

Lecture 20

Is there some way that k is determined for the dimension of the Krylov subspace? I know this probably gets into the methods a bit, but is the dimension of the subspace a minimization problem?

Are the first couple vectors in the Krylov subspace (b, Ab, \dots) encoding the most information about the solution for $Ax=b$ (google says yes)? I am not understanding why though

Yes, BUT...
There is loads of info in others.

Often 10n steps.

Lecture question (11/6/2025)
han823

We've seen the Katz relationship: $f(A) = (I - \alpha A)^{-1}$ which leads to $f(x) = 1 / (1 - \alpha x)$ can we derive this from Neumann Series and Cayley-Hamilton theorem? The polynomial expansion of the inverse looks the same as Neumann, while the function of matrix was mapped to a function of scalar as we did in C-H.

In this class, motivation for the Neumann series came from the scalar geometric series. However, the Neumann series also looks like the matrix generalization of the Taylor series for $f(x) = 1/x$ with $x_0 = 1$. Do similar generalizations hold from scalar inverse approximations to other Krylov methods? If so, knowing that the Krylov subspace relates to inverse approximations, what spaces appear when approximating other functions of a matrix?

$f(x)$

The lecture notes say that Krylov methods generally outperform methods like Richardson and Steepest Descent. Are there situations in practice where the non-Krylov methods are still preferred?

Yes! If A is well-conditioned, then Jacobi etc. are Steepest descent. are fine.
Tchebychev's method is a hybrid.

What's a good indicator that we want to switch subspaces?

b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

Numerically, what is the general way to obtain every eigenvalues of A ? (A : any kind of matrix)

b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

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The lecture notes mention that the naive basis $[b, Ab, A^2b, \dots]$ becomes ill-conditioned as k increases. What does it mean for this basis to be "ill-conditioned"? How does the Arnoldi process fix this issue?

b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

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Since the Krylov subspace depends on b , does this mean that the convergence rate of Krylov methods will depend more heavily on b than other algorithms?

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b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

Lecture question (11/6/2025)
chen3203

Could you give some examples of well-known algorithms that are not backward stable, and explain whether their instability comes from the algorithm itself or from the fact that the underlying problem is ill-conditioned?

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b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

I've heard the word energy a lot, $x^T Ax$ in A norm is called energy, and in ML many people talk about energy base models. Are the use energy for similar things or completely different things?

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In the generalized eigenvalue problem, what changes if B is not spd or if it is singular?

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Is there an example of a well-known algorithm that's not backwards stable or that hasn't yet been proven to be backwards stable?

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Yes, there are several classic, widely-used algorithms that are not backward stable (or are stable only under restricted conditions). A few well-known examples:

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1. Gaussian elimination without pivoting.

This is the canonical example. Without pivoting, GE can produce huge growth factors in intermediate steps, causing catastrophic amplification of rounding errors. It is not backward stable in general.

GE with partial pivoting is usually backward stable in practice, but even its worst-case stability is not proven to be universally bounded. In fact:

The worst-case growth factor can be exponential in n .

Whether partial pivoting is guaranteed backward stable for all inputs is still an open problem.

So:

GE without pivoting \rightarrow provably not backward stable.

GE with partial pivoting \rightarrow empirically stable, but no full proof of backward stability in the worst case. \rightarrow Smoothed analysis shows it's okay!

b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

2. Conjugate Gradient (CG) method for solving SPD linear systems.

In exact arithmetic, CG converges in at most n steps and behaves well theoretically.

In finite precision arithmetic, CG loses conjugacy due to rounding, which can lead to:

Slowdown or stagnation.

The need for re-orthogonalization or preconditioning to regain useful behavior.

Result: CG is not backward stable as a solver for $Ax=b$.

The standard interpretation is weaker: it is approximately stable for solving the normal equations associated to A , which is a weaker guarantee and not always desirable.

Okay. If $U = \text{Lanczos}(A, n)$ was BV stable, then U must be orthogonal.

Chris Reip shows that Lanczos $U = \text{Lanczos}(\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}, n)$

b, Ab, A^2b, \dots

Get it: you mean elementary transcendental functions where we know that the usual approximations are not backward stable for all arguments.

A clean example is $\log(x)$ for x near 1. If you compute $\log(1+x)$ by just calling $\log(1+x)$, you get catastrophic cancellation when x is tiny. That computation is not backward stable in that region, because the nearest representable output does not correspond to any nearby exact input. The fix is the specialized $\log1p(x)$ routine designed specifically to restore backward stability.

Same style story for $\expm1(x)$ computing $\exp(x) - 1$ when x is small. Using $\exp(x) - 1$ directly loses the significant digits; $\expm1(x)$ is the stable form.

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Matrix polyst Rehan function

+ C-H then +

Complex analysis.

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