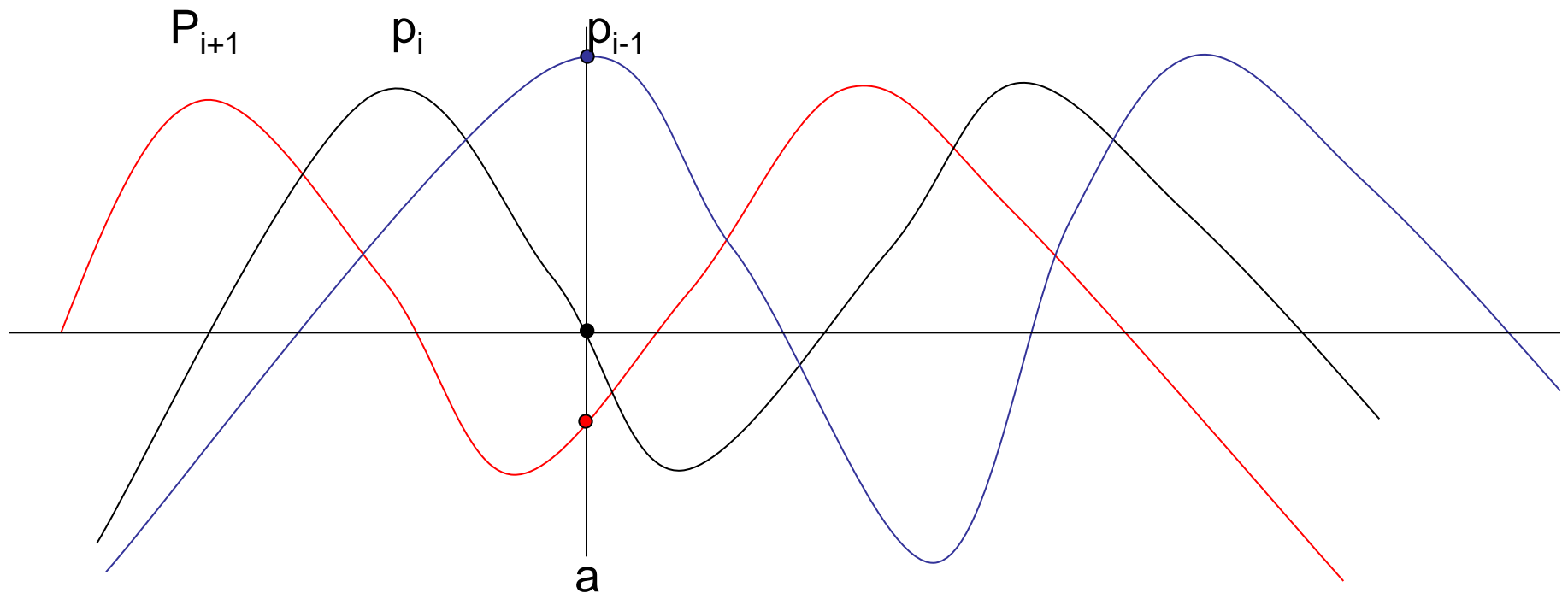
$$p(\lambda) = p_n(\lambda)$$



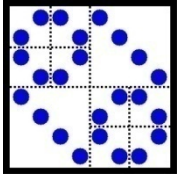
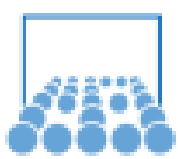
The sequence of polynomials is a Sturm chain:

1. All p_i have only single zeros
2. $\text{sign}(p_{n-1}(a)) = -\text{sign}(p'_n(a))$ for all real zeros of $p_n(x)$
3. For $i=1,2,\dots,n-1$: $p_{i+1}(a)p_{i-1}(a) < 0$ for all real zeros of $p_i(x)$
4. The polynomial $p_0(x)$ does not change its sign

Proof by induction.



At all zeros of p_i the neighbors p_{i-1} and p_{i+1} must have different sign.

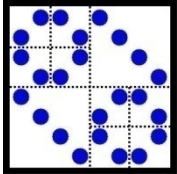
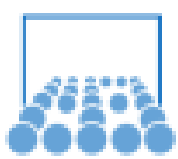


Define $w(a) := \#$ sign changes in $p_i(a)$, $i=1, \dots, n$.

It holds: $w(a) = \#$ zeros of $p_n(x)$ for $x < a$.

Consider eigenvalues ordered $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \dots < \lambda_{n-1} < \lambda_n$.
We want to find λ_i , the i -th zero of $p_n(x)$.

It holds: $\lambda_i < a \rightarrow w(a) = [\# \text{ zeros left of } a] \geq i$



Bisection Algorithm:

Choose an interval $I=[a_0, b_0]$ which contains λ_i .

Therefore: $w(b_0) \geq i$ and $w(a_0) < i$.

Evaluate the polynomial sequence for $a=(a_0+b_0)/2$ and count the sign changes in the sequence $p_i(a) \rightarrow w(a)$.

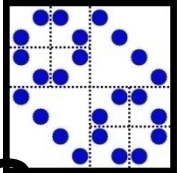
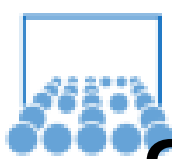
If $w(a) \geq i$: Replace in interval I b_0 by a

Otherwise: Replace in interval I a_0 by a .

Generates converging sequence of smaller and smaller intervals that contain the eigenvalue λ_i certainly.

Advantages:

- can be easily parallelized
- can be used with high or low accuracy



8.8 MR³ for tridiagonal matrices

Idea: Use inverse iteration for computing the eigenvectors of a tridiagonal matrix.

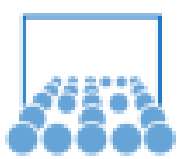
In prestep the eigenvalues have to be computed!

Observations:

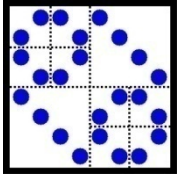
Inverse iteration is cheap, because of tridiagonal form

Parallel and independent Inverse Iteration for different eigenvalues.
High accuracy inspite of (near) singular linear system!

Find a good starting vector such that we need only small number of iterations!



Multiple Relatively Robust Representations = MRRR



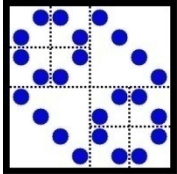
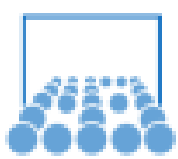
Outline of the algorithm:

Compute eigenvalue approximation λ with high relative accuracy
(e.g. Bisection)

Find the column number r of $(T - \lambda I)^{-1}$ with largest norm
Use bidiagonal factorizations $T = LDL^T$.

Perform one step of inverse iteration $(T - \lambda I) z = e_r$

MR³ allows the computation of eigenvectors with high accuracy
(also for small or close together eigenvalues) using
factorizations: $L_+ D_+ L_+^T = LDL^T - \sigma I$.



8.9 Sequential QR Algorithm for computing all Eigenvalues:

Standard algorithm for computing eigenpairs: QR-algorithm

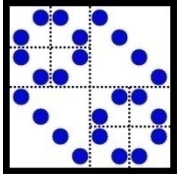
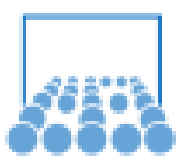
Prestep: Transform A by Givens or Householder matrices to tridiagonal form.

$$G_{2,3} * \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & * & * \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & * & * \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix} * G_{2,3}^H \quad \text{to eliminate } a_{31} \text{ and } a_{13}$$

Main difference to QR-factorization:

- Use subdiagonal entry for eliminating elements
- Apply Q from both sides
- Gives tridiagonal matrix (or upper Hessenberg for nonsymmetric A) .

For better parallelism use block Householder like in the QR-decomposition. 29



QR-Algorithm

First step:

By Householder matrices transform A by equivalence transformations on tridiagonal (upper Hessenberg) form: $A \rightarrow H \cdot A \cdot H^T = T$

For the following we assume A already tridiagonal (upper Hessenberg)

Second step: Compute QR-decomposition of A , $A = QR$ and

replace $A = A_{\text{old}}$ by $A_{\text{new}} = RQ$

$$A_{\text{new}} = RQ = (Q^T A)Q = Q^T A Q$$

Therefore A and A_{new} have the same eigenvalues

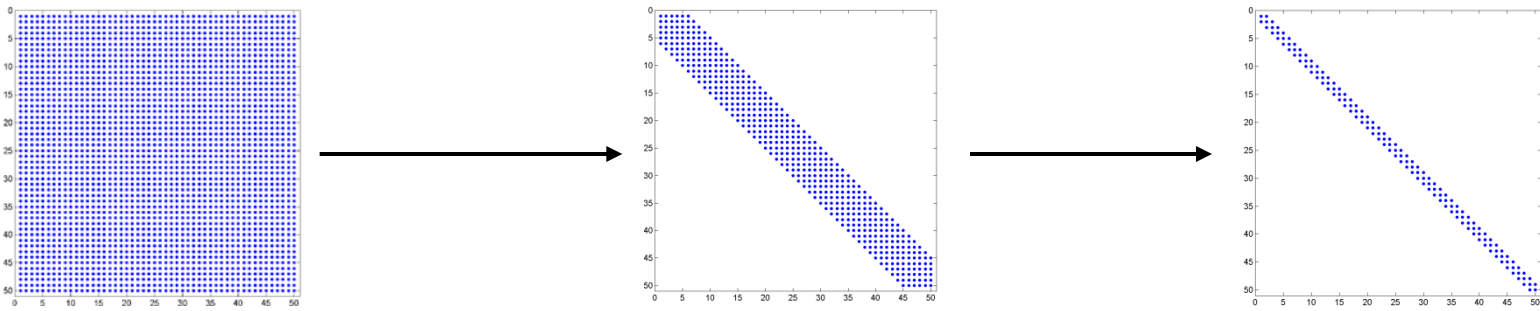
Repeat these QR-steps until convergence against diagonal (upper triangular) matrix.

Use last diagonal entry r as shift $A - rI$, apply QR step on shifted matrix.

8.10 Twostep Tridiagonalization

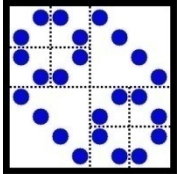
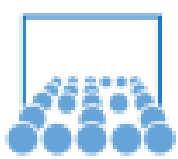
Reduce full matrix to tridiagonal (upper Hessenberg)
Sequential!

For allowing better parallelism reduce matrix A to block-banded form, and then in a second step to tridiagonal form.



Advantage:

First step allows block/BLAS3 operations and is good in parallel.
second step is cheap; can be implemented e.g. by MR³.

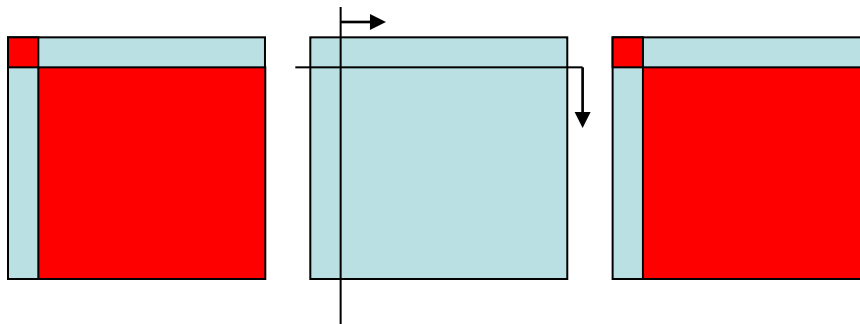


Bothsided Householder for Tridiagonalization

Compute Householder vector u in order to eliminate subtridiagonal entries in the first column/row.

Apply

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow (I-2uu^H)A(I-2uu^H) = A - 2u(u^HA) - 2(Au)u^H + 4uu^H(u^HAu) = \\ &= A - 2u(u^HA+ru^H) - 2(Au+ru)u^H = \\ &= A - uy^H - yu^H \end{aligned}$$

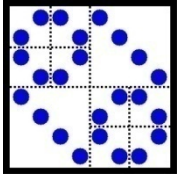
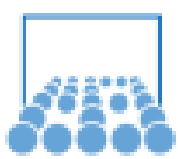


Two matrix update steps

To reduce BLAS2 operations work blockwise,

$$A \rightarrow A - UY^H - YU^H \quad (\text{BLAS3})$$

but still first Au is needed (BLAS2).



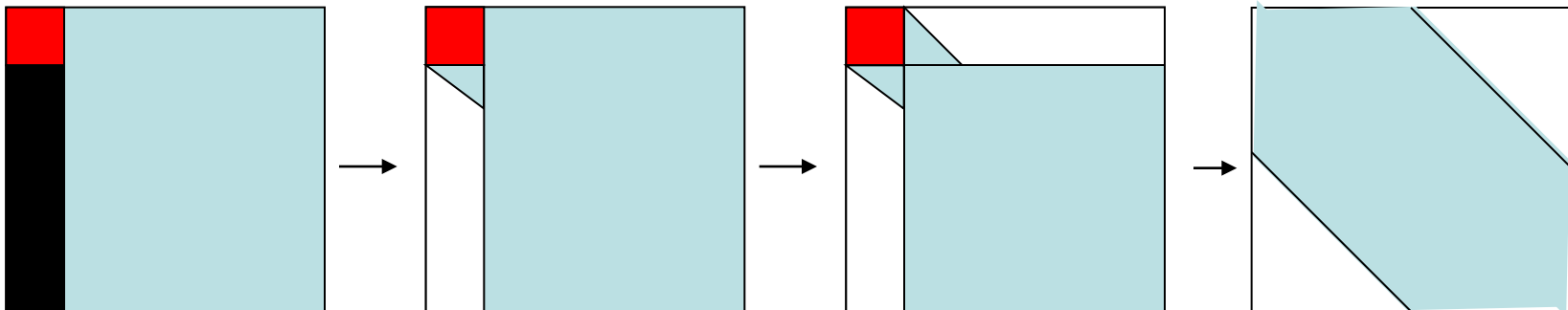
Block-Band reduction

In the first step find QR decomposition of subblock $A(1 + b : n, 1 : n_b) = A_1$ where b is the bandwidth and n_b is a block size.

Compute QR decomposition of black part A_1 :

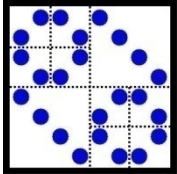
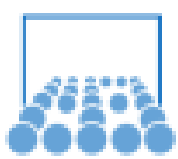
Applying (I, Q^H) from the left leads to triangular form of black part.

Applying from both sides: Band structure.



Store Householder vectors on positions of new generated zeros.

Use Cholesky QR.

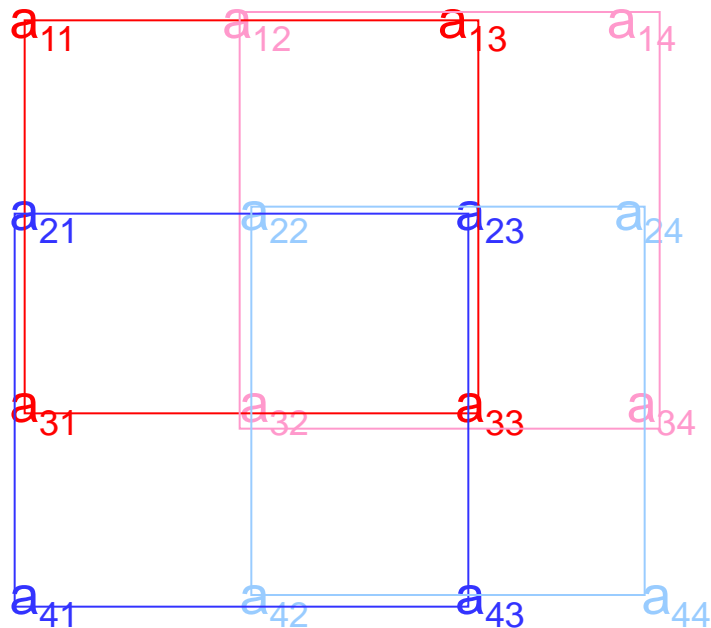


2D-Cyclic Data Distribution

4 x 4 – Matrix

on

2 x 2 processor array



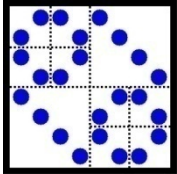
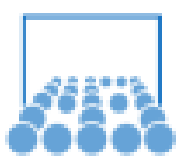
p_{11}

p_{12}

p_{21}

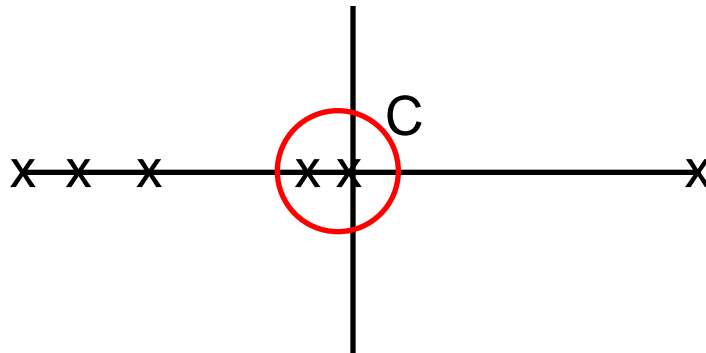
p_{22}

Advantage: better load balancing because matrices and Householder vectors are getting smaller.

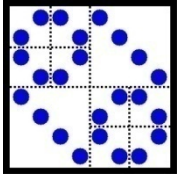
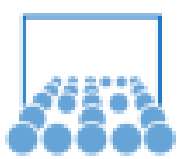


FEAST

Use integration over closed curve C in complex plane in order to derive an approximation to the subspace built by the eigenvectors related to the eigenvalues inclosed by the curve.



Closed curve contains 2 eigenvalues with 2 (orthogonal) eigenvectors \rightarrow 2-dim subspace



FEAST c't

$$U := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C (zI - A)^{-1} Y \, dz$$

For rank 2 matrix Y , the computed matrix U contains the span of the 2 eigenvectors in C .

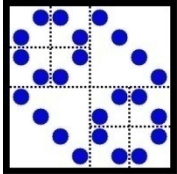
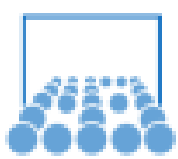
With U computed build the small matrices

$$A_U = U^H A U, \quad B_U = U^H U$$

and solve the small eigenvalue problem

$$A_U W = B_U W \cdot \Lambda$$

Repeat with $Y = X = U^* W$ until convergence.



FEAST c't

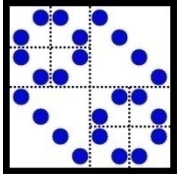
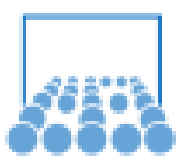
Main work: Use quadrature rule with discretization points z_j , $j=1, \dots, p$, in \mathbb{C} to compute the integral.

Therefore, we need to solve

$$\left(z_j I - A\right) U = Y$$

for different z_j and blocks $Y=(y_1, \dots, y_m)$

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{j=1}^p \omega_j \varphi(t_j) (\varphi(t_j) I - A)^{-1} Y = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{j=1}^p \omega_j z_j (z_j I - A)^{-1} Y \end{aligned}$$



Advantages:

First level of parallelism:

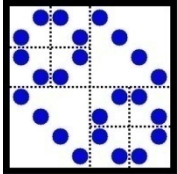
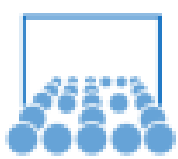
Choose different curves containing all wanted eigenvalues.

Second level of parallelism:

Solve linear equations for different z_j and
for one z_j for different columns of Y

Third level of parallelism:

Parallelize iterative solver.



Problem

Linear equations are extremely ill-conditioned if eigenvalues are close to curve and therefore $z_j I - A$ very ill-conditioned.

Slow convergence of iterative solver!

Preconditioning?