

# Iterative Solvers

# Iterative vs. Direct Solvers

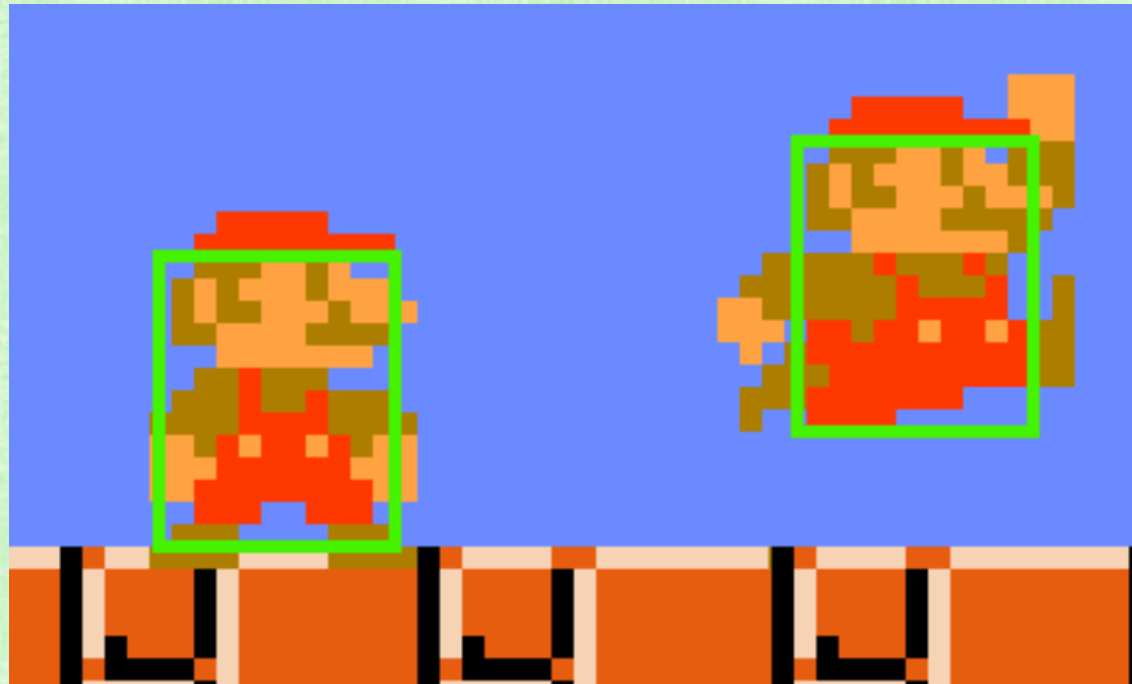
- Direct Solver/Method – closed form strategy, e.g. quadratic/Cardano formula, Gaussian Elimination for LU factorization, Cholesky factorization, etc.
- Iterative Solver/Method
  - start with an initial guess  $c^1$
  - use a recursive approach to improve that guess:  $c^2, c^3, c^4, \dots$
  - terminate based on a stopping criterion, e.g. when error is small  $\|c^q - c^{exact}\| \leq \epsilon$
- A direct method can be used to obtain an initial guess
- Iterative methods are great for sparse matrices, as they often can ignore 0 entries
  - E.g. by formulating the method via the matrix's action (multiplication) on a vector
- Direct solvers are more commonly used on dense matrices
- **Iterative solvers are used for training Neural Networks!**

# Issues with Direct Methods

- (Recall) Quadratic formula loses precision, and can fail, when  $-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$  has catastrophic cancellation
  - The de-rationalized quadratic formula instead uses  $-b \mp \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$
  - Using one formula for each root avoids catastrophic cancellation
- Cardano's formula for the roots of a cubic equation suffers from similar issues, but there is no straightforward fix
- The computed roots too often have unacceptably high error
- To highlight why one might need accurate cubic roots, consider collision detection...

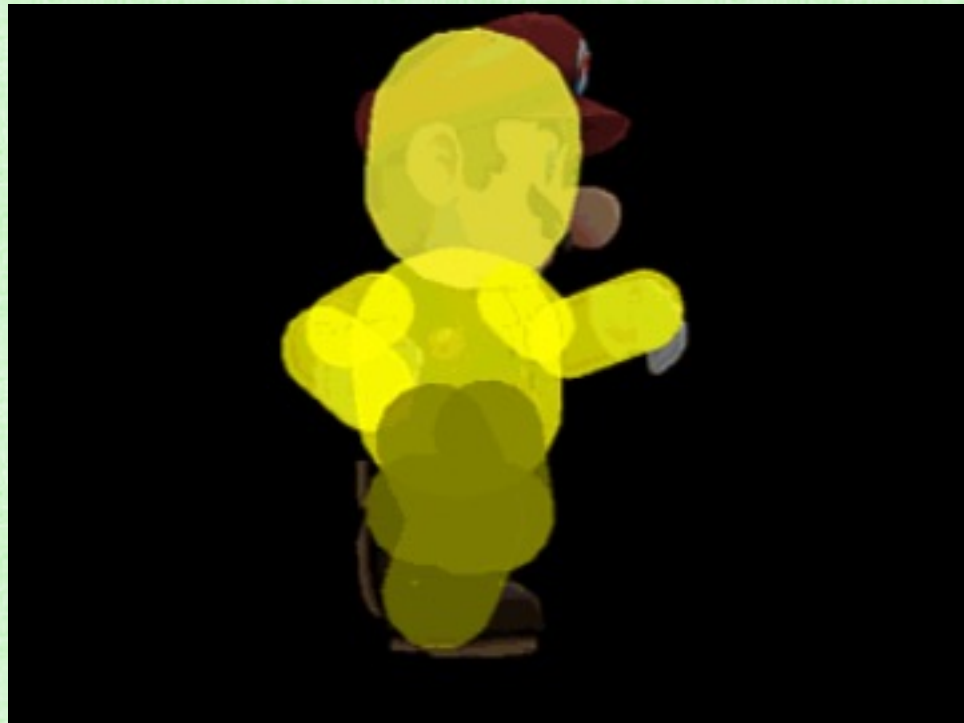
# Hit Box

- In order to detect interactions between objects in video games, objects were assigned a hit box
- Anything inside an object's hit box can potentially interact with (i.e. hit) it



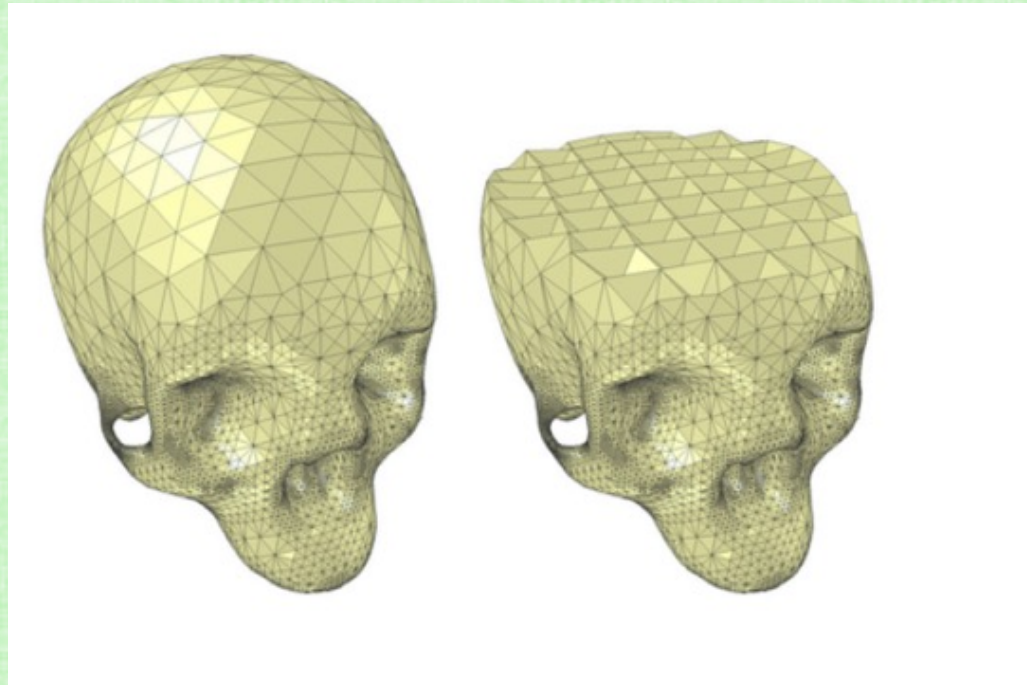
# Better Hit Boxes

- These evolved over time to more complicated shapes in both 2D and 3D
  - e.g. spheres, ellipsoids, capsules, etc.
- Anything inside any of an object's hit boxes can potentially interact with it



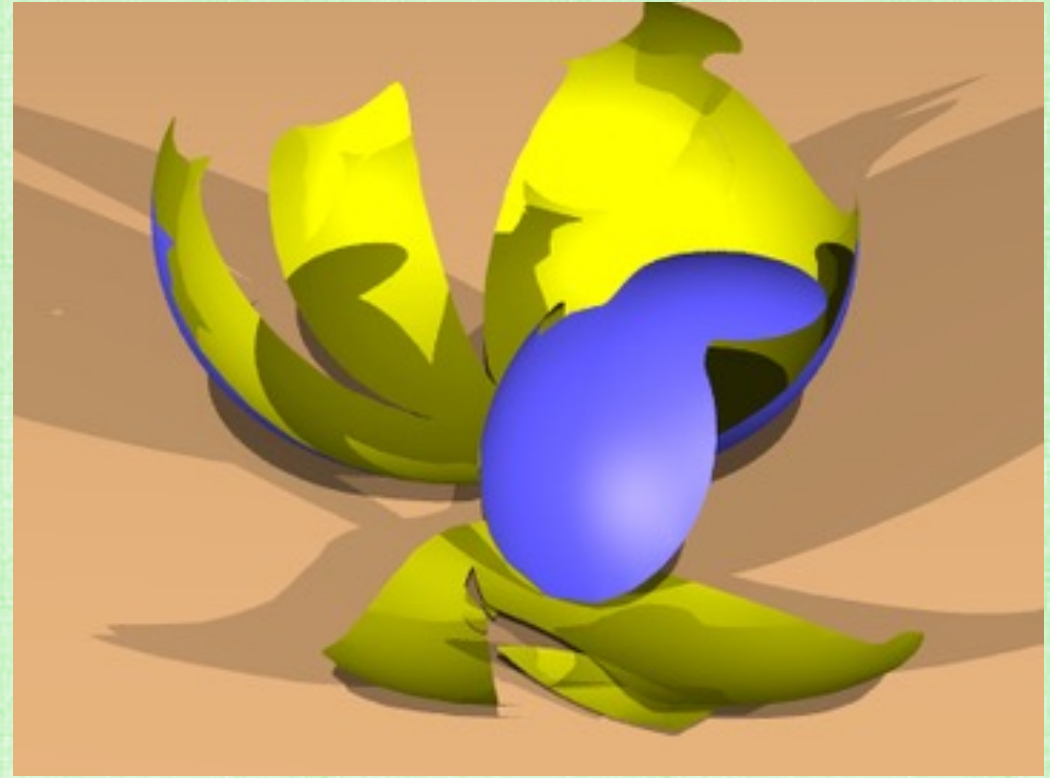
# Accurate Collision Detection

- More complex objects are often modeled by a triangulated surface mesh
- The interior can be filled with tetrahedra, or approximated with other objects
- Anything inside any of an object's interior structures can potentially interact with it



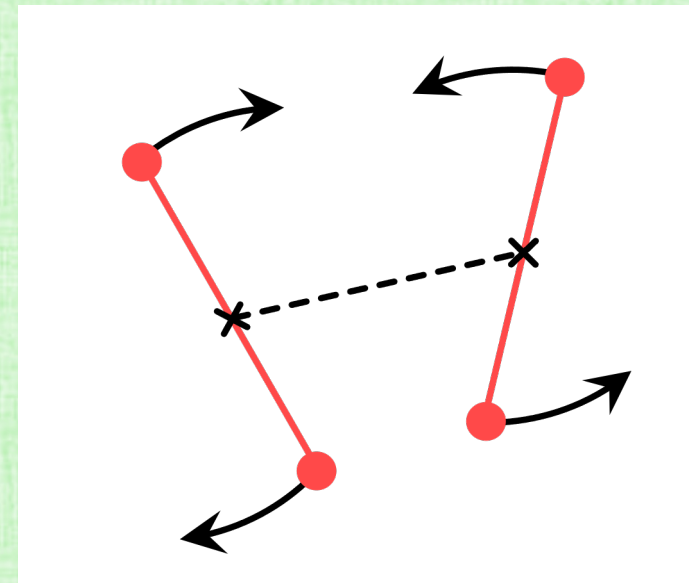
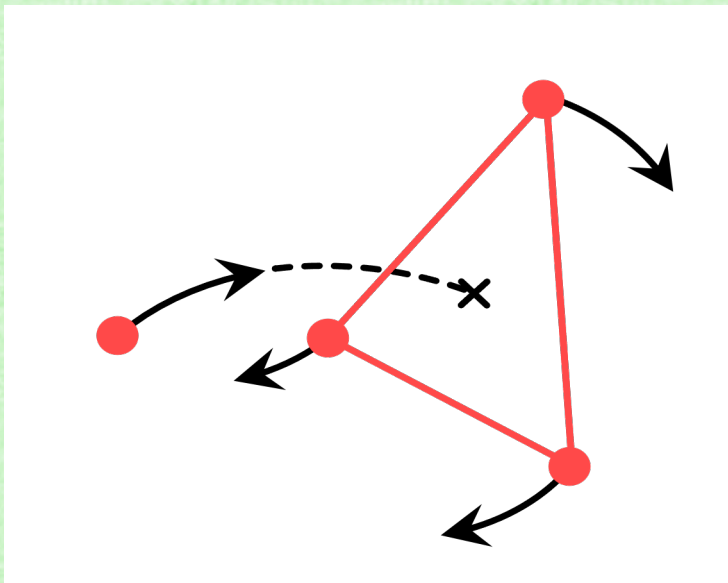
# Objects Without Interiors

- Very thin objects, such as cloth/shells, do not have an interior region
- One cannot use the same concept of inside to detect potential interactions



# Continuous Collision Detection (CCD)

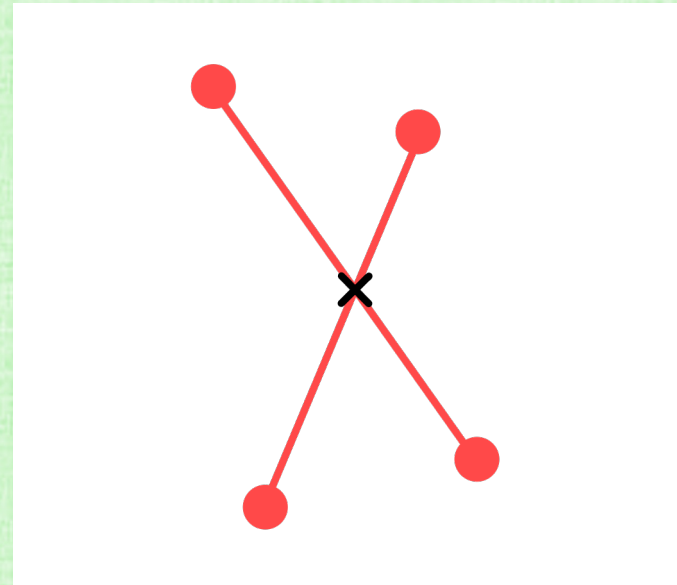
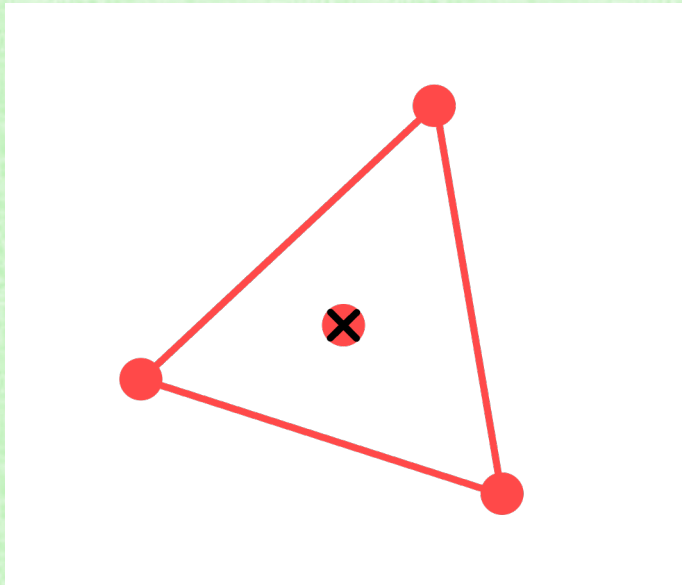
- Model the time varying trajectories of surface triangle vertices to see if/when they collide with each other
- Doesn't depend on the existence of an interior region
- There are two cases to consider: (1) Point-Face, (2) Edge-Edge





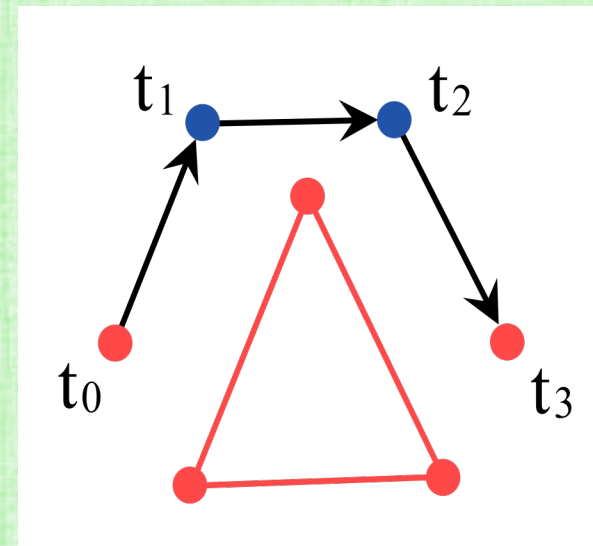
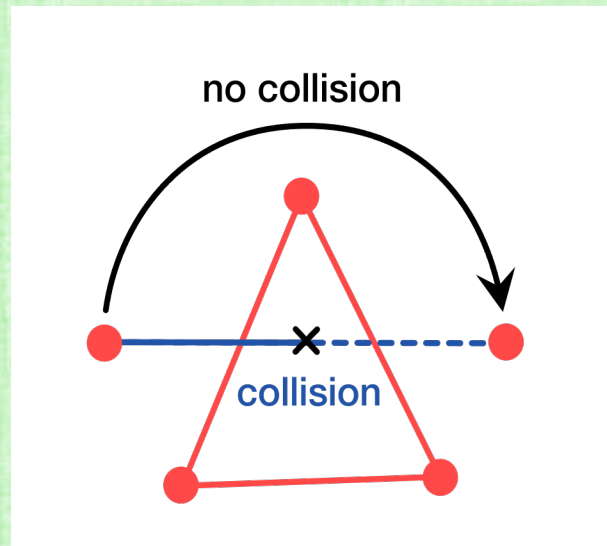
# Continuous Collision Detection (CCD)

- In both cases, the 4 relevant points need to become coplanar in order to (potentially) collide
- Once deemed coplanar, a second check determines whether: the lone point is inside the triangle (for Point-Face) or the two edges intersect (for Edge-Edge)



# Continuous Collision Detection (CCD)

- Consider time  $t_o$  to time  $t_f$  and assume that the points have constant velocities during that time interval:  $V_i(t_o)$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$
- The time evolving positions are:  $X_i(t) = X_i(t_o) + V_i(t_o)(t - t_o)$  for  $t \in [t_o, t_f]$
- Although their paths are (generally) curved, considering piecewise linear increments is sufficient for preventing self-intersecting states



# Continuous Collision Detection (CCD)

- Coplanarity occurs when  $X_4(t) - X_1(t)$ ,  $X_3(t) - X_1(t)$ , and  $X_2(t) - X_1(t)$  are not a basis for  $R^3$ , which can be checked by making them the columns of a 3x3 matrix and setting the determinant to zero (obtaining a cubic equation in  $t$ )
- Find the first root of this cubic equation in the interval  $[t_o, t_f]$
- Cubic equation solvers are so error prone that collisions are (very) often missed, and the cloth/shell ends up in a spurious self-intersecting state
- A very carefully devised/implemented iterative solver for cubic equations was able to detect all collisions:
  - It requires double precision (and fails too often in single precision)
  - See Bridson et al. “Robust Treatment of Collisions, Contact, and Friction for Cloth Animation” (2002)

# Residual and Solution Error

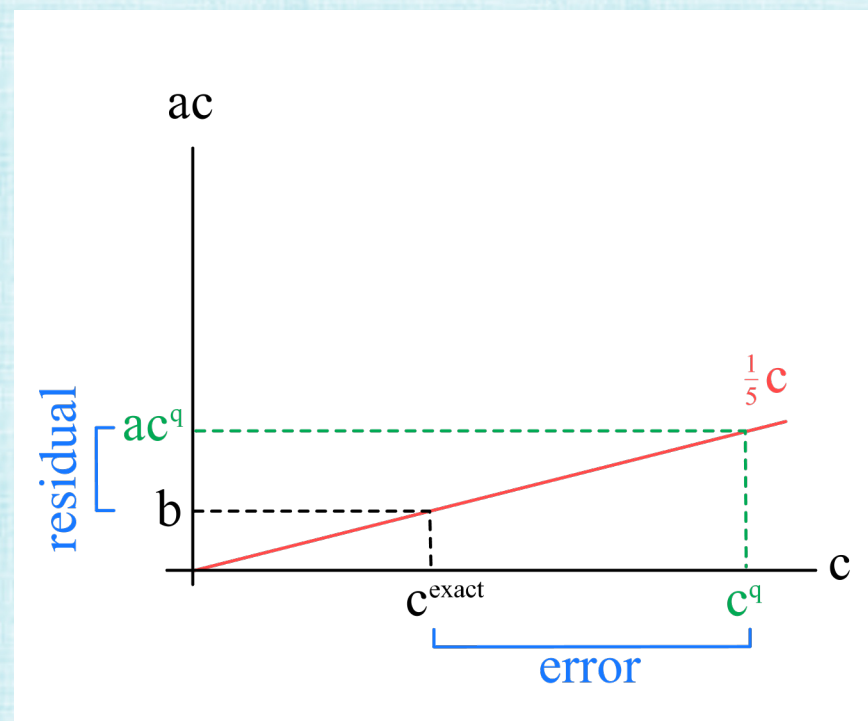
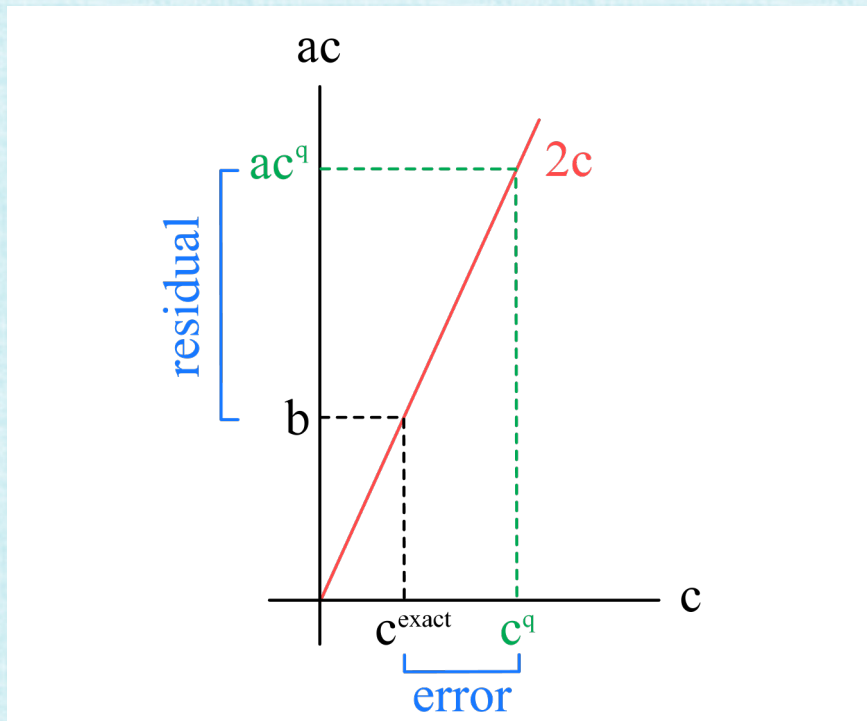
- When solving  $Ac = b$ , a current guess  $c^q$  has residual  $r^q = b - Ac^q$
- The residual measures the errors in the equations, not the error in the solution
- The error in the solution  $e^q = c^q - c^{exact}$  relates to the residual via:

$$r^q = b - Ac^q = Ac^{exact} - Ac^q = A(c^{exact} - c^q) = -Ae^q$$

- That is, the residual is the solution error transformed into the space that  $b$  lives in (the range of  $A$ )

# 1D example

- Consider a simple size  $1 \times 1$  matrix, i.e.  $[a]c = b$  with exact solution  $c = \frac{b}{a}$
- Since  $r^q = -ae^q$ , smaller  $a$  values lead to deceptively small residuals even when the error is large



# Diagonalizing the Residual/Error Equation

- "All matrices are diagonal matrices"
- And, diagonal matrices represent decoupled 1D scalar problems
- Using the SVD,  $r^q = -Ae^q$  becomes  $(U^T r^q) = -\Sigma(V^T e^q)$  which is a decoupled set of diagonal equations
- Each decoupled equation has the form  $\hat{r}_k^q = -\sigma_k \hat{e}_k^q$  (seen on the previous slide)
- Small  $\sigma_k$  lead to deceptively small residuals even when the error is large
- A small residual indicates a small error for larger singular values, but not for smaller singular values

# Line Search

- Choose a search direction  $s^q$  and move some distance  $\alpha^q$  in that direction to update the current guess to the next guess:  $c^{q+1} = c^q + \alpha^q s^q$ 
  - There are various strategies for choosing  $\alpha^q$ , including the notion of safe sets that clamp its maximum magnitude
  - Subtract  $c^{exact}$  from both sides of this recursion to get  $e^{q+1} = e^q + \alpha^q s^q$
  - Multiply through by  $-A$  to get  $r^{q+1} = r^q - \alpha^q A s^q$
- Optimally, one would follow  $s^q$  until all the error in that direction was eliminated
  - That is, until the remaining error is orthogonal to  $s^q$ , i.e.  $e^{q+1} \cdot s^q = 0$
  - However, the error is unknown (otherwise, the solution would be known)
- Instead, follow  $s^q$  until the residual is orthogonal to  $s^q$ , i.e.  $r^{q+1} \cdot s^q = 0$ 
  - Plugging in the recursion for  $r^{q+1}$  gives  $\alpha^q = \frac{s^q \cdot r^q}{s^q \cdot A s^q}$

# Steepest Descent

- Steepest Descent chooses the steepest downhill direction as the search direction
  - That turns out to be the residual, i.e. choose  $s^q = r^q$
- Iterate:  $r^q = b - Ac^q$ ,  $\alpha^q = \frac{r^q \cdot r^q}{r^q \cdot Ar^q}$ ,  $c^{q+1} = c^q + \alpha^q r^q$ , until  $r^q$  is considered small enough
- Note: can replace  $r^q = b - Ac^q$  with  $r^q = r^{q-1} - \alpha^{q-1} Ar^{q-1}$ 
  - Since  $Ar^{q-1}$  had already been computed to find  $\alpha^{q-1}$ , this eliminates one of the (possibly expensive) multiplications by  $A$
- Drawback: Steepest Descent repeatedly searches in overlapping (non-orthogonal) directions, especially for higher condition number matrices (more on this later)



# Conjugate Gradients (CG)

- A very efficient and robust method for SPD systems
- Converges (theoretically) in at most  $n$ -steps for an  $n \times n$  matrix
  - Theoretically, only need one step for each distinct eigenvalue
  - Almost converged when taking one step for each eigenvalue cluster
  - Thus, preconditioning makes a big difference (assuming it clusters eigenvalues)
- Motivation: choosing **orthogonal** search directions precludes repeatedly searching in overlapping directions (in contrast to Steepest Descent)
  - But, it is difficult to implement this orthogonality
- Instead: choose **A-orthogonal** search directions
  - Instead of  $\langle s^q, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle = 0$ , choose  $\langle s^q, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A = 0$  for  $q \neq \hat{q}$

# Error Analysis for CG

- In the A-orthogonal basis of search directions, the initial error is  $e^1 = \sum_{\hat{q}=1}^n \beta^{\hat{q}} s^{\hat{q}}$ ; so,  $\langle s^q, e^1 \rangle_A = \beta^q \langle s^q, s^q \rangle_A$
- Error recursion gives  $e^q = e^1 + \sum_{\hat{q}=1}^{q-1} \alpha^{\hat{q}} s^{\hat{q}}$ ; so,  $\langle s^q, e^q \rangle_A = \langle s^q, e^1 \rangle_A$
- Progressing until  $r^{q+1} \cdot s^q = 0$  gives  $\alpha^q = \frac{s^q \cdot r^q}{s^q \cdot A s^q} = -\frac{\langle s^q, e^q \rangle_A}{\langle s^q, s^q \rangle_A} = -\beta^q$
- Thus,  $e^1 = \sum_{\hat{q}=1}^n (-\alpha^{\hat{q}}) s^{\hat{q}}$  and  $e^q = \sum_{\hat{q}=q}^n (-\alpha^{\hat{q}}) s^{\hat{q}}$ 
  - This proves that the error is indeed cancelled out in  $n$  steps, i.e.  $e^{q+1} = 0$
- Aside: If  $\tilde{q} < q$ , then  $s^{\tilde{q}} \cdot r^q = -\langle s^{\tilde{q}}, e^q \rangle_A = 0$ ; so, **the residual is orthogonal to all previous search directions** (not just the previous one)

# Gram-Schmidt

- Orthogonalizes a set of vectors
- For each new vector, subtract its (weighted) dot product overlap with all prior vectors, making it orthogonal to them
- A-orthogonal Gram-Schmidt simply uses an A-weighted dot/inner product
- Given vector  $\bar{s}^q$ , subtract out the A-overlap with  $s^1$  to  $s^{q-1}$  so that the resulting vector  $s^q$  has  $\langle s^q, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A = 0$  for  $\hat{q} \in \{1, 2, \dots, q-1\}$
- That is,  $s^q = \bar{s}^q - \sum_{\hat{q}=1}^{q-1} \frac{\langle \bar{s}^q, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A}{\langle s^{\hat{q}}, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A} s^{\hat{q}}$  where the two non-normalized  $s^{\hat{q}}$  both require division by their norm (and  $\langle s^{\hat{q}}, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A = \|s^{\hat{q}}\|_A^2$ )
- Proof:  $\langle s^q, s^{\tilde{q}} \rangle_A = \langle \bar{s}^q, s^{\tilde{q}} \rangle_A - \frac{\langle \bar{s}^q, s^{\tilde{q}} \rangle_A}{\langle s^{\tilde{q}}, s^{\tilde{q}} \rangle_A} \langle s^{\tilde{q}}, s^{\tilde{q}} \rangle_A = 0$

# Gram-Schmidt for CG

- Choose candidate search directions  $\bar{s}^q = r^q$ , and make A-orthogonal via Gram-Schmidt
- That is,  $s^q = r^q - \sum_{\hat{q}=1}^{q-1} \frac{\langle r^q, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A}{\langle s^{\hat{q}}, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A} s^{\hat{q}}$
- Dot product with  $r^{\tilde{q}}$  to get:  $s^q \cdot r^{\tilde{q}} = r^q \cdot r^{\tilde{q}} - \sum_{\hat{q}=1}^{q-1} \frac{\langle r^q, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A}{\langle s^{\hat{q}}, s^{\hat{q}} \rangle_A} s^{\hat{q}} \cdot r^{\tilde{q}}$ 
  - If  $\tilde{q} > q$ , then  $0 = r^q \cdot r^{\tilde{q}} + 0$  implies that all the residuals are orthogonal
  - If  $\tilde{q} = q$ , then  $s^q \cdot r^q = r^q \cdot r^q + 0$  implies  $\alpha^q = \frac{r^q \cdot r^q}{\langle s^q, s^q \rangle_A}$
- Dot product  $r^q = r^{q-1} - \alpha^{q-1} A s^{q-1}$  with  $r^{\tilde{q}}$  to get
  - $r^{\tilde{q}} \cdot r^q = r^{\tilde{q}} \cdot r^{q-1} - \alpha^{q-1} \langle r^{\tilde{q}}, s^{q-1} \rangle_A$
  - If  $\tilde{q} > q$ , then  $0 = 0 - \alpha^{q-1} \langle r^{\tilde{q}}, s^{q-1} \rangle_A$  implies that only the last term in the sum is nonzero
  - If  $\tilde{q} = q$ , then  $r^q \cdot r^q = 0 - \alpha^{q-1} \langle r^q, s^{q-1} \rangle_A$  for the last term in the sum
- Finally,  $s^q = r^q + \frac{r^q \cdot r^q}{\alpha^{q-1} \langle s^{q-1}, s^{q-1} \rangle_A} s^{q-1} = r^q + \frac{r^q \cdot r^q}{r^{q-1} \cdot r^{q-1}} s^{q-1}$

# Conjugate Gradients Method

- Start with:  $s^1 = r^1 = b - Ac^1$
- Iterate:
  - $\alpha^q = \frac{r^q \cdot r^q}{\langle s^q, s^q \rangle_A}$
  - $c^{q+1} = c^q + \alpha^q s^q$  and  $r^{q+1} = r^q - \alpha^q A s^q$  (both as usual for line search)
  - $s^{q+1} = r^{q+1} + \frac{r^{q+1} \cdot r^{q+1}}{r^q \cdot r^q} s^q$
- Note: Gram-Schmidt drifts, making search directions less A-orthogonal over time; thus, occasionally throw out all search directions and start over with  $s^1 = r^1 = b - Ac^1$

# Non-Symmetric and/or Indefinite

- GMRES, MINRES, BiCGSTAB, etc...
- Generally speaking, iterative methods for non-symmetric and/or indefinite matrices are less stable, more error prone, and slower than CG on an SPD matrix