

Solving Linear Systems: Iterative Methods and Sparse Systems

COS 323

Direct vs. Iterative Methods

- So far, have looked at *direct methods* for solving linear systems
 - Predictable number of steps
 - No answer until the very end
- Alternative: *iterative methods*
 - Start with approximate answer
 - Each iteration improves accuracy
 - Stop once estimated error below tolerance

Benefits of Iterative Algorithms

- Some iterative algorithms designed for accuracy:
 - Direct methods subject to roundoff error
 - Iterate to reduce error to $O(\varepsilon)$
- Some algorithms produce answer faster
 - Most important class: *sparse matrix* solvers
 - Speed depends on # of *nonzero* elements, not total # of elements
- Today: iterative improvement of accuracy, solving sparse systems (not necessarily iteratively)

Iterative Improvement

- Suppose you've solved (or think you've solved) some system $Ax=b$
- Can check answer by computing *residual*:
$$r = b - Ax_{\text{computed}}$$
- If r is small (compared to b), x is accurate
- What if it's not?

Iterative Improvement

- Large residual caused by error in x :

$$e = x_{\text{correct}} - x_{\text{computed}}$$

- If we knew the error, could try to improve x :

$$x_{\text{correct}} = x_{\text{computed}} + e$$

- Solve for error:

$$Ax_{\text{computed}} = A(x_{\text{correct}} - e) = b - r$$

$$Ax_{\text{correct}} - Ae = b - r$$

$$Ae = r$$

Iterative Improvement

- So, compute residual, solve for e , and apply correction to estimate of x
- If original system solved using LU, this is relatively fast (relative to $O(n^3)$, that is):
 - $O(n^2)$ matrix/vector multiplication + $O(n)$ vector subtraction to solve for r
 - $O(n^2)$ forward/backsubstitution to solve for e
 - $O(n)$ vector addition to correct estimate of x

Sparse Systems

- Many applications require solution of large linear systems ($n =$ thousands to millions)
 - Local constraints or interactions: most entries are 0
 - Wasteful to store all n^2 entries
 - Difficult or impossible to use $O(n^3)$ algorithms
- Goal: solve system with:
 - Storage proportional to # of *nonzero* elements
 - Running time $\ll n^3$

Special Case: Band Diagonal

- Last time: tridiagonal (or band diagonal) systems
 - Storage $O(n)$: only relevant diagonals
 - Time $O(n)$: Gauss-Jordan with bookkeeping

Cyclic Tridiagonal

- Interesting extension: cyclic tridiagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & & & & a_{16} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & & & \\ & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & & \\ & & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} & \\ & & & a_{54} & a_{55} & a_{56} \\ a_{61} & & & & a_{65} & a_{66} \end{bmatrix} x = b$$

- Could derive yet another special case algorithm, but there's a better way

Updating Inverse

- Suppose we have some fast way of finding A^{-1} for some matrix A
- Now A changes in a special way:
$$A^* = A + uv^T$$
for some $n \times 1$ vectors u and v
- Goal: find a fast way of computing $(A^*)^{-1}$
 - Eventually, a fast way of solving $(A^*)x = b$

Analogue for Scalars

Q: Knowing $\frac{1}{\alpha}$, how to compute $\frac{1}{\alpha + \beta}$?

A:
$$\frac{1}{\alpha + \beta} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left(1 - \frac{\beta/\alpha}{1 + \beta/\alpha} \right)$$

Sherman-Morrison Formula

$$\mathbf{A}^* = \mathbf{A} + uv^T = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^T)$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^*)^{-1} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^T)^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

Let $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^T$

Note that $\mathbf{x}^2 = \mathbf{A}^{-1}u \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{A}^{-1}u \mathbf{v}^T$

Scalar! Call it λ

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = \mathbf{A}^{-1}u \lambda \mathbf{v}^T = \lambda \mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^T = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

Sherman-Morrison Formula

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}(1 + \lambda)$$

$$-\mathbf{x} + \frac{\mathbf{x}}{1 + \lambda}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{x}) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{x} - \frac{\mathbf{x}}{1 + \lambda}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{x}}{1 + \lambda}\right)(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{I}$$

$$\therefore \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{x}}{1 + \lambda}\right) = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{x})^{-1}$$

$$\therefore (\mathbf{A}^*)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \frac{\mathbf{A}^{-1} u v^T \mathbf{A}^{-1}}{1 + v^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} u}$$

Sherman-Morrison Formula

$$x = (\mathbf{A}^*)^{-1} b = \mathbf{A}^{-1} b - \frac{\mathbf{A}^{-1} u v^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} b}{1 + v^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} u}$$

So, to solve $(\mathbf{A}^*)x = b$,

$$\text{solve } \mathbf{A}y = b, \quad \mathbf{A}z = u, \quad x = y - \frac{z v^T y}{1 + v^T z}$$

Applying Sherman-Morrison

- Let's consider cyclic tridiagonal again:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & & & & a_{16} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & & & \\ & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & & \\ & & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} & \\ & & & a_{54} & a_{55} & a_{56} \\ a_{61} & & & & a_{65} & a_{66} \end{bmatrix} x = b$$

- Take $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}-1 & a_{12} & & & & \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & & & \\ & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & & \\ & & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} & \\ & & & a_{54} & a_{55} & a_{56} \\ & & & & a_{65} & a_{66} - a_{61}a_{16} \end{bmatrix}$, $u = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \\ \\ \\ a_{61} \end{bmatrix}$, $v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \\ \\ \\ a_{16} \end{bmatrix}$

Applying Sherman-Morrison

- Solve $Ay=b$, $Az=u$ using special fast algorithm
- Applying Sherman-Morrison takes a couple of dot products
- Total: $O(n)$ time
- Generalization for several corrections: Woodbury

$$\mathbf{A}^* = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{U}\mathbf{V}^T$$

$$\left(\mathbf{A}^*\right)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{U} \left(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{U}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

More General Sparse Matrices

- More generally, we can represent sparse matrices by noting which elements are nonzero
- Critical for Ax and $A^T x$ to be efficient: proportional to # of nonzero elements
 - We'll see an algorithm for solving $Ax=b$ using only these two operations!

Compressed Sparse Row Format

- Three arrays
 - Values: actual numbers in the matrix
 - Cols: column of corresponding entry in values
 - Rows: index of first entry in each row
 - Example: (zero-based! C/C++/Java, not Matlab!)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

values 3 2 3 2 5 1 2 3
cols 1 2 3 0 3 1 2 3
rows 0 3 5 5 8

Compressed Sparse Row Format

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ | values | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | cols | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | rows | 0 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 8 | | | |

- Multiplying Ax :

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {  
    out[i] = 0;  
    for (j = rows[i]; j < rows[i+1]; j++)  
        out[i] += values[j] * x[ cols[j] ];  
}
```

Solving Sparse Systems

- Transform problem to a function minimization!

$$\text{Solve } Ax=b$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Minimize } f(x) = x^T Ax - 2b^T x$$

- To motivate this, consider 1D:

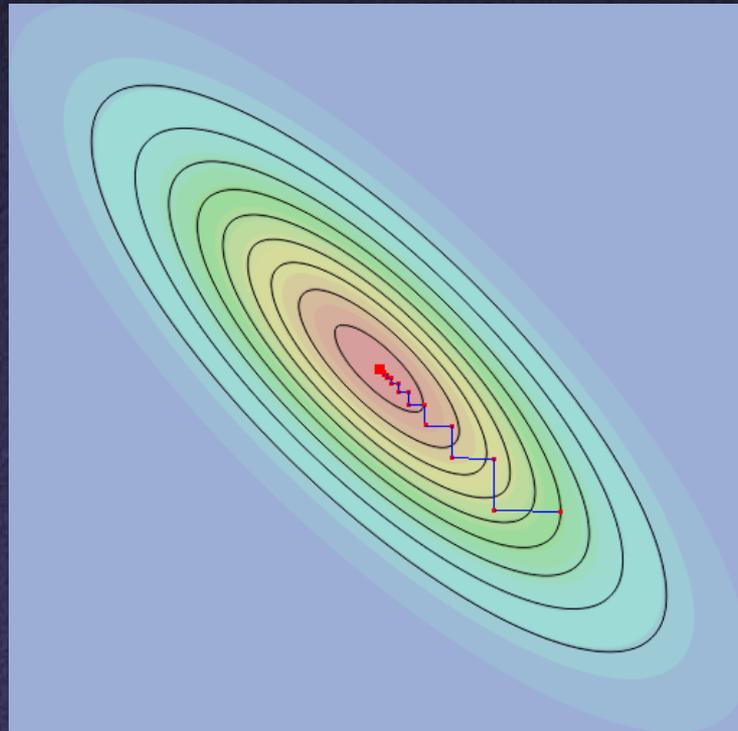
$$f(x) = ax^2 - 2bx$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = 2ax - 2b = 0$$

$$ax = b$$

Solving Sparse Systems

- Preferred method: conjugate gradients
- Recall: plain gradient descent has a problem...



Solving Sparse Systems

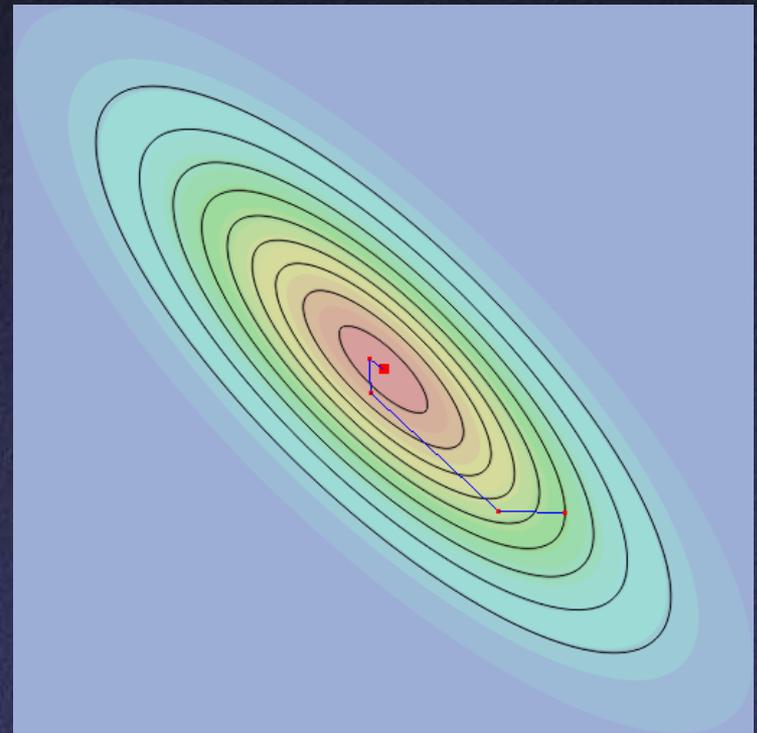
- ... that's solved by conjugate gradients

- Walk along direction

$$d_{k+1} = -g_{k+1} + \beta_k d_k$$

- Polak and Ribiere formula:

$$\beta_k = \frac{g_{k+1}^T (g_{k+1} - g_k)}{g_k^T g_k}$$



Solving Sparse Systems

- Easiest to think about $A = \text{symmetric}$
- First ingredient: need to evaluate gradient

$$f(x) = x^T \mathbf{A} x - 2b^T x$$

$$\nabla f(x) = 2(\mathbf{A}x - b)$$

- As advertised, this only involves A multiplied by a vector

Solving Sparse Systems

- Second ingredient: given point x_i , direction d_i , minimize function in that direction

$$\text{Define } m_i(t) = f(x_i + t d_i)$$

$$\text{Minimize } m_i(t): \frac{d}{dt} m_i(t) = 0$$

$$\frac{dm_i(t)}{dt} = 2d_i^T (\mathbf{A}x_i - b) + 2t d_i^T \mathbf{A} d_i \stackrel{\text{want}}{=} 0$$

$$t_{\min} = -\frac{d_i^T (\mathbf{A}x_i - b)}{d_i^T \mathbf{A} d_i}$$

$$x_{i+1} = x_i + t_{\min} d_i$$

Solving Sparse Systems

- Just a few sparse matrix-vector multiplies (plus some dot products, etc.) per iteration
- For m nonzero entries, each iteration $O(\max(m,n))$
- Conjugate gradients may need n iterations for “perfect” convergence, but often get decent answer well before then
- For non-symmetric matrices: biconjugate gradient (maintains 2 residuals, requires $A^T x$ multiplication)