Lecture: Numerical Linear Algebra Background

http://bicmr.pku.edu.cn/~wenzw/opt-2017-fall.html

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- matrix structure and algorithm complexity
- solving linear equations with factored matrices
- LU, Cholesky, LDL^T factorization
- block elimination and the matrix inversion lemma

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• sparse numerical linear algebra

Matrix structure and algorithm complexity

cost (execution time) of solving Ax = b with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

- for general methods, grows as n^3
- less if A is structured (banded, sparse, Toeplitz, ...)

flop counts

- flop (floating-point operation): one addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division of two floating-point numbers
- to estimate complexity of an algorithm: express number of flops as a (polynomial) function of the problem dimensions, and simplify by keeping only the leading terms
- not an accurate predictor of computation time on modern computers
- useful as a rough estimate of complexity

vector-vector operations ($x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$)

- inner product $x^T y$: 2n 1 flops (or 2n if n is large)
- sum x + y, scalar multiplication αx : *n* flops

matrix-vector product y = Ax with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

- m(2n-1) flops (or 2mn if n large)
- 2N if A is sparse with N nonzero elements
- 2p(n+m) if A is given as $A = UV^T, U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}, V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$

matrix-matrix product C = AB with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$

- mp(2n-1) flops (or 2mnp if n large)
- less if A and/or B are sparse
- $(1/2)m(m+1)(2n-1) \approx m^2 n$ if m = p and C symmetric

written by people who had the foresight to understand the future benefits of a standard suite of "kernel" routines for linear algebra. created and orgnized in three *levels*:

- *Level 1*, 1973-1977: *O*(*n*) vector operations: addition, scaling, dot product, norms
- Level 2, 1984-1986: O(n²) matrix-vector operations: matrix-vector product, trigular matrix-vector solves, rank-1 and symmetric rank-2 updates
- *Level 3*, 1987-1990: *O*(*n*³) matrix-matrix operations: matrix-matrix products, trigular matrix solves, low-rank updates

BLAS operations

- Level 1 addition/scaling dot products, norms
- Level 2 matrix/vector products rank 1 updates rank 2 updates triangular solves
- $\begin{array}{ll} \alpha x, & \alpha x + y \\ x^T y, & \|x\|_2, & \|x\|_1 \end{array}$

$$\begin{aligned} &\alpha Ax + \beta y, \quad \alpha A^T x + \beta y \\ &A + \alpha x y^T, \quad A + \alpha x x^T \\ &A + \alpha x y^T + \alpha y x^T \\ &\alpha T^{-1} x, \quad \alpha T^{-T} x \end{aligned}$$

Level 3 matrix/matrix products rank-k updates rank-k updates triangular solves

$$\begin{array}{l} \alpha AB + \beta C, \quad \alpha AB^T + \beta C \\ \alpha A^T B + \beta C, \quad \alpha A^T B^T + \beta C \\ \alpha AA^T + \beta C, \quad \alpha A^T A + \beta C \\ \alpha A^T B + \alpha B^T A + \beta C \\ \alpha T^{-1} C, \quad \alpha T^{-T} C \end{array}$$

Level 1 BLAS naming convention

BLAS routines have a Fortran-inspired naming convention:

cblas X XXXX prefix data type operation

data types:

- s single precision real d double precision real
- c single precision complex z double precision complex

operations:

axpy $y \leftarrow \alpha x + y$ dot $r \leftarrow x^T y$ nrm2 $r \leftarrow ||x||_2 = \sqrt{x^T x}$ asum $r \leftarrow ||x||_1 = \sum_i |x_i|$

example:

cblas ddot double precision real dot product

BLAS naming convention: Level 2/3

cblas_	Х	XX	XXX
prefix	data type	structure	operation
matrix structure:			

- tr triangular packed triangular tb tp symmetric packed symmetric sy sp sb Hermitian packed Hermitian hy hp hn general gb ge
- banded triangular banded symmetric banded Hermitian banded general

operations:

mv
$$y \leftarrow \alpha Ax + \beta y$$
 sv $x \leftarrow A^{-1}x$ (triangular only)
r $A \leftarrow A + xx^T$ r2 $A \leftarrow A + xy^T + yx^T$
mm $C \leftarrow \alpha AB + \beta C$ r2k $C \leftarrow \alpha AB^T + \alpha BA^T + \beta C$
example:

cblas_dtrmv double precision real triangular matrix-vector product cblas_dsyr2k double precision real symmetric rank-2k update

Using BLAS efficiently

always choose a higher-level BLAS routine over multiple calls to a lower-level BLAS routine

$$A \leftarrow A + \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i y_i^T, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, x_i \in \mathbb{R}^m, y_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

two choices: k seperate calls to the Level 2 routine cblas_dger

$$A \leftarrow A + x_1 y_1^T, \quad \dots \quad A \leftarrow A + x_k y_k^T$$

or a single call to the Level 3 routine cblas_dgemm

$$A \leftarrow A + XY^T$$
, $X = [x_1 \dots x_k]$, $Y = [y_1 \dots y_k]$

the Level 3 choice will perform much better

Is BLAS necessary?

why use BLAS when writing your own routines is so easy?

$$A \leftarrow A + XY^T, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}, y_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$$

$$A_{ij} \leftarrow A_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^{p} X_{ik} Y_{jk}$$

- tuned/optimized BLAS will ran faster than your home-brew version — often 10× or more
- BLAS is tuned by selecting block sizes that fit well with your processor, cache sizes
- ATLAS (automatically tuned linear algebra software)

http://math-atlas.sourceforge.net

uses automated code generation and testing methods to *generate* an optimized BLAS library for a specific computer

LAPACK contains routines for solving linear systems and performing common matrix decompositions and factorizations

- first release: February 1992; latest version (3.0): May 2000
- supercedes predecessors EISPACK and LINPACK
- supports same data types (single/double precision, real/complex) and matrix structure types (symmetric, banded, ...) as BLAS
- uses BLAS for internal computations
- routines divided into three categories: *auxiliary* routines, *computational* routines, and *driver* routines

compitational routines perform single, specific tasks

- factorizations: $LU, LL^T/LL^H, LDL^T/LDL^H, QR, LQ, QRZ$, generalized QR and RQ
- symmetric/Hermitian and nonsymmetric eigenvalue decomposition
- singular value decompositions
- generalized eigenvalue and singular value decomposition

driver routines call a sequence of computational routines to solve standard linear algebra problems, such as

- linear equations: AX = B
- linear least square: minimize_x $||b Ax||_2$
- Iinear least-norm:

minimize_x $||c - Ax||_2$ minimize_y $||y||_2$ subject toBx = dsubject tod = Ax + By

Linear equations that are easy to solve

diagonal matrices ($a_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$): *n* flops

$$x = A^{-1}b = (b_1/a_{11}, ..., b_n/a_{nn})$$

lower triangular $(a_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } j > i)$: n^2 flops

$$x_{1} := b_{1}/a_{11}$$

$$x_{2} := (b_{2} - a_{21}x_{1})/a_{22}$$

$$x_{3} := (b_{3} - a_{31}x_{1} - a_{32}x_{2})/a_{33}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_{n} := (b_{n} - a_{n1}x_{1} - a_{n2}x_{2} - \dots - a_{n,n-1}x_{n-1})/a_{nn}$$

called forward substitution

upper triangular $(a_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } j < i)$: n^2 flops via backward substitution

orthogonal matrices: $A^{-1} = A^T$

- $2n^2$ flops to compute $x = A^T b$ for general A
- less with structure, *e.g.*, if $A = I 2uu^T$ with $||u||_2 = 1$, we can compute $x = A^T b = b 2(u^T b)u$ in 4n flops

permutation matrices:

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & j = \pi_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_n)$ is a permutation of (1, 2, ..., n)

- interpretation: $Ax = (x_{\pi_1}, ..., x_{\pi_n})$
- satisfies $A^{-1} = A^T$, hence cost of solving Ax = b is 0 flops

example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad A^{-1} = A^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The factor-solve method for solving Ax = b

• factor *A* as a product of simple matrices (usually 2 or 3):

$$A = A_1 A_2 \cdots A_k$$

 $(A_i \text{ diagonal, upper or lower triangular, etc})$

• compute $x = A^{-1}b = A_k^{-1} \cdots A_2^{-1}A_1^{-1}b$ by solving *k* 'easy' equations

$$A_1 x_1 = b,$$
 $A_2 x_2 = x_1,$..., $A_k x = x_{k-1}$

cost of factorization step usually dominates cost of solve step

equations with multiple righthand sides

$$Ax_1 = b_1, \qquad Ax_2 = b_2, \qquad \dots, \qquad Ax_m = b_m$$

cost: one factorization plus m solves

LU factorization

every nonsingular matrix A can be factored as

A = PLU

with *P* a permutation matrix, *L* lower triangular, *U* upper triangular cost: $(2/3)n^3$ flops



cost: $(2/3)n^3 + 2n^2 \approx (2/3)n^3$ for large *n*

sparse LU factorization

 $A = P_1 L U P_2$

- adding permutation matrix P₂ offers possibility of sparser L, U (hence, cheaper factor and solve steps)
- P_1 and P_2 chosen (heuristically) to yield sparse L, U
- choice of *P*₁ and *P*₂ depends on sparsity pattern and values of *A*
- cost is usually much less than (2/3)n³; exact value depends in a complicated way on n, number of zeros in A, sparsity pattern

Cholesky factorization

every positive definite A can be factored as

 $A = LL^T$

with L lower triangular

cost: $(1/3)n^3$ flops



cost: $(1/3)n^3 + 2n^2 \approx (1/3)n^3$ for large *n*

sparse Cholesky factorization

$$A = PLL^T P^T$$

- adding permutation matrix P offers possibility of sparser L
- P chosen (heuristically) to yield sparse L
- choice of *P* only depends on sparsity pattern of *A* (unlike sparse LU)
- cost is usually much less than $(1/3)n^3$; exact value depends in a complicated way on *n*, number of zeros in *A*, sparsity pattern

$\mathsf{L}\mathsf{D}\mathsf{L}^\mathsf{T}$ factorization

every nonsingular symmetric matrix A can be factored as

$$A = PLDL^T P^T$$

with *P* a permutation matrix, *L* lower triangular, *D* block diagonal with 1×1 or 2×2 diagonal blocks

cost: $(1/3)n^3$

- cost of solving symmetric sets of linear equations by LDL^T actorization: (1/3)n³ + 2n² ≈ (1/3)n³ for large n
- for sparse A, can choose P to yield sparse L; $cost \ll (1/3)n^3$

Equations with structured sub-blocks

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
(1)

• variables $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$, $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$; blocks $A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i imes n_j}$

if A₁₁ is nonsingular, can eliminate x₁: x₁ = A₁₁⁻¹(b₁ − A₁₂x₂); to compute x₂, solve

$$(A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12})x_2 = b_2 - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}b_1$$

Solving linear equations by block elimination.

given a nonsingular set of linear equations (1), with A_{11} nonsingular.

• Form
$$A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$$
 and $A_{11}^{-1}b_1$.

2 Form
$$S = A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$$
 and $\tilde{b} = b_2 - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}b_1$.

3 Determine x_2 by solving $Sx_2 = \tilde{b}$.

Determine x_1 by solving $A_{11}x_1 = b_1 - A_{12}x_2$.

dominant terms in flop count

- step 1: $f + n_2 s$ (f is cost of factoring A_{11} ; s is cost of solve step)
- step 2: $2n_2^2n_1$ (cost dominated by product of A_{21} and $A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$)
- step 3: $(2/3)n_2^3$

total: $f + n_2 s + 2n_2^2 n_1 + (2/3)n_2^3$

examples

• general A_{11} ($f = (2/3)n_1^3$, $s = 2n_1^2$): no gain over standard method

#flops =
$$(2/3)n_1^3 + 2n_1^2n_2 + 2n_2^2n_1 + (2/3)n_2^3 = (2/3)(n_1 + n_2)^3$$

• block elimination is useful for structured A_{11} ($f \ll n^3$) for example, diagonal (f = 0, $s = n_1$): #flops $\approx 2n_2^2n_1 + (2/3)n_2^3$

Structured matrix plus low rank term

$$(A + BC)x = b$$

• $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}, C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$

• assume *A* has structure (Ax = b easy to solve)

first write as

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & -I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

now apply block elimination: solve

$$(I + CA^{-1}B)y = CA^{-1}b,$$

then solve Ax = b - By

this proves the **matrix inversion lemma**: if A and A + BC nonsingular,

$$(A + BC)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(I + CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}$$

example: A diagonal, B, C dense

- method 1: form D = A + BC, then solve Dx = bcost: $(2/3)n^3 + 2pn^2$
- method 2 (via matrix inversion lemma): solve

$$(I + CA^{-1}B)y = CA^{-1}b,$$
 (2)

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then compute $x = A^{-1}b - A^{-1}By$

total cost is dominated by (2): $2p^2n + (2/3)p^3$ (*i.e.*, linear in *n*)

Underdetermined linear equations

if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ with p < n, rank A = p,

$$\{x|Ax = b\} = \{Fz + \hat{x}|z \in \mathbb{R}^{n-p}\}$$

- \hat{x} is (any) particular solution
- columns of $F \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (n-p)}$ span nullspace of A
- there exist several numerical methods for computing F (QR factorization, rectangular LU factorization, ...)

Sparse matries



- A ∈ ℝ^{m×n} is sparse if it has "enough zeros that it pays to take advantage ot them" (J. Wilkinson)
- usually this means n_{NZ} ,number of elements known to be nonzero, is small: $n_{NZ} \ll mn$

sparse matrices can save memory and time

- storing $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$ using double precision numbers
 - dense: 8mn bytes
 - sparse: $\approx 16 n_{\text{NZ}}$ bytes or less, depending on storage format

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- operation $y \leftarrow y + Ax$
 - dense: mn flops
 - sparse: n_{NZ} flops
- operation $x \leftarrow T^{-1}x, T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ triangular, nonsigular:
 - dense: $n^2/2$ flops
 - sparse: n_{NZ} flops

- several methods used
- simplest (but typically not used) is to store the data as list of (i, j, A_{ij}) triples
- column compressed format: an array of pairs (*A_{ij}*, *i*), and an array of pointers into this array that indicate the start os a new column

- for high end work, exotic data structures are used
- sadly, no universal standard (yet)

sadly there is not (yet) a standard sparse matrix BLAS library
the "official" sparse BLAS

http://www.netlib.org/blas/blast-forum
 http://math.nist.gov/spblas

- C++: Boost uBlas, Matrix Template Library, SparseLib++
- MKL from intel
- Pyhton: SciPy, PySparse, CVXOPT

library for factoring/solving systems with sparse matrices

• most comprehensive: SuiteSparse (Tim Davis)

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http:
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//www.cise.ufl.edu.research/sparse/SuiteSparse

- others include SuperLU, TAUCS, SPOOLES
- typically include
 - $-A = PLL^T P^T$ Cholesky
 - $-A = PLDL^T P^T$ for symmetric indefinite systems
 - $-A = P_1 L U P_2^T$ for general (nonsymmetric) matrices
 - P, P1, P2 are permutations or orderings

Sparse orderings

sparse orderings can have a *dramatic* effect on the sparsity of a factorization



- left: spy diagram of original NW arrow matrix
- center: spy diagram of Cholesky factor with no permutation (P = I)
- right: spy diagram of Cholesky factor with the best permutation (permute $1 \rightarrow n$)

- general problem of choosing the ordering that produces the sparest factorization is hard
- but, several simple heuristics are very effective
- more exotic ordering methods, *e.g.*, nested disection, can work very well

- for Cholesky factorization, the ordering can be chosen based only on the sparsity pattern of *A*, and *not* its numerical values
- facatorization can be divided into two stages: *symbolic* factorization and *numerical* factorization
 - when solving *multiple* linear systems with identical sparsity patterns, symbolic factorization can be computed just once
 - more effort can go into selecting an ordering, since it will be amortizzed across multiple numerical factorizations
- ordering for *LDL^T* factorization usually has to be done on the fly, *i.e.*, based on the data

Computing dominant eigenpairs/singular pairs

Eigenvalue pairs

- ARPACK (eigs in matlab)
- LOBPCG
- Arrabit
- SLEPc

Singular value pairs

PROPACK, a good implementation is lansvd in http://www.math.nus.edu.sg/~mattohkc/NNLS.html

• LMSVD with warm-starting:

https://ww2.mathworks.cn/matlabcentral/ fileexchange/46875-lmsvd-m

Other plantform of Lapack

Parallel and distributed computation

Scalapack

http://www.netlib.org/scalapack/

Elemental

https://github.com/elemental/Elemental

GPU:

MAGMA

http://icl.cs.utk.edu/magma/

PLASMA

https://bitbucket.org/icl/plasma

we list some other areas in numerical linear algebra that have received significant attention:

- iterative methods for sparse and structure linear systems
- parallel and distributed methods (MPI)
- fast linear operations: fast Fouroer transforms (FFTs), convolutions, state-space linear system simulations

there is considerable existing research, and accompanying public demain (or freely licensed) code