

## **SPECTRAL DENSITIES**

## *Spectral Densities - Introduction*

- Spectral density == function that provides a global representation of the spectrum of a Hermitian matrix
- Known in solid state physics as '*Density of States*' (DOS)
- Very useful in physics
- Almost unknown (as a tool) in numerical linear algebra

# Density of States

- Formally, the Density Of States (DOS) of a matrix  $A$  is

$$\phi(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \delta(t - \lambda_j),$$

- where:
- $\delta$  is the Dirac  $\delta$ -function or Dirac distribution
  - $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$

- DOS is also referred to as the **spectral density**

- Note: number of eigenvalues in an interval  $[a, b]$  is

$$\mu_{[a,b]} = \int_a^b \sum_j \delta(t - \lambda_j) dt \equiv \int_a^b n\phi(t) dt .$$

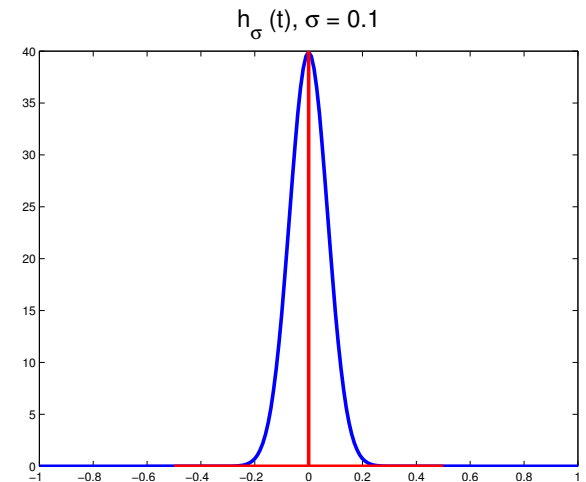
## Issue: How to deal with distributions?

- Highly ‘discontinuous’, not easy to handle numerically
- Solution for practical and theoretical purposes: replace  $\phi$  by a regularized (‘blurred’) version  $\phi_\sigma$ :

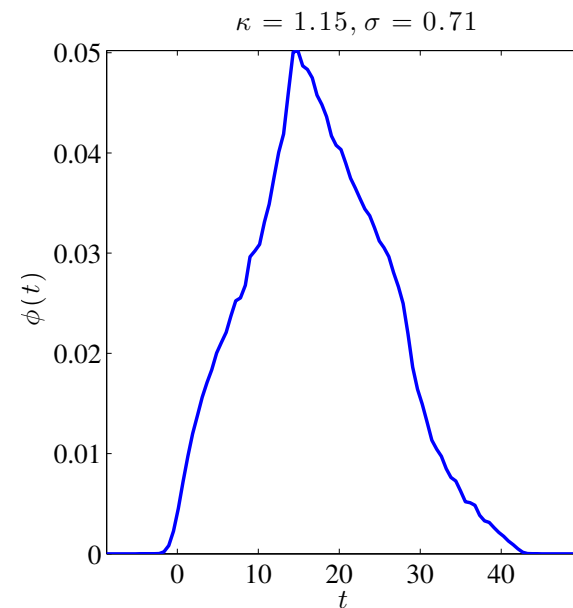
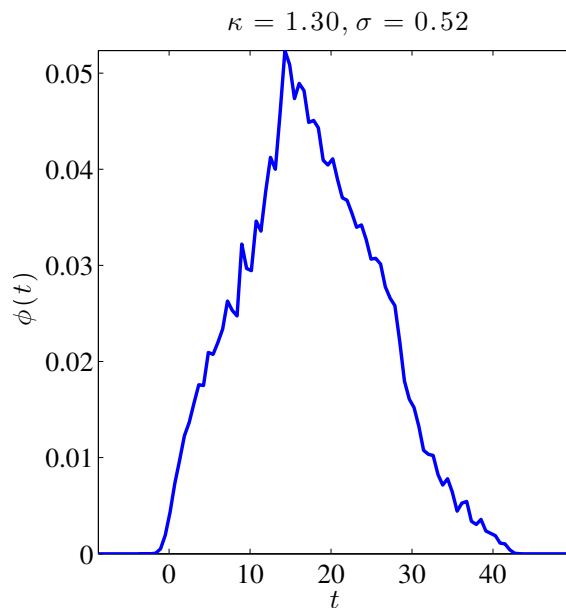
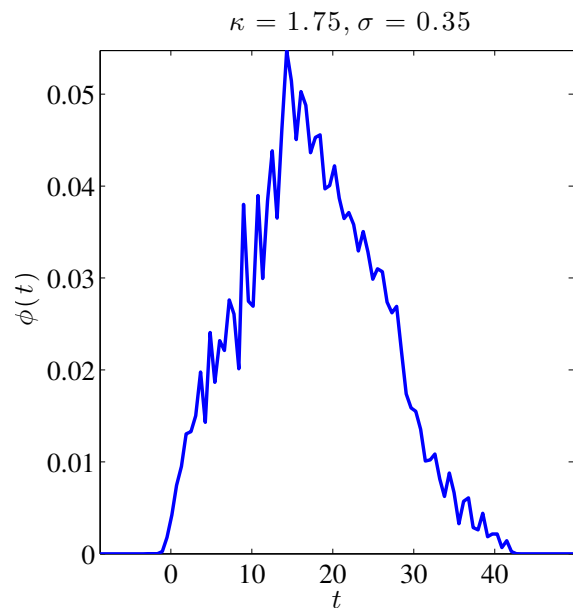
Where, for example:  $h_\sigma(t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ .

- Smoothed  $\phi(t)$  can be viewed as a probability distribution function for the spectrum

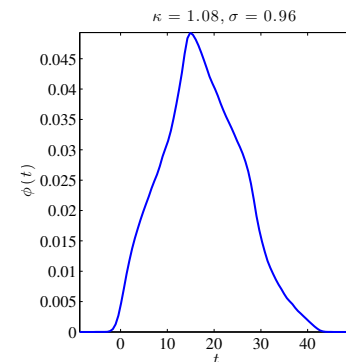
$$\phi_\sigma(t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n h_\sigma(t - \lambda_j),$$



## ➤ How to select smoothing parameter $\sigma$ ? Example for $Si_2$



- Higher  $\sigma \rightarrow$  smoother curve
- But loss of detail ..
- Compromise:  $\sigma = \frac{h}{2\sqrt{2\log(\kappa)}}$ ,
- $h =$  resolution,  $\kappa =$  parameter  $> 1$



# Computing the DOS: The Kernel Polynomial Method

- Used by Chemists to calculate the DOS – see Silver and Röder'94 , Wang '94, Drabold-Sankey'93, + others
- Basic idea: expand DOS into Chebyshev polynomials
- Use trace estimator to get traces needed in calculations ➤ Assume change of variable done so eigenvalues lie in  $[-1, 1]$ .

- To avoid weight function expand  $\sqrt{1-t^2}\phi \rightarrow$

$$\hat{\phi}(t) = \sqrt{1-t^2} \times \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \delta(t - \lambda_j).$$

- Then, (full) expansion is:  $\hat{\phi}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mu_k T_k(t)$ . Question:  $\mu_k = ??$

- Expansion coefficients  $\mu_k$  are formally defined by:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_k &= \frac{2 - \delta_{k0}}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} T_k(t) \hat{\phi}(t) dt \\ &= \frac{2 - \delta_{k0}}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} T_k(t) \sqrt{1-t^2} \phi(t) dt \\ &= \frac{2 - \delta_{k0}}{n\pi} \sum_{j=1}^n T_k(\lambda_j).\end{aligned}$$

- Here  $2 - \delta_{k0} == 1$  when  $k = 0$  and  $== 2$  otherwise.

- Note:  $\sum T_k(\lambda_i) = \text{Trace}[T_k(A)]$  → Estimate this, e.g., via stochastic estimator

- Generate random vectors  $v^{(1)}, v^{(2)}, \dots, v^{(n_{\text{vec}})}$

➤ Each vector is normalized so that  $\|v^{(l)}\| = 1, l = 1, \dots, n_{\text{vec}}$ .

➤ Estimate the trace of  $T_k(A)$  with stochastic estimator:

$$\text{Trace}(T_k(A)) \approx \frac{1}{n_{\text{vec}}} \sum_{l=1}^{n_{\text{vec}}} (v^{(l)})^T T_k(A) v^{(l)}.$$

➤ Will lead to the desired estimate:

$$\mu_k \approx \frac{2 - \delta_{k0}}{n\pi n_{\text{vec}}} \sum_{l=1}^{n_{\text{vec}}} (v^{(l)})^T T_k(A) v^{(l)}.$$

➤ To compute scalars of the form  $v^T T_k(A) v$ , exploit 3-term recurrence of the Chebyshev polynomial:  $T_{k+1}(A)v = 2AT_k(A)v - T_{k-1}(A)v$

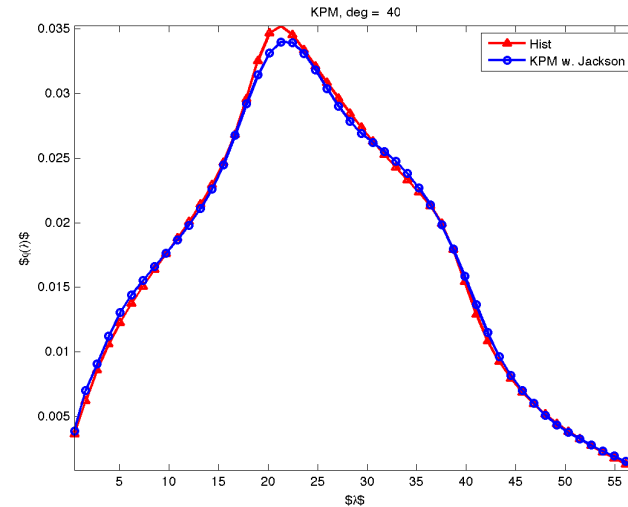
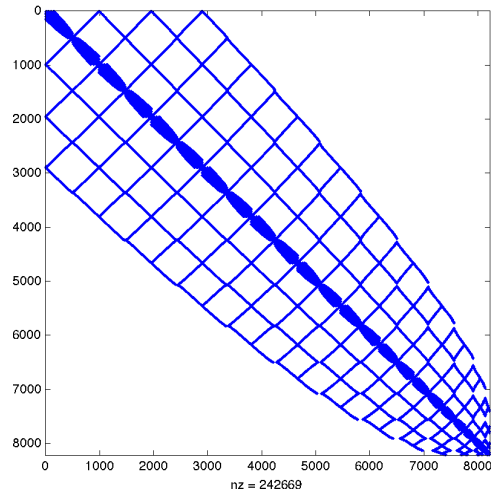
➤ If we let  $v_k \equiv T_k(A)v$ , we have

$$v_{k+1} = 2Av_k - v_{k-1}$$



# An example: The Benzene matrix

```
>> TestKpmDos  
Matrix Benzene n =8219 nnz = 242669  
Degree = 40 # sample vectors = 10  
Elapsed time is 0.235189 seconds.
```



# Use of the Lanczos Algorithm

- Recall: The Lanczos algorithm generates an orthonormal basis  $V_m = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m]$  for the Krylov subspace:

$$\text{span}\{v_1, Av_1, \dots, A^{m-1}v_1\}$$

- ... such that:

$$V_m^H A V_m = T_m \text{ - with}$$

$$T_m = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_2 & & & \\ \beta_2 & \alpha_2 & \beta_3 & & \\ & \beta_3 & \alpha_3 & \beta_4 & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ & & & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ & & & & \beta_m & \alpha_m \end{pmatrix}$$

- Lanczos process builds orthogonal polynomials wrt to dot product:

$$\int p(t)q(t)dt \equiv (p(A)v_1, q(A)v_1)$$

- Let  $\theta_i$ ,  $i = 1 \dots, m$  be the eigenvalues of  $T_m$  [Ritz values]
- $y_i$ 's associated eigenvectors; Ritz vectors:  $\{V_m y_i\}_{i=1:m}$
- Ritz values approximate eigenvalues
- Could compute  $\theta_i$ 's then get approximate DOS from these
- Problem:  $\theta_i$  not good enough approximations – especially inside the spectrum.

**Better idea:** exploit relation of Lanczos with (discrete) orthogonal polynomials and related Gaussian quadrature:

$$\int p(t) dt \approx \sum_{i=1}^m a_i p(\theta_i) \quad a_i = [e_1^T y_i]^2$$

- See, e.g., Golub & Meurant '93, and also Gautschi'81, Golub and Welsch '69.
- Formula exact when  $p$  is a polynomial of degree  $\leq 2m + 1$

➤ Consider now  $\int p(t)dt = \langle p, 1 \rangle =$  (Stieljes) integral  $\equiv$

$$(p(A)v, v) = \sum \beta_i^2 p(\lambda_i) \equiv \langle \phi_v, p \rangle$$

➤ Then  $\langle \phi_v, p \rangle \approx \sum a_i p(\theta_i) = \sum a_i \langle \delta_{\theta_i}, p \rangle \rightarrow$

$$\phi_v \approx \sum a_i \delta_{\theta_i}$$

➤ To mimick the effect of  $\beta_i = 1, \forall i$ , use several vectors  $v$  and average the result of the above formula over them..

● *Approximating spectral densities of large matrices*, Lin Lin, YS, and Chao Yang - SIAM Review '16. Also in:

[arXiv: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1308.5467>]

## Application 1: Eigenvalue counts

**Problem:** Given  $A$  (Hermitian) find an **estimate** of the number  $\mu_{[a,b]}$  of eigenvalues of  $A$  in  $[a, b]$ .

**Standard method:** Sylvester inertia theorem  $\rightarrow$  expensive!

**First alternative:** integrate the Spectral Density in  $[a, b]$ .

$$\mu_{[a,b]} \approx n \sum_{k=0}^m \mu_k \left( \int_a^b \frac{T_k(t)}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} dt \right) = \dots$$

**Second method:** Estimate trace of the related spectral projector  $P$   
( $\rightarrow u_i$ 's = eigenvectors  $\leftrightarrow \lambda_i$ 's)

$$P = \sum_{\lambda_i \in [a, b]} u_i u_i^T.$$

➤ It turns out that the 2 methods are identical.

## *Application 3: Estimating the rank*

- Very important problem in signal processing applications, machine learning, etc.
- Often: a certain rank is selected ad-hoc. Dimension reduction is application with this “guessed” rank.
- Can be viewed as a particular case of the eigenvalue count problem - but need a cutoff value..

## Approximate rank, Numerical rank

- Notion defined in various ways. A common one:

$$r_\epsilon = \min\{\text{rank}(B) : B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \|A - B\|_2 \leq \epsilon\},$$

$$r_\epsilon = \text{Number of sing. values} \geq \epsilon$$

- Two distinct problems:

1. Get a good  $\epsilon$       2. Estimate number of sing. values  $\geq \epsilon$

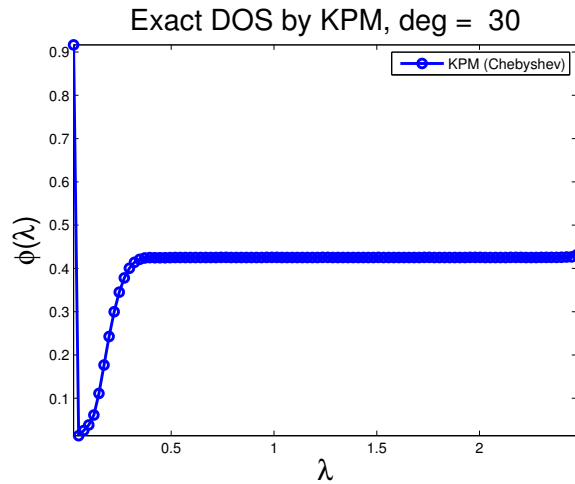
- We will need a cut-off value ('threshold')  $\epsilon$ .

- Could use 'noise level' for  $\epsilon$ , but not always available

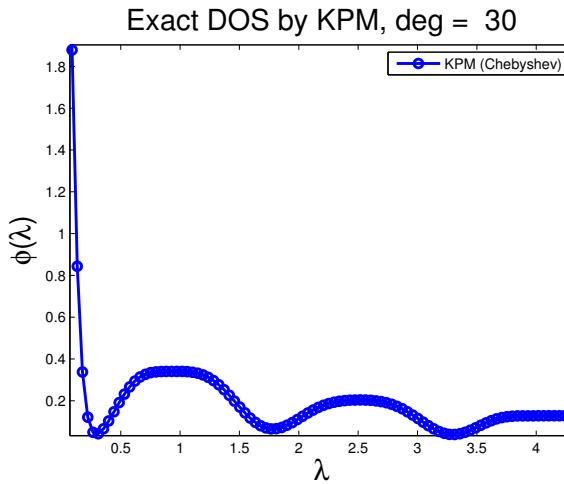


# Threshold selection

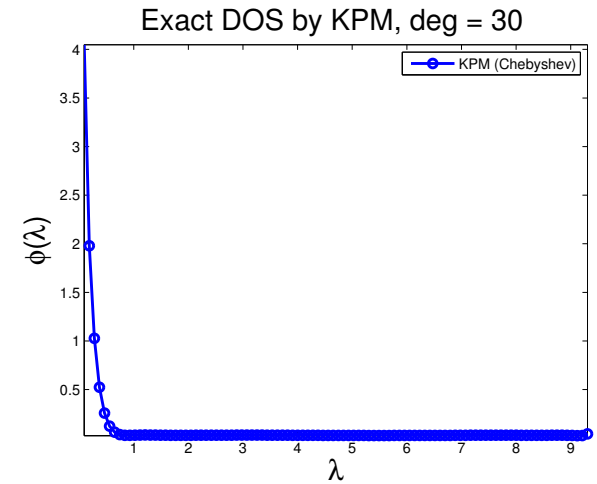
- How to select a good threshold?
- Answer: Obtain it from the DOS function



(A)



(B)



(C)

*Exact DOS plots for three different types of matrices.*

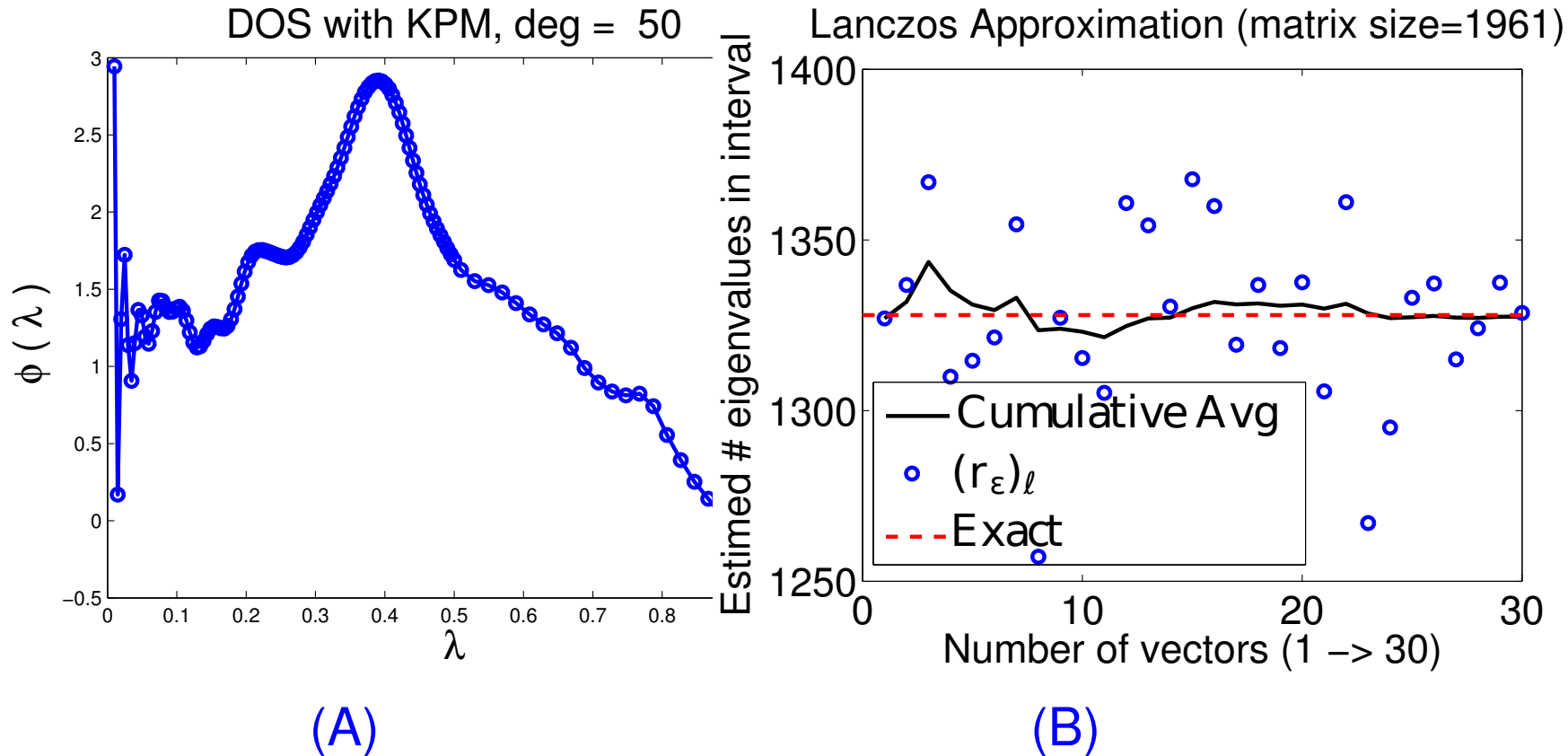
- To find: point immediately following the initial sharp drop observed.
- Simple idea: use derivative of DOS function  $\phi$
- For an  $n \times n$  matrix with eigenvalues  $\lambda_n \leq \lambda_{n-1} \leq \dots \leq \lambda_1$ :

$$\epsilon = \min\{t : \lambda_n \leq t \leq \lambda_1, \phi'(t) = 0\}.$$

- In practice replace by

$$\epsilon = \min\{t : \lambda_n \leq t \leq \lambda_1, |\phi'(t)| \geq \text{tol}\}$$

# Experiment: estimated rank by Lanczos for matrix *netz4504*.



(A) The DOS found by KPM. (B) Approximate rank estimation by Lanczos

## Tests with Matérn covariance matrices for grids

- Important in statistical applications

Approximate Rank Estimation of Matérn covariance matrices

Type of Grid (dimension)	Matrix Size	# $\lambda_i$ 's $\geq \epsilon$	$r_\epsilon$	
			KPM	Lanczos
1D regular Grid ( $2048 \times 1$ )	2048	16	16.75	15.80
1D no structure Grid ( $2048 \times 1$ )	2048	20	20.10	20.46
2D regular Grid ( $64 \times 64$ )	4096	72	72.71	72.90
2D no structure Grid ( $64 \times 64$ )	4096	70	69.20	71.23
2D deformed Grid ( $64 \times 64$ )	4096	69	68.11	69.45

- For all test  $M(deg) = 50, n_v=30$

## Application 4: The LogDeterminant

Evaluate the Log-determinant of  $A$ :

$$\log \det(A) = \text{Trace}(\log(A)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(\lambda_i).$$

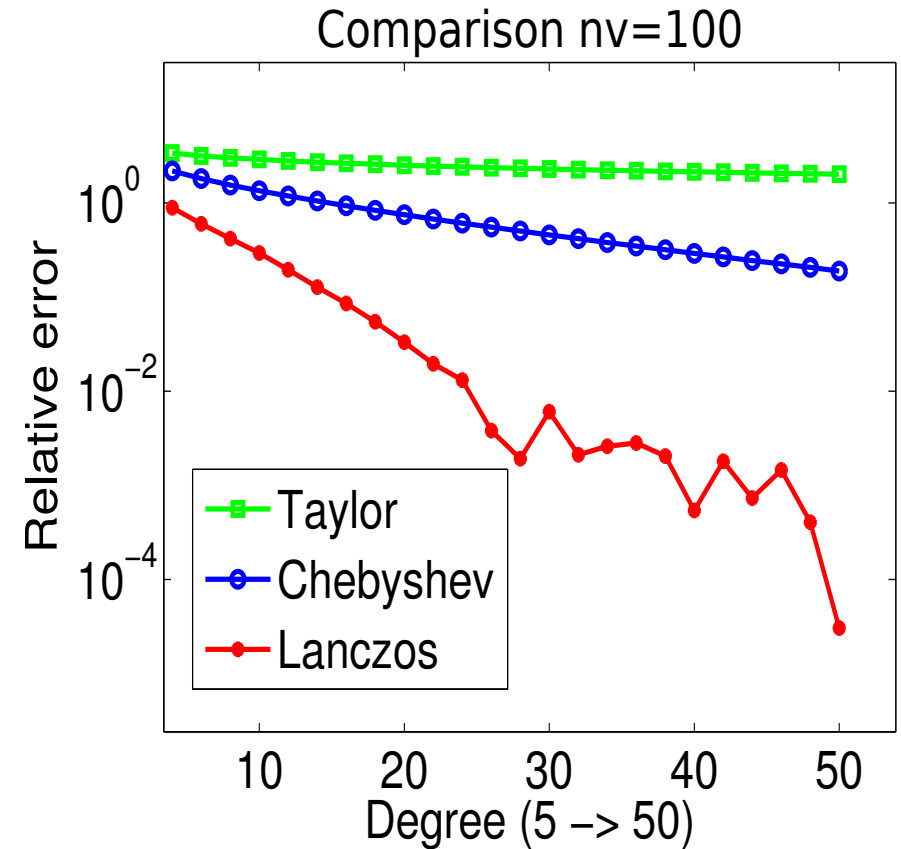
$A$  is SPD.

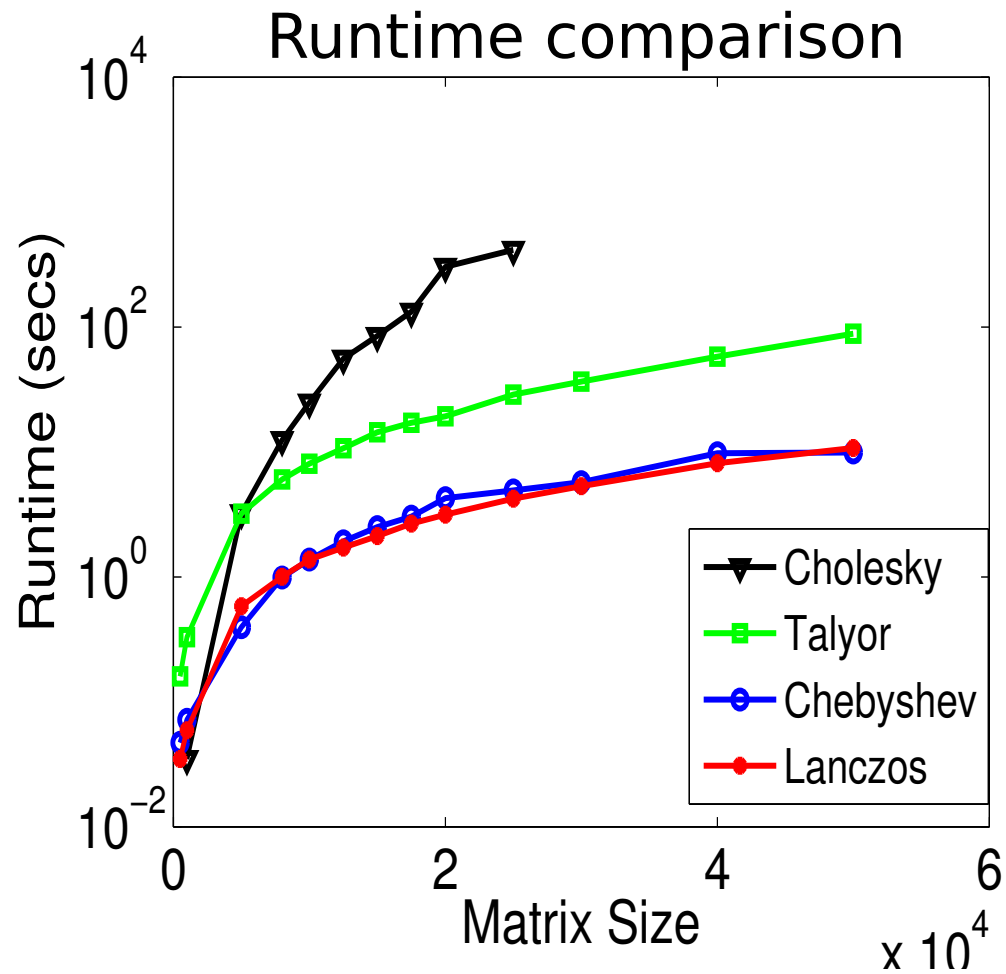
- Estimating the log-determinant of a matrix equivalent to estimating the trace of the matrix function  $f(A) = \log(A)$ .
- Can invoke Stochastic Lanczos Quadrature (SLQ) to estimate this trace.

Numerical example: A graph Laplacian `california` of size  $9664 \times 9664$ ,  $nz \approx 10^5$  from the Univ. of Florida collection.

*Rel. error vs degree*

- 3 methods: Taylor Series, Chebyshev expansion, SLQ
- # starting vectors  $nv = 100$  in all three cases.





➤ Many more applications!

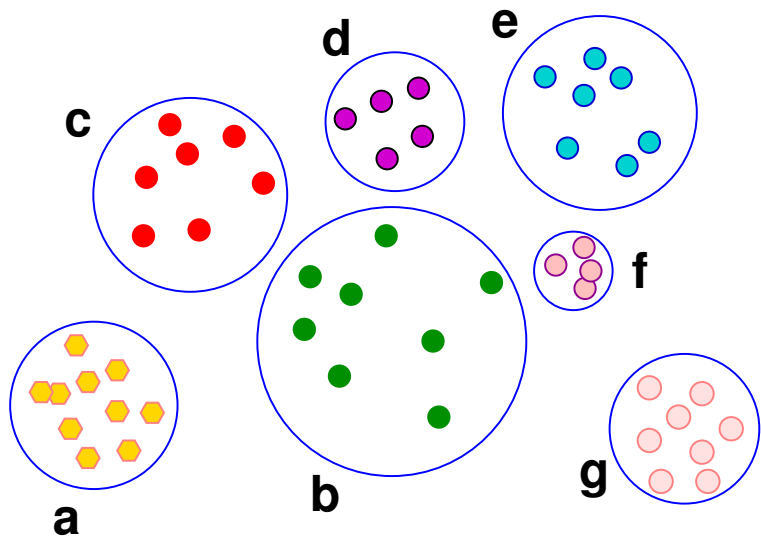
# **SUPERVISED LEARNING**



# Supervised learning

➤ We now have data that is 'labeled'

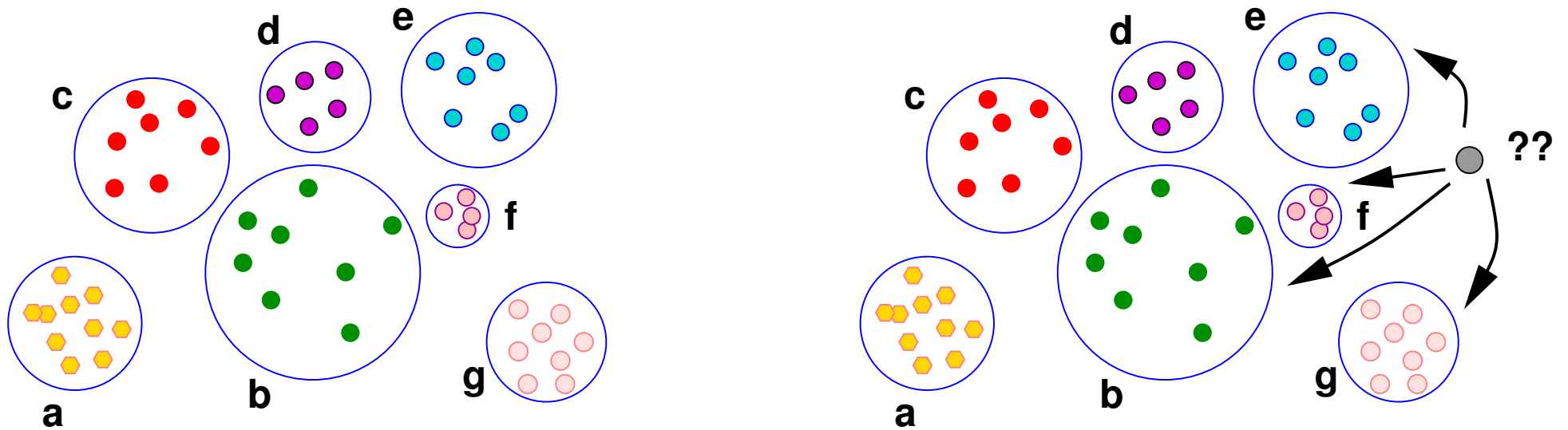
**Examples:** Health Sciences ('malignant'- 'non malignant') ; Materials ('photovoltaic', 'hard', 'conductor', ...) ; Digit Recognition ('0', '1', ..., '9')



# Supervised learning

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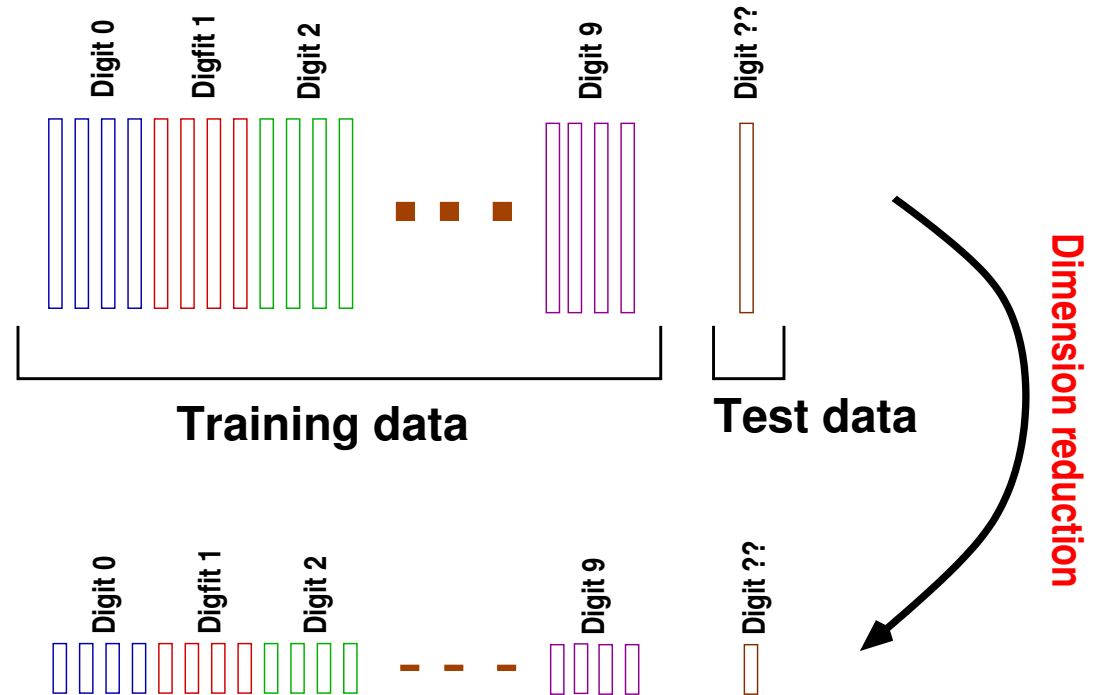


# Supervised learning: classification

- Best illustration: written digits recognition example

**Given:** set of labeled samples (training set), and an (unlabeled) test image  $x$ .

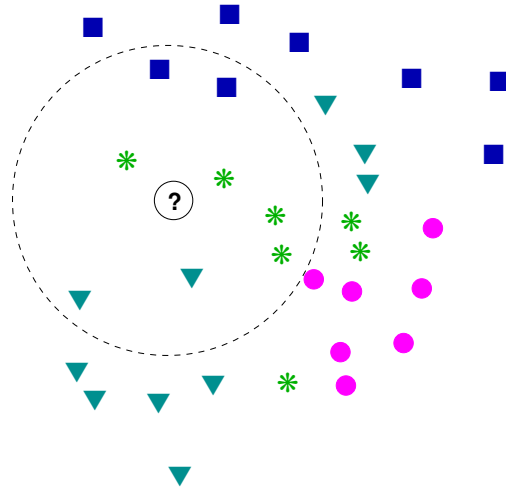
**Problem:** label of  $x = ?$



- Roughly speaking: we seek dimension reduction so that recognition is 'more effective' in low-dim. space

## Basic method: $K$ -nearest neighbors (KNN) classification

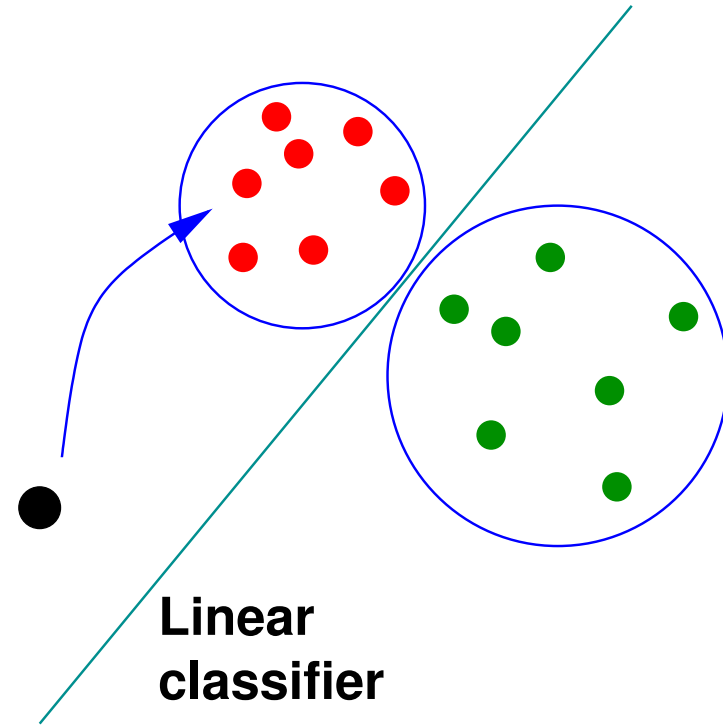
- Idea of a voting system: get distances between test sample and training samples
- Get the  $k$  nearest neighbors (here  $k = 8$ )
- Predominant class among these  $k$  items is assigned to the test sample (“\*” here)



# Supervised learning: Linear classification

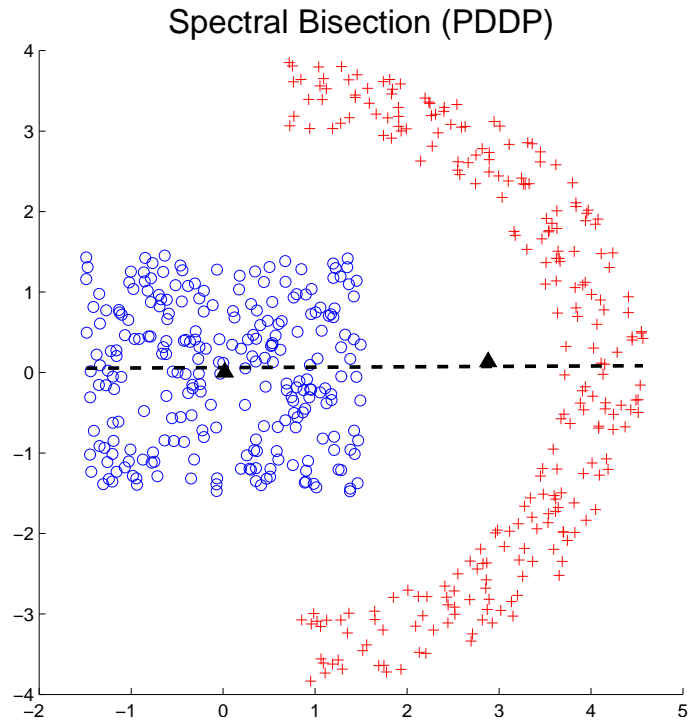
**Linear classifiers:** Find a hyperplane which best separates the data in classes A and B.

➤ Example of application: Distinguish between SPAM and non-SPAM e-mails



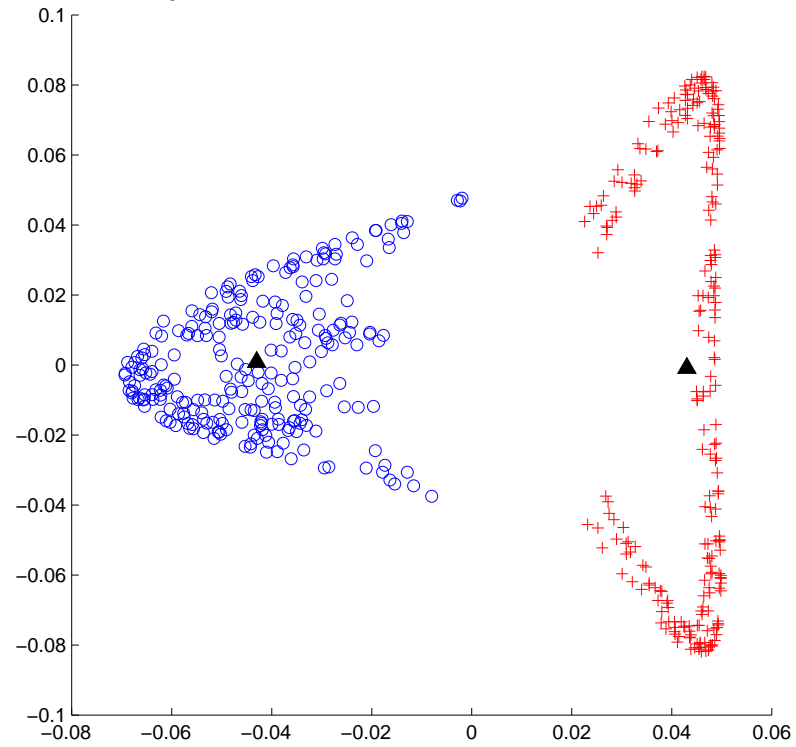
➤ Note: The world is non-linear. Often this is combined with **Kernels** – amounts to changing the inner product

## A harder case:



➤ Use kernels to transform

Projection with Kernels --  $\sigma^2 = 2.7463$

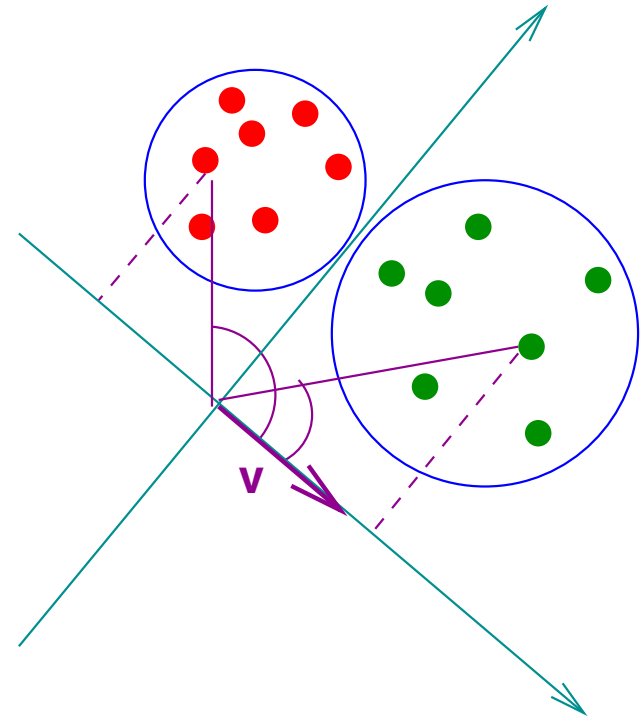


Transformed data with a Gaussian Kernel

# Simple linear classifiers

- Let  $X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$  be the data matrix.
- and  $L = [l_1, \dots, l_n]$  labels.  $l_i = \pm 1$
- 1st Solution: Find a vector  $u$  such that  $u^T x_i$  close to  $l_i, \forall i$
- Common solution: SVD to reduce dimension of data [e.g. 2-D] then do comparison in this space. e.g.

$$A: u^T x_i \geq 0, B: u^T x_i < 0$$



[For clarity: principal axis  $u$  drawn below where it should be]



# Fisher's Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

*Principle:* Use label information to build a good projector, i.e., one that can 'discriminate' well between classes

- Define “**between scatter**”: a measure of how well separated two distinct classes are.
- Define “**within scatter**”: a measure of how well clustered items of the same class are.
- Objective: make “between scatter” measure large **and** “within scatter” small.

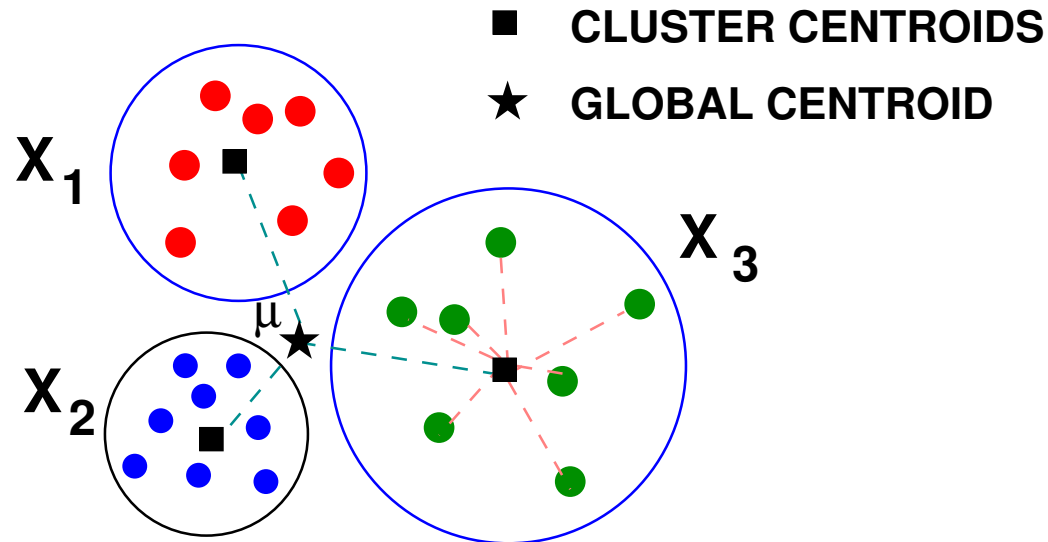
*Idea:* Find projector that maximizes the ratio of the “between scatter” measure over “within scatter” measure

$$S_B = \sum_{k=1}^c n_k (\mu^{(k)} - \mu) (\mu^{(k)} - \mu)^T,$$

$$S_W = \sum_{k=1}^c \sum_{x_i \in X_k} (x_i - \mu^{(k)}) (x_i - \mu^{(k)})^T$$

where:

- $\mu = \text{mean}(X)$
- $\mu^{(k)} = \text{mean}(X_k)$
- $X_k = k\text{-th class}$
- $n_k = |X_k|$



$$a^T S_B a = \sum_{i=1}^c n_k |a^T (\mu^{(k)} - \mu)|^2,$$

$$a^T S_W a = \sum_{k=1}^c \sum_{x_i \in X_k} |a^T (x_i - \mu^{(k)})|^2$$

➤ Consider 2nd moments for a vector  $a$ :

➤  $a^T S_B a \equiv$  weighted variance of projected  $\mu_j$ 's

➤  $a^T S_W a \equiv$  w. sum of variances of projected classes  $X_j$ 's

➤ LDA projects the data so as to maximize the ratio of these two numbers:

$$\max_a \frac{a^T S_B a}{a^T S_W a}$$

➤ Optimal  $a =$  eigenvector associated with top eigenvalue of:

$$S_B u_i = \lambda_i S_W u_i .$$

## LDA – Extension to arbitrary dimensions

➤ Criterion: maximize the ratio of two traces:

$$\frac{\text{Trace}[U^T S_B U]}{\text{Trace}[U^T S_W U]}$$

➤ Constraint:  $U^T U = I$  (orthogonal projector).

➤ Reduced dimension data:  $Y = U^T X$ .

*Common viewpoint:* hard to maximize, therefore ...

➤ ... alternative: Solve instead the ('easier') problem:

$$\max_{U^T S_W U = I} \text{Trace}[U^T S_B U]$$

➤ Solution: largest eigenvectors of  $S_B u_i = \lambda_i S_W u_i$ .

## *In Brief: Support Vector Machines (SVM)*

➤ Similar in spirit to LDA. Formally, SVM finds a hyperplane that best separates two training sets belonging to two classes.

➤ If the hyperplane is:

$$w^T x + b = 0$$

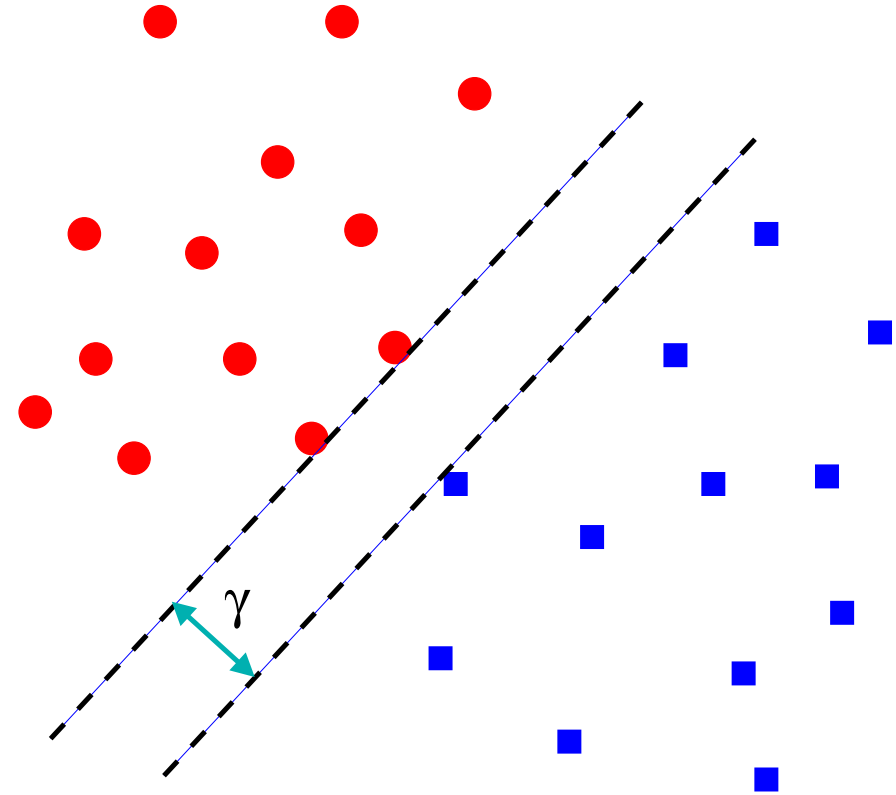
➤ Then the classifier is  $f(x) = \text{sign}(w^T x + b)$ : assigns  $y = +1$  to one class and  $y = -1$  to other

➤ Normalize parameters  $w, b$  by looking for hyperplanes of the form  $w^T x + b \geq 1$  to include one set and  $w^T x + b \leq -1$  to include the other.

➤ With  $y_i = +1$  for one class and  $y_i = -1$  for the other, we can write the constraints as  $y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1$ .

➤ The margin is the maximum distance between two such planes: goal find  $w, b$  to maximize margin.

➤ Maximize margin subject to the constraint  $y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1$ .



➤ As it turns out the margin is equal to:

$$\gamma = \frac{2}{\|w\|_2}$$

 Prove it.


➤ Need to solve the constrained quadratic programming problem:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min_{w,b} & \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_2^2 \\ \text{s.t.} & y_i(w^T x_i + b) \geq 1, \quad \forall x_i. \end{array}$$

**Modification 1:** Soft margin. Consider hinge loss:  $\max\{0, 1 - y_i[w^T x_i + b]\}$

➤ Zero if constraint satisfied for pair  $x_i, y_i$ . Otherwise proportional to distance from corresponding hyperplane. Hence we can minimize

$$\lambda \|w\|^2 + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - y_i[w^T x_i + b]\}$$

 Suppose  $y_i = +1$  and let  $d_i = 1 - y_i[w^T x_i + b]$ . Show that the distance between  $x_i$  and hyperplane  $w^T x_i + b = +1$  is  $d_i / \|w\|$ .

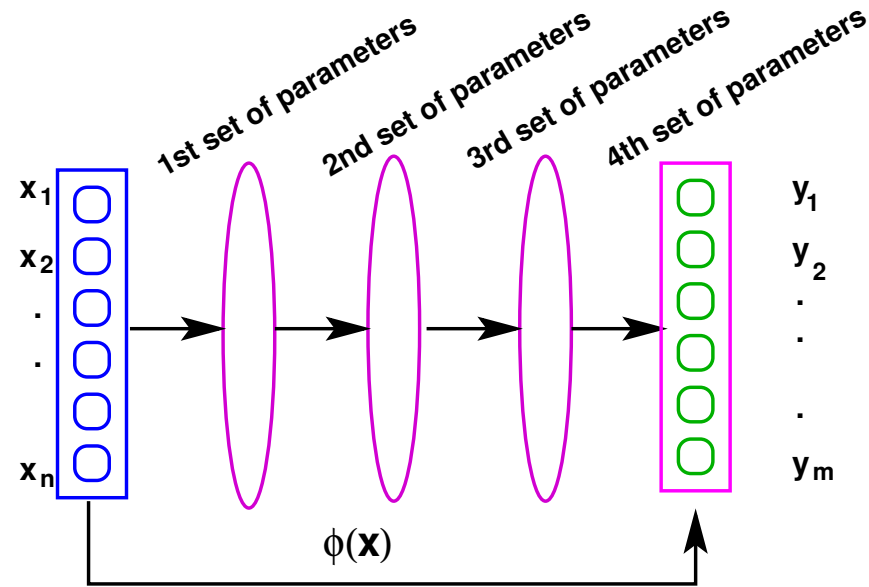
**Modification 2:** Use in combination with a Kernel to improve separability

## *A few words on Deep Neural Networks (DNNs)*

- Ideas of neural networks goes back to the 1960s - were popularized in early 1990s – then laid dormant until recently.
- Two reasons for the come-back:
  - DNN are remarkably effective in some applications
  - big progress made in hardware [→ affordable ‘training cost’]



► Training a neural network can be viewed as a problem of approximating a function  $\phi$  which is defined via sets of parameters:



**Problem:** find sets of parameters such that  $\phi(x) \approx y$

**Input:**  $x$ , **Output:**  $y$

**Set:**  $z_0 = x$

**For**  $l = 1 : L+1$  **Do:**

$$z_l = \sigma(W_l^T z_{l-1} + b_l)$$

**End**

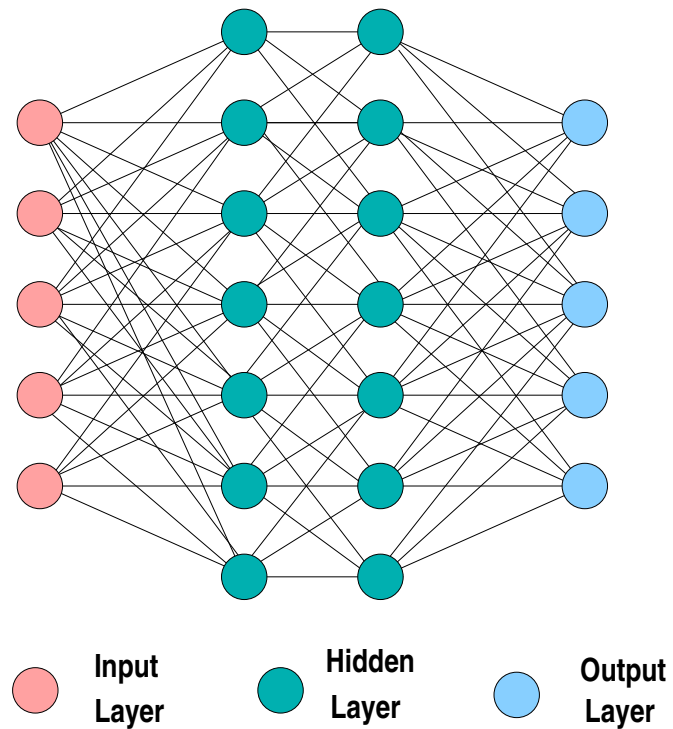
**Set:**  $y = \phi(x) := z_{L+1}$

- layer # 0 = input layer
- layer # ( $L + 1$ ) = output layer

➤ A matrix  $W_l$  is associated with layers 1,2,  $L + 1$ .

➤ Problem:

Find  $\phi$  (i.e., matrices  $W_l$ ) s.t.  $\phi(x) \approx y$



## *DNN (continued)*

- Problem is not convex, highly parameterized, ...,
- .. Main method used: Stochastic gradient descent [basic]
- It all looks like alchemy... but it works well for certain applications
- Training is still quite expensive – GPUs can help
- *\*Very\** active area of research

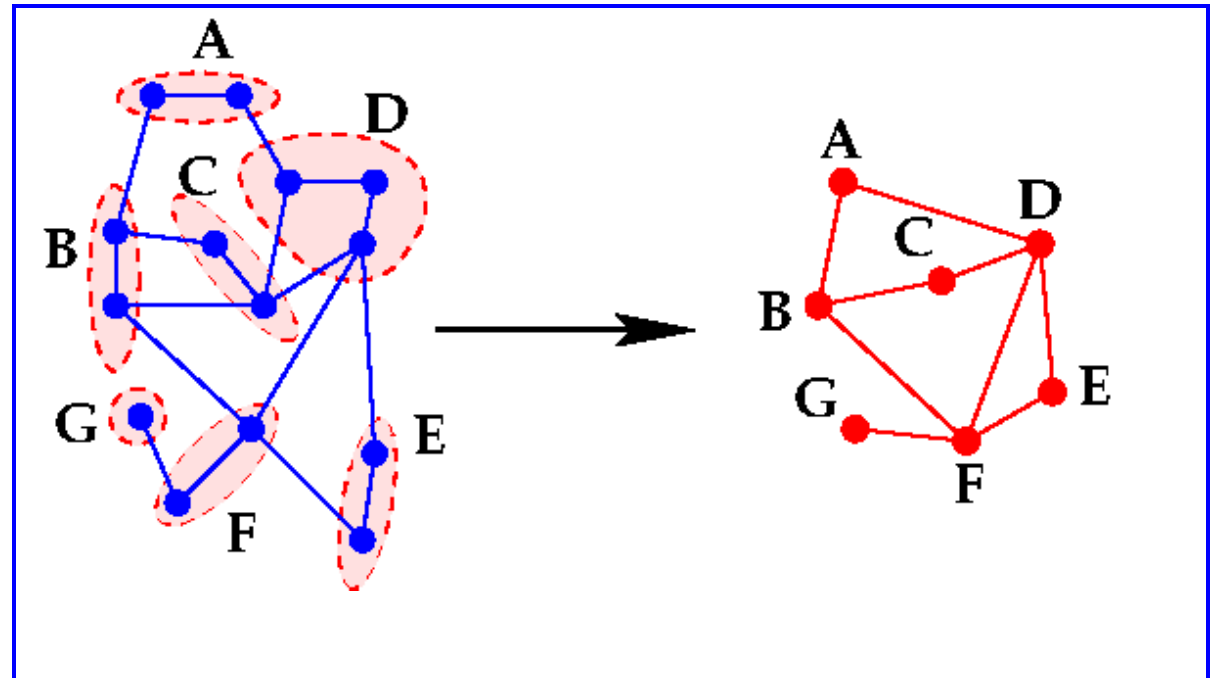
# GRAPH COARSENING

# Graph coarsening

Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$ , goal of graph coarsening is to find a smaller graph  $G_c = (V_c, E_c)$  with  $n_c$  nodes and  $m_c$  edges, where  $n_c < n$ , which is a **faithful** approximation of  $G$  in some sense.

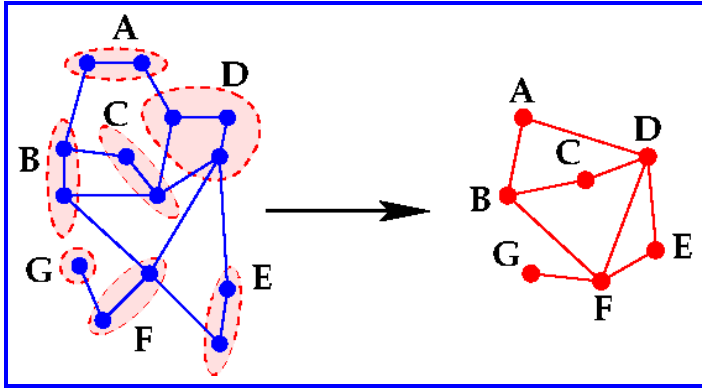
## Notation:

- $A_c$  = adjacency matrix of  $G_c$ ;
- $L_c$  = graph Laplacian of  $G_c$



# Graph Coarsening in scientific computing

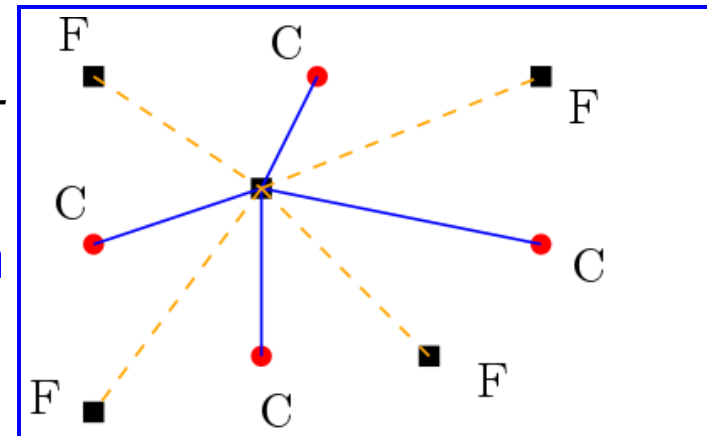
- Goal : exploit coarse representation of problem to solve linear systems



- Fewer nodes so: cheaper
- Can be used recursively

- Success story: *Multigrid, Algebraic Multigrid*

- *AMG*: Define coarse / fine nodes based on 'strength of coupling' →

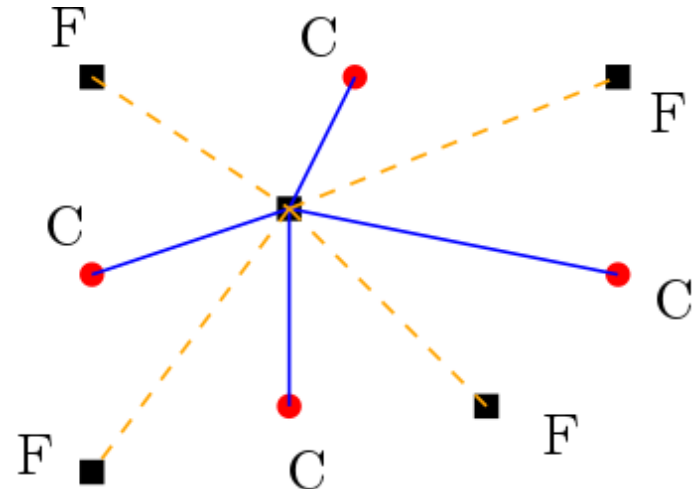


# Graph coarsening in scientific computing: (A) MG

**Algebraic multigrid** Main idea: generalize the *interpolation* and *restriction* operations of standard MG.

- For each fine node select a set of nearest neighbors from the coarse set
- Then express a fine node  $i$  as a linear combination of a selected number of nearest neighbors that form a set  $C_i$ :

Fine nodes: ■. Coarse: ● In coarsening: central fine node is expressed as a combination of its coarse neighbors.



- Classical Ruge-Stüben strategy: selection based on ‘strong connections’ of node ( $i$  and  $j$  are strongly connected if  $a_{ij}$  has a large magnitude relative to others)
- Let  $C$  == set of coarse nodes;  $F$  == set of fine nodes
- Can define ‘interpolation operator’  $P$ :

$$[Px]_i = \begin{cases} x_i & \text{if } i \in C, \\ \sum_{j \in C_i} p_{ij} x_j & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Expand into a multilevel framework by repeating the process on the graph of coarse set.



- Let  $G_0 \equiv G$  (orig.) and  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_h$  be sequence of coarse graphs:  $G_\ell = (V_\ell, E_\ell)$  is obtained by coarsening on  $G_{\ell-1}$  for  $1 \leq \ell < L$ .
- Let  $A^{(0)} \equiv A$  and  $A^{(\ell)} \equiv$  matrix associated of  $\ell$ -th level.
- Linear system at the  $\ell$ -th level, can be reordered as:

$$A^{(\ell)} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{CC}^{(\ell)} & A_{CF}^{(\ell)} \\ A_{FC}^{(\ell)} & A_{FF}^{(\ell)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad f^{(\ell)} = \begin{bmatrix} f_C^{(\ell)} \\ f_F^{(\ell)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

- AMG: exploit different levels to building approximate solution. An AMG scheme depends entirely on defining a sequence of interpolation operators  $P_\ell$  for  $\ell = 0, 1, \dots$
- Once the  $P_\ell$ 's are defined, one can design various 'cycles' : processes of going back and forth between levels

# Multilevel ILU preconditioner based on coarsening

- Method: find a good ordering for ILU preconditioner
- Example: technique presented in [D. Osei-Kuffuor et al, '06]:
- Ingredient: ordering based on coarsening + apply recursively
- Matrix is ordered in block form - then  $A_{22}^{(0)}$  is in turn reordered:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{(0)} & A_{12}^{(0)} \\ A_{21}^{(0)} & A_{22}^{(0)} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{c|cc} A_{11}^{(0)} & & A_{12}^{(0)} \\ \hline & A_{11}^{(1)} & A_{12}^{(1)} \\ A_{21}^{(0)} & A_{21}^{(1)} & A_{22}^{(1)} \end{array} \right].$$

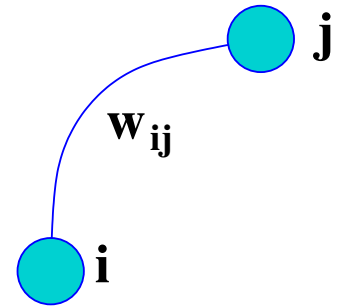
- Repeat with  $A_{22}^{(1)}$  and further down for a few levels.
- Do ILU factorization of the resulting reordered system.

## Example: Multilevel ILU [D. Osei-Kuffuor, R. Li, YS, '15]

**Goal:** Form of ILU preconditioning with improved robustness

➤ Traverse edges  $(i, j) \in Nz(A)$  in decreasing order of the weights:

$$w_{ij} = \min \left\{ \frac{|a_{ij}|}{\delta_r(i)}, \frac{|a_{ij}|}{\delta_c(j)} \right\} \text{ where:}$$
$$\delta_r(i) = \frac{\|A_{i,:}\|_1}{nz(A_{i,:})} \quad \text{and} \quad \delta_c(j) = \frac{\|A_{:,j}\|_1}{nz(A_{:,j})}$$



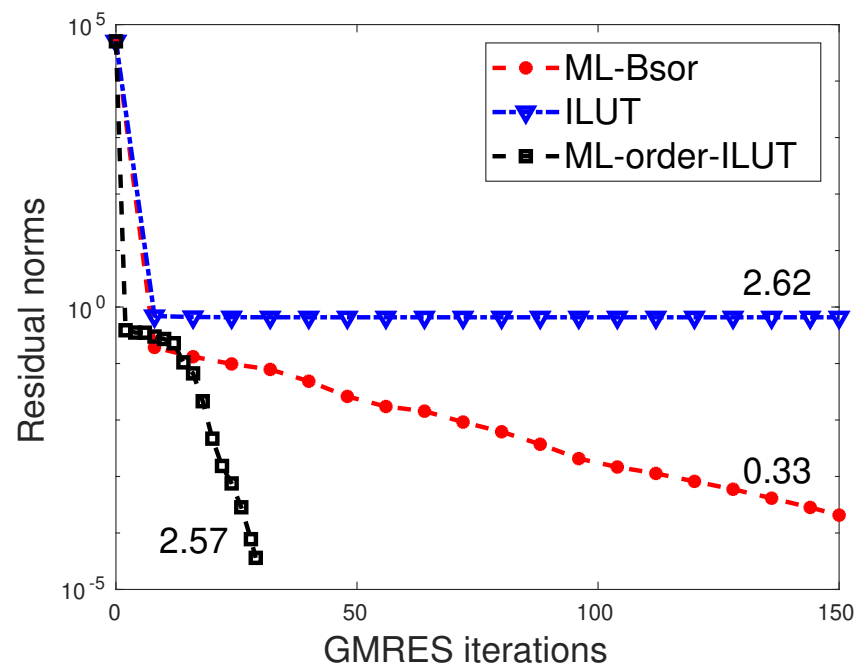
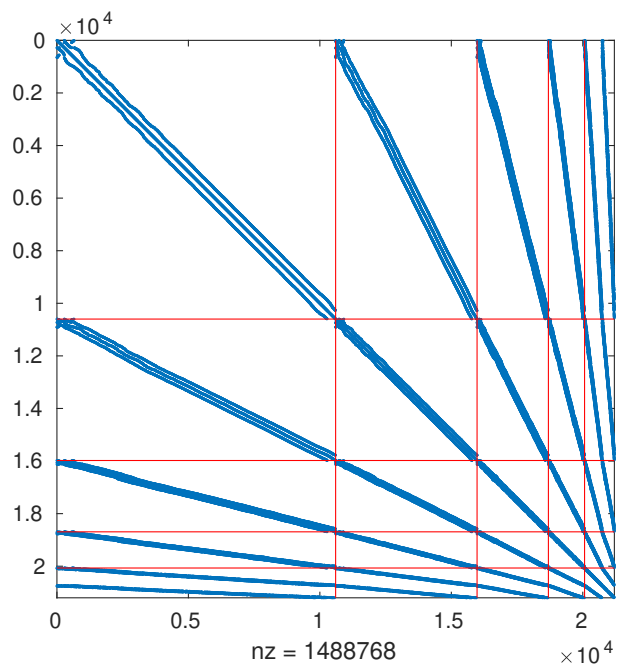
➤ Select  $i$  as 'coarse' if  $\sigma_i > \sigma_j$  and  $j$  otherwise, where  $\rightarrow$

$$\sigma_k = \frac{|a_{kk}|}{\delta_r(k)\delta_c(k)}$$

- Goal: to put large entries in the blocks  
 $(A_{CF}^{(\ell)})$  and  $(A_{FC}^{(\ell)})$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{CC}^{(\ell)} & A_{CF}^{(\ell)} \\ A_{FC}^{(\ell)} & A_{FF}^{(\ell)} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Model: very rough approximation of Gaussian Elimination.
- Next: (Matlab) Test with matrix *Raefsky3*<sup>1</sup>
- 4 levels of coarsening. Then reorder matrix and:
- Solve with ILUT- GMRES(50) or BSOR - GMRES(50)



Left: The matrix Raefsky3 after the reordering obtained from four levels of coarsening. Right: Performance of various coarsening based preconditioners for solving a linear system with the matrix.

## **COARSENING APPROACHES**

## Coarsening by matching: Pairwise aggregation

- Strategy: coalesce (collapse) two adjacent nodes in a graph into a single node, based on some measure of nearness or similarity.
- A *matching* of a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a set of edges  $\tilde{E}, \tilde{E} \subseteq E$ , such that no two edges in  $\tilde{E}$  have a node in common.
- Matching is **maximal** if it can't be augmented by additional edges
- Edge collapsing: usually selected using **maximal matching**
- Such **edge matching** techniques are common in AMG literature

- For each node  $i$ , build a set  $S_i$  of nodes that are ‘strongly connected’ to  $i$
- Traverse graph nodes in a certain order of preference
- Next unmarked node in this order, say  $j$ , selected as a *coarse* node.
- Priority measure of traversal updated after each insertion of a coarse node

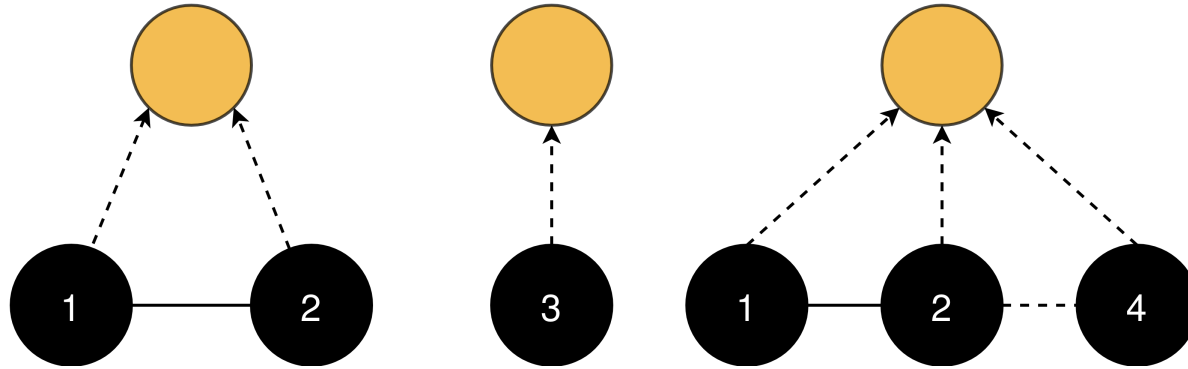
*Heavy-edge matching (HEM)* : matches a node  $i$  with its largest off-diagonal neighbor  $j_{max}$ ;

$$|a_{ij_{max}}| = \max_{j \in adj(i), j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$$

- There will be left-over nodes - called ‘singletons’



# Heavy Edge Matching (HEM)



1. Visit edges  $(i, j)$  in decreasing value of their weight  $w_{i,j}$
2. If both  $i$  and  $j$  have no parents yet (left), create a new coarse node ('new'). Set parents of  $i$  and  $j$  to be *new*.
3. At completion of traversal: deal with unassigned nodes: Either (middle) add as a coarse nodes if disconnected ("singleton") or (right) lump as a child to an existing coarse node

## ALGORITHM : 9 ■ Heavy Edge Matching (HEM)

---

```
1: Input: Weighted graph  $G = (V, E, A)$ 
2: Output: Coarse nodes; Prnt list
3: Init:  $Prnt(i) = 0 \forall i \in V; new = 0$ 
4: for max to min edge  $(i, j)$  do
5:     if  $Prnt(i) == 0, Prnt(j) == 0$  then
6:          $new = new + 1$ 
7:          $Prnt(i) = Prnt(j) = new$ 
8:     end if
9: end for
10: for Node  $v$  with  $Prnt(v) == 0$  do
11:     if  $v$  has no neighbor then
12:          $new = new + 1; Prnt(v) = new$ 
13:     else
14:          $Prnt(v) = Prnt(j)$  where  $j = \operatorname{argmax}_i(a_{iv})$ 
15:     end if
16: end for
```

## Coarsening by independent sets

**Recall:** Independent set:  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq V$  is a set of vertices that are not adjacent to each other:  $i, j \in \mathcal{S} \implies a_{ij} = 0$ . It is **maximal** if it can't be augmented

➤ Can take  $V_c = \mathcal{S}$  as a coarse set. Need to define edges.

➤ Let  $L$  = reordered graph Laplacian ( $n_c$  vertices of  $V_c$  listed first): (note:  $D_c$  is *diagonal*)

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} D_c & -F \\ -F^T & B \end{pmatrix}$$

➤ Replace  $B$  by  $D_f = F^T \mathbb{1}$  and define  $G_c =$  graph of  $S_c \rightarrow$

$$S_c = D_c - F D_f^{-1} F^T$$

**Property:**  $S_c =$  Graph Laplacian of coarse graph  $G_c$

## Coarsening by ‘algebraic distance’

- Motivated by “bootstrap algebraic multigrid” (BAMG) [Brandt’01]
- In BAMG notion of closeness (used for coarsening) defined from **a few steps of Gauss-Seidel for solving  $Ax = 0$**
- Speed of convergence of the iterate determines an ‘algebraic distance’ between variables.
- Exploited to aggregate the unknowns and define restriction and interpolation operators. Analysis in [Chen-Safro’11]

# Coarsening by 'kron' decomposition

- Kron reduction of networks proposed back in 1939 by Kron
- Revived by Dorfler and Bullo(2013) and Shuman et al. (2016)

## Main idea:

- Select a coarse set  $V_1$ : Shuman-al use eigenvectors
- Reorder matrix so that nodes of  $V_1$  come 1st.

Laplacean becomes  $\rightarrow$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & L_{12} \\ L_{12}^T & L_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Kron reduction of  $L$  defined as the Schur complement:

$$L(V_1) = L_{11} - L_{12}L_{22}^{-1}L_{12}^T$$

**Property**  $L(V_1) ==$  graph Laplacian of  $V_1$  [Dorfler-Bullo]



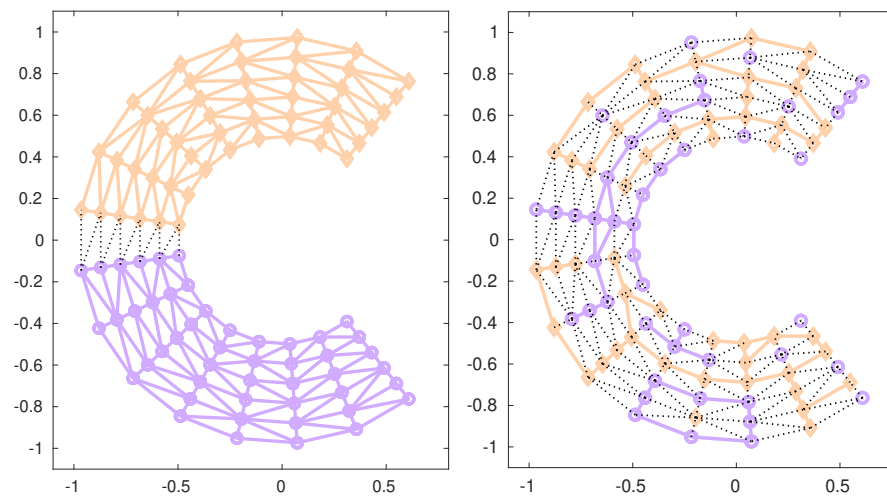
**Q. 1:** How to deal with 'denser' graph?

**A** Sparsify - using spectral sparsification

**Q. 2:** How to select  $V_1$ ?

**A** Use signs of **largest** eigenvector of original Laplacian  $L$

- If  $u_1 = [\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n]^T$  = the largest eigenvector.
- Define  $V_+ = \{i | \xi_i \geq 0\}$  and  $V_- = \{i | \xi_i < 0\}$
- Then select one of  $V_+, V_-$  as  $V_1$ .
- Opposite of what is done in **spectral graph partitioning**



*Left side: spectral graph partitioning. Right: Coarsening with largest eigenvector*

- Easy to show: (under mild condition on eigenvector) Each node of  $V_+$  (resp.  $V_-$ ) must have at least one nearest neighbor node from  $V_-$  (resp.  $V_+$ ).

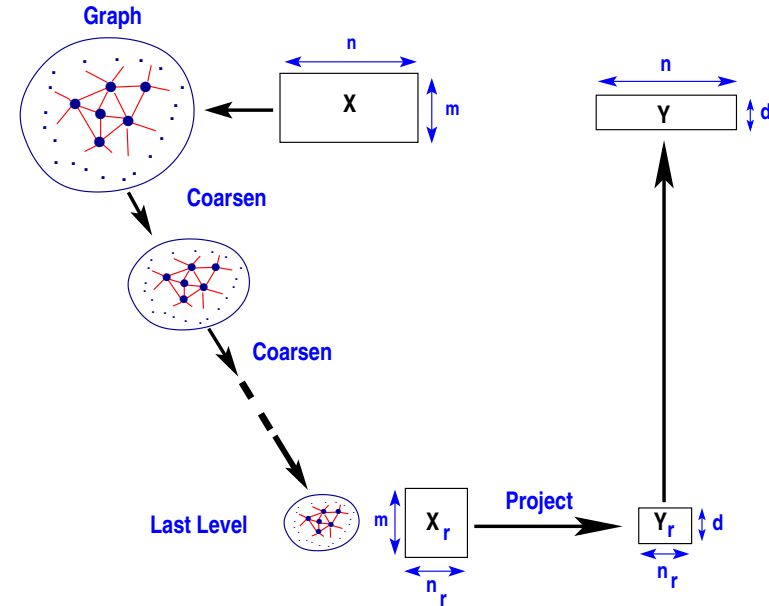


# **GRAPH COARSENING IN MACHINE LEARNING**

# Multilevel Dimension Reduction

## Idea:

Coarsen for a few levels. Use resulting data set  $\hat{X}$  to find a projector  $P$  from  $\mathbb{R}^m$  to  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Use this  $P$  to project data items.



- Gain: Dimension reduction is done with a much smaller set.
- Wish: not much loss compared to using whole data

# Multilevel Dimension Reduction (for sparse data- e.g., text)

- Use **Hypergraph Coarsening** with *column matching* – similar to a common one used in graph partitioning
- Compute the non-zero inner product  $\langle a^{(i)}, a^{(j)} \rangle$  between two vertices  $i$  and  $j$ , i.e., the  $i$ th and  $j$ th columns of  $A$ .
- Note:  $\langle a^{(i)}, a^{(j)} \rangle = \|a^{(i)}\| \|a^{(j)}\| \cos \theta_{ij}$

**Modif. 1:** Parameter:  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ . Match columns  $i$  &  $j$  only if angle satisfies:

$$\tan \theta_{ij} \leq \epsilon$$

**Modif. 2:** Re-Scale. If  $i$  and  $j$  match and  $\|a^{(i)}\|_0 \geq \|a^{(j)}\|_0$  replace  $a^{(i)}$  and  $a^{(j)}$  by

$$c^{(\ell)} = (1 + \cos^2 \theta_{ij})^{\frac{1}{2}} a^{(i)}$$

- Call  $C$  the coarsened matrix obtained from  $A$  using the approach just described

*Lemma:* Let  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c}$  be the coarsened matrix of  $A$  obtained by one level of coarsening of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , with columns  $a^{(i)}$  and  $a^{(j)}$  matched if  $\tan \theta_i \leq \epsilon$ . Then

$$|x^T A A^T x - x^T C C^T x| \leq 3\epsilon \|A\|_F^2,$$

for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  with  $\|x\|_2 = 1$ .

- Very simple bound for Rayleigh quotients for any  $x$ .
- Implies some bounds on singular values and norms - skipped.
- See details + experiments in [Ubaru-YS '19]

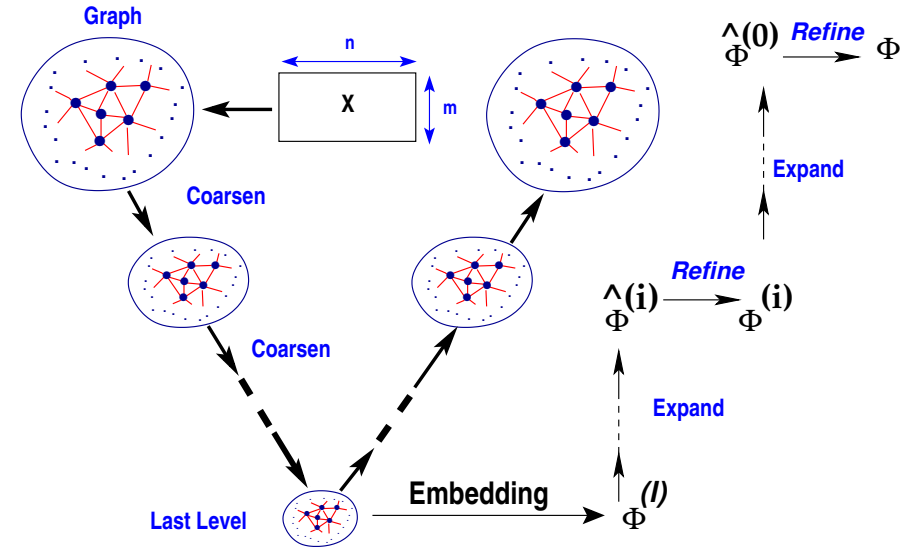
# Graph coarsening for graph embeddings: HARP and MILE

- Recall Vertex embedding: Given  $G = (V, E)$  find mapping  $\Phi$ :

$$\Phi : v \in V \longrightarrow \Phi(v) \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

$d$  is small:  $d \ll n$

*Hierarchical Representation Learning for Networks (HARP):* (Chen et al. '18) coarsen for a few levels. Find embedding  $\Phi^{(\ell)}$  for coarsest graph (level  $\ell$ ). Then a succession of expansions to higher level + refinement.



- Gain: Embedding done with a much smaller set.

➤ MILE approach [Liang et al. '18] very similar (difference in refinement).

*Experiment* to evaluate the effectiveness of HARP.

➤ Baseline. Three embedding algorithms: *DeepWalk* [Perozzi-al'14], *LINE* [Tang-al'15] and *Node2vec* [Grover-Leskovec'16]

➤ Combined with Coarsening methods:

1. Heavy Edge Matching (HEM) - sketched earlier

2. Algebraic distance (ALG) - sketched earlier

3. Leverage Score Coarsening (LESC) – variant of HEM

## Coarsening with eigenvectors

- It is possible to coarsen a graph with the goal of exactly preserving a few eigenvectors.
- This has turned out not to be too useful in practice.
- Instead we use eigenvectors to define ‘importance of nodes’ for the graph traversal

### Leverage Scores

- $A = U\Sigma V^T$  ( $\text{ran}(A) = \text{ran}(U)$ )
- Leverage score of  $i$ -th row  $\rightarrow$

$$\eta_i = \|U_{i,:}\|_2^2$$

- Used to measure importance of row  $i$  in random sampling methods [e.g. El-Aloui & Mahonney '15]

- Let  $A$  now be a graph Laplacian and  $A = U\Lambda U^T$  with  $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$

In *Leverage-score coarsening (LESC)* we dampen lower sing. vectors  $\rightarrow$

$$\eta_i = \sum_{k=1}^r (e^{-\tau\lambda_k} U_{ik})^2$$

- Use  $\eta_i$  to decide order of traversal in coarsening algorithm

Note: Consider case when  $r = n$  (or simply  $r$  is large)

$$\eta_i = \sum_{k=1}^n (e^{-\tau\lambda_k} U_{ik})^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n e^{-2\tau\lambda_k} |U_{ik}|^2 = e_i^T e^{-2\tau L} e_i.$$

➤  $\eta_i$  equals the  $i$ -th diagonal entry of the matrix  $H \equiv \exp(-2\tau L)$

- Next: visualization with 5 different coarsening methods on a graph with  $n = 312$  nodes and  $n_e = 761$  edges



## *Final words*

- \*Many\* interesting **new matrix problems** in areas that involve the effective exploitation of data
- Unlike in Forsythe's time: change happens fast - because we are better connected
- In particular: many many resources available online.
- Huge potential for making a good impact by looking at a topic from new perspective
- To a researcher in computational linear algebra : Tsunami of change on types or problems, algorithms, frameworks, culture,..

- My favorite quote. Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922) said:

*When one door closes, another opens; but we often look so long and so regretfully upon the closed door that we do not see the one which has opened for us.*

- Visit my web-site at [www.cs.umn.edu/~saad](http://www.cs.umn.edu/~saad)
- More complete version of this material will available in course csci-8314 (S23) - notes (and more) are open to all.

**Thank you !**