Parallel Fast Direct Solver: applications to **Uncertainty Management**

An overview of the \mathcal{H} -matrix framework

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Context

 \mathcal{H} -matrices

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Conclusions & perspectives

Context

Introduction

Several applications in statistics lead to large and dense matrices :

- Kriging;
- applications using large covariance matrices (ex : random Gaussian sampling).

Kriging

- Symetric Positive Definite (SPD) matrix;
- Many solves;
- Usually,
 - Cholesky decomposition $M = LL^T$;
 - Forward/Backward substitutions.

Kriging

in a nutshell

Let $Z: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be some random process, stationnary of order 2. We have N observation points $\left\{x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d / i = 1, \ldots, N\right\}$ with values $Z(x_i)$. Let assume that the covariance of these points is known and given by a matrix $K \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ with

$$K_{ij} = \operatorname{Cov}(Z(x_i), Z(x_j))$$

An estimation of the mean trajectory is a linear interpolation $\tilde{Z}(x_0)$ of Z at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\tilde{Z}(x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i(x_0) Z(x_i)$$

The weights α_i are solution of the linear system

$$K\alpha = K_0$$
 where $(K_0)_i := \text{Cov}(Z(x_0), Z(x_i))$

Kriging

writing the systems

- K is SPD (covariance matrix);
- usually K is not known exactly :
 - modelled as a convolution matrix of a kernel $k: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$:

$$K_{ij} := k(x_i, x_j)$$

- what is k?
 - Exponential :

$$k(x,y) = e^{-|x-y|/\lambda}$$

• Gaussian :

$$k(x, y) = e^{-|x-y|^2/(2\lambda^2)}$$

• Quadratic :

$$k(x,y) = \left(1 + \frac{|x-y|}{2\lambda}\right)^{-2}$$

- N can be large. For instance, every node in a FEM discretization;
- The interpolation is sought at many points x_0 .

Kriging solving the system

- K is ill-conditionned, many RHS: direct solver;
- K is SPD : Cholesky.

Complexity (LAPACK)

- Cholesky factorization (DPOTRF) : $1/3N^3 + 1/2N^2 + 1/6N$
- Solving (DPOTRS) : $N_{\rm RHS} \times 2N^2$
- Storage : $8N^2/2$

Need of a fast direct solver : \mathcal{H} -matrix framework.

Let X_N be a uniform discretization of [0,1] with the discretization step $h = \frac{1}{N-1}$:

$$X_N = \{0 = x_1, \dots, x_N = 1\}$$

The correlation length λ is set to $\lambda := 5h$ and the exponential kernel in 1D reads as

$$K_{\lambda}(x_i,x_j)=e^{-|x_i-x_j|/\lambda}$$

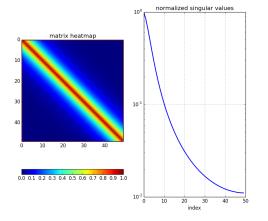


FIGURE – the covariance matrix $K_{\lambda}([0,1],[0,1])$

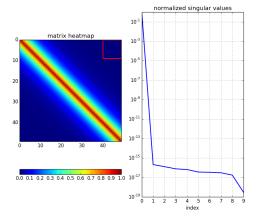


FIGURE – small extra-diagonal block : $K_{\lambda}([0, 0.2], [0.8, 1])$

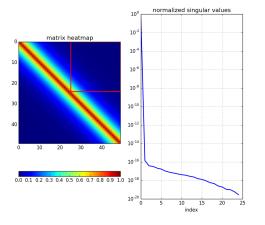


FIGURE – large extra-diagonal block : $K_{\lambda}([0,0.5],[0.5,1])$

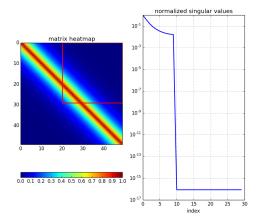


FIGURE – taking a part of the diagonal : $K_{\lambda}([0,0.6],[0.4,1])$

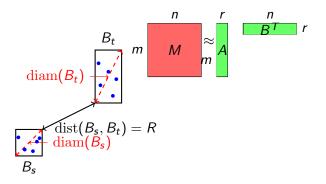
Whenever x_i and x_j are in disjoint sets the kernel reads as a separated one. For instance; if $x_i > x_j$ then

$$K_{\lambda}(x_i, x_j) = e^{(x_j - x_i)/\lambda} = e^{x_j/\sqrt{\lambda}} e^{-x_i/\sqrt{\lambda}},$$

which is of rank 1.

 \mathcal{H} -matrices

Admissibility gives low-rank



Usual condition:

$$\min(\operatorname{diam}(B_t),\operatorname{diam}(B_s))\leqslant \eta\operatorname{dist}(B_t,B_s)$$
 (admissibility condition)

The separation condition R = 0 gives the **HODLR**(Hierarchically **O**ff-**D**iagonal **L**ow-**R**ank) structure described by the 1D toy model.

Low-rank approximation: compression techniques

- SVD · $M \approx U \Sigma V^H$
 - Rank and precision controlled:
 - Costly $\mathcal{O}(4m^2n + 8mn^2 + 9n^3)$ (hyp: m > n)
- Existence of cross approximations : row/col. extraction (Goreinov & Tyrtyshnikov '97);
- Gaussian/LU rank-revealing scheme known as Full Cross Approximations:
- 1: **while** $||M|| > \varepsilon ||M_0||$: **do**
- $\operatorname{rank}(M) \leftarrow \operatorname{rank}(M) + 1$
- Find the coefficient $M_{i^*i^*}$ so that $M_{i^*i^*} = \max_{i,j} |M_{ij}|, \alpha =$ 3: $M_{i^*i^*}$
- $M \leftarrow M \frac{1}{\alpha}M(:,j^*)M(i^*,:)$
- 5: end while

The fast determination of the pivot is the main idea of all fast algorithms. Key points to speed up the full cross approximation:

- Partially pivoted Cross Approximation.
 - We seek the largest pivot over a column and/or a row in $\mathcal{O}(m)$ instead of $\mathcal{O}(m^2)$ operations.
 - Only the modified coefficients of the remainder are computed at each step.
- Adaptive CA algorithm: a fast (linear) estimation of the remainder.
- ACA+ and other variants use other heuristics.
- Trade-off between robustness (SVD) and efficiency (ACA/ACA+): computations from $O(m^2n + mn^2)(SVD)$ to $\mathcal{O}(mnr)$ (fullCA) to $\mathcal{O}((m+n)r^2)$ (ACA).

- Use of bounding boxes: easier to handle than point clouds;
- Recursive splitting strategy (Divide and Conquer strategy) thanks to **nested bisection**:
 - geometric: the box is split in two halves along the largest axis;
 - median: each half contains roughly the same number of unknowns:
 - others (PCA,...).
- Split the boxes until each box contains a fixed small number of unknowns:
- Result : binary tree.

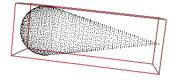


FIGURE – Illustration of the geometric clustering on a cone-sphere.

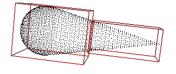


FIGURE – Illustration of the geometric clustering on a cone-sphere.

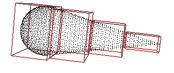


FIGURE – Illustration of the geometric clustering on a cone-sphere.



FIGURE – Illustration of the geometric clustering on a cone-sphere.

Blockclustering: Clustering & Admissibility

It is a quad-tree whose nodes are matrix blocks and the leaves are admissible (or small) blocks; a block is split in a 2×2 block structure.

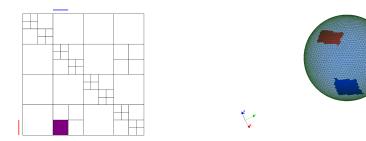


TABLE - Blockclustering and the geometry

The \mathcal{H} -matrix structure

A \mathcal{H} -matrix is a **quadtree** (with Binary Space Partitioning) :

- Internal nodes : subdivided H-matrix ;
- Leaves :
 - admissible block : large & low-rank;
 - inadmissible block : dense & full rank, but small.

Remarks

- Only the leaves carry data;
- Big admissible blocks ($10^4 \times 10^4$ and more)
- Small (and few) inadmissible blocks (100×100).

Each admissible block is compressed with a fast method thus determining a numerical rank with a prescribed relative error ε .

Operations: three kinds

- H -BLAS1&2: Assembly, AXPY, GEMV Simple. Operating only on leaves.
- H -BLAS3: GEMM, TRSV More involved. Operations at many different levels of the same sub-tree.
- \mathcal{H} -LAPACK : Inverse, LU. LL^T . Uses BLAS2 and BLAS3 operations, harder to implement in parallel.

Base operations

All operations use BLAS/LAPACK. Typical subroutines are: SVD, QR, LU, TRSV, GEMM and GEMV.

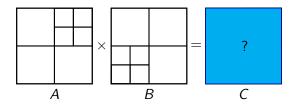
Addition

- Usually structures must be the same;
- 3 different base cases :
 - sum of two dense matrices (usual dense operation);
 - sum of a dense and a low-rank matrix;
 - sum of two low-rank matrices.

Useful pointers

- Adding two low-rank matrices: unknown final rank
- Costly operation!

Multiplication

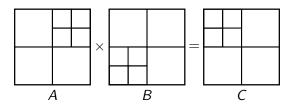


Main issues

Let $C = A \times B$ the product of 2 \mathcal{H} -matrices.

- What is the 'best' structure of C?
- Uniqueness?
- What if it is imposed?

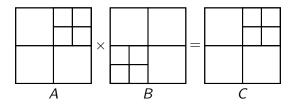
Multiplication



Main issues

Let $C = A \times B$ the product of 2 \mathcal{H} -matrices.

- What is the 'best' structure of C?
- Uniqueness? (here the literature definition)
- What if it is imposed?

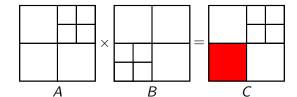


Main issues

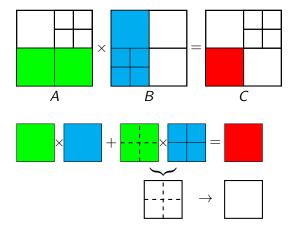
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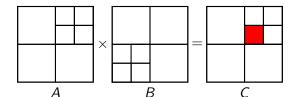
- What is the 'best' structure of C?
- Uniqueness?
- What if it is imposed? (e.g. in a LL^T factorization)

Multiplication: exemple 1

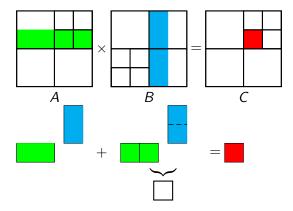


Multiplication: exemple 1





Multiplication: exemple 2



Cholesky factorization

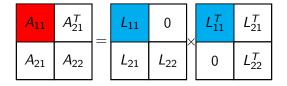
Recall : recursive block splitting based on the 2×2 block structure.

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21}^T \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} L_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} L_{11}^T & L_{21}^T \\ 0 & L_{22}^T \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} A_{11} & = & L_{11}L_{11}^T \\ A_{21} & = & L_{21}L_{11}^T \\ A_{22} & = & L_{21}L_{21}^T + L_{22}L_{22}^T \end{array}$$

Cholesky factorization

Recall : recursive block splitting based on the 2×2 block structure.



$$\begin{array}{lcl} A_{11} & = & L_{11}L_{11}^T & \text{(recursive call)} \\ A_{21} & = & L_{21}L_{11}^T \\ A_{22} & = & L_{21}L_{21}^T + L_{22}L_{22}^T \end{array}$$

Cholesky factorization

Recall : recursive block splitting based on the 2×2 block structure.

$$\begin{array}{lcl} A_{11} & = & L_{11}L_{11}^T \\ A_{21} & = & L_{21}L_{11}^T & \text{(upper triangular solve)} \\ A_{22} & = & L_{21}L_{21}^T + L_{22}L_{22}^T \end{array}$$

Cholesky factorization

Recall : recursive block splitting based on the 2×2 block structure.

$$\begin{array}{lll} A_{11} & = & L_{11}L_{11}^T \\ A_{21} & = & L_{21}L_{11}^T \\ A_{22} & = & L_{21}L_{21}^T + L_{22}L_{22}^T \end{array} \qquad (\mathcal{H}\text{-matrix GEMM then recursive call}) \end{array}$$

Computation details

Typical issues

The \mathcal{H} -matrix algorithms are not nice for the hardware :

- Very small operations;
- Oddly-shaped matrices: "Tall & skinny";
- High memory band.

Observations

- Most (70-80%) of the time spent in :
 - QR decompositions of T&S matrices;
 - SVD decompositions of small matrices.
- BLAS implementions cannot reach the peak performance;
- Very high memory bandwidth.

Complexity estimates

Useful pointers

- Most complexity estimates assume a fixed upper bound k for the low-rank matrices involved;
- The structure of the matrix (as represented by a tree) is important as well: a large depth with small blocks is typically a bad omen.

Common operations

For a matrix size of $N \times N$ with the previous assumptions :

- assembly : time and storage is in $O(kN \log N)$;
- addition : $\mathcal{O}(k^2N \log N)$ operations;
- multiplication and Cholesky factorisation : $\mathcal{O}(k^3 N \log^3 N)$ operations;
- in practice a $\mathcal{O}(N \log^2 N)$ complexity is observed.

Applications

- exponential kernel : $K(s,t) = e^{-|s-t|/\lambda}$
- prescribed relative error $\varepsilon = 10^{-4}$;
- HODLR admissibility;
- 1D exponential kernel: provably rank-one when HODLR.
- 'exact model' is the second Hermite function $\psi_2(x) = (2x^2 - 1)e^{-\frac{1}{2}x}$:
- input data as a gaussian distribution;
- here: one iteration of optimization loop, correlation length $\lambda = 0.01$.

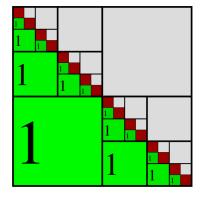


FIGURE – Lower part of the covariance matrix : rank map.

- matrix size 1000×1000 ;
- compression ratio : $\approx 12\%$ (small case!)

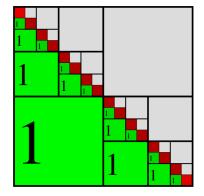


FIGURE – Cholesky factor : rank map.

- matrix size 1000×1000 ;
- compression ratio : $\approx 12\%$ (small case!)

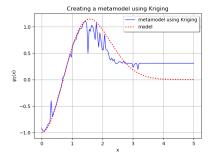


FIGURE - Surface response using kriging

- compression ratio : $\approx 12\%$ (small case!);
- same response with LAPACK and HMAT solver;
- maximum absolute error between two approximates : 1.55×10^{-15} .

Performances - computational time

the exponential kernel in 1D

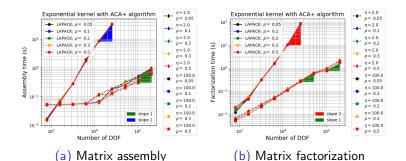


FIGURE - Computational time vs matrix size

Performances - memory

the exponential kernel in 1D

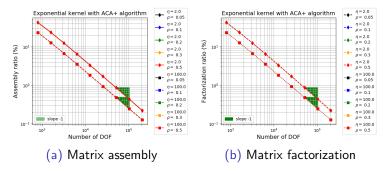


FIGURE - Memory vs matrix size

3D exemple: a cantilever beam

 The vertical deflection y of a cantilever beam's free end of fixed length L reads as

$$y = \frac{FL^3}{3EI},$$

where:

- E is the Young modulus;
- F is the load;
- *I* is the moment of inertia.
- Input variables x = (F, E, I) are assumed random;
- Variable of interest (output) is the deflection y estimated thanks to the model \mathcal{M}

$$\mathcal{M}: x \mapsto y$$

• Building a metamodel $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$ through Kriging and optimization loop for parameters : one \mathcal{H} -matrix at each iteration to treat the covariance matrix associated with a specified covariance model.

The chosen covariance model $K_{\lambda}(s,t)$ is the following tensor product:

$$e^{-(s_1-t_1)/\lambda_1}e^{-(s_2-t_2)/\lambda_2}e^{-(s_3-t_3)/\lambda_3}$$
.

- Let $\lambda_1 = 3.96528$, $\lambda_2 = 5.8237$ and $\lambda_3 = 9.0679$ be the starting coefficients for the optimization.
- Degrees of freedom to be clustered within the \mathcal{H} -matrix framework:

```
"Young modulus";"Load";"Inertia"
3.6258375026 + 07:4.797336026 + 04:3.5171332517 + 02
3.1382130227 + 07; 3.350317520 + 04; 3.5324327901 + 02
```

Results

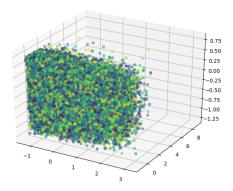


FIGURE – Input data : 5×10^4 entries.

• covariance matrix of size $5.10^4 \times 5.10^4$, symmetric and double precision : full size in memory is $10{\rm Go}$.

Results

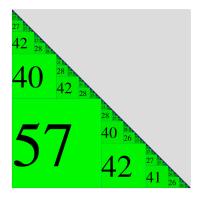


FIGURE – Lower part of the covariance matrix : rank map.

- memory: 167Mo (compression ratio: 1.67%);
- assembly time: 11.83s

Results

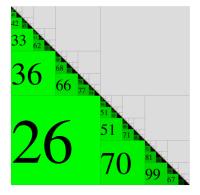


FIGURE – Cholesky factor : rank map.

- memory: 263Mo (compression ratio: 2.63%);
- Cholesky time: 17.84s

Conclusions & perspectives

Summing up the \mathcal{H} -matrices method

- Three key components for assembling a \mathcal{H} -matrix :
 - The clustering of degrees of freedom (e.g. geometric);
 - An admissibility condition = which block to compress;
 - A fast on-the-fly algorithm to assembly low-rank admissible blocks.
- An algebra on H-matrices :
 - Multiplications and additions of *H*-matrices;
 - Fast factorization of an \mathcal{H} -matrix with the same structure :
 - Fast direct solver;
 - Good preconditioner for iterative solver.

Conclusion

- The \mathcal{H} -matrix framework is an enabler for many statistics problems;
- Sequential solver is freely available through OpenTurns;
- Efficient parallel solver through licensing (contact Airbus & Imacs).