ADVANCED ARCHITECTURES

Sparse matrices

Annalisa Massini

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Lecture 8

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-matrix-storage-format</u>

- 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
- But 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 non-zero elements is $O(n^2)$

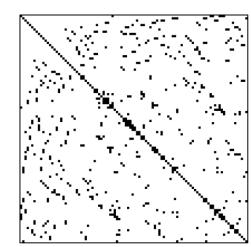
- If the location of the zero elements is known a-priori, we can avoid reserving storage for them
- The distribution of non-zero elements of a sparse matrix may be described by:
 - the sparsity pattern, defined as the set $\{(i,j): A_{ij} \neq 0\}$
 - the matrix graph, where nodes i and j are connected by an edge if and only if $A_{ij} \neq 0$
- 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 10^5 for the pressure and 4×10^5 for each component of the velocity

- The associated matrix will then be 90000×90000
- If we store all 8.1×10⁹ coefficients, using double precision (8 bytes), around 60 Gigabytes are necessary!
- This is too much and memory handle is very inefficient

- 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_{ij} 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 of sparse formats 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:
- 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
- 5. And, multiplying a matrix and a vector that is a very common intermediate operation used in many numerical methods

- 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 the 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 (as in Matlab)
 - 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 $12 \times 12 \times 8 = 1152$ 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.
```

is represented (for example) by

```
A 12.9. 7. 5. 1. 2.11.3. 6. 4. 8.10.
```

```
1 5 3 3 2 1 1 4 2 3 2 3 4
```

Notice that elements are listed in an arbitrary order

Example - *n*=12 and *nz*=58

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:

-
$$8 \times n \times n =$$

= $8 \times 12 \times 12 = 1152$ bytes

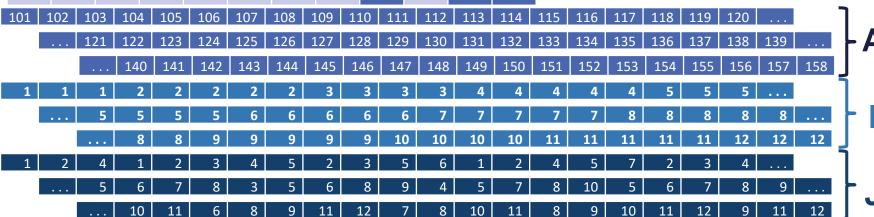
in full format

Example - *n*=12 and *nz*=58

10	1 1	102	0	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	4 1	105	106	107	108	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0 1	109	110	0	111	112	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	3 1	114	0	115	116	0	117	0	0	0	0	0
	0 1	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
101	10	2 10)3 104	4 105	106	107	108	109 1	10 11	1 112	113	114 1

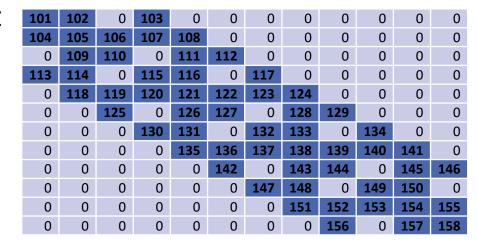
The space occupied is:

-
$$8 \times n \times n = 1152$$
 bytes in full format



- 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 $O(\log_2(nz))$, but at a higher storing price

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



 101
 102
 103
 104
 105
 106
 107
 108
 109
 110
 111
 ...

 1
 1
 1
 2
 2
 2
 2
 2
 3
 3
 3
 ...

 1
 2
 4
 1
 2
 3
 4
 5
 2
 3
 5
 ...

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 << n²
- An advantage of this format is that:
 - It is easy to add a new element to the matrix
 - In fact, 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

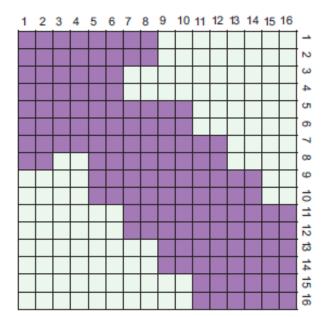
The skyline format

 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

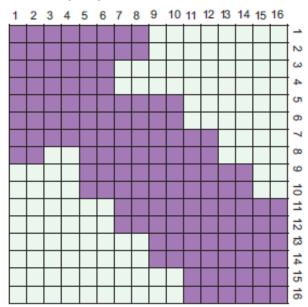
 Indeed, algorithms have been developed to cluster non zero elements by permuting the rows and columns of the matrix (see, for example, the Cuthill-McKee algorithm)

- 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

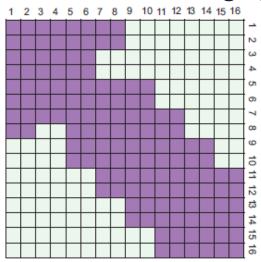


The **skyline format** with diagonal array is given by:

- 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 off-diagonal elements on row k + 1 belonging to the *skyline*



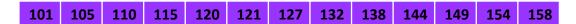
Example

- 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)'

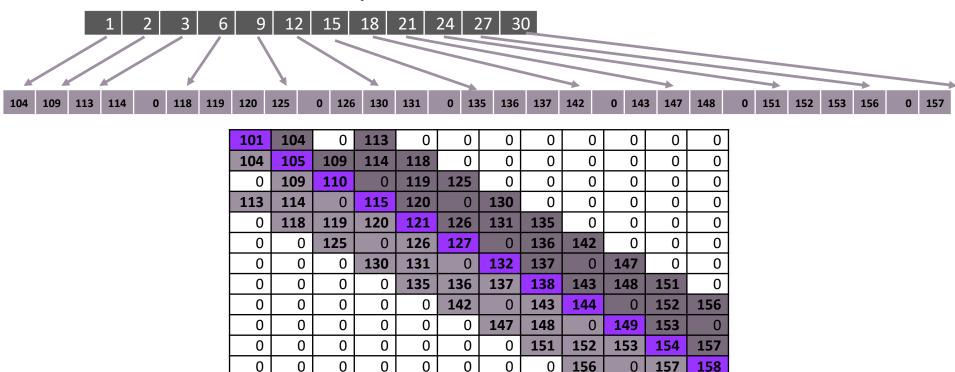
101	104	0	113	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	105	109	114	118	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	109	110	0	119	125	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	114	0	115	120	0	130	0	0	0	0	0
0	118	119	120	121	126	131	135	0	0	0	0
0	0	125	0	126	127	0	136	142	0	0	0
0	0	0	130	131	0	132	137	0	147	0	0
0	0	0	0	135	136	137	138	143	148	151	0
0	0	0	0	0	142	0	143	144	0	152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

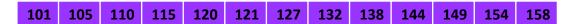


Pointer I and lower skyline elements AL

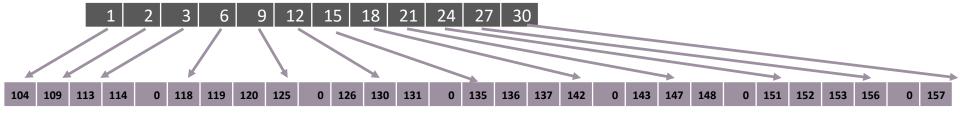


Example

Diagonal D



Pointers I and lower skyline elements AL



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

The product y = Ax 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
```

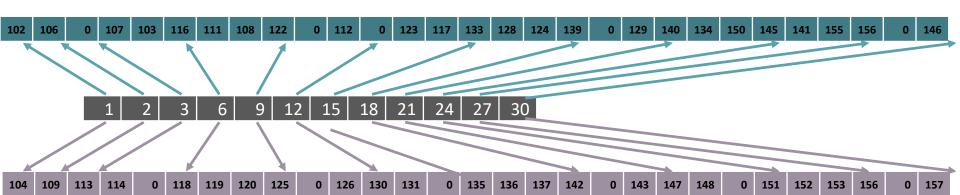
 We operate symmetrically on rows and columns to exploit the fact that only the lower triangular part was stored in AL

- The memory needed to store the matrix in this format depends on how effectively the skyline reproduces the actual pattern
- In our case:
 - The **full format** requires: 12 x 12 x 8 = **1152**
 - 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: $(29 + 12) \times 8 + n \times 4 = 376$
- 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 y = Ax 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

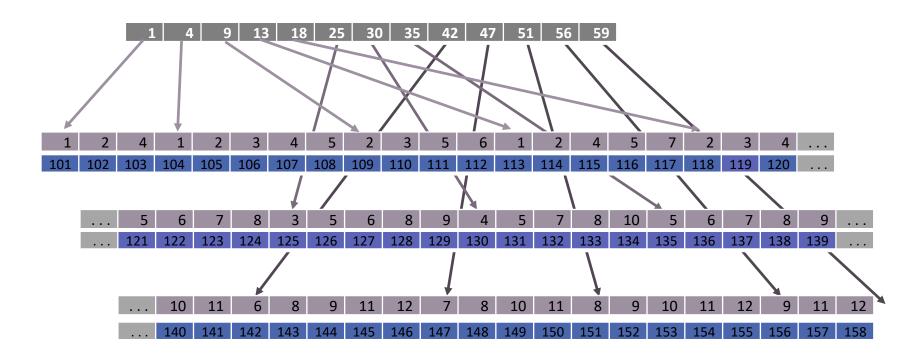
The Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) format

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 $n \log_2(m)$, 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 $\log_2 m$

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 $A\mathbf{x} = \Sigma_i x_i \mathbf{c}_i$

The CSC (Compressed Sparse Column) format

• Therefore, the matrix-vector product $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$ on a CSC matrix may be computed as:

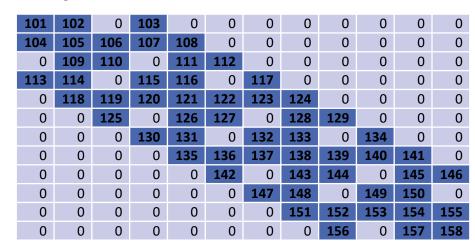
```
y=zeros(n,1);
for k=1:n
    xcoeff=x(k);
    jk=I(k):I(k+1)-1;
    ik=J(jk);
    y(ik)=y(ik) + xcoeff * A(jk)';
end
```

- 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

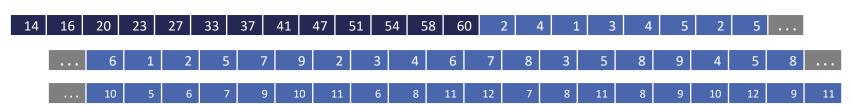
The MSR format uses two arrays:

- 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 → 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

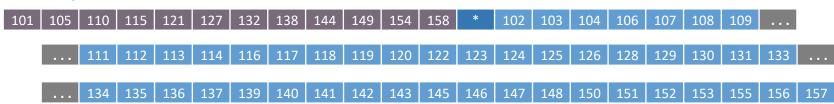
Example



Array B



Array V

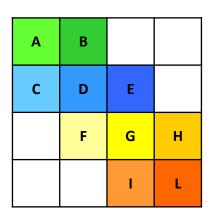


- The MSR format turns out to be very efficient in memory terms
- It is one of the most compact formats for sparse matrices
- It is used in several linear algebra libraries for large problems
- The drawback is that it only applies to square matrices
- The matrix-vector product is coded as:

```
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

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



• 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	E	
	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

А	В		
С	D	E	
	F	G	Н
		_	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

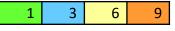
Values







PointerB



PointerE

3	6	9	11

Α	В		
С	D	Е	
	F	G	Н
		-	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	Е	
	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 has 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

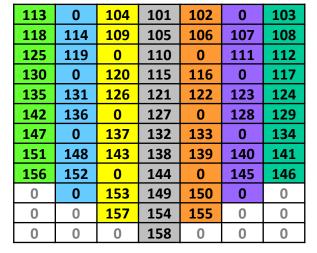
Example

Matrix

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

Element DIAG(i, j) is located in position $a_{i,i+ioff(j)}$ of the original matrix

DIAG



IOFF



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

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

COEF

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

JCOEF

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