Lecture 9. Introduction to Numerical Techniques

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CDS270-2: Mathematical Methods in Control and System Engineering

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Logistics

- hw8 (last one) due today.
 - do an easy problem or CYOA
- hw7 solutions posted online
- reading: Davis Ch1-3
- examples today mostly from Tim Davis's book
- Trefethen and Bau, *Numerical Linear Algebra* is also a good resource.

Convex optimization methods

We wish to solve the unconstrained minimization problem

minimize f(x).

• gradient descent: start with a guess x_0 for the optimum and update

$$x_{k+1} := x_k - t_k \nabla f(x_k),$$

where t_k is a small step size.

generally require step sizes to satisfy

$$\sum_{k} t_k^2 < \infty, \quad \sum_{k} t_k = \infty$$

- convexity of f means algorithm converges to global minimum
- if f is not differentiable, replace $\nabla f(x_k)$ by a subgradient $g \in \mathbf{R}^n$, which satisfies

$$f(y) \ge f(x_k) + g^T(y - x_k)$$
 for all $y \in \mathbf{R}^n$.

Interior point methods

The main idea is to solve for x^* in the optimality condition

 $\nabla f(x^{\star})=0.$

workhorse technique. in practice, converges in ~ 10 steps.

algorithm: Newton's method

given: a starting point $x \in \text{dom } f$, tolerance $\epsilon > 0$. repeat:

1. Compute the Newton step and decrement

 $\Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}} := -\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x), \quad \lambda^2 := \nabla f(x)^T \nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x)$

- 2. Stopping criterion. **quit** if $\lambda^2/2 \leq \epsilon$.
- 3. Line search. choose step size t by backtracking line search
- 4. Update. $x := x + t\Delta x_{nt}$

Adding constraints: barrier method

To solve the constrained optimization problem

minimize
$$f_0(x)$$

subject to $f_i(x) \le 0$, $i = 1, ..., m$

we use a barrier function $\phi : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ that goes to $+\infty$ as x approaches the boundary of the feasible set.

logarithmic barrier.

$$\phi(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^m \log(-f_i(x))$$

central path. solve the related unconstrained problem

minimize $tf_0(x) + \phi(x)$.

As $t \to \infty$, the optimizing solution $x^{\star}(t) \to x^{\star}$.

Barriers for common cones

Barriers ϕ for conic constraints can be defined in terms of the generalized logarithm $\psi,$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = -\sum_{i=1}^m \psi_i(-f_i(\mathbf{x})),$$

• Nonnegative orthant **R**ⁿ₊:

$$\psi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log x_i, \quad \nabla \psi(x) = (1/x_1, \dots, 1/x_n)$$

• Second-order cone $Q^n = \{(x_0, x_1) \mid ||x_1||_2 \le x_0\}$:

$$\psi(x) = \log\left(x_0^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_1)_i^2\right)$$

• Positive semidefinite cone **S**^{*n*}₊:

$$\psi(X) = \log \det(X), \quad
abla \psi(X) = X^{-1}$$

On writing linear algebra software

- BLAS: Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms
 - Level 1. norms, dot products, scalar-vector products O(n)
 - Level 2. matrix-vector products, rank-one updates $O(n^2)$
 - Level 3. matrix-matrix sums and products $O(n^3)$
- LAPACK: Linear Algebra PACKage
 - QR factorization, SVD, eigenvalue problems
- ATLAS: Automatically Tuned Linear Algebra Software
- SuiteSparse: direct methods for sparse systems
 - sparse matrix factorization, Cholesky decomposition, fill-reducing orderings, GPU methods
 - much of the suite is part of core Matlab

reference implementations often in fortran, many re-implementations exist

Sparse data structure

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.5 & 0 & 3.2 & 0 \\ 3.1 & 2.9 & 0 & 0.9 \\ 0 & 1.7 & 3.0 & 0 \\ 3.5 & 0.4 & 0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- highlighted zeros are structural zeros
- $n_{nz} =$ number of nonzeros in the matrix
- three ways to store the matrix
 - **1.** 2-dimensional array: O(mn) space, independent of sparsity
 - **2.** triplet format: list of triples (i, j, a_{ij}) , $O(3n_{nz})$ space
 - **3.** compressed column format: $O(2n_{nz} + n)$ space

Triplet format

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.5 & 0 & 3.2 & 0 \\ 3.1 & 2.9 & 0 & 0.9 \\ 0 & 1.7 & 3.0 & 0 \\ 3.5 & 0.4 & 0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(zero-based indexing in C code)

int i [] = { 2, 1, 3, 0, 1, 3, 3, 1, 0, 2 }; int j [] = { 2, 0, 3, 2, 1, 0, 1, 3, 0, 1 }; double x [] = { 3.0, 3.1, 1.0, 3.2, 2.9, 3.5, 0.4, 0.9, 4.5, 1.7 };

- multiple entries interpretation: if (i, j, α) and (i, j, β) both appear in the data structure, then the value of a_{ij} is the sum $\alpha + \beta$.
- · conceptually useful when first forming a matrix
- not particularly efficient structure for linear algebra operations

Compressed column format

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4.5 & 0 & 3.2 & 0 \\ 3.1 & 2.9 & 0 & 0.9 \\ 0 & 1.7 & 3.0 & 0 \\ 3.5 & 0.4 & 0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(zero-based indexing in C code)

int p [] = { 0, 3, 6, 8, 10 }; int i [] = { 0, 1, 3, 1, 2, 3, 0, 2, 1, 3 }; double x [] = { 4.5, 3.1, 3.5, 2.9, 1.7, 0.4, 3.2, 3.0, 0.9, 1.0 };

- p is an array of column pointers
- row indices of column j are stored in i[p[j]] through i[p[j+1]-1]
- first entry p[0] is always zero, last entry p[n] is the number of nonzero entries in the matrix
- access to a column is simple, access to a row (or tranposing) is difficult

Sparse data structure

- handles both compressed column and triplet format
- p holds either column pointers (compressed column form) or column indices (triplet form)
- memory management (reallocating *x and resetting nzmax) is up to the algorithm
 - some algorithms need a temporary workspace
 - control systems running in-loop may need real time guarantees

Printing a compressed column matrix by columns

```
int cs_print (const cs *A, ...) {
  int p, j, m, n, nzmax, nz, *Ap, *Ai;
  double *Ax:
  if (!A) { printf ("(null)\n"); return (0); }
  n = A \rightarrow m; n = A \rightarrow n; Ap = A \rightarrow p; Ai = A \rightarrow i; Ax = A \rightarrow x;
  nzmax = A -> nzmax; nz = A -> nz;
  . . .
  if (nz < 0) { /* if matrix is compressed-column */
    for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {
      printf("col %d : locations %d to %d\n", j, Ap[j], Ap[j+1]-1);
      for (p = Ap[j]; p < Ap[j+1]; p++) {</pre>
         printf(" %d : %g\n", Ai[p], Ax ? Ax[p] : 1);
      }
    }
  3
  ... /* handle triplet case here */
  return (1);
}
```

Matrix-vector multiplication

The compressed column format allows for efficient computation of matrix-vector updates, *e.g.*,

y := Ax + y

guiding principle. exploit structural nonzeros to avoid needless work

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} := \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ A_{*1} & A_{*2} & \cdots & A_{*n} \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

algorithm: gaxpy "general A times x plus y" for j = 0 to n - 1 do for each i for which $a_{ij} \neq 0$ do $y_i := y_i + a_{ij}x_j$

Matrix-vector multiplication

algorithm: gaxpy "general A times x plus y" for j = 0 to n - 1 do for each i for which $a_{ij} \neq 0$ do $y_i := y_i + a_{ij}x_j$

Solving triangular systems

We wish to solve Lx = b for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where L is a lower triangular $n \times n$ matrix. Partition L and x into blocks,

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_{11} & 0\\ I_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1\\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1\\ b_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

which leads to two equations

$$l_{11}x_1 = b_1$$
$$l_{21}x_1 + L_{22}x_2 = b_2.$$

recursive substructure:

- **1.** the first block (scalar) is $x_1 = (b_1/l_{11})$
- 2. we can solve for $x_2 \in \mathbf{R}^{n-1}$ by solving the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ triangular system

$$L_{22}x_2 = b_2 - l_{21}x_1.$$

Solving triangular systems

We can unwind the tail recursion to obtain the triangular solve algorithm

algorithm: lsolve "lower triangular solve"

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &:= \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{for} \ j &= 0 \ \mathrm{to} \ n - 1 \ \mathbf{do} \\ x_j &:= x_j / l_{jj} \\ \mathbf{for} \ \mathbf{each} \ i > j \ \mathrm{for} \ \mathrm{which} \ l_{ij} \neq 0 \ \mathbf{do} \\ x_i &:= x_i - l_{ij} x_j \end{aligned}$$

- since b₁ and b₂ are only used once, x can overwrite b in the implementation
- saves the need to create a temporary workspace

Solving triangular systems

```
int cs_solve (const cs *L, double *x) {
  int p, j, n, *Lp, *Li;
  double *Lx:
  n = L \rightarrow n; Lp = L \rightarrow p; Li = L \rightarrow i; Lx = L \rightarrow x;
  if (!CS_CSC(L) || !x) return (0); /* check inputs */
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {
    x[j] /= Lx[Lp[j]];
    for (p = Lp[j]+1; p < Lp[j+1]; p++) {</pre>
       x[Li[p]] -= Lx[p] * x[i];
    }
  3
  return (1);
}
```

- accesses L columnwise
- assumes the diagonal entries of L are nonzero and present
- input x initially contains the righthandside *b*, and is overwritten with the solution.

Solving general systems

Now we wish to solve the system Ax = b where A is a general matrix.

- lots of ways to do this
- generally all these involve some sort of factorization of A
 - A unstructured: LU, LDU, QR, SVD
 - A positive semidefinite: Cholesky (*LL*^T, *LDL*^T), diagonalization (generally half the effort of the unstructured algorithm)
 - permuted versions of these (more later)
- most of the work in interior point solvers is spent in this step

Example: LU decomposition

fact. Every matrix $A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ can be written as

$$A = LU$$
,

where L is lower triangular and U is upper triangular.

We can solve Ax = b by splitting into three steps:

- **1.** *factorization.* find L and U such that A = LU.
- 2. forward solve. solve the lower triangular system

$$Ly = b$$

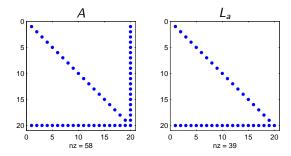
3. backward solve. solve the upper triangular system

$$Ux = y$$
.

Sparse Cholesky factorization

Consider factoring downward arrow matrix $A = L_a L_a^T$

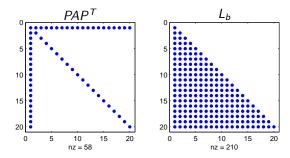
- pick $A = A^T \in \mathbf{R}^{20 \times 20}$, nnz(A)=58
- call using L_a=chol(A,'lower')



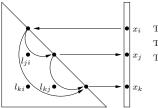
Sparse Cholesky factorization with permutation

now permute the entries of A to PAP^{T} and rewrite $L_{b}L_{b}^{T} = PAP^{T}$

- nnz(P*A*P')=58
- call using L_b=chol(P*A*P', 'lower')



Sparsity rule for Cholesky decomposition



Thm. 4.2: $a_{ik} \neq 0$ implies $l_{ki} \neq 0$ Thm. 4.3: $l_{ji} \neq 0$ and $l_{ki} \neq 0$ implies $l_{kj} \neq 0$ Thus l_{ki} redundant for $\mathcal{X} = \text{Reach}_L(i)$

Figure 4.1. Pruning the directed graph G_L yields the elimination tree \mathcal{T}

(From Davis, Ch 4)

Sparsity rule for Cholesky decomposition

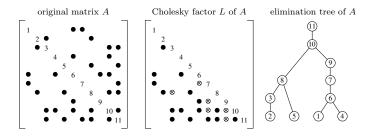


Figure 4.2. Example matrix A, factor L, and elimination tree

(From Davis, Ch 4)

Fill-reducing orderings

Well developed theory for sparse operations see e.g., [Davis 2006]

• instead of solving Ax = b, solve new system

$$\underbrace{(PAP^{T})}_{=LL^{T}}(Px) = Pb, \quad P = \text{permutation matrix}$$

• then do two triangular solves for y and \tilde{x}

$$Ly = Pb, \quad L^T \tilde{x} = y \quad \rightarrow \quad x = P^T \tilde{x}$$

- finding optimal fill-reducing ordering is NP-complete
- minimum degree heuristic: at each step of Gaussian elimination permute rows and columns to minimize the number of off-diagonal nonzeros in pivot row and column
- lots of heuristics (AMD, COLAMD, METIS)

Thanks!