

# Recap linear algebra + direct solvers

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Lecture 6

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Recap from last time

## Matrix + Vector norms

- ▶ Vector norms: let  $x = (x_i) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 
  - ▶  $\|x\|_1 = \sum_i^n |x_i|$ : sum norm,  $l_1$ -norm
  - ▶  $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ : Euclidean norm,  $l_2$ -norm
  - ▶  $\|x\|_\infty = \max_{i=1 \dots n} |x_i|$ : maximum norm,  $l_\infty$ -norm
- ▶ Matrix  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ 
  - ▶ Representation of linear operator  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by  $\mathcal{A} : x \mapsto y = Ax$  with

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$$

- ▶ Induced matrix norm:

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\|_\nu &= \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_\nu}{\|x\|_\nu} \\ &= \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_\nu = 1} \frac{\|Ax\|_\nu}{\|x\|_\nu} \end{aligned}$$

## Matrix norms

- ▶  $\|A\|_1 = \max_{j=1 \dots n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}|$  maximum of column sums
- ▶  $\|A\|_\infty = \max_{i=1 \dots n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$  maximum of row sums
- ▶  $\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}}$  with  $\lambda_{\max}$ : largest eigenvalue of  $A^T A$ .

## Matrix condition number and error propagation

Problem: solve  $Ax = b$ , where  $b$  is inexact.


$$A(x + \Delta x) = b + \Delta b.$$

Since  $Ax = b$ , we get  $A\Delta x = \Delta b$ . From this,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Delta x = A^{-1}\Delta b \\ Ax = b \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|A\| \cdot \|x\| \geq \|b\| \\ \|\Delta x\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|\Delta b\| \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \kappa(A) \frac{\|\Delta b\|}{\|b\|}$$

where  $\kappa(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|$  is the *condition number* of  $A$ .



## Solution of linear systems of equations

# Approaches to linear system solution

Solve  $Ax = b$

- ▶ Direct methods:
  - ▶ Exact
    - ▶ up to machine precision!
  - ▶ Expensive (in time and space)
    - ▶ where does this matter ?
- ▶ Iterative methods:
  - ▶ Only approximate
    - ▶ with good convergence and proper accuracy control, results are not worse than for direct methods
  - ▶ Cheaper in space and (possibly) time
  - ▶ Convergence guarantee is problem dependent and can be tricky

## Really bad example of direct method

Cramer's rule

write  $|A|$  for determinant, then

$$x_i = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1i-1} & b_1 & a_{1i+1} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & & \dots & & b_2 & & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & & \dots & & b_n & & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \quad (i = 1 \dots n)$$

$O(n!)$  operations...



## Gaussian elimination

- ▶ Essentially the only feasible direct solution method
- ▶ Solve  $Ax = b$  with square matrix  $A$ .

## Gauss 1

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 12 & -8 & 6 \\ 3 & -13 & 3 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ 26 \\ -19 \end{pmatrix}$$

Step 1

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & -12 & 2 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ -6 \\ -27 \end{pmatrix}$$

Step 2

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & -0 & -4 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ -6 \\ -9 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Gauss 2

Solve upper triangular system

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & -4 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ -6 \\ -9 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-4x_3 = -9 \quad \Rightarrow x_3 = \frac{9}{4}$$

$$-4x_2 - 2x_3 = -6 \quad \Rightarrow -4x_2 = \frac{21}{2} \quad \Rightarrow x_2 = -\frac{21}{8}$$

$$6x_1 - 2x_2 + 2x_3 = 2 \quad \Rightarrow 6x_1 = 2 - \frac{21}{4} - \frac{18}{4} = -\frac{31}{4} \quad \Rightarrow x_1 = -\frac{31}{24}$$

## Gaussian elimination expressed in matrix operations: LU factorization

$$L_1Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & -12 & 2 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ -6 \\ -27 \end{pmatrix} = L_1b, \quad L_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$L_2L_1Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & -4 & -4 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 16 \\ -6 \\ -9 \end{pmatrix} = L_2L_1b, \quad L_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ Let  $L = L_1^{-1}L_2^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $U = L_2L_1A$ . Then  $A = LU$
- ▶ Inplace operation. Diagonal elements of  $L$  are always 1, so no need to store them  $\Rightarrow$  work on storage space for  $A$  and overwrite it.

## Problem example

Consider

$$\begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \epsilon \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

with solution  $x = (1, 1)^t$

Ordinary elimination:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & 1 \\ 0 & (1 - \frac{1}{\epsilon}) \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 - \frac{1}{\epsilon} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow x_2 = \frac{2 - \frac{1}{\epsilon}}{1 - \frac{1}{\epsilon}} \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{1 - x_2}{\epsilon}$$

If  $\epsilon < \epsilon_{\text{mach}}$ , then  $2 - 1/\epsilon = -1/\epsilon$  and  $1 - 1/\epsilon = -1/\epsilon$ , so

$$x_2 = \frac{2 - \frac{1}{\epsilon}}{1 - \frac{1}{\epsilon}} = 1, \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{1 - x_2}{\epsilon} = 0$$

## Partial Pivoting

- ▶ Before elimination step, look at the element with largest absolute value in current column and put the corresponding row “on top” as the “pivot”
- ▶ This prevents near zero divisions and increases stability

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \epsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \epsilon \end{pmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 - 2\epsilon \end{pmatrix}$$

If  $\epsilon$  very small:

$$x_2 = \frac{1 - 2\epsilon}{1 - \epsilon} = 1, \quad x_1 = 2 - x_2 = 1$$

- ▶ Factorization:  $PA = LU$ , where  $P$  is a permutation matrix which can be encoded using an integer vector

## Gaussian elimination and LU factorization

- ▶ Full pivoting: in addition to row exchanges, perform column exchanges to ensure even larger pivots. Seldomly used in practice.
- ▶ Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is the “working horse” for direct solution methods
- ▶ Standard routines from LAPACK: `dgetrf`, (factorization) `dgetrs` (solve) used in overwhelming number of codes (e.g. matlab, scipy etc.). Also, C++ matrix libraries use them. Unless there is special need, they should be used.
- ▶ Complexity of LU-Factorization:  $O(n^3)$ , some theoretically better algorithms are known with e.g.  $O(n^{2.736})$

## Cholesky factorization

- ▶  $A = LL^T$  for symmetric, positive definite matrices



## Matrices from PDE: a first example

- ▶ "Drosophila": Poisson boundary value problem in rectangular domain

Given:

- ▶ Domain  $\Omega = (0, X) \times (0, Y) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  with boundary  $\Gamma = \partial\Omega$ , outer normal  $\mathbf{n}$
- ▶ Right hand side  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- ▶ "Conductivity"  $\lambda$
- ▶ Boundary value  $v : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- ▶ Transfer coefficient  $\alpha$

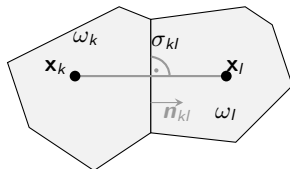
Search function  $u : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla \cdot \lambda \nabla u &= f && \text{in } \Omega \\ -\lambda \nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n} + \alpha(u - v) &= 0 && \text{on } \Gamma \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Example: heat conduction:
  - ▶  $u$ : temperature
  - ▶  $f$ : volume heat source
  - ▶  $\lambda$ : heat conduction coefficient
  - ▶  $v$ : Ambient temperature
  - ▶  $\alpha$ : Heat transfer coefficient

## The finite volume idea

- ▶ Assume  $\Omega$  is a polygon
- ▶ Subdivide the domain  $\Omega$  into a finite number of **control volumes** :  
$$\bar{\Omega} = \bigcup_{k \in \mathcal{N}} \bar{\omega}_k$$
such that
  - ▶  $\omega_k$  are open (not containing their boundary) convex domains
  - ▶  $\omega_k \cap \omega_l = \emptyset$  if  $\omega_k \neq \omega_l$
  - ▶  $\sigma_{kl} = \bar{\omega}_k \cap \bar{\omega}_l$  are either empty, points or straight lines
    - ▶ we will write  $|\sigma_{kl}|$  for the length
    - ▶ if  $|\sigma_{kl}| > 0$  we say that  $\omega_k, \omega_l$  are neighbours
    - ▶ neighbours of  $\omega_k$ :  $\mathcal{N}_k = \{l \in \mathcal{N} : |\sigma_{kl}| > 0\}$
- ▶ To each control volume  $\omega_k$  assign a **collocation point**:  $\mathbf{x}_k \in \bar{\omega}_k$  such that
  - ▶ **admissibility condition**: if  $l \in \mathcal{N}_k$  then the line  $\mathbf{x}_k \mathbf{x}_l$  is orthogonal to  $\sigma_{kl}$
  - ▶ if  $\omega_k$  is situated at the boundary, i.e.  $\gamma_k = \partial\omega_k \cap \partial\Omega \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\mathbf{x}_k \in \partial\Omega$



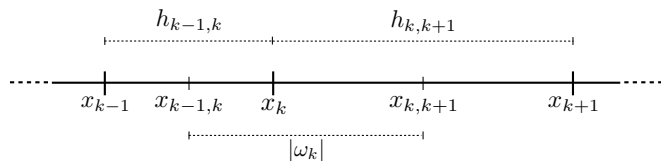
## Discretization ansatz

- ▶ Given control volume  $\omega_k$ , integrate equation over control volume

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= \int_{\omega_k} (-\nabla \cdot \lambda \nabla u - f) d\omega \\ &= - \int_{\partial\omega_k} \lambda \nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n}_k d\gamma - \int_{\omega_k} f d\omega && \text{(Gauss)} \\ &= - \sum_{L \in \mathcal{N}_k} \int_{\sigma_{kl}} \lambda \nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n}_{kl} d\gamma - \int_{\gamma_k} \lambda \nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n} d\gamma - \int_{\omega_k} f d\omega \\ &\approx \sum_{L \in \mathcal{N}_k} \frac{\sigma_{kl}}{h_{kl}} (u_k - u_l) + |\gamma_k| \alpha (u_k - v_k) - |\omega_k| f_k\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Here,
  - ▶  $u_k = u(\mathbf{x}_k)$
  - ▶  $v_k = v(\mathbf{x}_k)$
  - ▶  $f_k = f(\mathbf{x}_k)$
- ▶  $N = |\mathcal{N}|$  equations (one for each control volume)
- ▶  $N = |\mathcal{N}|$  unknowns (one in each collocation point  $\equiv$  control volume)

## 1D finite volume grid



- ▶  $\Omega = [0, X]$
- ▶ Collocation points:  
 $0 = x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = X$
- ▶ Control volumes:

$$\omega_1 = (x_1, (x_1 + x_2)/2)$$

$$\omega_2 = ((x_1 + x_2)/2, (x_2 + x_3)/2)$$

$\vdots$

$$\omega_{N-1} = ((x_{N-2} + x_{N-1})/2, (x_{N-1} + x_N)/2)$$

$$\omega_N = ((x_{N-1} + x_N)/2, x_N)$$

- ▶ Maximum number of neighbours: 2



## General tridiagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_1 & c_1 & & & \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & & \\ & a_3 & b_3 & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & c_{n-1} \\ & & & a_n & b_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## Gaussian elimination for tridiagonal systems

- ▶ TDMA (tridiagonal matrix algorithm)
- ▶ “Thomas algorithm” (Llewellyn H. Thomas, 1949 (?))
- ▶ “Progonka method” (Gelfand, Lokutsievski, 1952, published 1960)

$$a_i u_{i-1} + b_i u_i + c_i u_{i+1} = f_i, \quad a_1 = 0, \quad c_N = 0$$

For  $i = 1 \dots n - 1$ , assume there are coefficients  $\alpha_i, \beta_i$  such that  $u_i = \alpha_{i+1} u_{i+1} + \beta_{i+1}$ .

Then, we can express  $u_{i-1}$  and  $u_i$  via  $u_{i+1}$ :

$$(a_i \alpha_i \alpha_{i+1} + c_i \alpha_{i+1} + b_i) u_{i+1} + a_i \alpha_i \beta_{i+1} + a_i \beta_i + c_i \beta_{i+1} - f_i = 0$$

This is true independently of  $u$  if

$$\begin{cases} a_i \alpha_i \alpha_{i+1} + c_i \alpha_{i+1} + b_i & = 0 \\ a_i \alpha_i \beta_{i+1} + a_i \beta_i + c_i \beta_{i+1} - f_i & = 0 \end{cases}$$

or for  $i = 1 \dots n - 1$ :

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{i+1} & = -\frac{b_i}{a_i \alpha_i + c_i} \\ \beta_{i+1} & = \frac{f_i - a_i \beta_i}{a_i \alpha_i + c_i} \end{cases}$$

## Progonka algorithm

Forward sweep:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_2 &= -\frac{b_1}{c_1} \\ \beta_2 &= \frac{f_1}{c_1} \end{cases}$$

for  $i = 2 \dots n - 1$

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{i+1} &= -\frac{b_i}{a_i \alpha_i + c_i} \\ \beta_{i+1} &= \frac{f_i - a_i \beta_i}{a_i \alpha_i + c_i} \end{cases}$$

Backward sweep:

$$u_n = \frac{f_n - a_n \beta_n}{a_n \alpha_n + c_n}$$

for  $n - 1 \dots 1$ :

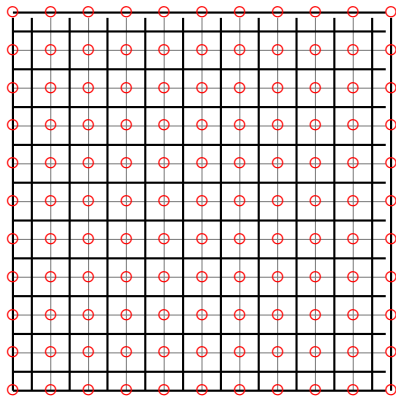
$$u_i = \alpha_{i+1} u_{i+1} + \beta_{i+1}$$



## Progonka algorithm - properties

- ▶  $n$  unknowns, one forward sweep, one backward sweep  $\Rightarrow O(n)$  operations vs.  $O(n^3)$  for algorithm using full matrix
- ▶ No pivoting  $\Rightarrow$  stability issues
  - ▶ Stability for diagonally dominant matrices ( $|b_i| > |a_i| + |c_i|$ )
  - ▶ Stability for symmetric positive definite matrices

## 2D finite volume grid



- ▶ Red circles: discretization nodes
- ▶ Thin lines: original “grid”
- ▶ Thick lines: boundaries of control volumes
- ▶ Each discretization point has not more than 4 neighbours

## Sparse matrices

- ▶ Regardless of number of unknowns  $n$ , the number of non-zero entries per row remains limited by  $n_r$
- ▶ If we find a scheme which allows to store only the non-zero matrix entries, we would need  $nn_r = O(n)$  storage locations instead of  $n^2$
- ▶ The same would be true for the matrix-vector multiplication if we program it in such a way that we use every nonzero element just once: matrix-vector multiplication uses  $O(n)$  instead of  $O(n^2)$  operations
- ▶ In the special case of tridiagonal matrices, progonka gives an algorithm which allows to solve the nonlinear system with  $O(n)$  operations

## Sparse matrix questions

- ▶ What is a good format for sparse matrices?
- ▶ Is there a way to implement Gaussian elimination for general sparse matrices which allows for linear system solution with  $O(n)$  operation
- ▶ Is there a way to implement Gaussian elimination *with pivoting* for general sparse matrices which allows for linear system solution with  $O(n)$  operations?
- ▶ Is there *any algorithm* for sparse linear system solution with  $O(n)$  operations?

## Coordinate (triplet) format

- ▶ store all nonzero elements along with their row and column indices
- ▶ one real, two integer arrays, length = nnz= number of nonzero elements

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1. & 0. & 0. & 2. & 0. \\ 3. & 4. & 0. & 5. & 0. \\ 6. & 0. & 7. & 8. & 9. \\ 0. & 0. & 10. & 11. & 0. \\ 0. & 0. & 0. & 0. & 12. \end{pmatrix}$$

AA	12. 9. 7. 5. 1. 2. 11. 3. 6. 4. 8. 10.
JR	5 3 3 2 1 1 4 2 3 2 3 4
JC	5 5 3 4 1 4 4 1 1 2 4 3

## Compressed Row Storage (CRS) format

(aka Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) or IA-JA etc.)

- ▶ real array AA, length nnz, containing all nonzero elements row by row
- ▶ integer array JA, length nnz, containing the column indices of the elements of AA
- ▶ integer array IA, length n+1, containing the start indices of each row in the arrays IA and JA and  $IA(n+1)=nnz+1$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1. & 0. & 0. & 2. & 0. \\ 3. & 4. & 0. & 5. & 0. \\ 6. & 0. & 7. & 8. & 9. \\ 0. & 0. & 10. & 11. & 0. \\ 0. & 0. & 0. & 0. & 12. \end{pmatrix}$$

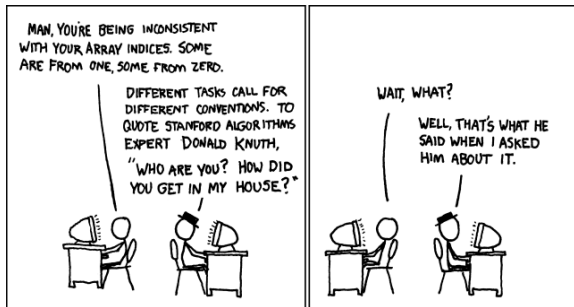
AA	1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12.
JA	1 4 1 2 4 1 3 4 5 3 4 5
IA	1 3 6 10 12 13

Y.Saad, Iterative Methods, p.93

- ▶ Used in most sparse matrix packages

## The big schism

- ▶ Worse than catholics vs. protestants or shia vs. sunni. . .
- ▶ Should array indices count from zero or from one ?
- ▶ Fortran, Matlab, Julia count from one
- ▶ C/C++, python count from zero
- ▶ I am siding with the one fraction
- ▶ but I am tolerant, so for this course . . .
  - ▶ It matters when passing index arrays to sparse matrix packages



## CRS again

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1. & 0. & 0. & 2. & 0. \\ 3. & 4. & 0. & 5. & 0. \\ 6. & 0. & 7. & 8. & 9. \\ 0. & 0. & 10. & 11. & 0. \\ 0. & 0. & 0. & 0. & 12. \end{pmatrix}$$

```
AA: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12.  
JA: 0 3 0 1 3 0 2 3 4 2 3 4  
IA: 0 2 4 0 11 12
```

- ▶ some package APIs provide the possibility to specify array offset
- ▶ index shift is not very expensive compared to the rest of the work



## Sparse direct solvers

- ▶ Sparse direct solvers implement Gaussian elimination with different pivoting strategies
  - ▶ UMFPACK
  - ▶ Pardiso (omp + MPI parallel)
  - ▶ SuperLU
  - ▶ MUMPS (MPI parallel)
  - ▶ Pastix
- ▶ Quite efficient for 1D/2D problems
- ▶ They suffer from *fill-in*:  $\Rightarrow$  huge memory usage for 3D