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:

$$r = b - Ax_{computed}$$

- If r is small (compared to b), x is accurate
- What if it's not?

Iterative Improvement

Large residual caused by error in x:

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

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

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

• Solve for error:

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

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

$$Ae = r$$

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(n³), that is):
 - O(n²) matrix/vector multiplication +
 O(n) vector subtraction to solve for r
 - O(n²) 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 n² entries
 - Difficult or impossible to use O(n³) algorithms
- Goal: solve system with:
 - Storage proportional to # of nonzero elements
 - − Running time << n³

Special Case: Band Diagonal

- Last time: tridiagonal (or band diagonal) systems
 - Storage O(n): only relevant diagonals
 - Time O(n): Gaussian elimination 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×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 $\frac{1}{\alpha + \beta}$ without division by α ?

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

Sherman-Morrison Formula

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

$$(\mathbf{A}^*)^{-1} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^{\mathrm{T}})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$
Let $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^{\mathrm{T}}$
Note that $\mathbf{x}^2 = \mathbf{A}^{-1}u v^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}^{-1}u v^{\mathrm{T}}$
Scalar! Call it λ

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

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

$$x = (\mathbf{A}^*)^{-1}b = \mathbf{A}^{-1}b - \frac{\mathbf{A}^{-1}uv^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}b}{1 + v^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}u}$$
Let $y = \mathbf{A}^{-1}b$, $z = \mathbf{A}^{-1}u$, so that $x = y - \frac{zv^{\mathsf{T}}y}{1 + v^{\mathsf{T}}z}$
So, to solve $(\mathbf{A}^*)x = b$,
solve $\mathbf{A}y = b$, $\mathbf{A}z = u$, $x = y - \frac{zv^{\mathsf{T}}y}{1 + v^{\mathsf{T}}z}$

Applying Sherman-Morrison

Let's consider

Let's consider cyclic tridiagonal again:
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & & & a_{16} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & & & \\ & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & & \\ & & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} & \\ & & & a_{65} & a_{66} \end{bmatrix} x = b$$

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

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

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

More General Sparse Matrices

- More generally, we can represent sparse matrices by noting which elements are nonzero
- Critical for Ax and A^Tx 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 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}
```

```
values 3 2 3 2 1 3 1 2 3 cols 1 2 3 0 2 3 1 2 3 rows 0 3 6 6 9
```

Compressed Sparse Row Format

```
    Multiplying Ax:
    Multiplying Ax:
    0 3 2 3
    0 1 3
    0 0 0
    1 2 3
    0 0 3 2 3
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 6
    0 0 0 0 6
    0 0 0 0 6
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
    0 0 0 0
```

```
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] ];
```

Transform problem to a function minimization!

Solve
$$Ax = b$$

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

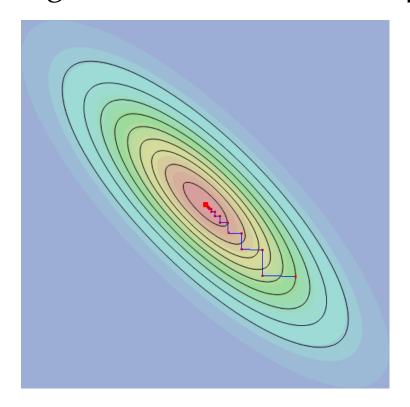
To motivate this, consider 1D:

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

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

$$ax = b$$

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



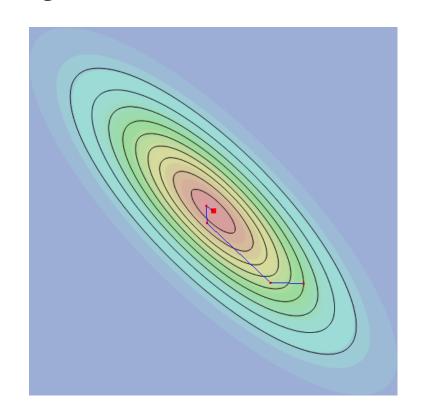
• ... that's solved by conjugate gradients

Walk along direction

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

Polak and Ribiere formula:

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



- Easiest to think about A = symmetric
- First ingredient: need to evaluate gradient

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

 As advertised, this only involves A multiplied by a vector

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

Define
$$m_i(t) = f(x_i + t d_i)$$

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

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

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

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

- 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^Tx multiplication)