# **SPARSE MATRICES**

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# COMPACT STORAGE FORMAT

Most of the material is from:

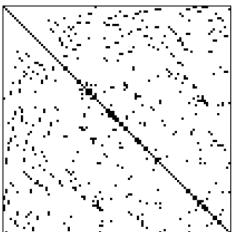
L. Formaggia, F. Saleri, A. Veneziani **Solving Numerical PDEs: Problems, Applications, Exercises -** Appendix *The treatment of sparse matrices* 

BSR format from:

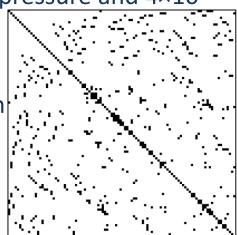
<u>https://software.intel.com/en-us/mkl-developer-reference-c-sparse-blas-bsr-</u> matrix-storage-format

- A matrix is sparse if it contains a large number of zeros
- **sparsity** of the matrix =
  - number of zero-valued elements / total number of elements
- density = 1 sparsity
- A matrix is **sparse** if its sparsity is > 0.5
- Sparsity is interesting if in a matrix of size nxn
  - $\rightarrow$  the number of non-zero entries is O(n)
- This means that the average number of non-zero entries in each row is bounded independently from n
- A non-sparse matrix is said full or dense if the number of nonzero elements is O(n<sup>2</sup>)

- If the location of the zero elements is known a-priori, we can avoid reserving storage for them
- The distribution of non-zero elements of a sparse matrix may be described by:
  - the sparsity pattern, defined as the set {(i, j) : A<sub>ii</sub> = 0}
  - the matrix graph, where nodes *i* and *j* are connected by an edge if and only if A<sub>ij</sub> = 0
- In order to take advantage of the large number of zero elements, *special schemes are required to store sparse matrices*



- The use of adequate storage techniques for sparse matrices is fundamental, especially with large-scale problems
- Large sparse matrices often appear in scientific or engineering applications when solving partial differential equations
- Example
  - Suppose we want to solve the Navier-Stokes equations on a two-dimensional grid formed by 10.000 vertexes with finite elements
  - The number of degrees of freedom is around 10<sup>5</sup> for the pressure and 4×10<sup>5</sup> for each component of the velocity
  - The associated matrix will then be 90000×90000
  - If we store all 8.1×10<sup>9</sup> coefficients, using double precision (8 bytes), around 60 Gigabytes are necessary!
  - This is too much (even for a very large computer)



- In case of a three-dimensional problem the situation becomes even worse, since the number of degrees of freedom grows very rapidly as the grid gets finer
  - Nowadays it is common to deal with millions of degrees of freedom
- Therefore to store sparse matrices efficiently we need data formats that are more compact than the classical array

- The adoption of sparse formats may affect the speed of certain operations
- For example, with a sparse format we cannot access or search for a particular element (or group of elements) directly, using the two indexes *i* and *j* to determine where entry A<sub>ij</sub> is located in the memory
- On the other hand, even if the operation of accessing an entry of a matrix in sparse format turns out to be less efficient, by adopting a sparse format we will nevertheless access only nonzero elements, thus executing only useful operations

- Hence, in general, the sparse format is preferable in terms of storage as well as in terms of computing time, as long as the matrix is sufficiently sparse
- The main goal is:
  - to represent only the nonzero elements
  - to be able to efficiently perform the common matrix operations

- We can distinguish different kinds of operations on a matrix
- The most important operations are:
- 1. accessing a generic element (random access)
- 2. accessing the elements of a whole row: important when multiplying a matrix by a vector
- 3. accessing the elements of a whole column, or equivalently, of a row in the transpose matrix (relevant for operations such as symmetrizing the matrix after imposing Dirichlet conditions)
- 4. adding a new element to the matrix pattern: this is a critical issue if the pattern is not known beforehand or it can change throughout the computations

- It is important to characterize formats for sparse matrices by the computational cost of these operations and by how the latter depends on the matrix size
- Different formats for sparse matrices exist due to the fact that there is *no format that is simultaneously optimal for all above operations*, and at the same time *efficient in terms of storage capacity*

- In the following:
  - *n* is the matrix' size
  - *nz* is the number of non-zero entries
  - We adopt the convention of indexing entries of matrices and vectors (arrays) starting from 1
  - *Aij* will denote the entry of the matrix A on row *i* and column *j*
- To estimate how much memory the matrix occupies we assume that:
  - an integer occupies 4 bytes
  - a real number (floating point repres.) 8 bytes (double precision)
  - For example, storing a square matrix having n = 12 would require 12 × 12 × 8 = 1152 bytes

- The simplest storage scheme for sparse matrices is the format by coordinate
- The data structure consists of three arrays:
  - A a real array containing all the real (or complex) values of the nonzero elements in any order
  - I an integer array containing their row indices
  - J a second integer array containing their column indices
  - I, J and A all have *nz* elements, as many as the number of non-zero elements of the matrix

#### Example

The matrix A

- **1.** 0. 0. **2.** 0.
- **3. 4.** 0. **5.** 0.
- **6.** 0. **7. 8. 9.**
- 0. 0. **10. 11.** 0.
- 0. 0. 0. 0. **12.**

Is represented (for example) by

- A 12.9.7.5.1.2.11.3.6.4.8.10.
- I 5 3 3 2 1 1 4 2 3 2 3 4
- J 5 5 3 4 1 4 4 1 1 2 4 3
- Notice that elements are listed in an *arbitrary order*

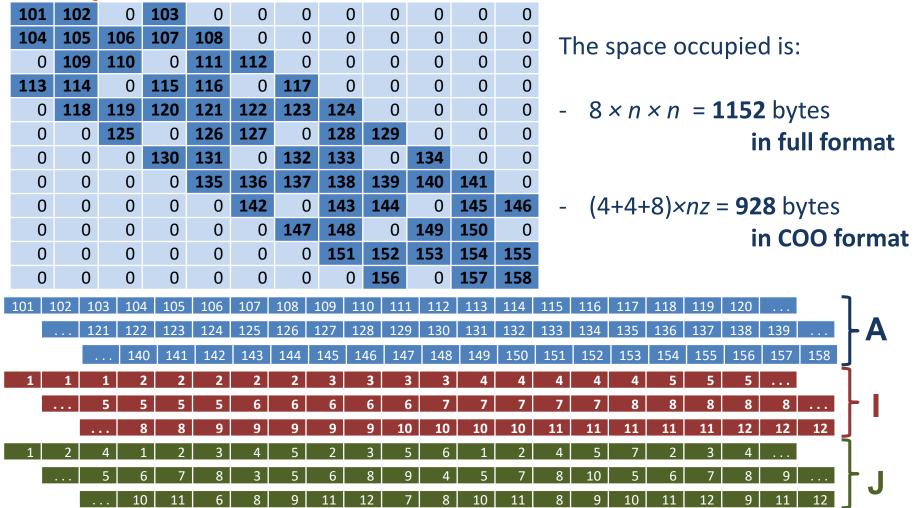
#### Example

	-										
101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	145	146
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	150	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	155
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

The space occupied is:

8 × n × n = 1152 bytes
 in full format

#### **Example**



- COO format does not guarantee rapid access to an element, nor to rows or columns
- Finding the generic element of the matrix from the row and column indexes normally requires a number of operations proportional to *nz*
- In fact, it is necessary to go through all elements of I and J until one hits those indexes, using expensive comparison operations
- Using specific techniques to store the indexes in special search data structure, it is possible to reduce the cost to O(log<sub>2</sub>(nz)), but at a higher storing price

- The operation of multiplying a matrix and a vector can be done directly, by running through the elements of the three arrays
- A possible code for the product y = Ax using MATLAB

```
y=zeros(nz,1);
for k=1:nz
i=I(k);
j=J(k);
y(i) = y(i) + A(k)*x(j); % notice the use of i and j
end
```

Observations

- The additional cost of this operation (compared to the analogue for a full matrix) depends essentially on indirect addressing:
  - accessing y(i) requires first of all to access I(k)
- The access and update of arrays x and y does not proceed by consecutive elements → the possibility of optimizing the use of the processor's cache is greatly reduced

Observations

- Operations are performed only on non-zero elements and in general we have nz << n<sup>2</sup>
- An advantage of this format is that:
  - It is easy to add a new element to the matrix
  - It is enough to add a new entry to the arrays I, J and A
- For this reason, COO is often used when the pattern is not known a priori

## The skyline format

- The format called skyline is among the first used to store matrices arising from the method of finite elements
- The idea is to store the area formed by the elements between the first and last non-zero coefficient, on each row

101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	145	146
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	150	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	155
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

• This forces to **store some null entries** 

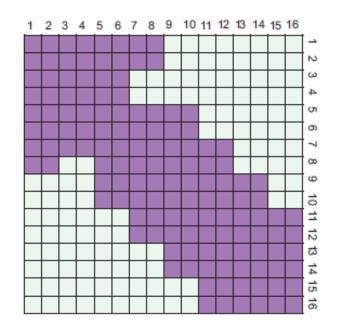
## The *skyline* format

 This extra cost will be small if the matrix has non-zero entries clustered around the diagonal

101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	145	146
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	150	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	155
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

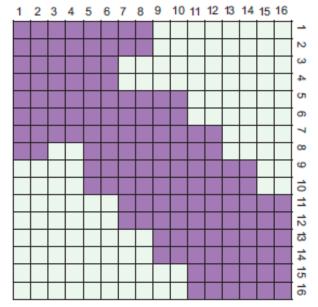
 Indeed, algorithms have been developed to cluster non zero elements by permuting the rows and columns of the matrix (see, for example, the Cuthill-McKee algorithm)

- If a matrix is **symmetric** we can store only:
  - Its lower triangular part (diagonal included)
  - Or we can store the diagonal on an auxiliary array and treat the off-diagonal entries separately, having the advantage of allowing the direct access to the diagonal elements

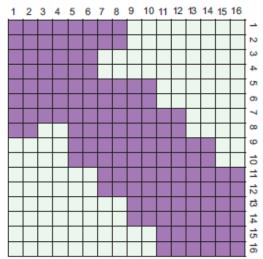


#### The *skyline* format with diagonal array is given by:

- **D** real array storing diagonal entries
- AL real array storing all *skyline* elements row-wise (except the diagonal) This can clearly include null coefficients
- I integer array storing *pointers to rows* of matrix A
  - The kth component of array I points to the first element of row (k + 1) in AL



- All elements of AL from position I (k) to I (k+1) -1 are the off-diagonal elements belonging to row k + 1, in column order
- Notice that:
  - The first row is not stored, since it only has the diagonal element
  - I (k) points to the first non-zero element on the (k+1)-th row
  - The difference I (k+1) I (k) gives the number of the offdiagonal elements on row k + 1 belonging to the *skyline*



#### Example

- We want to store the symmetric matrix obtained from the lower triangular part of matrix A (seen before) using the skyline format
- This matrix can be obtained with the Matlab instruction
   tril(A) + tril(A, -1)'

101	104	0	113	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	109	114	118	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	119	125	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	120	0	130	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	126	131	135	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	136	142	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	137	0	147	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	143	148	151	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	152	156
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	153	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	157
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

#### **Example**

Diagonal D

 101
 105
 110
 115
 120
 121
 127
 132
 138
 144
 149
 154
 158

Pointer I and lower skyline elements AL

1 2 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30

104         109         113         114         0         118         119         120         125         0         126         130         131         0	135 136 137 142	0 143 147 148	0 151 152 153 156 0	0 157

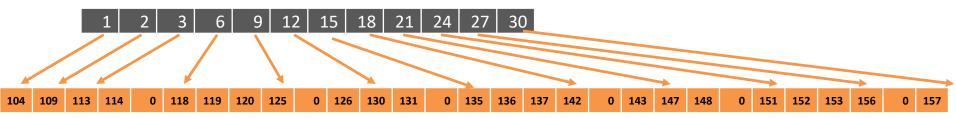
101	104	0	113	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	109	114	118	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	119	125	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	120	0	130	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	126	131	135	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	136	142	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	137	0	147	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	143	148	151	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	152	156
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	153	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	157
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

#### **Example**

Diagonal D

101 105 110 115 120 121 127 132 138 144 149 154 158

Pointers I and lower skyline elements AL



- Note that in the *n*th place of the array I we have left a pointer at the beginning of an hypothetical position. In this way:
  - I (n) 1 is the total number of elements in the skyline
  - We can compute the number of skyline elements in the last row, that is I (n) - I (n-1)

The product  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$  following MATLAB syntax is given by:

```
y=D.*x;
for k=2:n
nex = I(k)-I(k-1);
ik = I(k-1):I(k)-1;
jcol= k-nex:k-1;
y(k) = y(k)+dot(AL(ik),x(jcol));
y(jcol)= y(jcol)+AL(ik)*x(k);
end
```

 We operate symmetrically on rows and columns to exploit the fact that only the lower triangular part was stored in AL

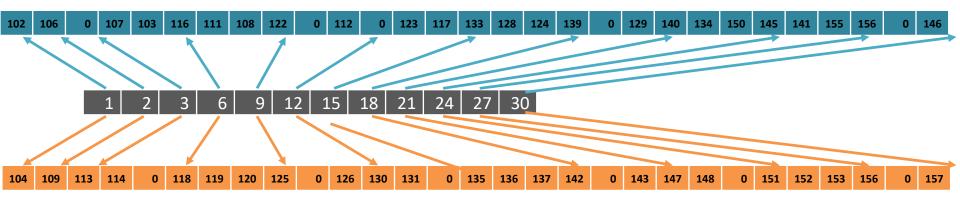
- The memory needed to store the matrix in this format depends on how effectively the skyline reproduces the actual pattern
- In our case:
  - Array AL contains 29 real numbers (including six 0s)
  - Array D of fixed length n=12 containing reals
  - Array I of fixed length n=12 containing integers
  - Total: (29 + 12) x 8 +n x 4 = 376
- In general we need  $(n_{AL} + n) \times 8 + n \times 4$
- Generally, Skyline is more convenient than the COO format if the coefficients are well clustered around the diagonal

- As for non-symmetric matrices, a reasonable way to proceed is to split A into:
  - The diagonal D
  - The strictly lower triangular part E
  - The strictly upper triangular part F
- Using the Matlab syntax, these matrices would be defined as: D=diag(diag(A)); E=tril(A,-1); F=triu(A,1);

- In general, we need two arrays of indexes: one for pointer to array E and one for pointers to array FT
- If the pattern of A is symmetric, the skyline of E coincides with that of FT, and the same array of pointers I is for both triangular parts
- Diagonal D

 101
 105
 110
 115
 121
 127
 132
 138
 144
 149
 154
 158

Pointer I, lower skyline elements E and upper skyline elements FT



• The product matrix-vector  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$  now reads

```
y=D.*x;
for k=2:n
nex = I(k)-I(k-1);
ik = I(k-1):I(k)-1;
jcol = k-nex:k-1;
y(k) = y(k)+dot(E(ik),x(jcol));
y(jcol)= y(jcol)+FT(ik)*x(k);
end
```

 icol and ik contain all indexes corresponding to the columns of row k, so the scalar product dot(E(ik), x(jcol)) and the multiplication vector-constant FT(ik) \*x(k) are optimized

- Notice that in this format the access to diagonal entries is direct
- Being able to access diagonal entries directly has certain advantages:
  - For instance there are methods that, to impose essential boundary condition, only need the access to diagonal elements
- The cost of extracting a row is independent of the matrix' size
- The fact that the data relative to a row are stored consecutively in the memory allows the system to optimize the processor's cache memory when multiplying a matrix by a vector
- The extraction of column is an expensive operation that requires many comparisons, and whose cost grows linearly in *n*

#### The Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) format

- The problem with the *skyline* format is that the memory used depends on the numeration of elements and is in general impossible to avoid the unnecessary storage of zero elements
- The CSR (Compressed Sparse Row) format can be seen as a compressed version of COO, and also as an improved *skyline*, that stores non-zero elements only

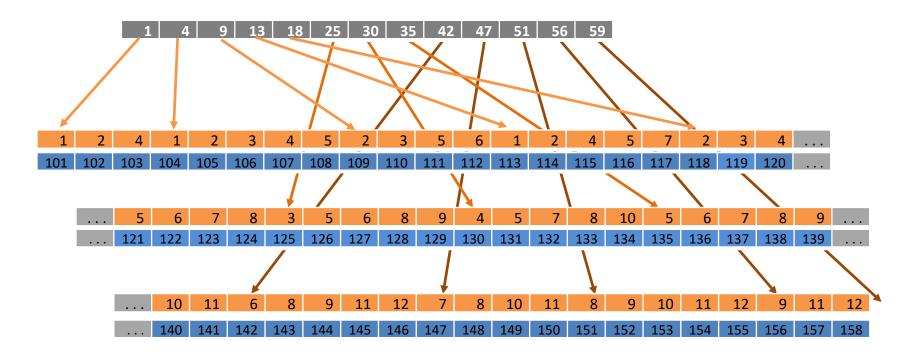
#### The Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) format

The CSR format uses three arrays:

- A real array of length *nz* storing the non-zero entries of the matrix, ordered row-wise. It coincides with array A of the COO format
- J integer array of length *nz*, whose entry J(k) indicates the column of the element A(k). It coincides with array J of the COO format
- I integer array of length *n* containing *pointers* to the rows. Then I (k) gives the position where the *k*-th row in A and J begins

#### The Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) format

- Array I is usually of length n + 1, so that the number of non-zero entries on row k is always I (k+1) -1-I (k)
- To make this hold, the last element I (n+1) will contain nz + 1 and in this way we also have that nz=I (n+1) - I (1)



### The Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) format

- The CSR format uses  $8 \times nz + 4 \times (nz + n + 1)$  bytes
- CSR format suits square and rectangular matrices alike
- Operations:
  - quick extraction of row  $i \rightarrow$  elements between I (i) and I (i+1) -1
  - column extraction requires localizing on *each row* the values of J corresponding to the wanted column
    - If we adopt no particular ordering, the cost operation is proportional to *nz*
    - If, instead, column indexes of each row in J are ordered in increasing order as in our example, with a binary-search algorithm the extraction cost for a column becomes proportional to n log<sub>2</sub>(m), where m is the mean number of elements on each row
  - the access to a generic element has normally a cost proportional to m, yet if we order columns it reduces to log<sub>2</sub>m

### The Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) format

The matrix-vector product  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$  is given by

```
y=zeros(n,1);
% y=A(I(1:n)).*x if the diagonal is stored first
for k=1:n
ik=I(k):I(k+1)-1;
% ik=I(k)+1:I(k+1)-1; if the diagonal is stored first
jcol =J(ik); y(k)=y(k)+dot(A(ik),x(jcol));
end
```

### The CSC (Compressed Sparse Column) format

- The CSC (Compressed Sparse Column) format stores matrices by ordering them column-wise
- It is easy to extract a column as opposed to rows
- The roles of vectors I and J is exchanged compared with the CSR format
- When performing matrix-vector multiplication with a sparse matrix in CSC format it is preferable to compute the result as a linear combination of the columns of the matrix
- Indeed, if  $\mathbf{c}_i$  indicates the *i*-th column of matrix A, we have that A $\mathbf{x} = \sum_i x_i \mathbf{c}_i$

### The CSC (Compressed Sparse Column) format

 Therefore, the matrix-vector product y = Ax on a CSC matrix may be computed as:

```
y=zeros(n,1);
for k=1:n
    xcoeff=x(k);
    jk=I(k):I(k+1)-1;
    ik=J(jk);
    y(ik)=y(ik) + xcoeff * A(jk)';
end
```

- The MSR (Modified Sparse Row) format is a special version of CSR for square matrices exploiting the fact that:
  - The diagonal elements of many matrices are usually nonzero (matrices generated by finite elements)
  - The diagonal elements are accessed more often than the rest of the elements
- **Diagonal** entries can be stored in one single array, since their *indexes are implicitly known* from their position in the array
- As for the symmetric skyline, only off-diagonal elements are stored in a special fashion, i.e. through a format akin to CSR

The MSR format uses two arrays:

- V real array of values:
  - In the first *n* entries of V we store the diagonal
  - The place n+1 in V is left with no significant value (may sometimes carry some information concerning the matrix)
  - From place n+2 onwards off-diagonal elements are stored, row-wise
  - V has length *nz* + 1
- B Bind
  - B has the same length as  $V \rightarrow nz + 1$
  - The first n + 1 point to where rows begin
  - From n+2 to nz+1 there are the column indexes of the elements stored in the corresponding places in V

#### Example

101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	145	146
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	150	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	155
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

#### Array B

14	16	20	23	27	33	37	41	51	54	58	60	2	4	1	3	4	5	2	5		
		6	1	2	5	7	9	2	3	4	6	7	8	3	5	8	9	4	5	8	
															11						

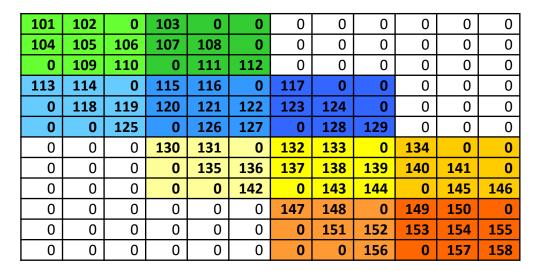
#### Array V

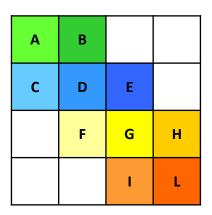
101	105	110	115	121	127	132	138	144	149	154	158	*	102	103	104	106	107	108	109		
		111	112	113	114	116	117	118	119	120	122	123	124	125	126	128	129	130	131	133	
		134	135	136	137	139	140	141	142	143	145	146	147	148	150	151	152	153	155	156	157

- The MSR format turns out to be very efficient in memory terms
- It is one of the most *compact* formats for sparse matrices
- It is used in several linear algebra libraries for large problems
- The *drawback* is that it *only* applies to *square matrices*
- The matrix-vector product is coded as:

```
y=V(1:n).*x;
for k=1:n
ik=B(k):B(k+1)-1;
jcol =B(ik);
y(k)=y(k)+dot(A(ik),x(jcol));
end
```

- The BSR format is a CSR with dense submatrices of fixed shape instead of scalar items
- The block size must evenly divide the shape of the matrix





• In this example the block size is 3 x 3

- The BSR format store the non-zero blocks of the sparse matrix
- A non-zero block is the block that contains at least one non-zero element

101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	145	146
0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	150	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	155
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

Α	В		
с	D	Е	
	F	G	н
		I	L

The **BSR format** consists of four arrays:

- Values real array containing the elements of the non-zero blocks of a sparse matrix
  - The elements are stored block-by-block in row-major order
  - All elements of non-zero blocks are stored, even if some of them are equal to zero
  - Within each non-zero block elements are stored in column-major order in the case of one-based indexing, and in row-major order in the case of the zero-based indexing

Α	В		
с	D	E	
	F	G	н
		I	L

The **BSR format** consists of four arrays:

- Columns integer array where element *i* is the number of the column in the block matrix that contains the *i*-th non-zero block
- PointerB integer array where element *j* gives the index of the element in the *columns* array that is first non-zero block in row *j* of the block matrix
- PointerE integer array where element *j* gives the index of the element in the *columns* array that contains the last non-zero block in a row *j* of the block matrix plus 1

### Example

Values

113       0       0       114       118       0       0       119       125       115       120       0       116       121       126       0       122       127          117       123       0       0       128       0       0       129       130       0       0       131       135       0       0       136       142	101	104	0	102	105	109	0	106	110	103	107	0	0	108	111	0	0	112	
		113	0	0	114	118	0	0	119	125	115	120	0	116	121	126	0	122	127
		117	123	0	0	124	128	0	0	129	130	0	0	131	135	0	0	136	142
<u>132</u> 137 0 133 138 143 0 139 144 134 140 0 0 141 145 0 0 146		132																	

- Columns PointerB
- PointerE



Α	В		
С	D	Е	
	F	G	н
		Т	L

- The length of the values array is equal to the number of all elements in the non-zero blocks
- The length of the columns array is equal to the number of nonzero blocks
- The length of the *pointerB* and *pointerE* arrays is equal to the number of block rows in the block matrix

А	В		
С	D	E	
	F	G	н
		I	L

## **Diagonal format**

• Diagonally structured matrices are matrices whose nonzero elements are located along a small number of diagonals

The **diag format** consist of:

- **DIAG** a rectangular real array storing the diagonals
  - DIAG has size *n* x *Nd*, where *Nd* is the number of diagonals
- IOFF an integer array containing the offsets of each diagonal with respect to the main diagonal
  - IOFF ha size Nd

## **Diagonal format**

- The order in which the diagonals are stored in of DIAG is generally unimportant
- Since several more operations are performed with the main diagonal, storing it in the first column may be slightly advantageous
- Note that all the diagonals except the main diagonal have fewer than n elements, so there are positions in DIAG that will not be used

### **Diagonal format**

113

Λ

#### **Example**

Example		_										
	101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
	113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
	0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	0	0
<ul> <li>Matrix</li> </ul>	0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	0	0
	0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	0	0
	0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	0
	0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	145	146
	0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	150	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	154	155
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156	0	157	158

0

103

Element DIAG(i, j) is located in position a<sub>i,i+ioff(j)</sub> of the original matrix

• DIAG

115		101	TOT	102	•	105
118	114	109	105	106	107	108
125	119	0	110	0	111	112
130	0	120	115	116	0	117
135	131	126	121	122	123	124
142	136	0	127	0	128	129
147	0	137	132	133	0	134
151	148	143	138	139	140	141
156	152	0	144	0	145	146
0	0	153	149	150	0	0
0	0	157	154	155	0	0
0	0	0	158	0	0	0

104 101 102

OFF -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3

## Ellpack-Itpack format

- The Ellpack-Itpack format is a general scheme, popular on vector machines
- The Ellpack-Itpack format consists of two rectangular arrays:
  - **COEF** real array (similar to DIAG) that contains the nonzero elements of A (completing the row by zeros as necessary)
  - JCOEF integer array that contains the column positions of each entry in COEF
  - COEF and JCOEF have size *n x Nd*, where *n* is the number of rows and *Nd* is the maximum number of nonzero elements per row, whith *Nd* small

## Ellpack-Itpack format

### **Example**

Matrix

le		101	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	)	0	0	
		104	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	(	)	0	0	
		0	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	)	0	0	
		113	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0		ו	0	0	
X		0	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	0	0	)	0	0	
		0	0	125	0	126	127	0	128	129	0	)	0	0	
		0	0	0	130	131	0	132	133	0	134	1	0	0	
		0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	139	140	) 14	11	0	
		0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	) 14	<b>15</b> 🗄	146	
		0	0	0	0	0	0	147	148	0	149	9 15	50	0	
		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	151	152	153	3 15	54	155	
		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156		י ב ב	57	158	
		U	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	130	, i			130	
			COE		0			U	U	150		OE		130	
101	102	103	COE		0	0	0	[	1	2					0
<b>101</b> 104	102 105	(	COE 3	F o	0						JC	OE	F	(	0
		<b>(</b>	COE 3 5 10	F 0 7 10	0	0	0		1	2	JC 4	0E 0	<b>F</b>	(	
104	105	103 103	COE 3 6 10 1 11	F 0 7 10 2	0 8 0	0	0		1 1	<mark>2</mark> 2	JC 4 3	0E 0 4	F 0 5		0
104 109	105 110	103 100 111	COE 3 5 10 1 11 5 11	0 7 10 2 6 11	0 8 0 7	0 0 0 0	0 0 0		1 1 2	2 2 3	JC 4 3 5	0 0 4 6	F 0 5 0		0
104 109 113	105 110 114	103 100 111 111	COE 3 6 10 1 11 5 11 0 12	0 7 10 2 6 11 1 12	0 8 0 .7 2 12	0 0 0 0	0 0 0		1 1 2 1	2 2 3 2	JC 4 3 5 4	0 0 4 6 5	F 0 5 0 7		0 0 0
104 109 113 118	105 110 114 119	103 100 111 115 120	COE 3 6 10 1 11 5 11 0 12 7 12	0 7 10 2 6 11 1 12 8 12	0 88 0 77 2 12 9	0 0 0 0 23 12	0 0 0		1 1 2 1 2	2 2 3 2 3 3	JC 4 3 5 4 4	0 0 4 6 5 5	<b>F</b> 0 <b>5</b> 0 7 6		0 0 0 7
104 109 113 118 125	105 110 114 119 126	103 100 111 111 120 121	COE 3 5 10 1 11 5 11 0 12 7 12 2 13	0 7 10 2 6 11 1 12 8 12 3 13	0 88 0 7 2 12 9 4	0 0 0 2 3 12 0 0	0 0 0 24 0 0		1 1 2 1 2 3	2 2 3 2 3 2 3 5	JC 4 3 5 4 4 6	0E 0 4 6 5 5 5 8	<b>F</b> 0 <b>5</b> 0 7 <b>6</b> 9		0 0 7 0
104 109 113 118 125 130	105 110 114 119 126 131	103 100 111 111 120 121 132	COE 3 10 1 11 5 11 0 12 7 12 2 13 7 13	0       7     10       2     10       6     111       1     12       8     12       3     13       8     13	0 8 0 7 2 12 9 4 4 9 14	0 0 0 2 3 12 0 0	0 0 0 24 0 0		1 1 2 1 2 3 3	2 2 3 2 3 3 5 5 5	JC 4 3 5 4 4 4 6 7	0 0 4 6 5 5 8 8	F 0 5 0 7 6 9 10		0 0 7 0
104 109 113 118 125 130 135	105 110 114 119 126 131 136	103 100 111 111 120 120 121 133	COE 3 10 1 11 5 11 0 12 7 12 2 13 7 13 4 14	0       7     10       2     11       6     111       1     122       8     123       3     133       5     14	0 8 0 7 2 12 9 4 4 9 14	0 0 0 23 12 0 0 0 0 0 14	0 0 0 24 0 0		1 1 2 1 2 3 3 4 5	2 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 5 3 5 3 5 4 5 6	JC 4 3 4 4 4 6 7 7	0 0 4 5 5 8 8 8 8	F 0 5 0 7 6 9 10 9		0 0 7 0 0

# MATLAB AND SPARSE MATRICES

Material from:

https://it.mathworks.com/help/matlab/math/constructing-sparse-matrices.html

- MATLAB never creates sparse matrices automatically
- A representation of the pattern is given by the command spy
- You must determine if a matrix contains a large enough percentage of zeros to benefit from sparse techniques
- The density of a matrix is the number of nonzero elements divided by the total number of matrix elements
- For matrix M, this would be nnz(M)/prod(size(M)) or nnz(M) / numel(M)
- Matrices with very low density are often good candidates for use of the sparse format

#### **Converting Full to Sparse**

 You can convert a full matrix to sparse storage using the sparse function with a single argument

S = sparse(A)

• For example, given the matrix A:

A = [ 0 0 0 5	<b>S = sparse(A)</b> produces:	(3,1)	1
0 2 0 0		(2,2)	2
1 3 0 0		(3,2)	3
0 0 4 0];		(4,3)	4
0 0 1 0]/		(1,4)	5

- Output: nonzero elements of S, with their row and column indices
- The elements are sorted by columns

### **Converting Full to Sparse**

- You can convert a sparse matrix to full storage using the full function, provided the matrix order is not too large
- For example **A** = **full(S)** reverses the example conversion
- Converting a full matrix to sparse storage is not the most frequent way of generating sparse matrices
- If the order of a matrix is small enough that full storage is possible, then conversion to sparse storage rarely offers significant savings

### **Creating Sparse Matrices Directly**

 You can create a sparse matrix from a list of nonzero elements using the sparse function with five arguments

S = sparse(i,j,s,m,n)

where

- i and j are vectors of row and column indices, respectively, for the nonzero elements of the matrix
- s is a vector of nonzero values whose indices are specified by the corresponding (i,j) pairs
- **m** is the row dimension for the resulting matrix
- **n** is the column dimension
- The matrix S of the previous example can be generated with:
  - S = sparse([3 2 3 4 1], [1 2 2 3 4], [1 2 3 4 5], 4, 4)

### **Creating Sparse Matrices Directly**

- The matrix representation of the second difference operator is a tridiagonal matrix with -2s on the diagonal and 1s on the super- and sub-diagonal
- One way to generate it is:
  - D = sparse(1:n, 1:n, -2\*ones(1, n), n, n);
  - E = sparse(2:n, 1:n-1, ones(1, n-1), n, n);
  - S = E+D+E'

### **Creating Sparse Matrices Directly**

For n = 5, MATLAB responds with		
-2		
1		
1		
-2		
1		
1		

-2

1

1

-2

1

-2

(3,3)

(4,3)

(3, 4)

(4,4)

(5,4)

(4,5)

(5, 5)

The full command F = full(S)displays the corresponding full matrix F = full(S) $\mathbf{F} =$ 0 0 -2 1 0 1 -2 1 0 0 0 1 -2 1 0

0

0

0

0 1 -2 1

0

1

-2