

# BAMPHI (Backward-accurate Action of Matrix PHI-functions)

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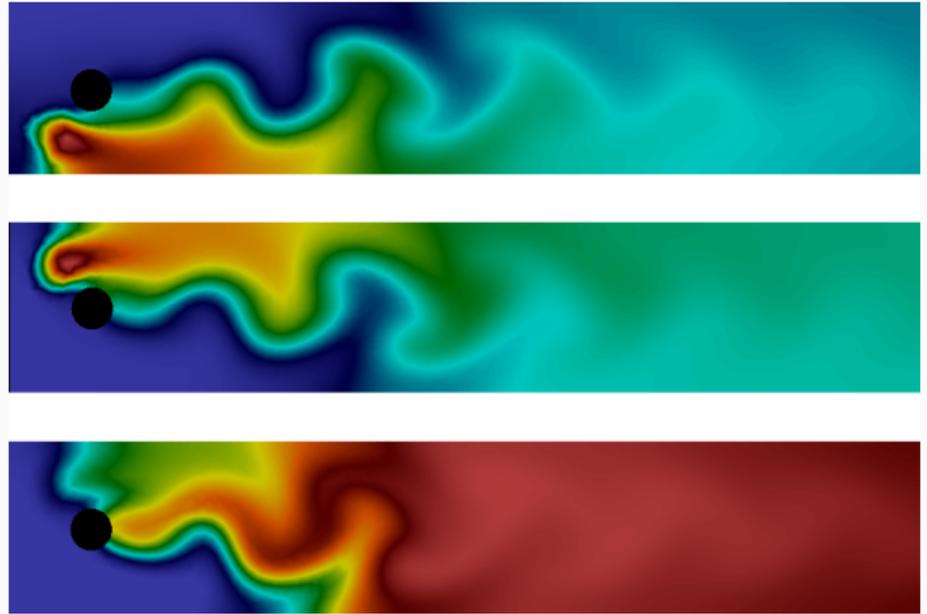
## Exponential-type methods

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When simulating dynamics,  
*more accuracy means more efforts.*

This is *especially true* when the  
underlying differential equations  
are **stiff**.

Stiff systems are characterized by a  
**wide range of time scales in their  
evolution.**



**Figure 1** – Final concentrations of components in a chemical reaction described by stiff coupled systems of ADR equations.



**Figure 2** – As the relative velocity of the water increases turbulence occurs in the water flow over the hull of a submarine.

Stiff equations arise in a wide range of fields including :

- *fluid dynamics,*
- *electromagnetics,*
- *acoustics,*
- *electrodynamics,*
- *molecular modeling,*
- *celestial mechanics*

... but also in *visual computing* for animating the dynamics of cloth, fibers, fluids, or solids, and their interaction with each other.



**Figure 3** – Dynamical simulation of human hair during a head shake carried out with an exponential-type method

Write our stiff system of differential equations:

$$u'(t) = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}u(t)}_{\text{stiff guy}} + \underbrace{g(t, u(t))}_{\text{nice guy}}, \quad u(t_0) = u_0 \in \mathbb{C}^N,$$

so that **the stiffness** is concentrated **in the linearity  $\mathbf{A}$** . The **exponential-type** methods are usually derived from the Duhamel formula

$$u(t_n + k) = e^{k\mathbf{A}}u(t_n) + \int_0^k e^{(k-s)\mathbf{A}}g(t_n + s, u(t_n + s))ds$$

where the **linearity  $\mathbf{A}$**  is treated **exactly**. For this reason, they are **particularly suited** for the **integration of stiff systems** of differential equations.

In particular, each **exponential-type method** differs from the others for how it approximates the integral in

$$u(t_n + k) = e^{k\mathbf{A}}u(t_n) + \int_0^k e^{(k-s)\mathbf{A}}g(t_n + s, u(t_n + s))ds,$$

usually through **the action of one or few linear combinations of  $\varphi$ -functions**, defined as

$$\varphi_p(x) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^i}{(i+p)!} \left( = \int_0^1 e^{(1-\theta)x} \frac{\theta^{p-1}}{(p-1)!} d\theta, p > 0 \right)$$

**Are the  $\varphi$ -functions difficult to compute ?**

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Linear combinations  $\varphi$ -functions are quite simple to compute. In fact, we can obtain

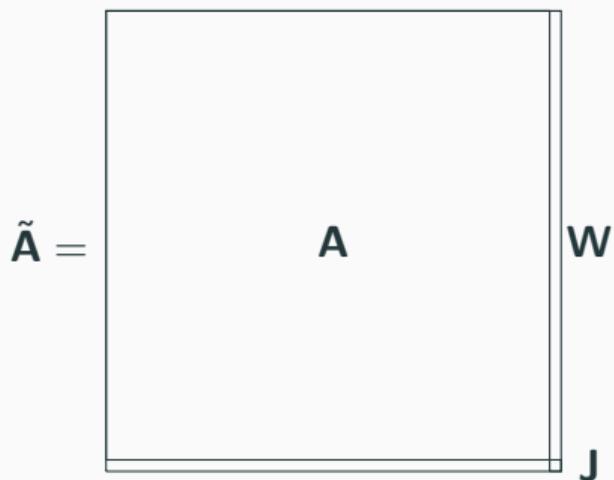
$$e^{k\mathbf{A}}v_0 + \varphi_1(k\mathbf{A})v_1 + \dots + \varphi_p(k\mathbf{A})v_p,$$

through the **single - slightly larger - action of the matrix exponential**:

$$e^{k\tilde{\mathbf{A}}}\tilde{v},$$

where

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{W} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{J} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{J} := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_{p-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{W} := (k^{-p}v_p, k^{-p+1}v_{p-1}, \dots, k^{-1}v_1), \quad \tilde{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ e_p \end{pmatrix}.$$



BEWARE :

symmetricity (if any) is lost and the sparsity pattern worsen,  
if not handled correctly  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$  may become a source of problems.

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{W} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{J} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{J} := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_{p-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{W} := \left( k^{-p} v_p, k^{-p+1} v_{p-1}, \dots, k^{-1} v_1 \right), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{v}} = \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ e_p \end{pmatrix}$$

Consequently, exponential-type methods boil down to computing hundreds, thousands or even millions of times the action of very few sorts of ~~linear combinations of  $\phi$ -functions~~ matrix exponentials only marginally changing from an integration step to another.

## Computing the action of the matrix exponential

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Practitioners are *fully sided* with **Krylov-based methods** due to their simplicity and effectiveness. The idea revolves around Arnoldi decomposition:

The diagram illustrates the Arnoldi decomposition of a matrix  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ . On the left is a large square box labeled  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ . To its right is an equals sign. To the left of the equals sign is a vertical rectangular box labeled  $\mathbf{V}_m$ . To the right of the equals sign is another vertical rectangular box labeled  $\mathbf{V}_m$ . To the right of this second  $\mathbf{V}_m$  is a plus sign. To the right of the plus sign is a vertical rectangular box that is mostly dashed, representing a residual term. A small square box labeled  $\mathbf{H}_m$  is positioned above the top-left corner of the dashed box, with a diagonal line indicating its placement. Below the dashed box is the label  $h_{m+1,m}\mathbf{v}_{m+1}$ .

where  $\mathbf{H}_m$  is a Hessenberg matrix and  $\mathbf{V}_m^* \mathbf{V}_m = \mathbf{I}_m$  with  $m \ll N$ .

Krylov approximation is obtained by forming

$$e^{k\tilde{\mathbf{A}}}\tilde{\mathbf{v}} \approx \kappa_m(k\tilde{\mathbf{A}}, \tilde{\mathbf{v}}) := \|\tilde{\mathbf{v}}\|_2 \mathbf{V}_m e^{k\mathbf{H}_m} \mathbf{e}_1$$

where  $m$  is chosen large enough so that the approximation is accurate. But **Arnoldi decomposition**

- is **expensive**:  $O(m^2N)$  (or  $O(mN)$  if *Incomplete Orthogonalization Method* is used);
- requires **huge storage** space ( $mN$  elements) and **frequent memory accesses**;
- for large  $m$  shows **stability issues**.

Hence it would be **best to keep  $m$  low** (or to overcome Arnoldi procedure right away).

To do so, one sets  $v^{(0)} := \tilde{v}$  and adopts the following sub-stepping strategy :

$$v^{(l+1)} := \kappa_{m_{l+1}}(\tau_{l+1} k \tilde{\mathbf{A}}, v^{(l)}), \quad l = 0, 1, \dots, s-1$$

where  $\tau_1 + \dots + \tau_s = 1$  and  $m_1, \dots, m_s$  are *reasonably small* positive integers (usually between 10 and 128).

Anyway, this means **Krylov methods require** to run the (IOM) Arnoldi procedure

*at each* sub-step (maybe tens or even hundreds)

× *of each* combination of  $\varphi$ -functions (usually less than ten)

× *of each* exponential integration step (maybe hundreds, thousands or even millions)

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= amounting to a **gazillion calls** of this *tiring decomposition*.

This problem is known in the community from a long time. An **attempt to tackle it** traces back to `expmv`, which is based on a Taylor interpolation

$$e^{k\tilde{\mathbf{A}}}\tilde{v} \approx T_m(k\tilde{\mathbf{A}})\tilde{v} := \sum_{i=0}^m \frac{(k\tilde{\mathbf{A}})^i}{i!} \tilde{v}$$

and it comes, for stability reasons, with a sub-stepping strategy too

$$v^{(l+1)} := T_m(s^{-1}k\tilde{\mathbf{A}})v^{(l)}, \quad l = 0, 1, \dots, s-1$$

where  $v^{(0)} := \tilde{v}$ .

Now, **Taylor interpolation** is usually **deprecated**<sup>1</sup> and referred to as **a bad idea** for this kind of task, in fact,  $\sigma(\tilde{\mathbf{A}})$  is usually scattered and interpolating at the origin may cause:

- a **disproportionate amount of matrix-vector products** to perform;
- **numerical instabilities**.

*Yet*, `expmv` succeeded to prove a point compared to Krylov methods, in fact:

- performing Taylor interpolation only requires **storing two vectors**;
- **any** Taylor iteration only requires **one** matrix-vector product.

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1. Author's impression formed by talking with some (but not every) practitioners.

**What about bamphi ?**

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In a way, `bamphi` is similar to `expmv`, in fact, it is based on a Newton interpolation

$$e^{k\tilde{\mathbf{A}}}\tilde{v} \approx p_m(k\tilde{\mathbf{A}})\tilde{v} := \sum_{i=0}^m d_i \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (k\tilde{\mathbf{A}} - kx_j\mathbf{I})\tilde{v}$$

which is a mere generalization of Taylor interpolation. As such,

- performing Newton interpolation only requires **storing two vectors** ;
- **any** Newton iteration only requires **one** matrix-vector product.

And it comes too, for stability reasons, with a sub-stepping strategy

$$v^{(l+1)} := p_m(s^{-1}k\tilde{\mathbf{A}})v^{(l)}, \quad l = 0, 1, \dots, s-1$$

where  $v^{(0)} := \tilde{v}$ .

Now, we need a solid interpolation set lying close to the eigenvalues of  $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$  to overcome  $\exp m v$ 's weaknesses. Theorem from [1] says:

*“The approximation  $\kappa_m(\mathbf{X}, v)$  is mathematically equivalent to  $p_m(\mathbf{X})v$  provided  $p_m(\cdot)$  is the polynomial interpolating  $e^x$  at the Ritz's values, i.e.,  $\sigma(\mathbf{H}_m)$ ”.*

Hence the idea is to interpolate right at the Ritz's values so that we can emulate Krylov methods without actually performing a Krylov method.

In fact, what we are going to do is the following :

1. **RUN** the IOM Arnoldi decomposition<sup>2</sup> of **A** **once** and **compute** the set  $\sigma(k\mathbf{H}_m)$ ;
2. **COMPUTE** the linear combinations of  $\varphi$ -functions  $e^{k\tilde{\mathbf{A}}\tilde{\mathbf{v}}}$  **interpolating** at

$$\sigma(k\mathbf{H}_m) \cup \underbrace{\{0, 0, \dots, 0\}}_{p \text{ times}};$$

3. **STEP AHEAD** : **IF** **A** changed since the last integration step *go to 1*, **ELSE** *go to 2*.

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2. **we don't** even need to **store** the **huge and full** matrix  $\mathbf{V}_m$ , we just need  $\mathbf{H}_m$ .

This means that `bamphi` requires to run the (IOM) Arnoldi procedure

*once and for all* at the first call of the routine

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= amounting to **one** call

if the matrix **A** doesn't change from timestep to timestep or

*at each* exponential integration step (maybe hundreds, thousands or even millions)

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= amounting to **several** (but not extremely many) calls

if the matrix **A** unfortunately **does**.

## Numerical evidence

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**Routines :** for the numerical tests, we compare the two following `MATLAB` routines:

- `kiops`: is the *state-of-the-art* routine when it comes to **Krylov method**, it employs IOM Arnoldi decomposition and it is *widely used* for its *strength and simplicity*;
- `bamphi`: is the routine based on **Newton interpolation at Ritz's values** that we described;

**Test 1:** consider the 2-dimensional **Advection-Diffusion-Reaction** equation

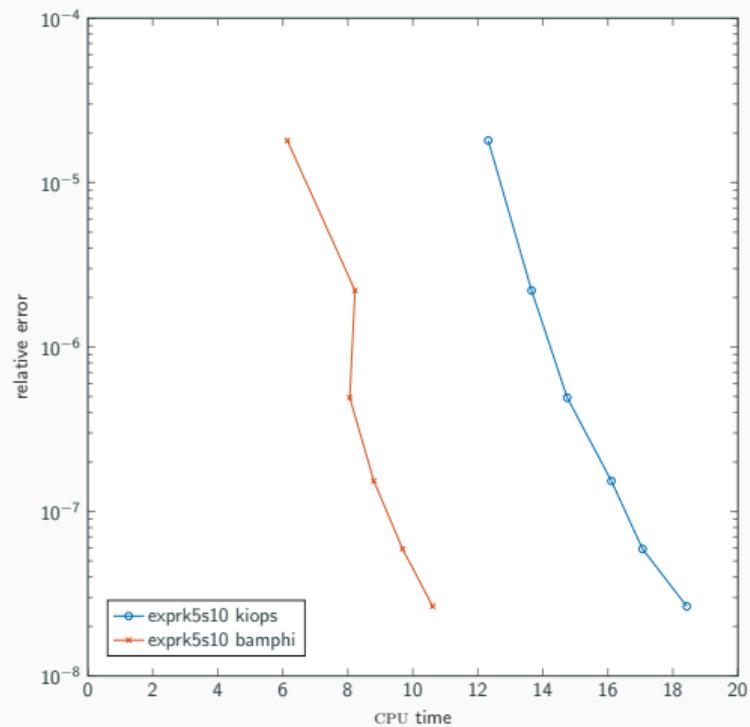
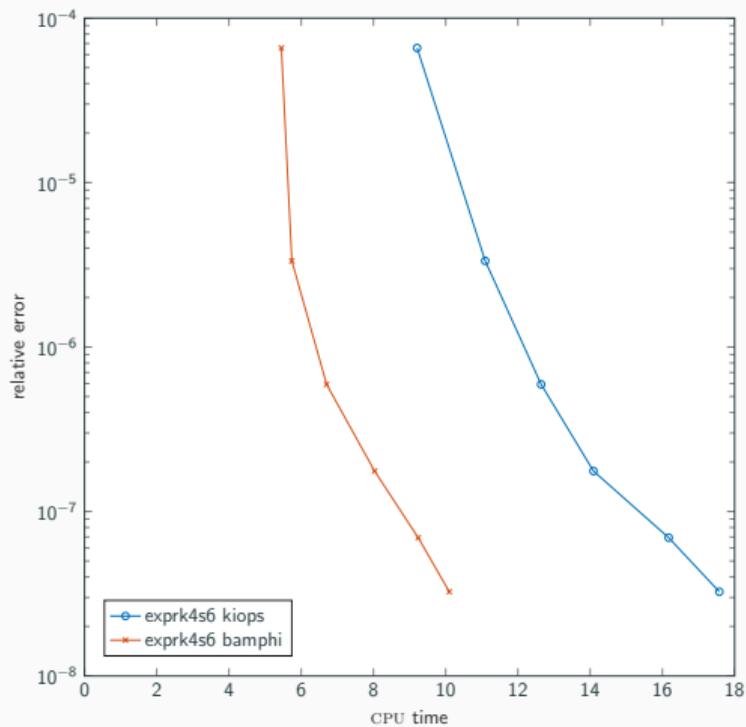
$$\begin{cases} u_t = \varepsilon \Delta u - \alpha(u_x + u_y) + \gamma u(u - \frac{1}{2})(1 - u) \\ u_0 = 256x^2y^2(1 - x)^2(1 - y)^2 + \frac{3}{10} \end{cases}$$

with  $\Omega = [0, 1]^2$ ,  $t \in [0, \frac{1}{10}]$ , and homogeneous Neumann conditions are set. We employ second-order finite differences discretization with  $N_x = 500$  points for each dimension.

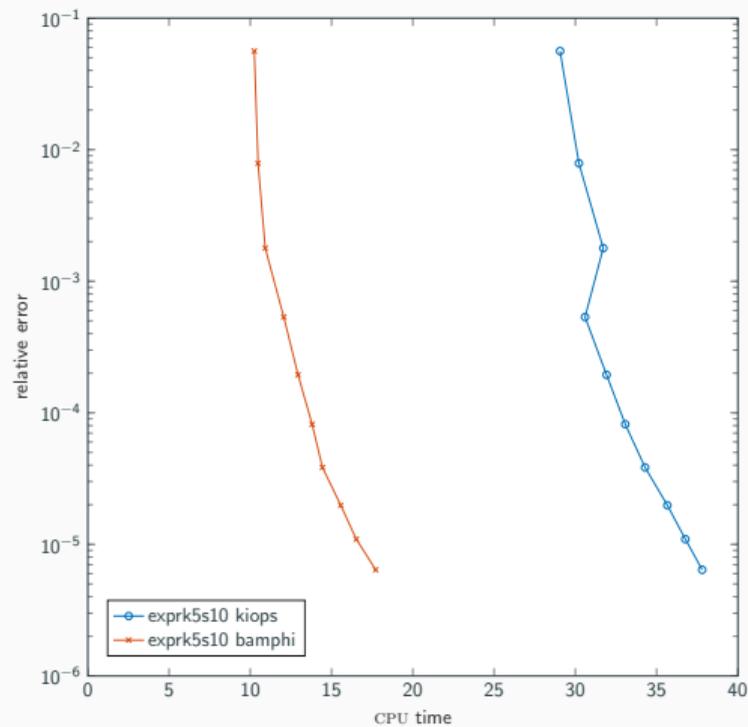
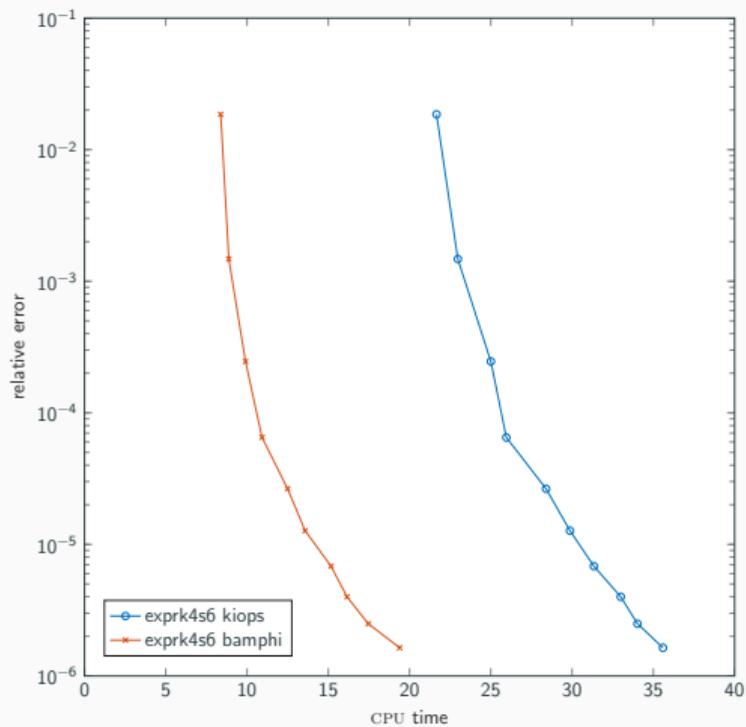
We take  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{100}$ ,  $\gamma = 100$  and  $\alpha$  so that the problem has

- Peclet number equal to 0, see figure (4);
- Peclet number equal to 0.5, see figure (5);
- Peclet number equal to 1, see figure (6);

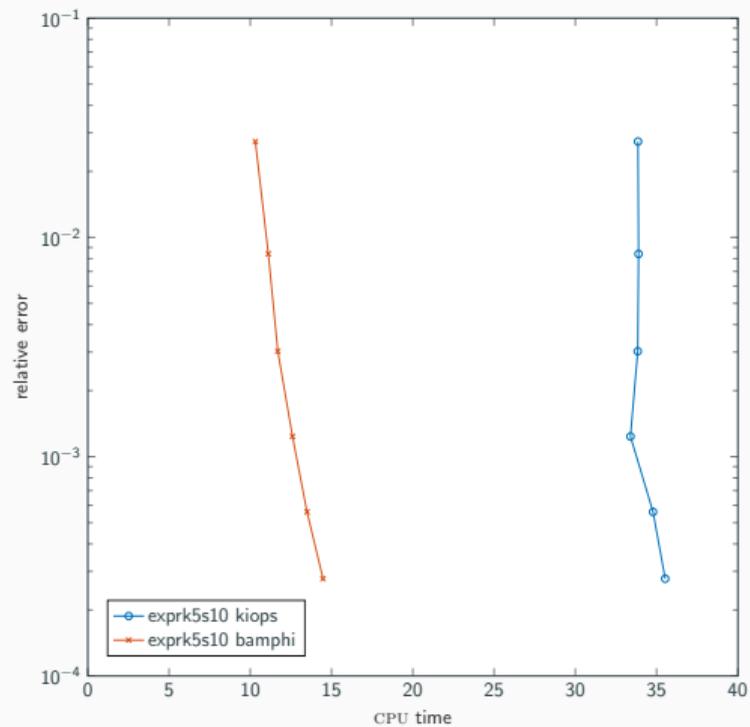
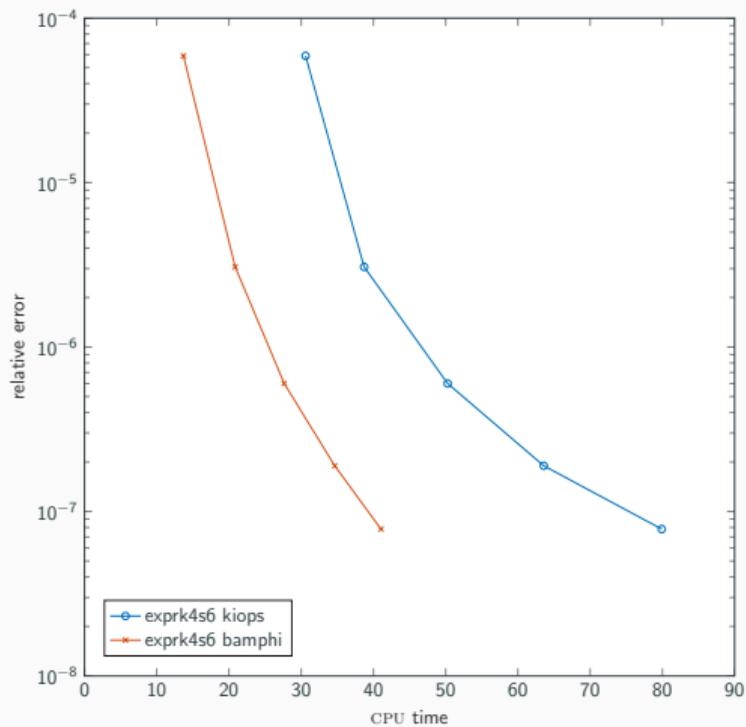
for time marching we use the *Runge-Kutta exp. integrators* `exprk4s6` and `exprk5s10`.



**Figure 4** – ADR, Peclet number 0, exprk4s6, exprk5s10



**Figure 5** – ADR, Peclet number 0.5, exprk4s6, exprk5s10



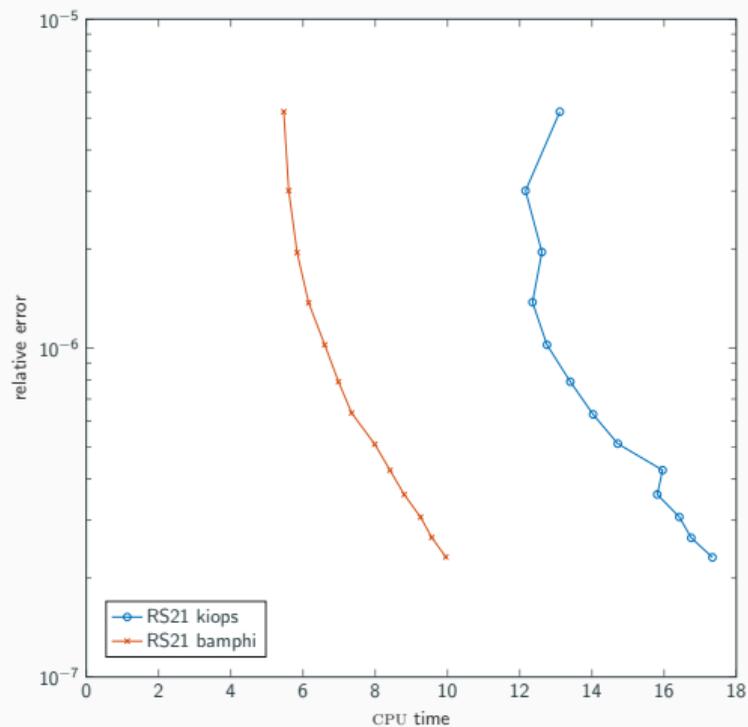
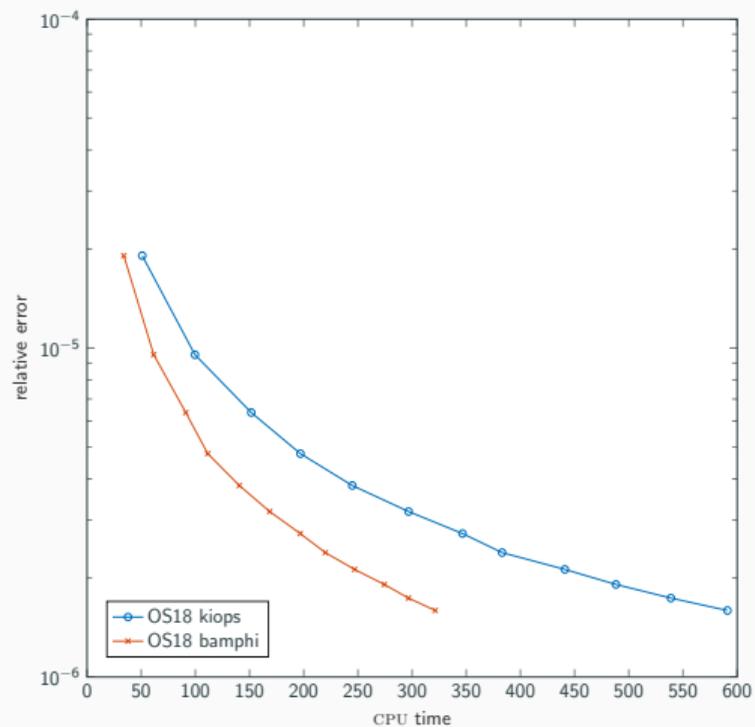
**Figure 6** – ADR, Peclet number 1, exprk4s6, exprk5s10

**Test 2:** consider the 1-dimensional **Cubic Schrödinger** equation

$$iu_t = -\Delta u + |u|^2 u$$

with  $\Omega = [-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,  $u_0 \in H_0^{3/2}(\Omega)$  and homogeneous Dirichlet conditions. We employ second-order finite differences discretization with  $N_x = 500$  points for each dimension.

For time marching we use the *Low-Regularity exp. type integrators* `explr1s2` and `explr2s4`.



**Figure 7** – Cubic Schrödinger equation, explr1s2, explr2s4

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