

Numerical Software II

Sparse Linear Algebra with Eigen

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Objective

- ▶ Introduction to sparse linear algebra,
- ▶ Use Eigen for sparse linear algebra.

Learning Outcomes

- ▶ You will understand
 - ▶ different formats (CRS, CCS) for sparse matrices,
 - ▶ their advantages and disadvantages,
 - ▶ sparse linear algebra with Eigen.
- ▶ You will be able to
 - ▶ solve sparse system of linear equations with Eigen.
 - ▶ solve sparse linear regression problem with Eigen.

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Memory size for $n \times n$ matrix with **double** entries stored as 2D-array

- ▶ $n = 10^2$: memory used $10^4 \cdot \text{sizeof(double)} = 80\text{KB}$
- ▶ $n = 10^3$: memory used $10^6 \cdot \text{sizeof(double)} = 8000\text{KB} = 8\text{MB}$
- ▶ $n = 10^4$: memory used $10^8 \cdot \text{sizeof(double)} = 800\text{MB}$
- ▶ $n = 10^5$: memory used $10^{10} \cdot \text{sizeof(double)} = 8000\text{MB} = 8\text{GB}$
- ▶ $n = 10^6$: memory used $10^{12} \cdot \text{sizeof(double)} = 800\text{GB}$

How can we perform computations with big matrices?

In scientific computing a **sparse** matrix is a matrix in which most of the elements are zero. A matrix where most of the elements are nonzero, considered **dense**.

Sparsity is the proportion of the number of zero-valued elements in the matrix to the total number of elements. The matrix is considered to be **sparse** if its **sparsity** is greater than 0.5.

In scientific application large sparse matrices typically appear when solving partial differential equations.

For sparse matrices we could simply store only the nonzero elements!

Solve the discretized form of Laplace's equation,

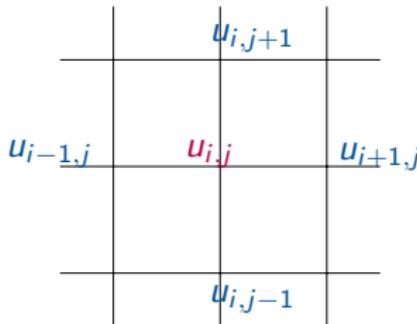
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0 \quad ,$$

for $u(x, y)$ defined within the domain of $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$ given the boundary conditions

- $u(x, 0) = 1$
- $u(x, 1) = 2$
- $u(0, y) = 1$
- $u(1, y) = 2$

We now approximate the second partial derivatives in the PDE by 2nd order centered finite difference scheme,

- $\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_{i,j} \approx \frac{u_{i-1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j}}{(\Delta x)^2}$
- $\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right)_{i,j} \approx \frac{u_{i,j-1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j+1}}{(\Delta y)^2}$



Inserting the equations from the previous slide into the Laplace's equation at the grid point (i,j) , yield

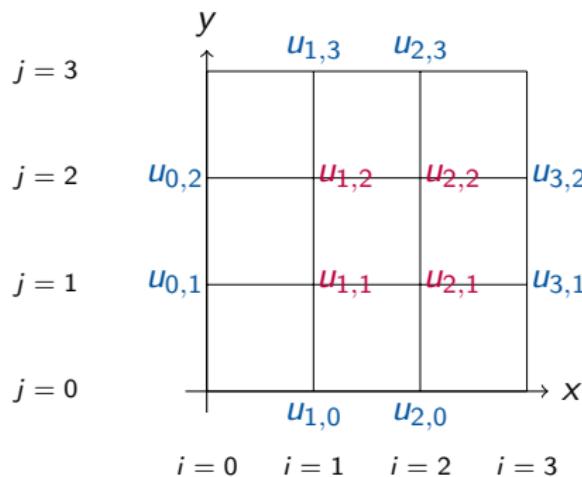
$$\frac{u_{i-1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j}}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{u_{i,j-1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j+1}}{(\Delta y)^2} = 0 \quad .$$

For $\Delta x = \Delta y$ we obtain

$$-4u_{i,j} + u_{i-1,j} + u_{i+1,j} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i,j+1} = 0$$

Hence the partial derivatives $\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}\right) + \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}\right)$, at the grid point (i,j) can be evaluated using the discrete values of u at (i,j) itself and the values at its four neighboring points. Write the equation for all interior points $u_{i,j}$ yield an equation system with at most **five entries in each row**. Hence the matrix is sparse.

Let's consider a small example of the discretization with just few grid points



with $u_{i,j} = u(i\Delta x, j\Delta y)$ and $\Delta x = \Delta y = 1/3$. The values of the variables $u_{i,j}$ in blue are given by the boundary conditions.

We can now write the equations for the four interior points $u_{i,j}$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} -4 & u_{1,1} & + & u_{1,2} & + & u_{2,1} & + & \color{blue}{u_{0,1} + u_{1,0}} & = 0 \\ & u_{1,1} & -4 & u_{1,2} & + & u_{2,2} & & \color{blue}{+ u_{0,2} + u_{1,3}} & = 0 \\ & & u_{1,2} & -4 & u_{2,2} & + & u_{2,1} & \color{blue}{+ u_{2,3} + u_{3,2}} & = 0 \\ & u_{1,1} & & u_{2,2} & -4 & u_{2,1} & \color{blue}{+ u_{2,0} + u_{3,1}} & = 0 \end{array}$$

The $u_{i,j}$ marked with blue are given by the boundary conditions. Bringing these values to the right hand side yield the following equation system

$$\begin{pmatrix} -4 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{1,1} \\ u_{1,2} \\ u_{2,2} \\ u_{2,1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -3 \\ -4 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

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The **Compressed Row Storage (CRS)** and **Compressed Column Storage (CCS)** are general storage formats. They make absolutely no assumptions about the sparsity structure of the matrix and they don't store any unnecessary elements. The matrix is represented with the following three vectors

- ▶ **Value** vector (floating-point, size - number of nonzeros (nnz))
- ▶ **InnerIndices** vector (integer, size - nnz)
- ▶ **OuterStarts** vector (integer, size - number of rows +1 (CRS) number columns +1 (CCS))

CRS/CCS format puts the subsequent nonzeros of the matrix rows/columns in contiguous memory locations. The **Value** vector stores the nonzero elements of the matrix A . The **InnerIndices** vector stores the column/row indexes of the elements of the **Value** vector. That is if $\text{Value}(k) = a_{ij}$ then $\text{InnerIndices}(k) = j / \text{InnerIndices}(k) = i$. The **OuterStarts** vectors stores the locations in **Value** that start a row/column. By convention the last entry of **OuterStarts** vectors is set to nnz .

Example

Given the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 22 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 17 \\ 7 & 5 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 14 & 0 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then

- Its CRS representation:

Values:	3	22	17	7	5	1	14	8
InnerIndices:	1	0	4	0	1	3	2	4
OuterStarts:	0	1	3	6	6	8		

- Its CCS representation:

Values:	22	7	3	5	14	1	17	8
InnerIndices:	1	2	0	2	4	2	1	4
OuterStarts:	0	2	4	5	6	8		

- ▶ Random access is expensive. We first need to access the `OuterStarts` vector to find the begining of the desired row/column and then search for the index of the desired value in the `InnerIndices` vector. So in worst case we will have to check all indices in the desired row/column. Leading to worst case complexity of $O(\text{row size})/ O(\text{column size})$ and not $O(1)$ as in dense case.
- ▶ Inserting a new nonzero element is expensive as we must reallocate the `Values` and `InnelIndices` vector.
- ▶ Deleting an element is expensive if we want to free the memory. E.g. once it became zero as a result of some operation.

Fill-in of a matrix are those entries that change from an initial zero to a nonzero value during execution of an algorithm.

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & 0 \\ 0 & * & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{LU} \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * \\ * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{better} \quad \begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 \\ 0 & * & 0 \\ * & * & * \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{LU} \begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 \\ 0 & * & 0 \\ * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Mimimizing fill-in by switching rows and columns in the matrix is important for several reasons

- ▶ reduce memory requirements
- ▶ avoid unnecessary reallocations of memory
- ▶ reduce the number of performed operations

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Eigen's main sparse matrix representation is given in the class `SparseMatrix`. It implements a variant of CRS/CCS scheme and consists of **four** compact arrays.

- ▶ **Value** vector (floating-point, size - number of nonzeros (nnz))
- ▶ **InnerIndices** vector (integer, size - nnz)
- ▶ **OuterStarts** vector (integer, size - number of rows +1 (CRS) number columns +1 (CCS))
- ▶ **InnerNNZs** vector (integer, number of rows (CRS) number columns (CCS))

The vectors **Value**, **InnerIndices**, **OuterStarts** serve exactly the same purpose as in CRS/CCS formats, with the only difference, that **Value** and **InnerIndices** contain spare entries to quickly insert new elements. That is why the vector **InnerNNZs** is required to identify the actual number nnz in row/column.

Given the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 22 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 17 \\ 7 & 5 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 14 & 0 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Possible Eigen CCS representation:

Values:	22	7	◊	3	5	14	◊	◊	1	◊	17	8
InnerIndices:	1	2	◊	0	2	4	◊	◊	2	◊	1	4
OuterStarts:	0	3	5	8	10	12						
InnerNNZs:	2	2	1	1	2							

Filling a sparse matrix

Due to the special storage scheme of `SparseMatrix` adding a new nonzero entry to the matrix has the cost of $O(nnz)$. The simplest way to create a sparse matrix while guaranteeing good performance is to build a list of `triplets` and then convert this list to `SparseMatrix`.

```
1  typedef Eigen::Triplet<double> T;
2  std::vector<T> tripletList;
3  tripletList.reserve(estimation_of_entries);
4  for(...)
5  {
6      // ...
7      tripletList.push_back(T(i,j,v_ij));
8  }
9  SparseMatrixType mat(rows,cols);
10 mat.setFromTriplets(tripletList.begin(), tripletList.end());
```

Convert Dense matrix to Sparse

```
1 Eigen::SparseMatrix<double> A;  
2 Eigen::Matrix<double,Eigen::Dynamic,Eigen::Dynamic> B;  
3 ...  
4 A = B.sparseView();
```

Convert Sparse matrix to Dense

```
1 Eigen::SparseMatrix<double> A;  
2 Eigen::Matrix<double,Eigen::Dynamic,Eigen::Dynamic> B;  
3 ...  
4 B = A;
```

Any `SparseMatrix` can be turned into proper CRS/CCS format by calling `SparseMatrix::makeCompressed()`. In this case the `InnerNNZs` vector is redundant and thus this call frees this buffer.

```
1 void solveLES(const SparseMatrix<double> &A,
2   const Matrix<double, Dynamic, 1> &b,
3   Matrix<double, Dynamic, 1> &x)
4 {
5   SparseLU<SparseMatrix<double>, COLAMDOrdering<int> > solver;
6   solver.compute(A);
7   if (solver.info() != Success) std::cout << "Decomposition failed " << std::endl;
8   x = solver.solve(b);
9   if (solver.info() != Success) std::cout << "solver failed " << std::endl;
10 }
11
12 int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
13   assert(argc==2); int n=std::stoi(argv[1]);
14   std::vector<Triplet<double>> coefficients;
15   Eigen::Matrix<double, Dynamic, 1> b(n), x(n);
16
17   buildProblem(coefficients, b, n);
18   Eigen::SparseMatrix<double> A(n,n);
19   A.setFromTriplets(coefficients.begin(), coefficients.end());
20   solveLES(A,b,x);
21 }
```

```
1 void Regression_QR(const SparseMatrix<double> &A,
2     Matrix<double,Dynamic,1> &p,
3     const Matrix<double,Dynamic,1> &x)
4 {
5     SparseQR<SparseMatrix<double>, COLAMDOrdering<int> > solver;
6     solver.compute(A);
7     if (solver.info() != Success) std::cout << "Decomposition failed " << std::endl;
8     p = solver.solve(x);
9     if (solver.info() != Success) std::cout << "solver failed " << std::endl;
10 }
11
12 int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
13     assert(argc==3); int m=std::stoi(argv[1]); int n=std::stoi(argv[2]);
14     std::vector<Triplet<double>> coefficients;
15     Eigen::Matrix<double,Dynamic,1> p(n), y(n);
16     buildProblem(coefficients, y, m, n);
17     Eigen::SparseMatrix<double> A(m,n);
18     A.setFromTriplets(coefficients.begin(), coefficients.end());
19     Regression_QR(A,p,y);
20     std::cout << "||A*p-y|| = " << (A*p-y).squaredNorm() << std::endl;
21     std::cout << "||A^T*A*p-A^T*y||="
22             << (A.transpose()*A*p-A.transpose()*y).norm() << std::endl;
23 }
```

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Summary

- ▶ Use sparse linear algebra with Eigen
 - ▶ CRS and CCS formats
 - ▶ Solve sparse systems of linear equations with Eigen
 - ▶ Solve sparse linear regression problem with Eigen

Next Steps

- ▶ Play with sample code.
- ▶ Compare performance of dense and sparse solvers for linear equation systems and linear regression implementations. Try wrappers to external solver mentioned in the Eigen documentation and compare the performance with built-in ones.
- ▶ Continue the course to find out more ...