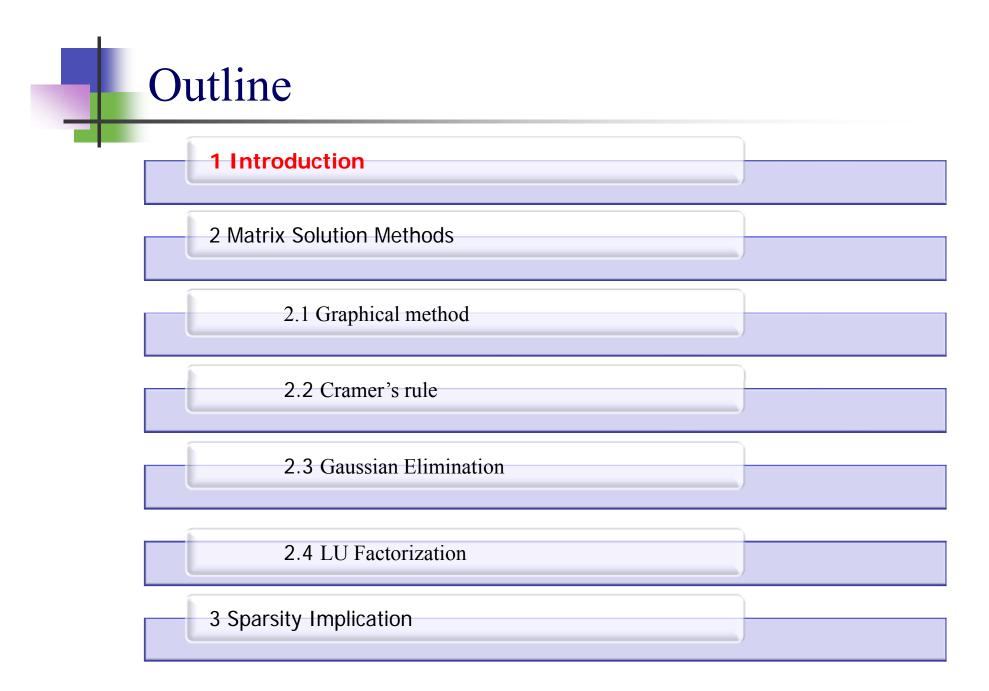


#### Matrix Solution Methods and Sparsity Implications

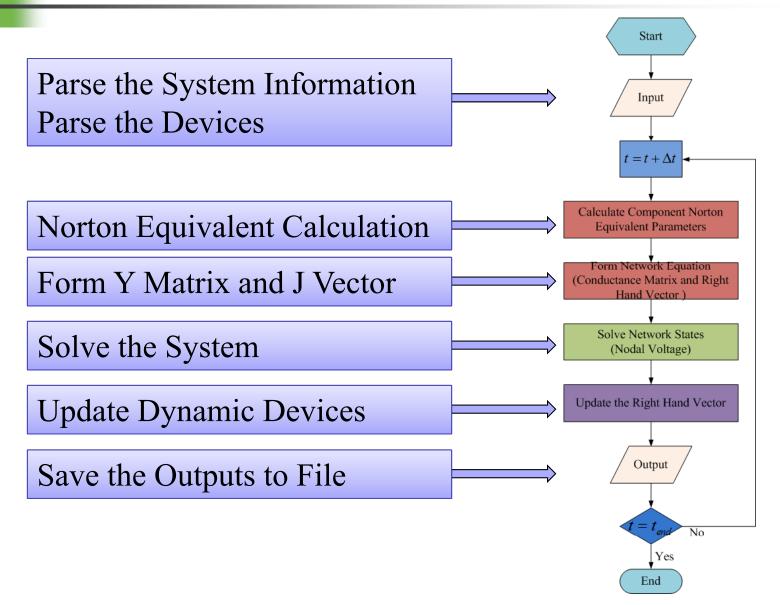
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Advisor: Dr. Ani Gole

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering University of Manitoba



# 1 Introduction (EMT)



## 1 Introduction (Reference Books)

#### **EMT Reference:**

- 1) H.W. Dommel, EMTP Theory Book (2nd edition), Microtran Power System Analysis Corporation, Vancouver, BC. 1992
- 2) N. Watson and J. Arrillaga, Power Systems Electromagnetic Transients Simulation, IEE Power and Energy Series, No. 39, IEE Press, 2003, UK,

# 1 Introduction (Matlab Solver)

A INV is slow and inaccurate. Use A\b for INV(A)\*b, and b/A for b\*inv(A).

#### Explanation

M-Lint has detected a call to <u>inv</u> in a multiplication operation.

The inverse of a matrix is primarily of theoretical value, and rarely finds any use in practical computations. Never use the inverse of a matrix to solve a linear system Ax=b with x=inv (A) \*b, because it is slow and inaccurate.

#### Suggested Action

Instead of multiplying by the inverse, use matrix right division (/) or matrix left division (\). That is:

- Replace inv (A) \*b with A\b
- Replace b\*inv(A) with b/A

Frequently, an application needs to solve a series of related linear systems Ax=b, where A does not change, but b does. In this case, use <u>lu</u>, <u>chol</u>, or <u>gr</u> instead of <u>inv</u>, depending on the matrix type.

# 1 Introduction (Matrix Solution Methods)

- Nowadays, easy access to computers makes the solution of large sets of linear algebraic equations possible and practical.
  - Direct Method

By taking the advantage of "sparsity"

Iterative Method

often the only choice for nonlinear equations, also useful even for linear problems involving a large number of variables

 Direct solution methods were often preferred to iterative methods in real applications because of their robustness and predictable behavior.

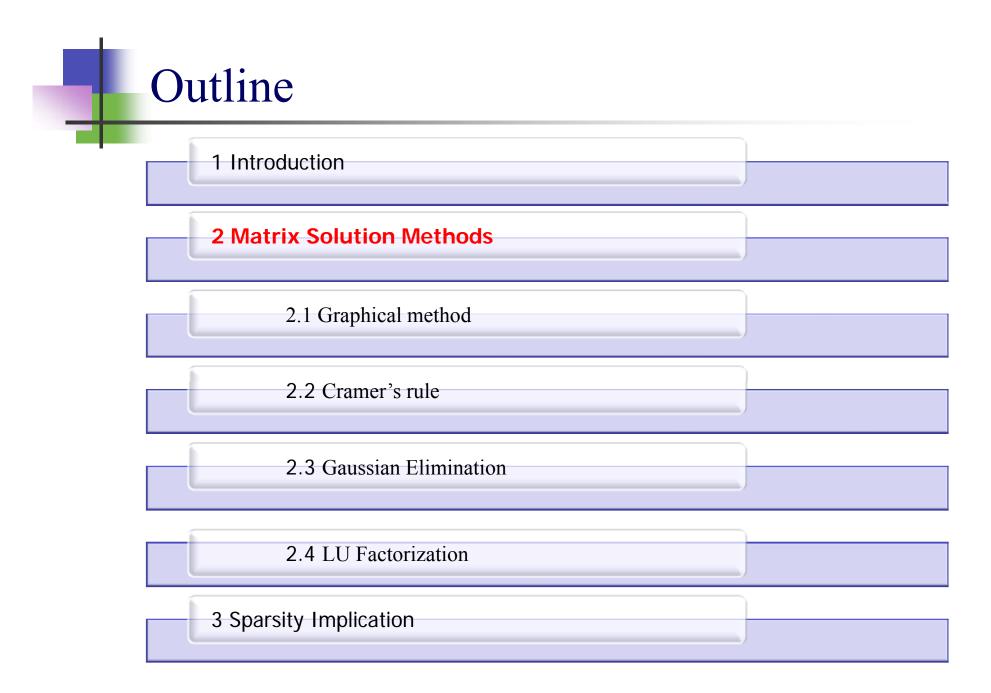
# 1 Introduction (Reference Books)

#### **Direct Methods Reference:**

- Davis, T.A., <u>Direct methods for sparse linear systems</u>.
   Vol. 2. 2006: Society for Industrial Mathematics.
- 2) George, A., J. Liu, and E. Ng, Computer Solution of Sparse Linear Systems. 1994.
- 3) Duff, I., A. Erisman, and J. Reid, Direct Methods for Sparse Matrices, 1986, Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- 4) Østerby, O. and Z. Zlatev, Direct methods for sparse matrices. DAIMI PB, 1980. 9(123).

#### **Iterative Methods Reference:**

 5) Saad, Y., Iterative methods for sparse linear systems. 2003: Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics.



## 2 Matrix Solution Methods

- For small number of equations (n ≤ 3) can be solved readily by simple techniques.
  - Graphical method
  - Cramer's rule
- For large number of equations (n > 3) can be solved readily by other techniques.
  - Elimination method
  - LU method

2.1 Graphical method

• For two equations:

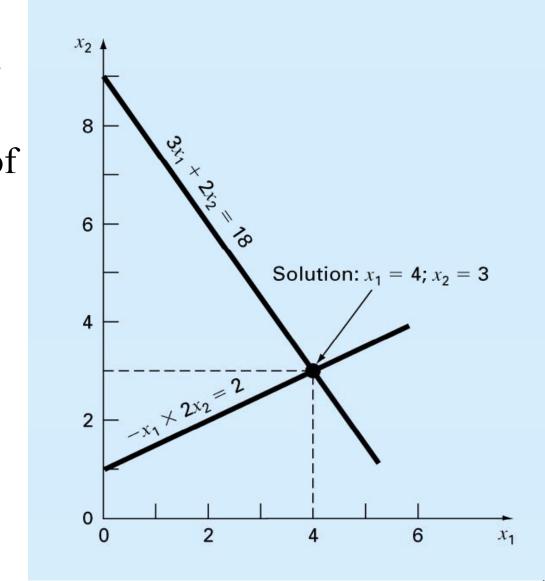
$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$
$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$$

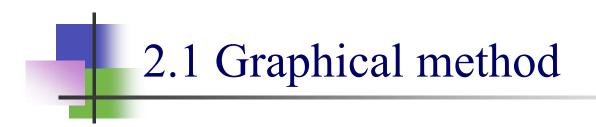
Solve both equations for x<sub>2:</sub>

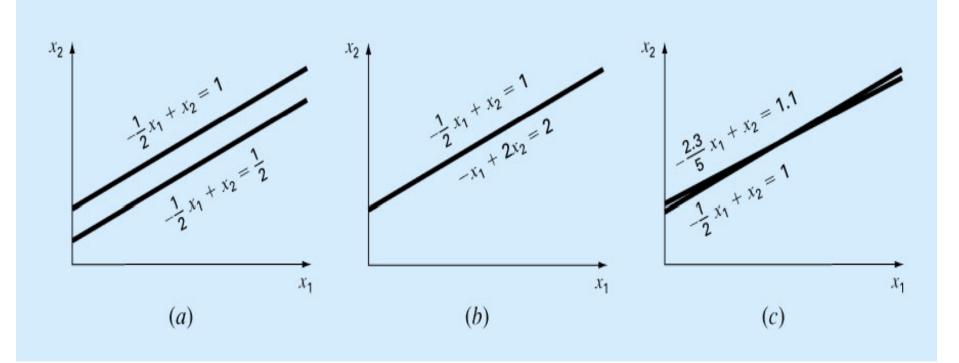
$$x_{2} = -\left(\frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}\right)x_{1} + \frac{b_{1}}{a_{12}} \\ x_{2} = -\left(\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}}\right)x_{1} + \frac{b_{2}}{a_{22}} \\ \Rightarrow x_{2} = (\text{slope})x_{1} + \text{intercept}$$

#### 2.1 Graphical method

 Plot x<sub>2</sub> vs. x<sub>1</sub> on rectilinear paper, the intersection of the lines present the solution.







- (a) No solution
- (b) Infinite solutions
- (c) Ill-conditioned (Slopes are too close)

#### 2.2 Cramer's rule

- If [A] is order 1, then [A] has one element:
   A=[a<sub>11</sub>]
   the determinant is D=a<sub>11</sub>
- For a square matrix of order 2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

the determinant is  $D = a_{11} a_{22} - a_{21} a_{12}$ 

2.2 Cramer's rule

For a square matrix of order 3  $D = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}D_{11} - a_{12}D_{12} + a_{13}D_{13}$  $D_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{22} a_{33} - a_{32} a_{23}$  $D_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{21} a_{33} - a_{31} a_{23}$  $D_{13} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{21} a_{32} - a_{31} a_{22}$ 

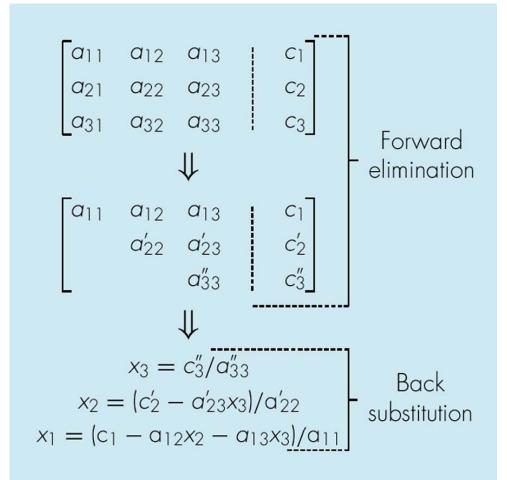
2.2 Cramer's rule

• For a square matrix of order 3

$$x_{1} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_{1} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ b_{2} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ b_{3} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_{1} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ b_{2} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ b_{3} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}}{D}$$

# 2.3 Gaussian Elimination

- the technique for *n* equations consists of two phases:
  - Forward elimination of unknowns
  - Back substitution



2.3 Gaussian Elimination

$$\begin{cases} 2x + y - z = 8 \quad (L1) \\ -3x - y + 2z = -11 \quad (L2) \\ -2x + y + 2z = -3 \quad (L3) \end{cases}$$

$$(1) \begin{cases} L_2 + \frac{3}{2}L_1 \rightarrow L_2 \\ L_3 + L_1 \rightarrow L3 \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{cases} 2x + y - z = 8 \quad (L1) \\ 0 + 1/2 y + 1/2z = 1 \quad (L2) \\ 0 + 2 y + z = 5 \quad (L3) \end{cases}$$

$$(2) L_3 + (-4)L_2 \rightarrow L3 \rightarrow \begin{cases} 2x + y - z = 8 \quad (L1) \\ 0 + 1/2 y + 1/2z = 1 \quad (L2) \\ 0 + 0 + -z = 1 \quad (L3) \end{cases}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$
  
Case:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ 0 & u_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{cases} l_{11} \cdot u_{11} + 0 \cdot 0 &= 4 \\ l_{11} \cdot u_{12} + 0 \cdot u_{22} &= 3 \\ l_{21} \cdot u_{11} + l_{22} \cdot 0 &= 6 \\ l_{21} \cdot u_{12} + l_{22} \cdot u_{22} &= 3 \end{cases}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$
  
Case:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ 0 & u_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{cases} l_{11} \cdot u_{11} + 0 \cdot 0 &= 4 \\ l_{11} \cdot u_{12} + 0 \cdot u_{22} &= 3 \\ l_{21} \cdot u_{11} + l_{22} \cdot 0 &= 6 \end{bmatrix} if \begin{cases} l_{11} = 1 \\ l_{22} = 1 \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{cases} u_{11} + 0 \cdot 0 &= 4 \\ u_{12} + 0 \cdot u_{22} &= 3 \\ l_{21} \cdot u_{11} + l_{22} \cdot u_{22} &= 3 \end{cases}$$

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# $Ax = b \rightarrow LUx = b \rightarrow \begin{cases} Ly = b \\ Ux = y \end{cases}$

2.4 Gaussian Elimination & LU Factorization

Each  $\mathbf{E}_{i}$  introduces zeros below diagonal of column i:

 $E_3E_2E_1A = U \longrightarrow A = LU$  where  $L = (E_3E_2E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}E_3^{-1}$ 

### 2.4 Gaussian Elimination & LU Factorization

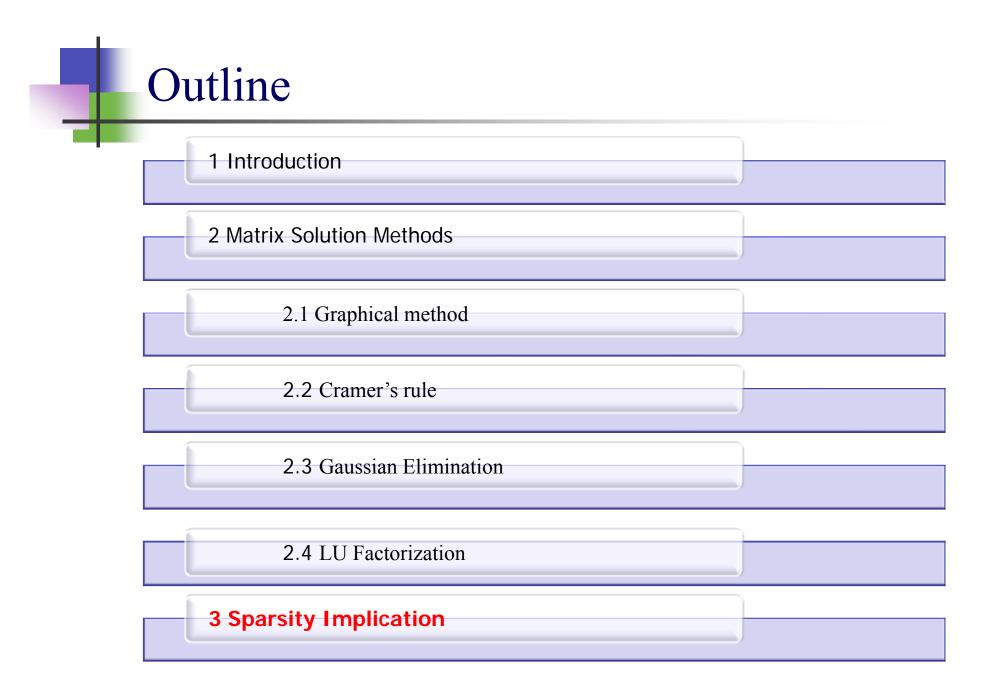
- $\begin{cases} \mathbf{E}_{n} \mathbf{E}_{n-1} \cdots \mathbf{E}_{2} \mathbf{E}_{1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{E}_{n} \mathbf{E}_{n-1} \cdots \mathbf{E}_{2} \mathbf{E}_{1} \mathbf{b} \longleftrightarrow \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{E}_{n} \mathbf{E}_{n-1} \cdots \mathbf{E}_{2} \mathbf{E}_{1} \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \longleftrightarrow \mathbf{L} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \end{cases}$
- $\begin{cases} For Gaussian Elimination: \mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{E}_{n}\mathbf{E}_{n-1}\cdots\mathbf{E}_{2}\mathbf{E}_{1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{L}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \\ For LU: \mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \end{cases}$

*if* vector **b** varies each simulation step,

For Gaussian Elimination we should store U and  $L^{-1}$  and calculate  $L^{-1}b$ . For LU *method*, we should store L and U. As  $L^{-1}$  is a dense matrix, so Gaussian Elimination method is less efficient than LU method.

## 2.4 Arithmetic Complexity Analysis

- Gaussian elimination to solve a system of n equations for n unknowns requires
- > Divisions: n(n-1)/2
- > multiplications:  $(2n^3 + 3n^2 5n)/6$
- > Subtractions:  $(2n^3 + 3n^2 5n)/6$
- > Total of approximately:  $2n^3 / 3$  operations.
- > Thus it has **arithmetic complexity** of  $O(n^3)$ .
- LU decomposition requires 2n<sup>3</sup> / 3 floating point operations, if neglecting lower order terms





- Sparse linear equation system
- Storage of sparse linear equation
- LU factorization considering sparsity
- Typical sparse solver

## 3.2 Sparse linear equation system

- A sparse matrix is a matrix populated primarily with zeros.
- Why the coefficient matrix of linear equation system is sparse?
- Sparsity comes from the loose coupling of systems.

# 3.2 How to utilize the sparsity

- The required memory will be greatly reduced, if proper data structure is used to avoid storing of the zero elements.
- The number of operations is also greatly reduced, if the operations involved zero elements are avoided.
- Without sparse techniques, it is impractical to solve some very large systems with direct method.

### 3.3 Storage of sparse linear equation

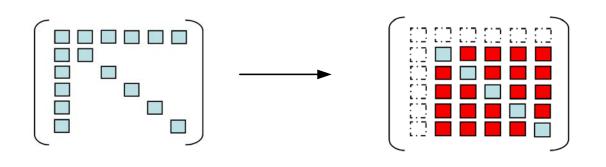
- Static or dynamic structures can be used to store sparse matrix.
- The triplet form and compressed-column form / compressed-row form are widely used.

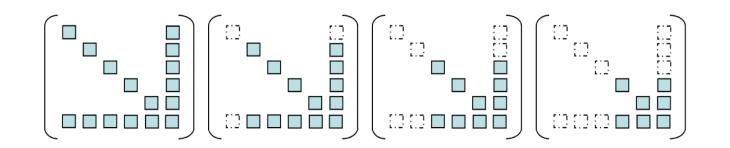
# 3.4 LU factorization considering sparsity

- Apply the gauss elimination process to matrix represented with sparse storage structure.
- The main step of Gauss Elimination or LU factorization is multiplying one row with a number and then adding it to another row.

non-zero		non-zero	
		$\downarrow$	
non-zero	$\rightarrow$	fill-in	

 Investigation shows that the number of fillins in Gauss Elimination process is greatly affected by ordering of the matrix.

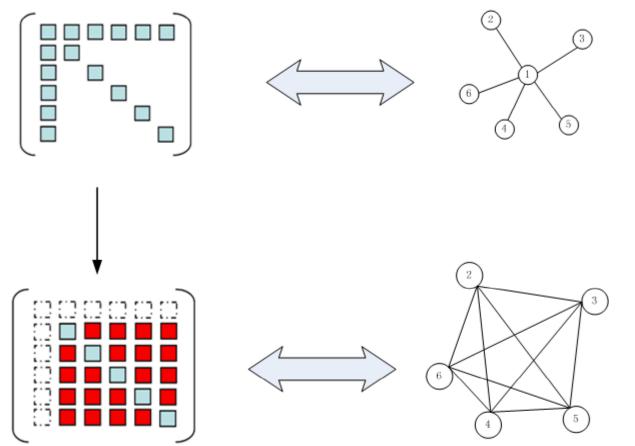




- The non-zero pattern of a square sparse matrix can be represented by a graph.
- For any square sparse matrix, the number of vertices in the graph equals to the order of the matrix.
- If aij is a none-zero entry, there is an edge from node i to node j in the directed graph.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \times \\ x \times \\ x \times \\ x \times \\ x \times \end{pmatrix}$$

For a symmetric matrix, a connection from node i to node j implies there must be a connection from node j to node i. So, the arrows may be dropped.

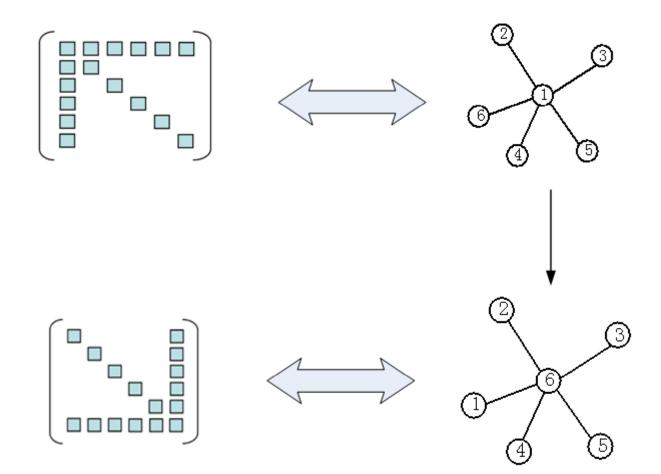


- The fill-in will greatly affect the operation numbers needed to perform Guass Elimination and Forward/Backward substitution.
- Therefore, we need to find the best ordering to generate the least fill-ins.
- However, the bad news is that: Determining the best ordering in the elimination process which results in the minimum number of fill-ins is NP-Hard.

- This implies that minimizing the work of performing Gauss Elimination is more costly than itself, which is a P-Hard problem.
- The good news is that we can approximate this minimum using graph-based heuristics.
- One such heuristic is to always select the vertex with minimum degree.



• For example:

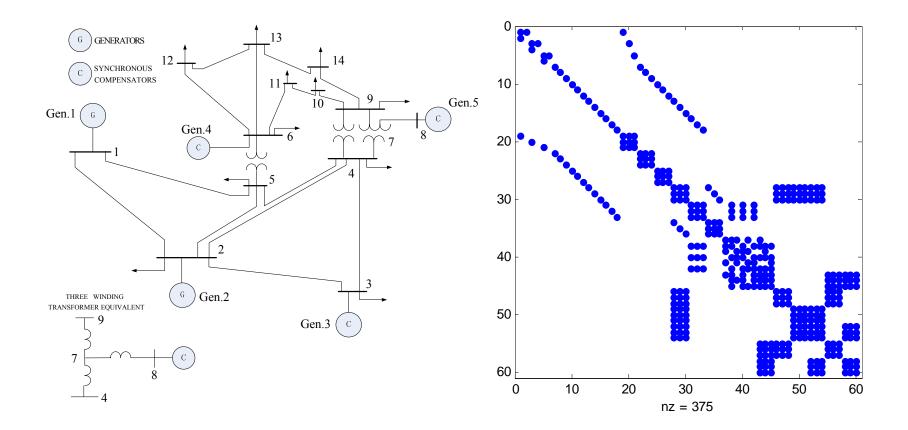


# 3.5 Typical sparse solver

- One typical solver consists of the following steps:
- Symbolic analysis
- Numerical factorization
- Forward and backward substitution

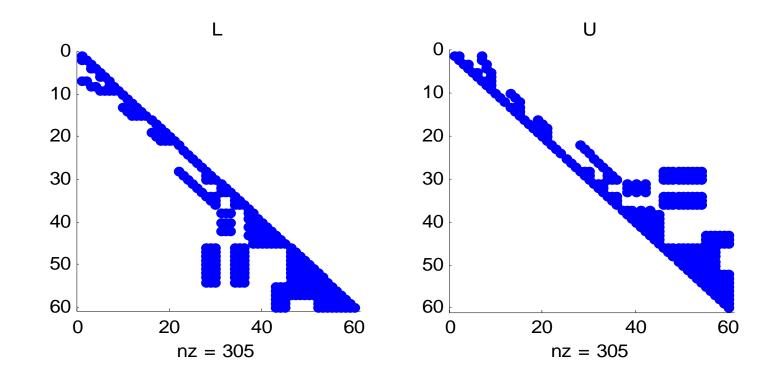
# 3.6 IEEE-14 system case

 The linear equation of the IEEE-14 system has 60 unknown variables.



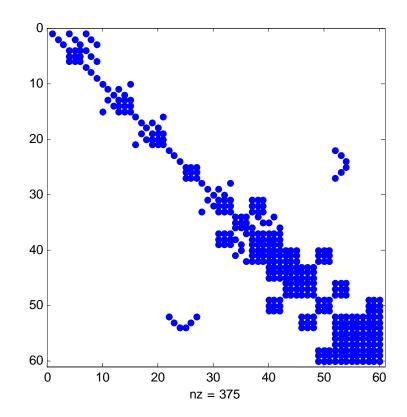


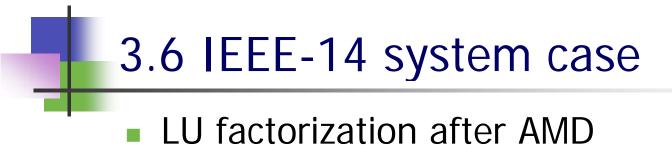
LU factorization with natural ordering



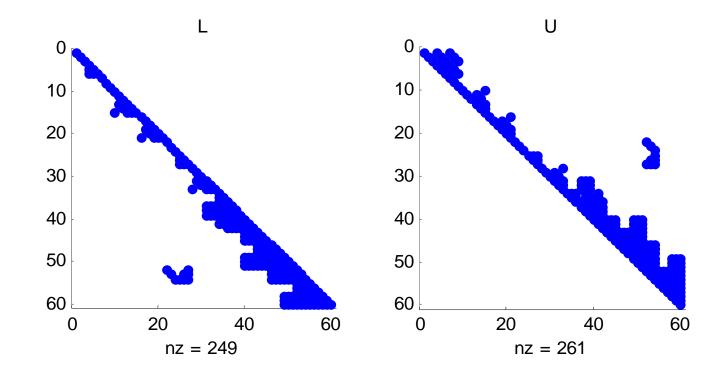
# 3.6 IEEE-14 system case

 Non-zero pattern after Approximate Minimum Degree ordering.



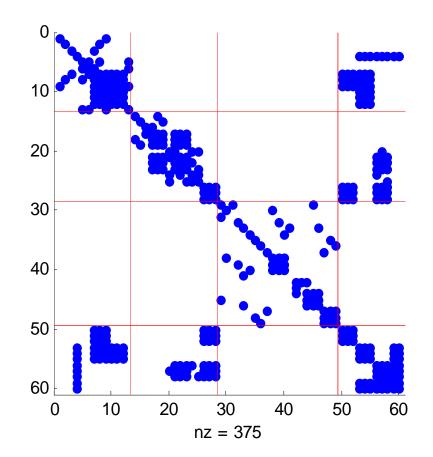


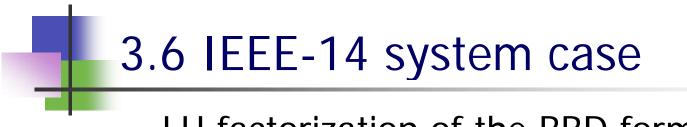
#### LU TACIONZALION AITER AIVID



# 3.6 IEEE-14 system case

 Non-zero pattern of Bordered Block Diagonal (BBD) form.





LU factorization of the BBD form

