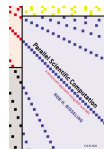
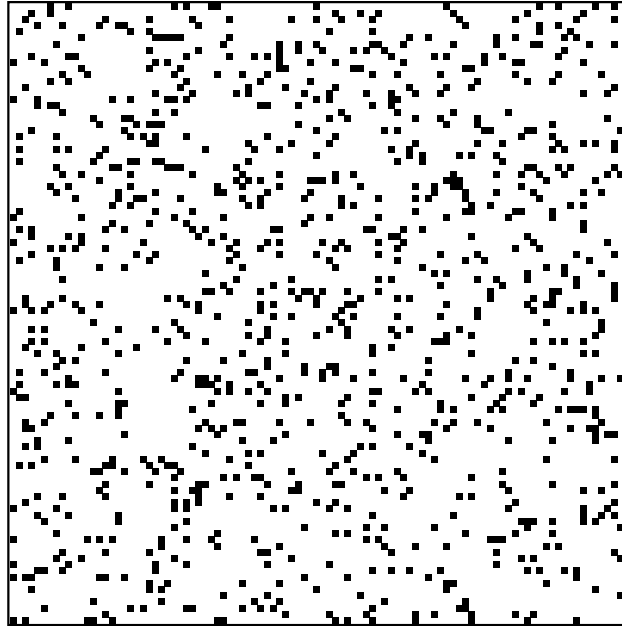


Random Sparse Matrices **(PSC §4.7)**



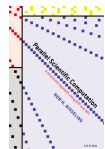
Random sparse matrix *random100*



$n = 100$, $nz = 1000$, $c = 10$, $d = 0.1$.

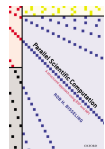
Interactively generated at the [Matrix Market Deli](http://math.nist.gov/MatrixMarket/deli/)
(Boisvert *et al.* 1997),

<http://math.nist.gov/MatrixMarket/deli/Random/>

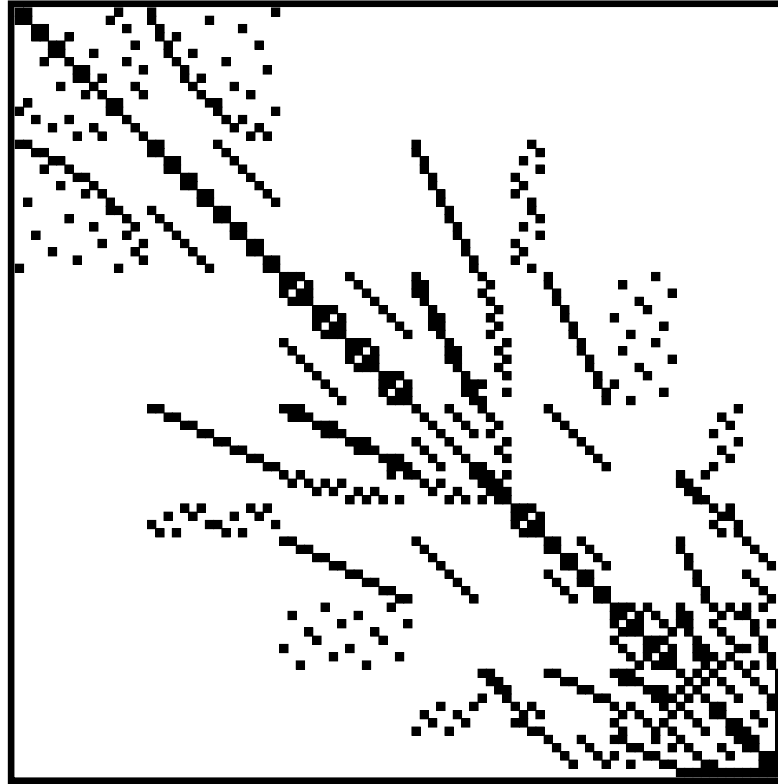


Random sparse matrix

- A **random sparse matrix** A can be obtained by determining, randomly and independently, for each element a_{ij} whether it is 0 or not.
- If the probability of creating a nonzero is d , the matrix has:
 - an **expected density** $d(A) = d$;
 - an **expected number of nonzeros** $nz(A) = dn^2$.
- Random sparse matrices have a **very special property**: every subset of the matrix elements, chosen independently from the sparsity pattern, has an expected fraction d of nonzeros.
- This property provides a powerful tool for analysing algorithms involving random sparse matrices.

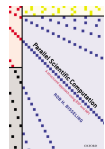


Not a random sparse matrix



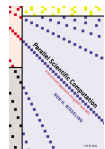
Matrix `cage6` from DNA electrophoresis studies.

- Some structure immediately visible.
- Don't use the term '[random sparse matrix](#)' for such a matrix or a sparse matrix without any visible structure.



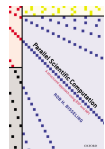
Parallel sparse matrix–vector multiplication

- Construct a random sparse matrix A by drawing for each index pair (i, j) a random number $r_{ij} \in [0, 1]$, doing this **independently** and **uniformly** (with each outcome equally likely), creating a nonzero a_{ij} if $r_{ij} < d$.
- Distribute A over p processors in a manner that is **independent of the sparsity pattern** by assigning an equal number of elements (whether 0 or not) to each processor.
- Examples are the square block distribution, square cyclic distribution, and the cyclic row distribution.



Computational load balance

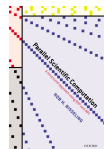
- The load balance can be estimated by using probability theory.
- The problem is to determine the **expected maximum**, taken over all processors, of the local **number of nonzeros**.
- We cannot solve this problem exactly, but we can obtain a **useful bound** on the probability of the maximum exceeding a certain value.
- Bound is obtained by applying a theorem of **Chernoff**, often used in the analysis of randomised algorithms.



Theorem 4.11 (Chernoff 1952)

- Let $0 < d < 1$.
- Let X_0, X_1, \dots, X_{m-1} be independent Bernoulli trials with outcome 0 or 1, such that $\Pr[X_k = 1] = d$, for $0 \leq k < m$.
- Let $X = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} X_k$ and $\mu = md$.
- Then for every $\epsilon > 0$,

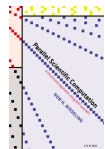
$$\Pr[X > (1 + \epsilon)\mu] < \left(\frac{e^\epsilon}{(1 + \epsilon)^{1+\epsilon}} \right)^\mu.$$



Application of Chernoff Theorem

$$\Pr[X > (1 + \epsilon)\mu] < \left(\frac{e^\epsilon}{(1 + \epsilon)^{1+\epsilon}} \right)^\mu.$$

- If we flip a biased coin which produces heads with probability d , the bound tells us how small the probability is of getting $\epsilon\mu$ more heads than the expected average μ .
- Bound for $\epsilon = 1$ tells us that the probability of getting more than twice the expected number of heads is less than $(e/4)^\mu \approx (0.68)^{md}$.



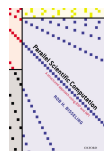
Application to random sparse matrix

- Every processor has $m = \frac{n^2}{p}$ elements, each being nonzero with probability d .
- Expected number of nonzeros per processor is $\mu = \frac{dn^2}{p}$.
- Let E_s be the event that processor $P(s)$ has more than $(1 + \epsilon)\mu$ nonzeros. Let $E = \cup_{s=0}^{p-1} E_s$.
- We have

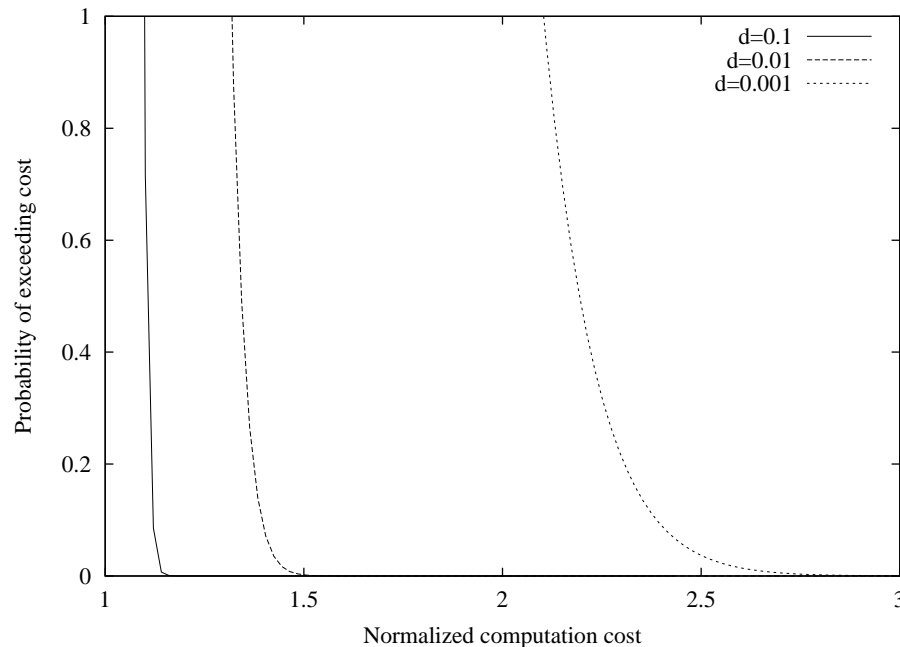
$$\Pr[E] \leq \sum_{s=0}^{p-1} \Pr[E_s] = p\Pr[E_0],$$

so that the cost of superstep (1) satisfies

$$\Pr \left[T_{(1)} > \frac{2(1 + \epsilon)dn^2}{p} \right] < p \left(\frac{e^\epsilon}{(1 + \epsilon)^{1+\epsilon}} \right)^{\frac{dn^2}{p}}.$$



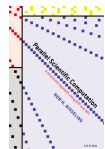
Probability of exceeding normalised cost



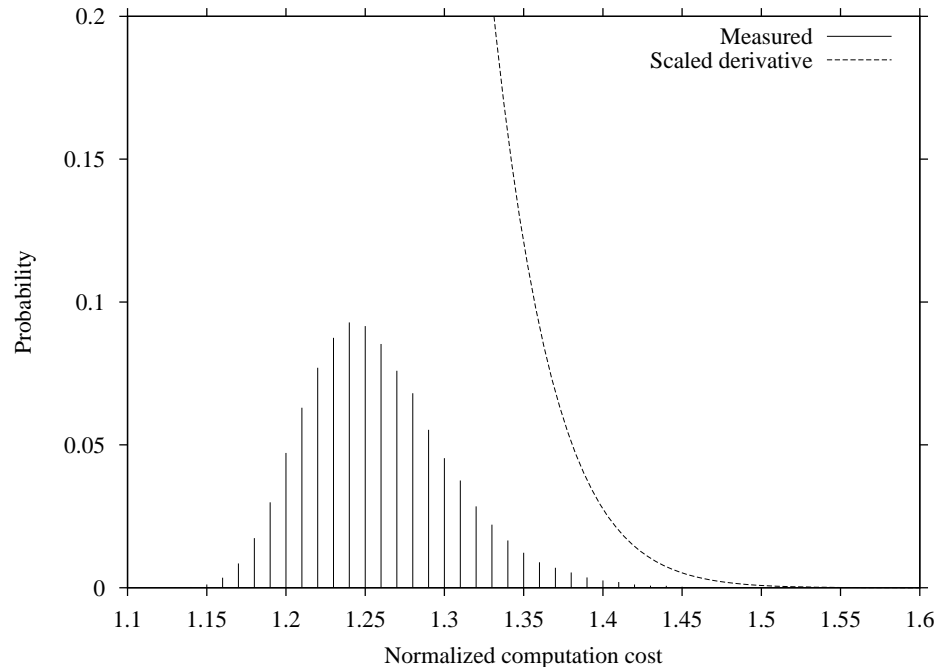
Chernoff probability $F(\epsilon)$ of exceeding normalised cost $1 + \epsilon$ for random sparse matrix of size $n = 1000$ and density d distributed over $p = 100$ processors.

Average normalised cost obtained by simulation:

1.076 for $d = 0.1$; 1.258 for $d = 0.01$; 1.876 for $d = 0.001$.

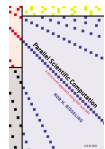


Probability distribution



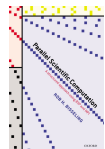
Probability distribution obtained by simulation for random sparse matrix of size $n = 1000$ and density $d = 0.01$ distributed over $p = 100$ processors.

- Local nonzero count 124 (cost = 1.24) occurs most.
- Derivative is $(1 - F(\epsilon))'$, **probability density function** corresponding to the Chernoff bound. Pessimistic!

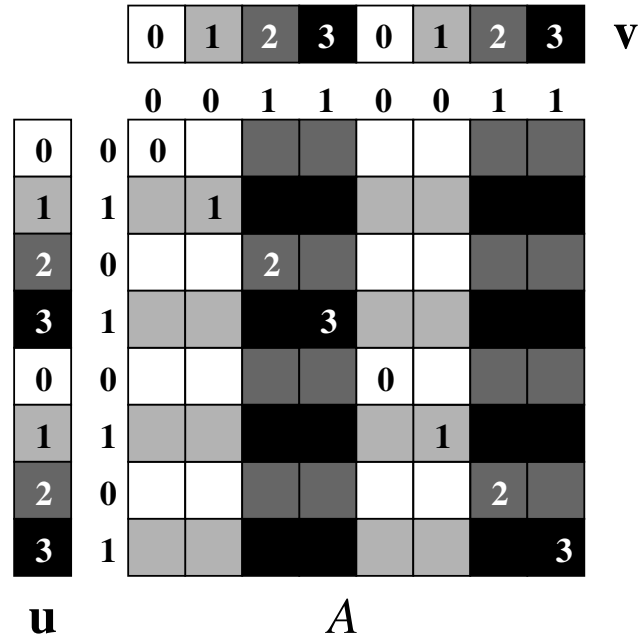


Communication cost for random sparse matrix

- The communication volume for a dense matrix is an **upper bound** on the volume for a sparse matrix distributed by the same fixed, pattern-independent scheme.
- For a random sparse matrix with a **high density**, the communication obligations will be the same as for a dense matrix.
- Therefore, we try to find a good fixed distribution scheme for random sparse matrices by applying methods from the **dense case**.

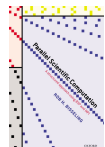


Square Cartesian distribution for dense matrix



$$n = 8, p = 4, M = N = 2.$$

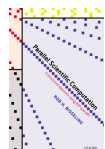
Square Cartesian distribution based on a cyclic distribution of the matrix diagonal.



Superstep (0): fanout

- Vector component v_j is needed only in $P(*, \phi_1(j))$.
- $P(s, \phi_1(j))$ does not need v_j if all $\frac{n}{\sqrt{p}}$ elements in the local part of matrix column j are zero; this has probability $(1 - d)^{n/\sqrt{p}}$.
- Probability that $P(s, \phi_1(j))$ needs v_j is $1 - (1 - d)^{n/\sqrt{p}}$.
- Since $\sqrt{p} - 1$ processors each have to receive v_j with this probability, the expected number of receives for component v_j is $(\sqrt{p} - 1)(1 - (1 - d)^{n/\sqrt{p}})$.
- Expected volume is $n(\sqrt{p} - 1)(1 - (1 - d)^{n/\sqrt{p}})$.
- Ignoring communication imbalance, we divide by p , giving

$$T_{(0)} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} - \frac{1}{p} \right) (1 - (1 - d)^{n/\sqrt{p}}) ng.$$

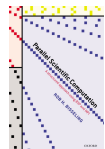


Total communication cost

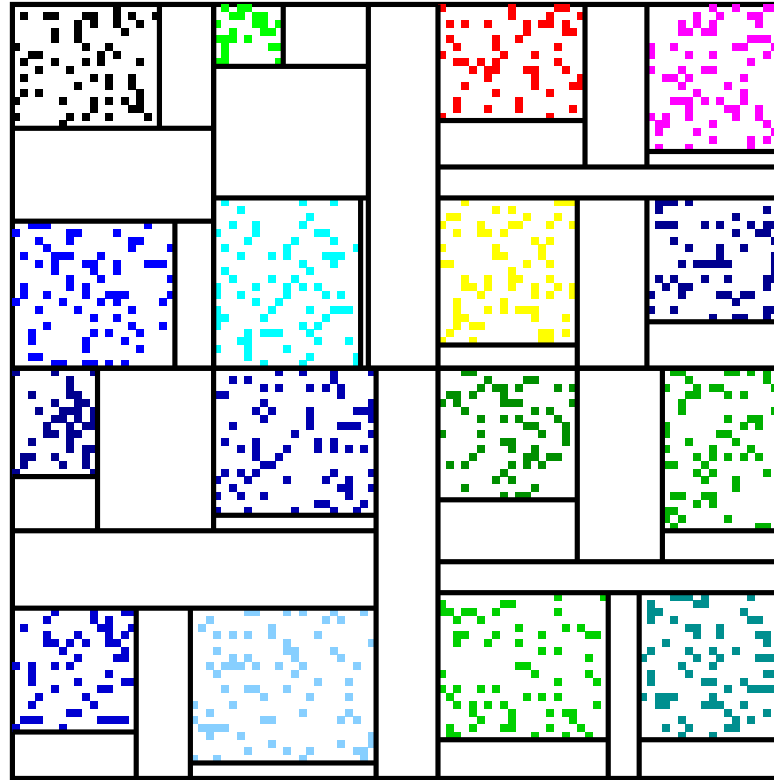
- Cost of **fanin** is same as for **fanout**.
- For $n = 1000$ and $p = 100$, the matrix with highest density $d = 0.1$ has an expected communication cost of $179.995g$, close to the cost of $180g$ for a dense matrix.
- The corresponding expected normalised communication cost is

$$\frac{T_{(0)} + T_{(2)}}{2dn^2/p} \approx 0.09g.$$

- We need a parallel computer with $g \leq 11$ to run our algorithm with more than 50% efficiency
- For $n = 1000$ and $p = 100$, the matrix with lowest density $d = 0.001$ has an expected normalised communication cost of $0.86g$.

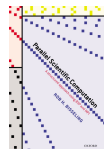


Tailor the distribution to the matrix



Local view of `random100` (with $n = 100$, $nz = 1000$, $d = 0.1$), distributed by the Mondriaan program over $p = 16$ processors. Shown is the submatrix $I_s \times J_s$ for $0 \leq s < 16$.

- Allowed imbalance $\epsilon = 20\%$; $\epsilon' = 18.4\%$ achieved. Max nonzeros per proc 74. Avg 62.5. Min 25. $V = 367$.



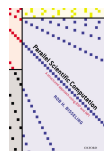
Comparing Cartesian and Mondriaan distribution

p	ϵ (in %)	V (Cartesian)	V (Mondriaan)
2	0.8	993	814
4	2.1	1987	1565
8	4.0	3750	2585
16	7.1	5514	3482
32	11.8	7764	4388

Random sparse matrix of size $n = 1000$ and density $d = 0.01$ distributed over p processors, by:

- pattern-independent Cartesian distribution;
- pattern-dependent distribution produced by the Mondriaan package with $\epsilon =$ expected value for the Cartesian distribution.

45% less communication volume for Mondriaan ($p = 32$).



Summary

- Distributing a random sparse matrix independently of its sparsity pattern spreads the **computation** well.
- We can quantify this by using the Chernoff bound

$$\Pr[X > (1 + \epsilon)\mu] < \left(\frac{e^\epsilon}{(1 + \epsilon)^{1+\epsilon}} \right)^\mu.$$

- For the **communication**, we can use a pattern-independent square Cartesian distribution which distributes the matrix diagonal and the vectors cyclically over the processors.
- The distribution can be improved by **tailoring** it to the sparsity pattern e.g. by using Mondriaan.
- Parallel multiplication of a random sparse matrix and a vector remains a difficult problem.

