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H. Harbrecht and M. Multerer and O. Schenk and Ch. Schwab

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Seminar für Angewandte Mathematik Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule CH-8092 Zürich Switzerland

MULTIRESOLUTION KERNEL MATRIX ALGEBRA

H. HARBRECHT, M. MULTERER, O. SCHENK, AND CH. SCHWAB

ABSTRACT. We propose a sparse arithmetic for kernel matrices, enabling efficient scattered data analysis. The compression of kernel matrices by means of samplets yields sparse matrices such that assembly, addition, and multiplication of these matrices can be performed with essentially linear cost. Since the inverse of a kernel matrix is compressible, too, we have also fast access to the inverse kernel matrix by employing exact sparse selected inversion techniques. As a consequence, we can rapidly evaluate series expansions and contour integrals to access, numerically and approximately in a data-sparse format, more complicated matrix functions such as A^{α} and $\exp(A)$. By exploiting the matrix arithmetic, also efficient Gaussian process learning algorithms for spatial statistics can be realized. Numerical results are presented to illustrate and quantify our findings.

1. Introduction

The concept of samplets has been introduced in [19] by abstracting the wavelet construction from [42] to general discrete data sets. A samplet basis is a multiresolution analysis based on discrete signed measures, where stability is a direct consequence of the orthogonality of the basis. Samplets are a data-centric approach and can be constructed for a given data set at linear cost, and such that their measure integrals vanish for polynomials up to a given degree. Therefore, in view of this vanishing moment property, kernel matrices which arise in scattered data interpolation problems become quasi-sparse. This means that these kernel matrices become compressible in samplet coordinates, S-compressible for short, and can be replaced by a sparse matrix. We call the respective sparsity pattern the compression pattern. The latter has been characterized in [19, Section 5.3]. In case of point sets X which are quasi-uniform in the sense of Definition 3.3, the compressed kernel matrix contains only $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$ relevant entries. Here, N denotes the number of evaluation points.

In the present article, we develop a fast arithmetic for kernel matrices in samplet representation. By fixing the associated sparsity pattern, we can perform additions and multiplications of kernel matrices with high precision in essentially linear cost. A further feature of our analysis is that the inverses of kernel matrices are also compressible with respect to the same pattern. We can thus employ a fast implementation of an algorithm for computing selected elements of a general sparse symmetric matrix \boldsymbol{A} , which can be decomposed as $\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{L}\boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{L}^{\mathsf{T}}$, where \boldsymbol{L} is lower triangular and \boldsymbol{D} is diagonal. We remark that many applications particularly require the computation of a subset of the elements of a given matrix inverse. Important examples are sparse inverse covariance matrix estimation in L^1 -regularized Gaussian maximum likelihood estimation [7,24], or integrated nested Laplace approximations for approximate Bayesian inference [46]. Other examples of computing a subset of the inverse are electronic structure calculations of materials utilizing multipole expansions, where the diagonal and occasionally subdiagonals of the discrete Green's function are required to determine the electron density [28, 29].

The concrete sparse selected inversion implementation is based on an efficient supernodal left-looking $A = LDL^{\mathsf{T}}$ factorization of A, which is available in the sparse, direct solver Pardiso [36]. By using Pardiso, also matrix inversion can be performed rapidly. We emphasize that this inversion computes the exact matrix inverse of the S-compressed matrix on its matrix pattern. Likewise, the matrix addition and matrix multiplication are performed exactly (in the absence of rounding) on the prescribed matrix pattern. Hence, the relevant matrix coefficients are computed exactly when adding, multiplying, and inverting S-compressed kernel matrices. The only error introduced is the matrix compression error induced by the restriction to the compression pattern.

Having a fast matrix addition and fast matrix inversion at hand enables the fast evaluation of contour integrals in order to derive more complicated matrix functions, compare [17]. Up to quadrature errors, these contour integrals are computed exactly on the prescribed pattern. This is in contrast to previously proposed methods.

As mentioned above, the cost bounds of the algorithms require quasi-uniformity of the evaluation points which means that the distance between neighboring evaluation points is uniformly bounded from below and above by $N^{-1/d}$, where $d \geq 1$ denotes the spatial dimension of the underlying data set. Nonetheless, we emphasize that all algorithms can still be applied if the quasi-uniformity assumption does not hold, however invalidating the established cost bounds. We remark that related algorithms in the context of wavelet discretizations can be found in [4,5,39], which are however restricted to structured meshes.

The theoretical underpinning of the proposed algorithms will be provided (under certain conditions) by means of pseudodifferential calculus, see, e.g., [23, 43]. The integral operator induced by the kernel of a reproducing kernel Hilbert space will be assumed in the present paper to correspond (via the Schwarz kernel theorem) to a classical, elliptic pseudodifferential operator, from the Hörmander class $S_{1,0}^{m}$ [23]. A prominent example is the Matérn class of kernel functions [33], also called Sobolev splines [12], which are known to generate the Sobolev spaces of positive order, and correspond to fractional powers of the shifted Laplacian. We prove that such pseudodifferential operators are compressible in samplet coordinates, meaning that for numerical representation, only the coefficients in the associated sparse matrix pattern need to be computed. Admissible classes comprise in particular the smooth Hörmander class $S_{1,0}^m$, but also considerably larger kernel classes of finite smoothness, which admit Calderon-Zygmund estimates and an appropriate operator calculus (e.g. [1,44]). The corresponding operator calculus implies that sums, concatenations, powers and holomorphic functions of self-adjoint, elliptic pseudodifferential operators yield again pseudodifferential operators. As we show, as a consequence the corresponding operations on kernel matrices in samplet coordinates result again in compressible matrices.

The article is structured as follows. In Section 2, we briefly introduce the scattered data framework under consideration and recall the relevant theory for reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces. The construction of samplets and the samplet matrix compression is the topic of Section 3. The main contribution of this article is Section 4. Here, we develop and analyze an approximate arithmetic for compressed kernel matrices in samplet coordinates. In Section 5, we perform numerical experiments in order to qualify and quantify the matrix arithmetic. Finally, the required details from the theory pseudodifferential operators, especially the associated calculus, is collected in Appendix A.

Throughout this article, in order to avoid the repeated use of generic but unspecified constants, by $C \lesssim D$ we indicate that C can be bounded by a multiple of

D, independently of parameters which C and D may depend on. Moreover, $C \gtrsim D$ is defined as $D \lesssim C$ and $C \sim D$ as $C \lesssim D$ and $D \lesssim C$.

2. Reproducing Kernel Hilbert spaces

Let $(\mathcal{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})$ be a Hilbert space of functions $h \colon \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, where $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is a given bounded domain. Note that Ω can also be some lower-dimensional manifold in \mathbb{R}^d . Furthermore, let κ be a symmetric and positive definite kernel, SPD kernel for short, i.e., $[\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j)]_{i,j=1}^N$ is a symmetric and positive semi-definite matrix for each $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and any point selection $\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_N \in \Omega$. We recall that κ is the reproducing kernel for \mathcal{H} , iff $\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}$ for every $\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega$ and $h(\boldsymbol{x}) = \langle \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \cdot), h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ for every $h \in \mathcal{H}$. In this case, we call $(\mathcal{H}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{H}})$ a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS).

Let $X := \{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \subset \Omega$ denote a set of N mutually distinct points. With respect to the set X, we introduce the subspace

(1)
$$\mathcal{H}_X := \operatorname{span}\{\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_1,\cdot),\ldots,\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_N,\cdot)\} \subset \mathcal{H}.$$

In what follows, we shall also consider the subspace $V := \text{span}\{\delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_1}, \dots, \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_N}\} \subset \mathcal{H}'$, spanned by the Dirac measures supported at the points of X, i.e.,

$$\delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}(\boldsymbol{x}) := \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}_i, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For a continuous function $f \in C(\Omega)$, we shall use the notation

$$(f, \delta_{oldsymbol{x}_i})_{\Omega} \coloneqq \int_{\Omega} f(oldsymbol{x}) \delta_{oldsymbol{x}_i}(\mathrm{d}oldsymbol{x}) = f(oldsymbol{x}_i).$$

As the kernel $\kappa(\boldsymbol{x},\cdot)$ is the Riesz representer of the point evaluation $(\cdot,\delta_{\boldsymbol{x}})_{\Omega}$, we particularly have

$$(h, \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}})_{\Omega} = \langle \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \cdot), h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$$
 for every $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

The space V is isometrically isomorphic to the subspace \mathcal{H}_X from (1). We identify

$$u = \sum_{i=1}^{N} u_i \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_i} \in V \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{u} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} u_i \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}_X.$$

We endow V in what follows with the inner product

(2)
$$\langle u, v \rangle_V := \sum_{i=1}^N u_i v_i, \quad \text{where } u = \sum_{i=1}^N u_i \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}, \ v = \sum_{i=1}^N v_i \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}.$$

Note that this inner product is different from the restriction of the canonical one in \mathcal{H} to \mathcal{H}_X . The latter is given by

$$\langle \hat{u}, \hat{v} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \boldsymbol{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{v}$$

with the symmetric and positive semi-definite kernel matrix

(3)
$$\boldsymbol{K} := [\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j)]_{i,j=1}^N \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$$

and $u := [u_i]_{i=1}^N$ and $v := [v_i]_{i=1}^N$.

A consequence of the duality between \mathcal{H}_X and V is that the \mathcal{H} -orthogonal projection of a function $h \in \mathcal{H}$ onto \mathcal{H}_X is given by the interpolant

$$s_h(\boldsymbol{x}) := \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \cdot),$$

which satisfies $s_h(x_i) = h(x_i)$ for all $x_i \in X$. The associated coefficients $\alpha = [\alpha_i]_{i=1}^N$ are given by the solution to the linear system

$$(4) K\alpha = h$$

with right hand side $h = [h(x_i)]_{i=1}^N$. From [47, Corollary 11.33], we have the following approximation result.

Theorem 2.1. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a bounded Lipschitz domain satisfying an interior cone condition. Suppose that the Fourier transform of the kernel $\kappa(x-y)$ satisfies

(5)
$$\widehat{\kappa}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \sim (1 + \|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2^2)^{-\tau}, \quad \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Then for $0 \le t < \lceil \tau \rceil - d/2 - 1$, the error between $f \in H^{\tau}(\Omega)$ and its interpolant $s_{f,X}$ satisfies the bound

$$||f - s_{f,X}||_{H^t(\Omega)} \lesssim h_{X,\Omega}^{\tau - t} ||f||_{H^\tau(\Omega)}$$

for a sufficiently small fill distance

(6)
$$h_{X,\Omega} := \sup_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega} \min_{\boldsymbol{x}_i \in X} \|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_i\|_2.$$

One class of kernels satisfying the conditions of Theorem 2.1 are the isotropic Matérn kernels, also called Sobolev splines, see [12]. These kernels play an important role in applications, for example in spatial statistics [37]. They are given by

(7)
$$\kappa_{\nu}(r) := \frac{2^{1-\nu}}{\Gamma(\nu)} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}r}{\ell}\right)^{\nu} K_{\nu} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}r}{\ell}\right)$$

with $r := \|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|_2$, smoothness parameter $\nu > 0$ and length scale parameter $\ell > 0$, see [33, 37]. Here, K_{ν} denotes the modified Bessel function of the second kind. Specifically, property (5) holds with

(8)
$$\widehat{\kappa}_{\nu}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \alpha \left(1 + \frac{\ell^2}{2\nu} \|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2^2 \right)^{-\nu - d/2},$$

where α is a scaling factor depending on ν , ℓ and d, see [33]. As a consequence, the Matérn kernels are the reproducing kernels of the Sobolev spaces $H^{\nu+d/2}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, see

For half integer values of ν , i.e., for $\nu = p + 1/2$ with $p \in \mathbb{N}_0$, the Matérn kernels have an explicit representation given by

$$\kappa_{p+1/2}(r) = \exp\bigg(\frac{-\sqrt{2\nu}r}{\ell}\bigg) \frac{p!}{(2p)!} \sum_{q=0}^{p} \frac{(p+q)!}{q!(p-q)!} \bigg(\frac{\sqrt{8\nu}r}{\ell}\bigg)^{p-q}.$$

The limit case $\nu \to \infty$ gives rise to the Gaussian kernel

$$\kappa_{\infty}(r) = \exp\left(\frac{-r^2}{2\ell^2}\right).$$

Our subsequent compression analysis covers the Matérn kernels, but has considerably wider scope. Indeed, rather large classes of pseudodifferential operators will be admissible. As suitable classes of such operators are known to define an algebra, properties of arithmetic expressions of the underlying kernels, such as off-diagonal coefficient decay and matrix compressibility, can directly be inferred. Equally important, we show that these properties of the operator algebras are to some extent transferred also to the corresponding finitely represented structures, i.e., we show the corresponding matrix representation likewise are algebras in the compressed format. We refer to Appendix A for the details and properties of pseudodifferential operators in this article.

3. Samplet matrix compression

3.1. **Samplets.** Similar to the construction of wavelets, samplets are defined based on a sequence of spaces $\{V_j\}_{j=0}^J$ forming a multiresolution analysis, i.e.,

$$(9) V_0 \subset V_1 \subset \cdots \subset V_J = V.$$

Rather than using a single scale from this multiresolution analysis (9), the idea of samplets is to keep track of the increment of information between two consecutive levels j and j + 1. Since we have $V_j \subset V_{j+1}$, we may decompose

$$(10) V_{j+1} = V_j \stackrel{\perp}{\oplus} S_j$$

by using the *detail space* S_j , where orthogonality is to be understood with respect to the (discrete) inner product defined in (2).

Of practical interest is the particular choice of the basis Σ_j of the detail space S_j in V_j . By choosing a basis Φ_0 of V_0 and recursively applying the decomposition (10), we see that the set

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma}_J = oldsymbol{\Phi}_0 igcup_{j=0}^J oldsymbol{\Sigma}_j$$

forms a basis of $V_J = V$, which we call a samplet basis.

In order to employ samplets for the compression of kernel matrices, we require that the measures $\sigma_{j,k} \in V_j \subset \mathcal{H}'$ have isotropic convex hulls of supports, and are localized with respect to the corresponding discretization level j, i.e.,

(11)
$$\operatorname{diam}(\operatorname{supp} \sigma_{j,k}) \sim 2^{-j/d},$$

and that they are stable with respect to the inner product defined in (2), i.e.,

$$\langle \sigma_{j,k}, \sigma_{j',k'} \rangle_V = 0$$
 for $(j,k) \neq (j',k')$.

Furthermore, an essential ingredient is the vanishing moment condition of order q+1, i.e.,

(12)
$$(p, \sigma_{j,k})_{\Omega} = 0 \text{ for all } p \in \mathcal{P}_q(\Omega),$$

where $\mathcal{P}_q(\Omega)$ is the space of all polynomials with total degree at most q. We say then that the samplets have vanishing moments of order q+1.

Remark 3.1. Associated to each samplet $\sigma_{j,k} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \beta_{\ell} \delta_{x_{i_{\ell}}}$, we find a uniquely determined function

$$\hat{\sigma}_{j,k} := \sum_{\ell=1}^{N} \beta_{\ell} \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_{i_{\ell}}, \cdot) \in \mathcal{H}_{X},$$

which also exhibits vanishing moments, i.e.,

$$\langle \hat{\sigma}_{j,k}, h \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$$

for any $h \in \mathcal{H}$ which satisfies $h|_{\text{supp }\sigma_{j,k}} \in \mathcal{P}_q(\text{supp }\sigma_{j,k})$.

3.2. Construction of samplets. The starting point for the construction of samplets is the discrete multiresolution analysis (9). The particular construction of this multiresolution analysis is based on a hierarchical clustering of the set X.

Definition 3.2. Let $\mathcal{T} = (P, E)$ be a binary tree with vertices P and edges E. We define its set of leaves as

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}) := \{ \nu \in P : \nu \text{ has no sons} \}.$$

The tree \mathcal{T} is a cluster tree for the set $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$, iff the set X is the root of \mathcal{T} and all $\nu \in P \setminus \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T})$ are disjoint unions of their two sons.

The level j_{ν} of $\nu \in \mathcal{T}$ is its distance from the root, i.e., the number of son relations that are required for traveling from X to ν . The depth J of \mathcal{T} is the maximum level of all clusters. We define the set of clusters on level j as

$$\mathcal{T}_i := \{ \nu \in \mathcal{T} : \nu \text{ has level } j \}.$$

The cluster tree is balanced, iff $|\nu| \sim 2^{J-j_{\nu}}$.

To bound the diameter of the clusters, we introduce the separation radius

(13)
$$q_X := \frac{1}{2} \min_{i \neq j} \|\boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{x}_j\|_2$$

and require X to be *quasi-uniform*.

Definition 3.3. The data set $X \subset \Omega$ is quasi-uniform if the fill distance (6) is proportional to the separation radius (13), i.e., there exists a constant $c = c(X, \Omega) \in (0,1)$ such that

$$0 < c \le \frac{q_X}{h_{X,\Omega}} \le c^{-1}.$$

Roughly speaking, the points $x \in X$ are equispaced if $X \subset \Omega$ is quasi-uniform. This immediately implies the following result.

Lemma 3.4. Let \mathcal{T} be a cluster tree. For $\nu \in \mathcal{T}$, the bounding box B_{ν} of ν is the smallest axis-parallel cuboid that contains all points of ν . If $X \subset \Omega$ is quasi-uniform, then there holds

$$\frac{|B_{\nu}|}{|\Omega|} \sim \frac{|B_{\nu} \cap X|}{N}$$

with the constant hidden in \sim depending only on the constant $c(X,\Omega)$ in Definition 3.3. In particular, we have $\operatorname{diam}(\nu) \sim 2^{-j_{\nu}/d}$ for all clusters $\nu \in \mathcal{T}$.

Samplets are now defined recursively for the cluster tree \mathcal{T} employing a two-scale transform between basis elements on a cluster ν of level j. To this end, we create scaling distributions $\Phi_j^{\nu} = \{\varphi_{j,k}^{\nu}\}$ and samplets $\Sigma_j^{\nu} = \{\sigma_{j,k}^{\nu}\}$ as linear combinations of the scaling distributions Φ_{j+1}^{ν} of ν 's son clusters. This results in the refinement relation

$$[\mathbf{\Phi}_{j}^{\nu}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_{j}^{\nu}] := \mathbf{\Phi}_{j+1}^{\nu} \mathbf{Q}^{\nu} = \mathbf{\Phi}_{j+1}^{\nu} \left[\mathbf{Q}_{j,\Phi}^{\nu}, \mathbf{Q}_{j,\Sigma}^{\nu} \right].$$

The transformation matrix Q_i^{ν} is computed from the QR decomposition

$$(\mathbf{M}_{j+1}^{\nu})^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R} =: \left[\mathbf{Q}_{j,\Phi}^{\nu}, \mathbf{Q}_{j,\Sigma}^{\nu}\right] \mathbf{R}$$

of the moment matrix

$$oldsymbol{M}_{j+1}^{
u} \coloneqq egin{bmatrix} (oldsymbol{x^0}, arphi_{j+1,1})_\Omega & \cdots & (oldsymbol{x^0}, arphi_{j+1,|
u|})_\Omega \ dots & dots \ (oldsymbol{x^{lpha}}, arphi_{j+1,1})_\Omega & \cdots & (oldsymbol{x^{lpha}}, arphi_{j+1,|
u|})_\Omega \end{bmatrix} = [(oldsymbol{x^{lpha}}, oldsymbol{\Phi}_{j+1}^{
u})_\Omega]_{|oldsymbol{lpha}| \leq q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_q imes |
u|}$$

with

$$m_q := \sum_{\ell=0}^{q} {\ell+d-1 \choose d-1} \le (q+1)^d$$

being the dimension of $\mathcal{P}_q(\Omega)$. Note that the moment matrix is recursively given, starting in the leave clusters, in accordance with

(16)
$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{M}_{j,\Phi}^{\nu}, \boldsymbol{M}_{j,\Sigma}^{\nu} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (\boldsymbol{x}^{\alpha}, [\boldsymbol{\Phi}_{j}^{\nu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j}^{\nu}])_{\Omega} \end{bmatrix}_{|\boldsymbol{\alpha}| \leq q} = \begin{bmatrix} (\boldsymbol{x}^{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{j+1}^{\nu} [\boldsymbol{Q}_{j,\Phi}^{\nu}, \boldsymbol{Q}_{j,\Sigma}^{\nu}])_{\Omega} \end{bmatrix}_{|\boldsymbol{\alpha}| \leq q}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{M}_{j+1}^{\nu} [\boldsymbol{Q}_{j,\Phi}^{\nu}, \boldsymbol{Q}_{j,\Sigma}^{\nu}] = \boldsymbol{R}^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

As \mathbf{R}^{T} is a lower triangular matrix, the first k-1 entries in its k-th column are zero. This corresponds to (k-1) vanishing moments for the k-th function generated by the transformation $[\mathbf{Q}_{j,\Phi}^{\nu}, \mathbf{Q}_{j,\Sigma}^{\nu}]$. By defining the first m_q functions as scaling

distributions and the remaining as samplets, we obtain samplets with vanishing moments at least up to order q + 1.

For leaf clusters, we define the scaling distributions by the Dirac measures at the points x_i , i.e., $\Phi_J^{\nu} := \{\delta_{x_i} : x_i \in \nu\}$, to make up for the lack of son clusters that could provide scaling distributions. The scaling distributions of all clusters on a specific level j then generate the spaces

(17)
$$V_j := \operatorname{span}\{\varphi_{j,k}^{\nu} : k \in \Delta_j^{\nu}, \ \nu \in \mathcal{T}_j\},$$

while the samplets span the detail spaces

(18)
$$S_j := \operatorname{span} \{ \sigma_{j,k}^{\nu} : k \in \nabla_j^{\nu}, \ \nu \in \mathcal{T}_j \} = V_{j+1} \stackrel{\perp}{\ominus} V_j.$$

Combining the scaling distributions of the root cluster with all clusters' samplets amounts to the final samplet basis

(19)
$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_N := \mathbf{\Phi}_0^X \cup \bigcup_{\nu \in T} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{j_{\nu}}^{\nu}.$$

A visualization of a scaling distribution and different samplets on a Swiss roll is found in Figure 1.

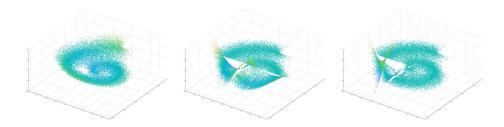


FIGURE 1. A scaling distribution on the coarsest scale (*left*) and samplets on level 2 and 3 (*second from the left to right*).

By construction, samplets satisfy the following properties, which can directly be inferred from the corresponding results in [19, 20, 42].

Theorem 3.5. The spaces V_j defined in equation (17) form the desired multiresolution analysis (9), where the corresponding complement spaces S_j from (18) satisfy

$$V_{j+1} = V_j \stackrel{\perp}{\oplus} S_j$$
 for all $j = 0, 1, \dots, J-1$.

The associated samplet basis Σ_N defined in (19) constitutes an orthonormal basis of V and we have:

- (1) The number of all samplets on level j behaves like 2^{j} .
- (2) The samplets have vanishing moments of order q+1, i.e., there holds (12).
- (3) Each samplet is supported in a specific cluster ν . If the points in X are quasi-uniform, then the diameter of the cluster satisfies $\operatorname{diam}(\nu) \sim 2^{-j_{\nu}/d}$ and there holds (11).
- (4) The coefficient vector $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{j,k} = \left[\omega_{j,k,i}\right]_i$ of the samplet $\sigma_{j,k}$ on the cluster ν fulfills

$$\|\boldsymbol{\omega}_{j,k}\|_1 \leq \sqrt{|\nu|}.$$

(5) Let $f \in C^{q+1}(\Omega)$. Then, there holds for a samplet $\sigma_{j,k}$ supported on the cluster ν that

$$|(f, \sigma_{j,k})_{\Omega}| \le \left(\frac{d}{2}\right) \frac{\operatorname{diam}(\nu)^{q+1}}{(q+1)!} ||f||_{C^{q+1}(\Omega)} ||\boldsymbol{\omega}_{j,k}||_{1}.$$

Remark 3.6. Each samplet is a linear combination of the Dirac measures supported at the points in X. The related coefficient vectors $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{j,k}$ in

(20)
$$\sigma_{j,k} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega_{j,k,i} \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_i}$$

are pairwise orthonormal with respect to the inner product (2). The dual samplet in \mathcal{H}_X is given by

$$\tilde{\sigma}_{j,k} = \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{\omega}_{j,k,i} \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_i,\cdot), \quad \textit{where} \quad \tilde{\boldsymbol{\omega}}_{j,k} \coloneqq \boldsymbol{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\omega}_{j,k},$$

as there holds

$$\begin{split} \langle \tilde{\sigma}_{j,k}, \hat{\sigma}_{j'k'} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} &= (\tilde{\sigma}_{j,k}, \sigma_{j'k'})_{\Omega} = \sum_{i,i'=1}^{N} \tilde{\omega}_{j,k,i} \omega_{j',k',i'} \big(\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \cdot), \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_{i'}} \big)_{\Omega} \\ &= \tilde{\omega}_{j,k}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{\omega}_{j',k'} = \delta_{(j,k),(j',k')}. \end{split}$$

3.3. Matrix compression. For the compression of the kernel matrix K from (3), with samplets of vanishing moment order q+1, we suppose that kernel κ is q+1 asymptotically smooth, i.e., there are constants $c_{\kappa,\alpha,\beta}$ such that

(21)
$$\left| \frac{\partial^{|\boldsymbol{\alpha}|+|\boldsymbol{\beta}|}}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \partial \boldsymbol{y}^{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \right| \leq c_{\kappa, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}} \|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|_{2}^{-(|\boldsymbol{\alpha}|+|\boldsymbol{\beta}|)} \quad \forall |\boldsymbol{\alpha}|, |\boldsymbol{\beta}| \leq q + 1,$$

holds for all $x, y \in \Omega$. Note that such an estimate can only be valid for continuous kernels as considered here, but not for singular kernels. However, we observe in passing that this condition is considerably weaker than the notion of asymptotic smoothness of kernels in \mathcal{H} -matrix theory, cp. [16]. The condition there would correspond to arbitrary smoothness in (21) with analytic estimates on the constants $c_{\kappa,\alpha,\beta}$.

Due to (21), we have in accordance with [19, Lemma 5.3] the decay estimate

$$(22) \qquad (\kappa, \sigma_{j,k} \otimes \sigma_{j',k'})_{\Omega \times \Omega} \le c_{\kappa,q} \frac{\operatorname{diam}(\nu)^{q+1} \operatorname{diam}(\nu')^{q+1}}{\operatorname{dist}(\nu_{j,k}, \nu_{j',k'})^{2(q+1)}} \|\boldsymbol{\omega}_{j,k}\|_{1} \|\boldsymbol{\omega}_{j',k'}\|_{1}$$

for two samplets $\sigma_{j,k}$ and $\sigma_{j',k'}$, with the vanishing moment property of order q+1 and supported on the clusters ν and ν' such that $\operatorname{dist}(\nu,\nu')>0$.

Estimate (22) holds for a wide range of kernels that obey the so-called *Calderón-Zygmund estimates*. It immediately results in the following compression strategy for kernel matrices in samplet representation, cp. [19, Theorem 5.4], which is well-known in the context of wavelet compression of operator equations see, e.g., [34]. We remark that we use the Frobenius norm for measuring the error rather than the operator norm, as it gives control on each matrix coefficient. Nonetheless, we stress that estimates with respect to the operator norm would be similar.

Theorem 3.7 (S-compression). Set all coefficients of the kernel matrix

$$\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma} := \left[(\kappa, \sigma_{j,k} \otimes \sigma_{j',k'})_{\Omega \times \Omega} \right]_{j,j',k,k'}$$

to zero which satisfy the η -admissibility condition

(23)
$$\operatorname{dist}(\nu, \nu') \ge \eta \max\{\operatorname{diam}(\nu), \operatorname{diam}(\nu')\}, \quad \eta > 0,$$

where ν is the cluster supporting $\sigma_{j,k}$ and ν' is the cluster supporting $\sigma_{j',k'}$, respectively.

Then, the resulting S-compressed matrix K^{η} satisfies

$$\left\| \boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{K}^{\eta} \right\|_{F} \leq c \eta^{-2(q+1)} N \sqrt{\log(N)}.$$

for some constant c > 0 dependent on the polynomial degree q and the kernel κ .

Remark 3.8. The η -admissibility condition (23) appears reminiscent to the one used for hierarchical matrices, compare, e.g., [8] and the references there. However, in the present context, the clusters ν and ν' may also be located on different levels, i.e., $j_{\nu} \neq j_{\nu'}$ in general. As a consequence, the resulting block cluster tree is the cartesian product $\mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{T}$ rather than the level-wise cartesian product considered in the context of hierarchical matrices.

The error bounds for S-compression hold for kernel functions κ with finite differentiability (especially, with derivatives of order q+1, cp. [19, Lemma 5.3]), as opposed to the usual requirement of asymptotic smoothness which appears in the error analysis of the H-format, see [16] and the references therein.

In case of quasi-uniform point sets $X = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$ in the sense of Definition 3.3, there holds

$$\frac{1}{N^2} \|\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma}\|_F^2 = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^N |\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j)|^2 \sim \int_{\Omega} \int_{\Omega} |\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})|^2 \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{y},$$

i.e., $\|\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma}\|_{F} \sim N$. Thus, we can refine the above result, see also [19, Corollary 5.5].

Corollary 3.9. In case of quasi-uniform points $x_i \in X$, the S-compressed matrix K^{η} has only $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$ nonzero coefficients, while it satisfies the error estimate

(24)
$$\frac{\|\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{K}^{\eta}\|_{F}}{\|\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma}\|_{F}} \leq c\eta^{-2(q+1)}\sqrt{\log N}.$$

In [19], an algorithm has been proposed which computes the compressed matrix K^{η} in work and memory $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$. The key ingredient to achieve this is the use of an interpolation-based fast multipole method and \mathcal{H}^2 -matrix techniques [3,8,15].

4. Samplet matrix algebra

4.1. Addition and multiplication. To bound the cost for the addition of two compressed kernel matrices represented with respect to the same cluster tree, it is sufficient to assume that the points in X are quasi-uniform. Then it is straightforward to see that the cost for adding such matrices is $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$. The multiplication of two compressed matrices, in turn, is motivated by concatenation $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}$ of the two pseudodifferential operators \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} . In suitable algebras, the product \mathcal{C} is again a pseudodifferential operator and, hence, compressible. The respective kernel $\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is given by

(25)
$$\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \int_{\Omega} \kappa_{\mathcal{A}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) \kappa_{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{z}.$$

Since $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is bounded by assumption, we may without loss of generality assume $\Omega \subset [0,1)^d$. Then, if the distribution of the data points in $X = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^N \subset \Omega$ satisfies the stronger assumption of being asymptotically uniform modulo one, there holds

(26)
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{|\Omega|}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (f, \delta_{\boldsymbol{x}_i})_{\Omega} = \int_{\Omega} f(\boldsymbol{x}) \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}$$

for every Riemann integrable function $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, cp. [32]. Hence, we may interpret the matrix product as a discrete version of the convolution (25). In view of (26), we conclude

(27)
$$\left|\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) - \frac{|\Omega|}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \kappa_{\mathcal{A}}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{x}_{k}) \kappa_{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{x}_{k},\boldsymbol{y})\right| \to 0 \text{ as } N \to \infty.$$

Consequently, the product of two kernel matrices

$$K_{\mathcal{A}} = [\kappa_{\mathcal{A}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j)]_{i,j=1}^N, \quad K_{\mathcal{B}} = [\kappa_{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_j)]_{i,j=1}^N$$

yields a S-compressible matrix $K_{\mathcal{A}} \cdot K_{\mathcal{B}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$.

Theorem 4.1. Let $X = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^N \subset \Omega$ be asymptotically distributed uniformly modulo one, cp. (26), and denote by $K_{\mathcal{C}}$ the corresponding kernel matrix

$$oldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}} = rac{N}{|\Omega|} [\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(oldsymbol{x}_i, oldsymbol{x}_j)]_{i,j=1}^N$$

with $\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(\cdot,\cdot)$ from (25). Then, there holds

$$\frac{\|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}} - \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}\|_F}{\|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}\|_F} \to 0 \ \ \text{as} \ N \to \infty.$$

Proof. On the one hand, we conclude from (27) that, as $N \to \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}} - \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}} \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}\|_{F}^{2} &= \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \left[\frac{N}{|\Omega|} \kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{x}_{j}) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \kappa_{\mathcal{A}}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{z}_{k}) \kappa_{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k}, \boldsymbol{x}_{j}) \right]^{2} \\ &\sim N^{4} \int_{\Omega} \int_{\Omega} \left[\kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) - \frac{|\Omega|}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \kappa_{\mathcal{A}}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x}_{k}) \kappa_{\mathcal{B}}(\boldsymbol{x}_{k}, \boldsymbol{y}) \right]^{2} d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{y} \\ &= o(N^{4}). \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, we find likewise

$$\|oldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}\|_F^2 \sim \int_{\Omega} \int_{\Omega} N^2 \kappa_{\mathcal{C}}(oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{y})^2 \, \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{x} \, \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{y} \sim N^4.$$

This implies the assertion.

Remark 4.2. We mention that the consistency bound in the preceding theorem is rather crude. Under provision of stronger kernel-function regularity, corresponding higher convergence rates can be achieved, given that X satisfies appropriate higher-order quasi-Monte Carlo designs, see, e.g., [9] and the references there.

Let $K_{\mathcal{A}}^{\eta}$, $K_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta}$, $K_{\mathcal{C}}^{\eta}$ be compressed with respect to the same S-compression pattern. We assume for given $\varepsilon(\eta) > 0$ that η in (24) is chosen such that

$$\left\|\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma}-\boldsymbol{K}^{\eta}\right\|_{F}\leq\varepsilon(\eta)\left\|\boldsymbol{K}^{\Sigma}\right\|_{F},\quad\text{for }\boldsymbol{K}\in\{\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}},\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}},\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}\}.$$

Then, a repeated application of the triangle inequality yields

$$\begin{split} &\|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\eta} - \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\eta} \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta}\|_{F} \\ &\leq \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\eta}\|_{F} + \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\Sigma}\|_{F} \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta}\|_{F} + \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta}\|_{F} \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\eta}\|_{F} \\ &\leq \varepsilon(\eta) (\|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}\|_{F} + \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}\|_{F} \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}\|_{F} + (1 + \varepsilon(\eta)) \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}\|_{F} \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}\|_{F}) \\ &\lesssim \varepsilon(\eta) (\|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{C}}\|_{F} + \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}\|_{F} \|\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}\|_{F}). \end{split}$$

This means that we only need to compute $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$ matrix entries to determine an approximate version $(\mathbf{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\eta} \mathbf{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta})^{\eta}$ of the product $\mathbf{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\eta} \cdot \mathbf{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta}$. We like to stress that this formatted matrix multiplication is exact on the given compression pattern. The next theorem gives a cost bound on the matrix multiplication.

Theorem 4.3. Consider two kernel matrices

$$\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\eta} = [a_{(j,k),(j',k')}], \quad \boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\eta} = [b_{(j,k),(j',k')}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$$

in samplet representation which are S-compressed with respect to the compression pattern induced by the η -admissibility condition (23).

Then, computing with respect to the same S-compression pattern the matrix $\mathbf{K}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\eta} = [c_{(j,k),(j',k')}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, where the nonzero entries are given by the discrete inner product

(28)
$$c_{(j,k),(j',k')} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{J} \sum_{m \in \nabla_{\ell}} a_{(j,k),(\ell,m)} b_{(\ell,m),(j',k')},$$

is of cost $\mathcal{O}(N\log^2 N)$.

Proof. To estimate the cost of the matrix multiplication, we shall make use of the compression rule (23). We assume for all clusters that $\operatorname{diam}(\nu) \sim 2^{-j/d}$ if ν is on level j. Thus, the samplet $\sigma_{j,k}$ has approximately the diameter $2^{-j/d}$ and, therefore, only $\mathcal{O}(2^{\ell-j})$ samplets $\sigma_{\ell,m}$ of diameter $\sim 2^{-\ell/d}$ are found in its nearfield if $\ell \geq j$ while only $\mathcal{O}(1)$ are found if $\ell < j$. For fixed level $0 \leq \ell \leq J$ in (28), we thus have at most $\mathcal{O}(\max\{2^{\ell-\max\{j,j'\}},1\})$ nonzero products to evaluate per coefficient $c_{(j,k),(j',k')}$. We assume without loss of generality that $j \geq j'$ and sum over ℓ , which yields the cost $\mathcal{O}(\max\{2^{J-j},j)$. Per target block matrix $C_{j,j'} = [c_{(j,k),(j',k')}]_{j,j'}$, we have $\mathcal{O}(2^{\max\{j,j'\}}) = \mathcal{O}(2^j)$ nonzero coefficients. Hence, the cost for computing the desired target block is $\mathcal{O}(2^j \max\{2^{J-j},j\})$. We shall next sum over j and j'

$$\begin{split} \sum_{j=0}^{J} \sum_{j'=0}^{j} \mathcal{O}(2^{j} \max\{2^{J-j}, j\}) &= \sum_{j=0}^{J} \sum_{j'=0}^{j} \mathcal{O}(\max\{N, j2^{j}\}) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{J} \mathcal{O}(j \max\{N, j2^{j}\}) \\ &= \mathcal{O}(N \log^{2} N). \end{split}$$

4.2. **Sparse selected inversion.** Having addition and multiplication of kernel matrices at our disposal, we consider the matrix inversion next. To this end, observe that the inverse \mathcal{A}^{-1} of a pseudodifferential operator \mathcal{A} from a suitable algebra of pseudodifferential operators, provided that it exists, is again a pseudodifferential operator, see Section A. However, if \mathcal{A} is a pseudodifferential operator of negative order as in the present RKHS case, the operator \mathcal{A}^{-1} is of positive order and hence gives rise to a singular kernel which does not satisfy the condition (21). Even so, in the regime of kernel matrices we are rather interested in inverting regularized pseudodifferential operators, i.e., $\mathcal{A} + \mu I$, where I denotes the identity. For such operators, we have the following lemma.

Lemma 4.4. Let A be a pseudodifferential operator of order $s \leq 0$ with symmetric and positive semidefinite kernel function.

Then, for any $\mu > 0$, the inverse of $\mathcal{A} + \mu I$ can be decomposed into $\frac{1}{\mu}I - \mathcal{B}$ with

(29)
$$\mathcal{B} = \frac{1}{\mu} (\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1} \mathcal{A}.$$

Especially, \mathcal{B} is also a pseudodifferential operator of order s, which admits a symmetric and positive semidefinite kernel function.

Proof. In view of (29), we infer that

$$(\mathcal{A}+\mu I)\bigg(\frac{1}{\mu}I-\mathcal{B}\bigg)=\frac{1}{\mu}\mathcal{A}+I-(\mathcal{A}+\mu I)\mathcal{B}=I+\frac{1}{\mu}\mathcal{A}-\frac{1}{\mu}\mathcal{A}=I.$$

Therefore, $\frac{1}{\mu}I - \mathcal{B}$ is the inverse operator to $\mathcal{A} + \mu I$. Since $\mathcal{A} + \mu I$ is of order 0, $(\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1}$ is of order 0, too, and thus $(\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1}\mathcal{A}$ is of the same order as

 \mathcal{A} . Finally, the symmetry and nonnegativity of \mathcal{B} follows from the symmetry and nonnegativity of \mathcal{A} .

As a consequence of this lemma, the inverse $(\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}} + \mu \boldsymbol{I})^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ of the associated kernel matrix $\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}} + \mu \boldsymbol{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is S-compressible in a samplet basis with respect to the same S-compression pattern as $\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}$. In [18], strong numerical evidence was presented that a sparse Cholesky factorization of a compressed kernel matrix can efficiently be computed by means of nested dissection, cf. [13]. This suggests the computation of the inverse $(\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}} + \mu \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}$ in samplet basis on the S-compression pattern of $\boldsymbol{K}_{\mathcal{A}}$ by means of selective inversion [30] of a sparse matrix. The approach is outlined below.

Assume that $A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is symmetric and positive definite. There are two steps in the inversion algorithm. The first stage involves factorizing the input matrix A into $A = LDL^{\mathsf{T}}$. The L and D matrices are used in the second phase to compute the selected components of A^{-1} . The first step will be referred to as factorization in the following and the second step as selected inversion. To explain the second step, let A be partitioned according to

$$oldsymbol{A} = egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{A}_{11} & oldsymbol{A}_{12} \ oldsymbol{A}_{12}^{\mathsf{T}} & oldsymbol{A}_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In particular, the diagonal blocks A_{ii} are also symmetric and positive definite. The selected inversion is based on the identity

(30)
$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} + CS^{-1}C^{\mathsf{T}} & CS^{-1} \\ S^{-1}C^{\mathsf{T}} & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\mathbf{S} := \mathbf{A}_{22} + \mathbf{A}_{12}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{C}$ is the Schur complement with $\mathbf{C} := -\mathbf{A}_{11}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{12}$. For sparse matrices, this block algorithm can efficiently be realized based on the observation that for the computation of the entries of \mathbf{A}^{-1} on the pattern of \mathbf{L} only the entries on the pattern of \mathbf{L} are required, as it is well known from the sparse matrix literature, cp. [10, 14, 30]. We note that the pattern of \mathbf{A} is particularly contained in the pattern of \mathbf{L} .

4.3. Algorithmic aspects. A block selected inversion algorithm has at least two advantages: Because \boldsymbol{A} is sparse, blocks can be specified in terms of supernodes [30]. This allows us to use level-3 BLAS to construct an efficient implementation by leveraging memory hierarchy in current microprocessors. A supernode is a group of nodes with the same nonzero structure below the diagonal in their respective columns (of their \boldsymbol{L} factor). The supernodal approach for sparse symmetric factorization represents the factor \boldsymbol{L} as a set of supernodes, each of which consists of a contiguous set of \boldsymbol{L} columns with identical nonzero patterns, and each supernode is stored as a dense submatrix to take advantage of level-3 BLAS calculations.

Taking these consideration as a starting point, it is natural to employ the selected inversion approach presented in [46] and available in [36] in order to directly compute the entries on the pattern of the inverse matrix. For the particular implementation of the selected inversion, we rely on Pardiso. For larger kernel matrices, which cannot be indexed by 32bit integers due to the comparatively large number of non-zero entries, we combine the selected inversion with a divide and conquer approach based on the identity (30). The inversion of the A_{11} block and of the Schur complement S are performed with Pardiso (exploiting symmetry), while the other arithmetic operations, i.e., addition and multiplication, are performed in a formatted way, compare Theorem 4.3.

4.4. **Matrix functions.** Based on the S-formatted multiplication and inversion of operators represented in samplet basis, certain holomorphic functions of a samplet-formatted operator also admit S-formatted approximations with, essentially, corresponding approximation accuracies.

To illustrate this, we recall the method in [17]. This approach employs the contour integral representation

(31)
$$f(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\Gamma} f(z)(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} dz,$$

where Γ is a closed contour being contained in the analyticity region of f and winding once around the spectrum $\sigma(\mathbf{A})$ in counterclockwise direction. As is well-known, analytic functions f of elliptic, self-adjoint pseudodifferential operators yield again pseudodifferential operators in the same algebra, see, e.g., [43, Chap.XII.1]. Hence, $\mathbf{B} := f(\mathbf{A})$ is S-compressible provided that f is analytic. Especially, the S-compressed representation $(f(\mathbf{A}^{\eta}))^{\eta}$ satisfies

(32)
$$\|\boldsymbol{B}^{\Sigma} - (f(\boldsymbol{A}^{\eta}))^{\eta}\|_{F} \leq \|\boldsymbol{B}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{B}^{\eta}\|_{F} + \|(f(\boldsymbol{A}^{\Sigma}) - f(\boldsymbol{A}^{\eta}))^{\eta}\|_{F}$$
$$\leq \varepsilon \|\boldsymbol{B}\|_{F} + L\|\boldsymbol{A}^{\Sigma} - \boldsymbol{A}^{\eta}\|_{F}$$
$$\leq \varepsilon (\|\boldsymbol{B}\|_{F} + L\|\boldsymbol{A}\|_{F}).$$

Herein, L denotes the Lipschitz constant of the function f. In other words, estimate (32) implies that the error of the approximation of the S-formatted matrix function $(f(A^{\eta}))^{\eta}$ is rigorously controlled by the sum of the input error $\|A^{\Sigma} - A^{\eta}\|_F$ and the compression error for the exact output $\|B^{\Sigma} - B^{\eta}\|_F$. The latter one is under control if the underlying pseudodifferential operator is of order s < -d since then the kernel is continuous and satisfies (21). In the other cases, some analysis is needed to control this error (see below).

For the numerical approximation of the contour integral (31) one has to apply an appropriate quadrature formula. Exemplarily, we consider the matrix square root, i.e., $f(z) = \sqrt{z}$ for Rez > 0. This occurs for example in the efficient path simulation of Gaussian processes in spatial statistics. We shall here apply, see [17, Eq. (4.4) and comments below], the approximation

(33)
$$\boldsymbol{A}^{-1/2} \approx \frac{2E\sqrt{c}}{\pi K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\operatorname{dn}(t_k|1-\varkappa_{\boldsymbol{A}})}{\operatorname{cn}^2(t_k|1-\varkappa_{\boldsymbol{A}})} \left(\boldsymbol{A} + w_k^2 \boldsymbol{I}\right)^{-1}, \quad \boldsymbol{A}^{1/2} = \boldsymbol{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{A}^{-1/2}.$$

Here, sn, cn and dn are the Jacobian elliptic functions [2, Chapter 16], E is the complete elliptic integral of the second kind associated with the parameter $\varkappa_{\mathbf{A}} := \underline{c}/\overline{c}$ [2, Chapter 17], and, for $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$,

$$w_k := \sqrt{\underline{c}} \frac{\operatorname{sn}(t_k | 1 - \varkappa_A)}{\operatorname{cn}(t_k | 1 - \varkappa_A)}$$
 and $t_k := \frac{E}{K} (k - \frac{1}{2}).$

The quadrature approximation (33) of the contour integral (31) for the matrix square root is known to converge root-exponentially (e.g. [6, Lemma 3.4]) in the number K of quadrature nodes in (33) of the contour integral. Hence, approximate representations to algebraic with respect to N consistency orders can be achieved with $K \sim |\varepsilon(\eta)|$, resulting in overall log-linear complexity of numerical realization of (33) in S-format. We also remark that the quadrature shifts w_k^2 in the inversions which occur in (33) act as regularizing "nuggets" of a possibly ill-conditioned A. The input parameters $0 < \underline{c} < \overline{c}$ shall provide bounds to the spectrum of A, i.e., $\underline{c} \approx \lambda_{\min}(A)$ and $\overline{c} \approx \lambda_{\max}(A)$. Note that we also assume here that A is symmetric and positive definite. Moreover, we should mention that, except for the quadrature error, (33) computes the square root $(A^{\eta})^{-1/2}$ of the compressed input A^{η} in an

exact way on the compression pattern when we use the selected inversion algorithm from Subsection 4.2.

That $(A^{\eta})^{-1/2}$ is indeed S-compressible is a consequence of the following lemma.

Lemma 4.5. Let \mathcal{A} be a pseudodifferential operator of order $s \leq 0$ with symmetric and positive semidefinite kernel function. Then, for any $\mu > 0$, the inverse square root of $\mathcal{A} + \mu I$ can be written as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu}}I - \mathcal{B}$ with \mathcal{B} being also a pseudodifferential operator of order s, which admits a symmetric and positive semidefinite kernel function.

Proof. Straightforward calculation shows that the ansatz

$$(34) \qquad (\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu}} I - \mathcal{B}$$

is equivalent to

$$(\mathcal{A} + \mu I) \left(\frac{1}{\mu} I - \frac{2}{\sqrt{\mu}} \mathcal{B} + \mathcal{B}^2 \right) = I.$$

Thus,

$$\mathcal{B}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{\mu}}I - \mathcal{B}\right) = \frac{1}{\mu}(\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1}\mathcal{A},$$

which in view of (34) is equivalent to

$$\mathcal{B}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu}}I + (\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1/2}\right) = \frac{1}{\mu}\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1}.$$

As both, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu}}I + (\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1/2}$ and $(\mathcal{A} + \mu I)^{-1}$, are pseudodifferential of order 0, \mathcal{B} must have the same order as \mathcal{A} .

An alternative to the contour integral for computing the matrix exponential of a (possibly singular) matrix A is given by the direct evaluation of the power series

$$\exp(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \mathbf{A}^k.$$

As we show in the numerical results, this series converges very fast for the present matrices under consideration which stem from reproducing kernels, since they correspond to compact operators.

5. Numerical results

The computations in this section have been performed on a single node with two Intel Xeon E5-2650 v3 @2.30GHz CPUs and up to 512GB of main memory 1. To achieve consistent timings, all computations have been carried out using 16 cores. The samplet compression is implemented in C++11 and relies on the Eigen template library 2 for linear algebra operations. Moreover, the selected inversion is performed by Pardiso. Throughout this section, we employ samplets with q+1=4 vanishing moments. The parameter for the admissibility condition (23) is set to $\eta=1.25$. Together with the a priori pattern, which is obtained by neglecting admissible blocks, we also consider an a posteriori compression by setting all matrix entries smaller than $\tau=10^{-5}/N$ to zero resulting in the a posteriori pattern.

¹The full specifications can be found on https://www.euler.usi.ch/en/research/resources.

²https://eigen.tuxfamily.org/

5.1. **S-formatted matrix multiplication.** To benchmark the multiplication, we consider uniformly distributed random points on the unit hypercube $[0,1]^d$. As kernel, we consider the exponential kernel (which is the Matérn kernel with smoothness parameter $\nu = 1/2$ and correlation length $\ell = 1$)

(35)
$$\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{1}{N} e^{-\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|_2}$$

Note that we impose the scaling 1/N of the kernel function in order fix the largest eigenvalue of the kernel matrix as its trace stays uniformly bounded.

We compute the matrix product $K^{\eta} \cdot \tilde{K}^{\eta}$, where \tilde{K}^{η} is obtained from K^{η} by relatively perturbing each nonzero entry by 10% additive noise, which is uniformly distributed in [0,1]. This way, we rule out symmetry effects as \tilde{K}^{η} will not be symmetric in general.

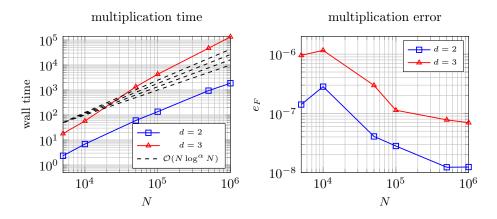


FIGURE 2. Computation times for matrix multiplication (left) and multiplication errors (right).

To measure the multiplication error, we consider the estimator

$$e_F(\mathbf{A}) := \frac{\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\|_F}{\|\mathbf{X}\|_F},$$

where $\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 10}$ is a random matrix with uniformly distributed independent entries. The left hand side of Figure 2 shows the computation time for a single multiplication. The dashed lines correspond to the asymptotic rates $\mathcal{O}(N\log^{\alpha}N)$ for $\alpha = 0, 1, 2, 3$. It can be seen that the multiplication time for d = 2 perfectly reflects the expected essentially linear behavior. Though the graph is steeper for d = 3, we expect it to flatten further for larger N. The right hand side of the plot shows the multiplication error $e_F(\boldsymbol{K}^{\eta} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{K}}^{\eta} - \boldsymbol{K}^{\eta} \boxdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{K}}^{\eta})$, where the formatted multiplication \boxdot is performed on the a posteriori pattern. Taking into account that the compression errors for \boldsymbol{K}^{η} are approximately $5.6 \cdot 10^{-6}$ for d = 2 and $1.6 \cdot 10^{-5}$ for d = 3, the obtained matrix product can be considered to be very accurate.

5.2. **S-formatted matrix inversion.** In order to assess the numerical performance of the matrix inversion, we again consider uniformly distributed random points on the unit hypercube $[0,1]^d$. Since the separation radius q_X ranges between $4.7 \cdot 10^{-5}$ (N = 5000) and $2.8 \cdot 10^{-7}$ ($N = 1\,0000\,000$) for d = 2 and $3.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$ (N = 5000) and $3.2 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ($N = 1\,0000\,000$) for d = 3, we do not expect that \mathbf{K}^{η} to be invertible. Therefore, we rather consider the regularized version $\mathbf{K}^{\eta} + \mu \mathbf{I}$ for a ridge parameter $\mu > 0$.

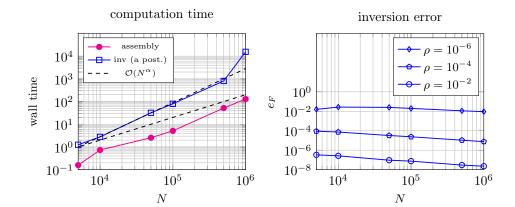


FIGURE 3. Results for d=2. Left panel: Computation times for compressed matrix assembly and selected inversion on the a priori pattern. Dashed lines indicate linear ($\alpha=1$) and super-linear ($\alpha=1.5$) scaling, respectively. Right panel: Inversion errors for ridge parameters $\rho=10^{-6},10^{-4},10^{-2}$.

As our theoretical results suggest that the inverse has the same a priori pattern as the matrix itself, we first consider the inversion on the a priori pattern for d = 2.

The left hand side of Figure 3 shows the computation times for the inverse matrix employing Pardiso. The dashed line shows the asymptotic rates $\mathcal{O}(N^{\alpha})$ for $\alpha=1,1.5$. For $N=1\,000\,000$, due to the large amount of non-zero entries, we use the block inversion with one subdivision. This explains the bump in the computation time due to the formatted matrix multiplication. Besides this, Pardiso perfectly exhibits the expected rate of $N^{1.5}$. The right hand side of the plot shows the error $e_F((K^{\eta} + \mu I)^{\square}(K^{\eta} + \mu I) - I)$ for the ridge parameters $\mu = 10^{-6}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-2}$, where \square denotes the selected in version on the pattern of K^{η} . As expected, the error reduces significantly with increasing ridge parameter.

As the a priori pattern typically exhibits significantly less entries, we also investigate the inversion on the a posteriori pattern. The corresponding results are shown in Figure 4

As can be seen on the left hand side of the figure, the selected inversion now even exhibits a linear behavior, which is explained by the fixed threshold τ , resulting in successively less entries for increasing N. On the other hand, the errors for the different ridge parameters, depicted on the right hand side of the same figure, asymptotically exhibit the same behavior as in the a priori case.

Motivated by the results for d=2, we consider only the inversion on the a posteriori pattern for d=3. The corresponding results are shown in Figure 5. On the left hand side of the figure, again the computation times are shown. The dashed lines show the asymptotic rates $\mathcal{O}(N^{\alpha})$ for $\alpha=1,2$. Until $N=100\,000$, the expected quadratic rate is perfectly matched. Due to the large number of non-zeros in the case d=3, we have employed the block inversion with three recursion steps for $N>100\,000$, resulting in the peculiar linear behavior for the respective values in the graph. The errors depicted on the right hand side show a behavior similar to the case d=2, with a slightly reduced decay.

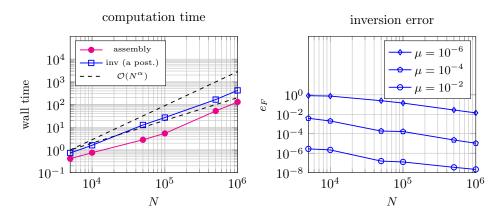


FIGURE 4. Results for d=2. Left panel: Computation times for compressed matrix assembly and selected inversion on the a posteriori pattern. Dashed lines indicate linear ($\alpha=1$) and superlinear ($\alpha=1.5$) scaling, respectively. Right panel: Inversion errors for ridge parameters $\mu=10^{-6},10^{-4},10^{-2}$.

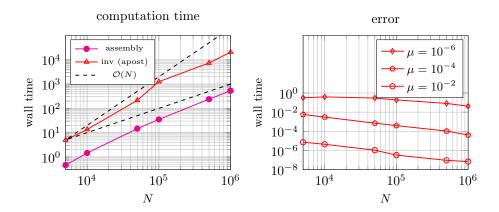


FIGURE 5. Results for d=3. Left panel: Computation times for compressed matrix assembly and selected inversion on the a posteriori pattern. Dashed lines indicate linear $(\alpha=1)$ and quadratic $(\alpha=2)$ scaling, respectively.

Right panel: Inversion errors for ridge parameters $\mu = 10^{-6}, 10^{-4}, 10^{-2}$.

5.3. **S-formatted matrix functions.** We compute the matrix square root $A^{1/2}$ and the matrix exponential $\exp(A)$ for the exponential kernel

$$\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{1}{N} e^{-2\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|_2}$$

This time, the data points are randomly subsampled from from a 3D scan of the head of Michelangelo's David (The scan is provided by the Statens Museum for Kunst under the Creative Commens CC0 license), cp. Figure 6. The bounding box of the bunny is $[-0.52, 0.42] \times [-0.47, 0.46] \times [-0.18, 0.78]$. All other parameters are set as in the examples before. Moreover, we set the ridge parameter to $\mu = 10^{-4}$. The smallest eigenvalue is estimated by the ridge parameter, while the largest eigenvalue is upper bounded by 1. For the contour integral method for the computation of the matrix square root, we found stagnation in the error for $K \geq 7$ quadrature



FIGURE 6. Data points from a 3D scan of the head of Michelangelo's David. The scan is provided by the Statens Museum for Kunst under the Creative Commens CC0 license.

points. The corresponding errors $e_F((\mathbf{K}^{\eta} + \mu \mathbf{I})^{\boxed{1/2}}(\mathbf{K}^{\eta} + \mu \mathbf{I})^{\boxed{1/2}} - (\mathbf{K}^{\eta} + \mu \mathbf{I}))$ for different values of N are tabulated in Table 1

| | N | 5 000 | 10 000 | 50 000 | 100 000 | 234553 |
|---|-------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| ĺ | e_F | $1.43 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $7.68 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $3.90 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $2.82 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $3.59 \cdot 10^{-4}$ |

Table 1. Errors for the contour integral method for $(\mathbf{K}^{\eta} + \mu \mathbf{I})^{1/2}$.

Finally, Table 2 shows the approximation error $e_F(\exp(\mathbf{K}^{\eta}) - \exp(\mathbf{K}^{\eta}))$ of the matrix exponential for different values of N. The true matrix exponential is estimated by a power series of length 30 directly applied to the matrix \mathbf{X} . Here, we found that the error starts to stagnate for more than 8 terms in the expansion. The largest eigenvalue satisfies $\|\mathbf{K}^{\eta}\|_2 \approx 0.337$ (estimated by a Rayleigh quotient iteration with 50 iterations), hence explaining the rapid convergence. Note that we do not require any regularization here, as just matrix products are computed.

| | N | 5000 | 10 000 | 50 000 | 100 000 | 234 553 |
|---|-------|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Ì | e_F | $1.48 \cdot 10^{-9}$ | $5.12 \cdot 10^{-10}$ | $5.51 \cdot 10^{-11}$ | $4.08 \cdot 10^{-11}$ | $1.88 \cdot 10^{-11}$ |

Table 2. Errors for the approximation of $\exp(\mathbf{K}^{\eta})$ by the power series of the exponential.

5.4. Gaussian process implicit surfaces. We consider Gaussian process learning of implicit surfaces. In accordance with [49], we consider a closed surface $S = \partial \Omega$ of dimension d-1, given by the 0-level set of the function

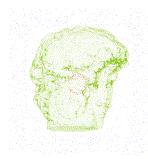
$$f \colon \mathbb{R}^d o \mathbb{R}, \quad f(oldsymbol{x}) egin{cases} = 0, & oldsymbol{x} \in S, \ > 0, & oldsymbol{x} \in \Omega, \ < 0, & oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \overline{\Omega}, \end{cases}$$

i.e.,

$$S = \{ \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d : f(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0 \}.$$

For the function f, we impose a Gaussian process model with covariance function given by the exponential kernel

$$\kappa(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{1}{N} e^{-6\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|_2}$$





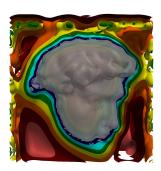


FIGURE 7. Left panel: Data points for the surface reconstruction. Red corresponds to a value of 1, green to a value of 0 and blue to a value of -1. Middle panel: 0-level set of the posterior expectation evaluated at a regular grid. Right panel: Standard deviation for the reconstruction (blue is small, red is large).

and prior mean zero. Then, given the data sites X of size N := |X| and the noisy measurements $\mathbf{y} = f(X) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, where $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mu \mathbf{I})$, the posterior distribution for the data sites $Z \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is determined by

$$\mathbb{E}[f(Z)|X, \boldsymbol{y}] = \boldsymbol{K}_{ZX}(\boldsymbol{K}_{XX} + \mu \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{y},$$

$$\operatorname{Cov}[f(Z)|X, \boldsymbol{y}] = \boldsymbol{K}_{ZZ} - \boldsymbol{K}_{ZX}(\boldsymbol{K}_{XX} + \mu \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}\boldsymbol{K}_{ZX}^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

Herein, setting M:=|Z|, we have $\boldsymbol{K}_{XX}=[\kappa(X,X)]\in\mathbb{R}^{N\times N},$ $\boldsymbol{K}_{ZX}=[\kappa(Z,X)]\in\mathbb{R}^{M\times N},$ $\boldsymbol{K}_{ZZ}=[\kappa(Z,Z)]\in\mathbb{R}^{M\times M}.$

The matrix \boldsymbol{K}_{ZX} can efficiently be computed by using one samplet tree for Z and a second samplet tree for X, while $(\boldsymbol{K}_{XX} + \mu \boldsymbol{I})^{-1}$ can be computed as in the previous examples. Hence, the computation of the posterior mean $\mathbb{E}[f(Z)|X,\boldsymbol{y}]$ is straightforward. For X, we use samplets with q+1=4 vanishing moments, while samplets with q+1=3 vanishing moments are applied for Z. Moreover, we use an a-posteriori threshold of $\tau=10^{-4}/N$ for $\boldsymbol{K}^{\eta}_{ZX}$.

Similarly, we can evaluate the covariance in samplet coordinates. However, the evaluation of the standard deviation $\sqrt{\operatorname{diag}(\operatorname{Cov}[f(Z)|X,\boldsymbol{y}])}$ requires more care. Here we just transform \boldsymbol{K}_{ZX} with respect to the points in X and evaluate the diagonal resulting in a computational cost of $\mathcal{O}(MN\log N)$.

The left panel in Figure 7 shows the initial setup. 240 data points with a value -1 are located on a sphere within the point cloud, 15 507 points with a value of 0 are located at its surface and 1200 points with a value of 1 are located on a box enclosing it. This results in $N=16\,947$ data points in total. The ridge parameter was set to $\mu=2\cdot 10^{-5}$. The conditional expectation and the standard deviation have been computed on a regular grid with $M=8\,000\,000$ points. The middle panel in Figure 7 shows the 0-level set while the right panel shows the standard deviation. As expected, the standard deviation is lowest close to the data sites (blue is small, red is large).

6. Conclusion

We have presented a sparse matrix arithmetic for kernel matrices in samplet coordinates. This arithmetic allows for the rapid addition, multiplication and inversion of (regularized) kernel matrices, which operations mimick algebras of corresponding pseudodifferential operators. The proposed arithmetic extends to S-formatted, approximate representations of holomorphic functions of S-formatted approximations of self-adjoint operators, which are likewise realized in log-linear

complexity. While the addition is straightforward, we have derived an error and cost analysis for the multiplication, and for the approximate evaluation of holomorphic operator-functions in log-linear complexity. The S-formatted approximate inversion is realized by selective inversion for sparse matrices, which also enables the computation of general matrix functions by the contour integral approach. The numerical benchmarks corroborate the theoretical findings for data sets in two and three dimensions. As a relevant example from computer graphics, we have considered Gaussian process learning for the computation of a signed distance function from scattered data.

APPENDIX A. PSEUDODIFFERENTIAL OPERATORS

We present basic definitions and terminology from the theory of pseudodifferential operators, in particular elements of the calculus of pseudodifferential operators, going back to Seeley [40, 41]. We adopt the notation for the statements of results on pseudodifferential operators from the monographs of Hörmander [23] and Taylor [43].

A.1. **Symbols.** For an order $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and an open and bounded domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ with smooth boundary, the symbol class $S^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ consists of functions $a \in C^{\infty}(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ such that, for any $K \subseteq \Omega$ and for every $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}^d$, there exist constants $C_{\alpha,\beta}(K) > 0$ such that

(36)
$$\forall \boldsymbol{x} \in K, \; \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d: \quad \left| \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \partial_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}^{\boldsymbol{\beta}} a(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right| \leq C_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}}(K) \langle \boldsymbol{\xi} \rangle^{r - |\boldsymbol{\beta}|},$$

where $\langle \boldsymbol{\xi} \rangle = (1 + \|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2^2)^{1/2}$. The class $S^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ is contained in the Hörmander class $S^r_{1,0}(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$; we shall not require the general classes $S^r_{\rho,\delta}(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ (cf. [23]) and, therefore, omit the fine indices.

A function $a_r \in C^{\infty}(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\})$ is called positively homogeneous of degree r if

$$\forall \boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega, \ \forall t > 0, \ \boldsymbol{0} \neq \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d: \quad a_r(\boldsymbol{x}, t\boldsymbol{\xi}) = t^r a_r(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi}).$$

Note that then $\chi(\boldsymbol{\xi})a_r(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\xi}) \in S^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ for any smooth, nonnegative cut-off function χ which vanishes identically for $\|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2 \leq 1/2$ and $\chi(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \equiv 1$ for $\|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2 \geq 1$. For a symbol $a \in S^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$, the corresponding pseudodifferential operator \mathcal{A} is defined for $u \in C_0^{\infty}(\Omega)$ via the oscillatory integral (cf. [22])

(37)
$$\mathcal{A}(\boldsymbol{x}, -i\partial_{\boldsymbol{x}})u(\boldsymbol{x}) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} \int_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi} \rangle} a(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \hat{u}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) d\boldsymbol{\xi}, \quad \boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega.$$

The set of all pseudodifferential operators \mathcal{A} generated via (37) from a symbol $a \in S^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ is denoted by $OPS^r(\Omega)$.

A symbol $a \in S^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ is called classical symbol of order $r \in \mathbb{R}$ if for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist functions $a_{r-k}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\xi}) \in S^{r-k}(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ such that $a \sim \sum_k a_{r-k}$ (in the sense of asymptotic expansions of symbols, compare [23]), where a_{r-k} is homogeneous of degree r-k, i.e., there holds $a_{r-k}(\boldsymbol{x},t\boldsymbol{\xi}) = t^{r-k}a_{r-k}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\xi})$ for every t > 0 and for every $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with $\|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2 \geq 1$. As a consequence of the asymptotic expansion of $a \in S^r_{cl}(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$, for every $\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{N}^d$ and for every $K \in \Omega$ exists a constant $c_{\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{\beta}}(K) \in (0,1)$ such that for every $N \in \mathbb{N}$ holds (38)

$$\forall \boldsymbol{x} \in K, \; \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^d: \quad \left| \partial_{\boldsymbol{x}}^{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \partial_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}^{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \left(a(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) - \sum_{k=0}^{N} a_{r-k}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right) \right| \leq c_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}}(K) \langle \boldsymbol{\xi} \rangle^{r-N-|\boldsymbol{\beta}|-1}.$$

A.2. Calculus. Pseudodifferential operators admit calculi which are crucial for the subsequent matrix arithmetic. We collect properties of the calculi in $S_{cl}^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ that are required throughout the article.

(1) $A \in OPS_{cl}^r \text{ implies } A^* \in OPS_{cl}^r.$ Proposition A.1.

- (2) $A \in OPS_{cl}^r$ and $B \in OPS_{cl}^t$ implies $A + B \in OPS_{cl}^{max\{r,t\}}$. (3) $A \in OPS_{cl}^r$ and $B \in OPS_{cl}^t$ implies $A \circ B \in OPS_{cl}^{r+t}$. (4) If $A \in OPS_{cl}^r$ is invertible and elliptic, then there holds $A^{-1} \in OPS_{cl}^{-r}$.

Proof. The asserted properties for OPS_{cl}^r are standard properties for this algebra.

In case of the Matérn kernels, expanding (8) asymptotically, as $\|\boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2 \to \infty$, and comparing with (38), we deduce that the associated integral operator satisfies $\mathcal{K}_{\nu} \in OPS_{cl}^{-2\nu-d}$. It follows also from the symbolic calculus in Proposition A.1 that the inverse $\mathcal{K}_{\nu}^{-1} \in OPS_{cl}^{2\nu+d}$. Indeed, the symbol of the inverse corresponds to the differential operator $\mathcal{A}_{\nu} = \alpha^{-1} (\operatorname{id} - \frac{\ell^2}{2\nu} \Delta)^{\nu+d/2}$ which is of order $2\nu + d$.

A.3. Kernels. Every continuous function on the cartesian product of two domains Ω_1 and Ω_2 , $\kappa \in C(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2)$, defines an integral operator from $C(\Omega_2)$ to $C(\Omega_1)$ by the formula

(39)
$$(\mathcal{K}\phi)(\boldsymbol{x}_1) = \int_{\Omega_2} \kappa(\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2) \phi(\boldsymbol{x}_2) \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}_2.$$

For such kernel functions, we have particularly, cf. [22, Eq. (5.2.1)],

(40)
$$\langle \mathcal{K}\phi, \psi \rangle = \langle \kappa, \psi \otimes \phi \rangle \text{ for all } \psi \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega_1), \ \phi \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega_2),$$

where we define the space of test functions $\mathcal{D}(\Omega) := C_0^{\infty}(\Omega)$ as usual. The characterization (40) can be extended to distributions $\kappa \in \mathcal{D}'(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2)$ if $\mathcal{K}\phi$ is allowed to be a distribution. Especially, according to the (classical) Schwartz Kernel Theorem, a (distributional) kernel corresponds in a one-to-one fashion to a linear operator and vice versa.

Proposition A.2 (Schwartz Kernel Theorem [22, Thm. 5.2.1]). Every distributional kernel $\kappa \in \mathcal{D}'(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2)$ induces, via (40), a continuous, linear map from $\mathcal{D}(\Omega_2)$ to $\mathcal{D}'(\Omega_1)$. Conversely, for every linear map \mathcal{K} , there exists a unique distribution K such that (40) holds. The distribution κ is called (distributional) kernel of K.

Via the Schwartz Kernel Theorem, every classical pseudodifferential operator $\mathcal{A} \in OPS_{cl}^r(\Omega)$ with symbol $a \in S_{cl}^r(\Omega \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ can be written as a (distributional) integral operator with (distributional) Schwartz kernel κ_A . If the order r of the pseudodifferential operator $\mathcal{A} \in OPS_{cl}^r(\Omega)$ is smaller than -d, its distributional kernel is continuous and satisfies (21).

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- H. Harbrecht, Departement für Mathematik und Informatik, Universität Basel, Spiegelgasse 1, 4051 Basel, Schweiz.

Email address: helmut.harbrecht@unibas.ch

- M. Multerer, Istituto Eulero, USI Lugano, Via la Santa 1, 6962 Lugano, Svizzera. *Email address*: michael.multerer@usi.ch
- O. Schenk, Institute of Computing, USI Lugano, Via la Santa 1, 6962 Lugano, Svizzera.

 $Email\ address: \ {\tt olaf.schenk@usi.ch}$

CH. Schwab, Seminar für Angewandte Mathematik, ETH Zürich, Rämistrasse 101, 8092 Zürich, Schweiz.

Email address: christoph.schwab@sam.math.ethz.ch