# Monte Carlo Linear Algebra: A Review and Recent Results 

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## Monte Carlo Linear Algebra

An emerging field combining Monte Carlo simulation and algorithmic linear algebra

Plays a central role in approximate DP (policy iteration, projected equation and aggregation methods)

## Advantage of Monte Carlo

Can be used to approximate sums of huge number of terms such as high-dimensional inner products

A very broad scope of applications

- Linear systems of equations
- Least squares/regression problems
- Eigenvalue problems
- Linear and quadratic programming problems
- Linear variational inequalities
- Other quasi-linear structures


## Monte Carlo Estimation Approach for Linear Systems

## We focus on solution of $C x=d$

- Use simulation to compute $C_{k} \rightarrow C$ and $d_{k} \rightarrow d$
- Estimate the solution by matrix inversion $C_{k}^{-1} d_{k} \approx C^{-1} d$ (assuming $C$ is invertible)
- Alternatively, solve $C_{k} x=d_{k}$ iteratively


## Why simulation?

C may be of small dimension, but may be defined in terms of matrix-vector products of huge dimension

## What are the main issues?

- Efficient simulation design that matches the structure of $C$ and $d$
- Efficient and reliable algorithm design
- What to do when $C$ is singular or nearly singular


## References

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## Outline

(1) Motivating Framework: Low-Dimensional Approximation

- Projected Equations
- Aggregation
- Large-Scale Regression
(2) Sampling Issues
- Simulation for Projected Equations
- Multistep Methods
- Constrained Projected Equations
(3) Solution Methods and Singularity Issues
- Invertible Case
- Singular and Nearly Singular Case
- Deterministic and Stochastic Iterative Methods
- Nullspace Consistency
- Stabilization Schemes


## Low-Dimensional Approximation

- Start from a high-dimensional equation $y=A y+b$
- Approximate its solution within a subspace $S=\left\{\Phi x \mid x \in \Re^{s}\right\}$
- Columns of $\Phi$ are basis functions


## Equation approximation approach

Approximate solution $y^{*}$ with the solution $\Phi x^{*}$ of an equation defined on $S$

## Important example: Projection/Galerkin approximation

$$
\Phi x=\Pi(A \Phi x+b)
$$



## Matrix Form of Projected Equation

Let $\Pi$ be projection with respect to a weighted Euclidean norm $\|y\| \equiv=\sqrt{y^{\prime} \bar{\Xi}}$

The Galerkin solution is obtained from the orthogonality condition

$$
\Phi x^{*}-\left(A \Phi x^{*}+b\right) \perp(\text { Columns of } \Phi)
$$

or

$$
C x=d
$$

where

$$
C=\Phi^{\prime} \equiv(I-A) \Phi, \quad d=\Phi^{\prime} \equiv b
$$

## Motivation for simulation

If $y$ is high-dimensional, $C$ and $d$ involve high-dimensional matrix-vector operations

## Another Important Example: Aggregation

Let $D$ and $\Phi$ be matrices whose rows are probability distributions.

## Aggregation equation

By forming convex combinations of variables (i.e., $y \approx \Phi x$ ) and equations (using $D$ ), we obtain an aggregate form of the fixed point problem $y=A y+b$ :

$$
x=D(A \Phi x+b)
$$

or $C x=d$ with

$$
C=D A \Phi, \quad d=D b
$$

Connection with projection/Galerkin approximation
The aggregation equation yields

$$
\Phi x=\Phi D(A \Phi x+b)
$$

$\Phi D$ is an oblique projection in some of the most interesting types of aggregation $\left[\right.$ if $D \Phi=/$ so that $(\Phi D)^{2}=\Phi D$ ].

## Another Example: Large-Scale Regression

## Weighted least squares problem

Consider

$$
\min _{y \in \Re^{n}}\|W y-h\|_{\equiv}^{2},
$$

where $W$ and $h$ are given, $\|\cdot\| \equiv$ is a weighted Euclidean norm, and $y$ is high-dimensional.

We approximate $y$ within the subspace $S=\left\{\Phi x \mid x \in \Re^{s}\right\}$, to obtain

$$
\min _{x \in \Re^{s}}\|W \Phi x-h\|_{\underline{\Xi}}^{2} .
$$

Equivalent linear system $C x=d$

$$
C=\Phi^{\prime} W^{\prime} \equiv W \Phi, \quad d=\Phi^{\prime} W^{\prime} \equiv h
$$

## Key Idea for Simulation

## Critical Problem

Compute sums $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}$ for very large $n$ (or $n=\infty$ )

## Convert Sum to an Expected Value

Introduce a sampling distribution $\xi$ and write

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i}\left(\frac{a_{i}}{\xi_{i}}\right)=E_{\xi}\{\hat{a}\}
$$

where the random variable â has distribution

$$
P\left\{\hat{a}=\frac{a_{i}}{\xi_{i}}\right\}=\xi_{i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, n
$$

- We "invent" $\xi$ to convert a "deterministic" problem to a "stochastic" problem that can be solved by simulation.
- Complexity advantage: Running time is independent of the number $n$ of terms in the sum, only the distribution of â.
- Importance sampling idea: Use a sampling distribution that matches the problem for efficiency (e.g., make the variance of â small).


## Row and Column Sampling for System $C x=d$

Row Sampling According to $\xi$


- Row sampling: Generate sequence $\left\{i_{0}, i_{1}, \ldots\right\}$ according to $\xi$ (the

- Column sampling: Generate sequence $\left\{\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right),\left(i_{1}, j_{1}\right), \ldots\right\}$ according to some transition probability matrix $P$ with

$$
p_{i j}>0 \quad \text { if } \quad a_{i j} \neq 0,
$$

i.e., for each $i$, the relative frequency of $(i, j)$ is $p_{i j}$

- Row sampling may be done using a Markov chain with transition matrix $Q$ (unrelated to $P$ )
- Row sampling may also be done without a Markov chain - just sample rows according to some known distribution $\xi$ (e.g., a uniform)


## Simulation Formulas for Matrix Form of Projected Equation

- Approximation of $C$ and $d$ by simulation:

$$
\begin{gathered}
C=\Phi^{\prime} \equiv(I-A) \Phi \sim C_{k}=\frac{1}{k+1} \sum_{t=0}^{k} \phi\left(i_{t}\right)\left(\phi\left(i_{t}\right)-\frac{a_{i j_{t}}}{p_{i j_{t} t}} \phi\left(j_{t}\right)\right)^{\prime}, \\
d=\Phi^{\prime} \equiv b \sim d_{k}=\frac{1}{k+1} \sum_{t=0}^{k} \phi\left(i_{t}\right) b_{i_{t}}
\end{gathered}
$$

- We have by law of large numbers $C_{k} \rightarrow C, d_{k} \rightarrow d$.
- Equation approximation: Solve the equation $C_{k} x=d_{k}$ in place of $C x=d$.


## Algorithms

- Matrix inversion approach: $x^{*} \approx C_{k}^{-1} d_{k}$ (if $C_{k}$ is invertible for large $k$ )
- Iterative approach: $x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G_{k}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right)$


## Multistep Methods - TD $(\lambda)$-Type

Instead of solving (approximately) the equation $y=T(y)=A y+b$, consider the multistep equivalent

$$
y=T^{(\lambda)}(y)
$$

where for $\lambda \in[0,1)$

$$
T^{(\lambda)}=(1-\lambda) \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{\ell} T^{\ell+1}
$$

- Special multistep sampling methods
- Bias-variance tradeoff



## Constrained Projected Equations

- Consider

$$
\Phi x=\Pi T(\Phi x)=\Pi(A \Phi x+b)
$$

where $\Pi$ is the projection operation onto a closed convex subset $\hat{S}$ of the subspace $S\left(\mathrm{w} /\right.$ respect to weighted norm $\|\cdot\|_{\equiv} ;$ ミ: positive definite).


- From the properties of projection,

$$
\left(\Phi x^{*}-T\left(\Phi x^{*}\right)\right)^{\prime} \equiv\left(y-\Phi x^{*}\right) \geq 0, \quad \forall y \in \hat{S}
$$

- This is a linear variational inequality: Find $x^{*}$ such that

$$
f\left(\Phi x^{*}\right)^{\prime}\left(y-\Phi x^{*}\right) \geq 0, \quad \forall y \in \hat{S},
$$

where $f(y)=\equiv(y-T(y))=\equiv(y-(A y+b))$.

## Equivalence Conclusion

## Two equivalent problems

- The projected equation

$$
\Phi x=\Pi T(\Phi x)
$$

where $\Pi$ is projection with respect to $\|\cdot\| \equiv$ on convex set $\hat{S} \subset S$

- The special-form VI

$$
f\left(\Phi x^{*}\right)^{\prime} \equiv \Phi\left(x-x^{*}\right) \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in X
$$

where

$$
f(y)=\equiv(y-T(y)), \quad X=\{x \mid \Phi x \in \hat{S}\}
$$

## Special linear cases: $T(y)=A y+b$

- $\hat{S}=\Re^{n}: \quad \mathrm{VI}<==>f\left(\Phi x^{*}\right)=\equiv\left(\Phi x^{*}-T\left(\Phi x^{*}\right)\right)=0$ (linear equation)
- $\hat{S}=$ subspace: $\mathrm{VI}<==>f\left(\Phi x^{*}\right) \perp \hat{S}$ (e.g., projected linear equation)
- $f(y)$ the gradient of a quadratic, S: polyhedral (e.g., approx. LP and QP)
- Linear VI case (e.g., cooperative and zero-sum games with approximation)


## Deterministic Solution Methods - Invertible Case of $C x=d$

## Matrix Inversion Method

$$
x^{*}=C^{-1} d
$$

## Generic Linear Iterative Method

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G\left(C x_{k}-d\right)
$$

where:

- $G$ is a scaling matrix, $\gamma>0$ is a stepsize
- Eigenvalues of $I-\gamma G C$ within the unit circle (for convergence)


## Special cases:

- Projection/Richardson's method: $C$ positive semidefinite, G positive definite symmetric
- Proximal method (quadratic regularization)
- Splitting/Gauss-Seidel method


## Simulation-Based Solution Methods - Invertible Case

## Given sequences $C_{k} \rightarrow C$ and $d_{k} \rightarrow d$

Matrix Inversion Method

$$
x_{k}=C_{k}^{-1} d_{k}
$$

## Iterative Method

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G_{k}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right)
$$

where:

- $G_{k}$ is a scaling matrix with $G_{k} \rightarrow G$
- $\gamma>0$ is a stepsize
$x_{k} \rightarrow x^{*}$ if and only if the deterministic version is convergent


## Solution Methods - Singular Case (Assuming a Solution Exists)

Given sequences $C_{k} \rightarrow C$ and $d_{k} \rightarrow d$. Matrix inversion method does not apply

## Iterative Method

$x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G_{k}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right)$
Need not converge to a solution, even if the deterministic version does

## Questions:

- Under what conditions is the stochastic method convergent?
- How to modify the method to restore convergence?


## Simulation-Based Solution Methods - Nearly Singular Case

## The theoretical view

If $C$ is nearly singular, we are in the nonsingular case

## The practical view

If $C$ is nearly singular, we are essentially in the singular case (unless the simulation is extremely accurate)

The eigenvalues of the iteration

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G_{k}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right)
$$

get in and out of the unit circle for a long time (until the "size" of the simulation noise becomes comparable to the "stability margin" of the iteration)

Think of roundoff error affecting the solution of ill-conditioned systems (simulation noise is far worse)

## Deterministic Iterative Method - Convergence Analysis

Assume that $C$ is invertible or singular (but $C x=d$ has a solution)

## Generic Linear Iterative Method

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G\left(C x_{k}-d\right)
$$

## Standard Convergence Result

Let $C$ be singular and denote by $\mathbf{N}(C)$ the nullspace of $C$. Then:
$\left\{x_{k}\right\}$ is convergent (for all $x_{0}$ and sufficiently small $\gamma$ ) to a solution of $C x=d$ if and only if:
(a) Each eigenvalue of $G C$ either has a positive real part or is equal to 0 .
(b) The dimension of $\mathbf{N}(G C)$ is equal to the algebraic multiplicity of the eigenvalue 0 of $G C$.
(c) $\mathbf{N}(C)=\mathbf{N}(G C)$.

## Proof Based on Nullspace Decomposition for Singular Systems

For any solution $x^{*}$, rewrite the iteration as

$$
x_{k+1}-x^{*}=(I-\gamma G C)\left(x_{k}-x^{*}\right)
$$

## Linarly transform the iteration

Introduce a similarity transformation involving $\mathbf{N}(C)$ and $\mathbf{N}(C)^{\perp}$
Let $U$ and $V$ be orthonormal bases of $\mathbf{N}(C)$ and $\mathbf{N}(C)^{\perp}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[U V]^{\prime}(I-\gamma G C)[U V] } & =I-\gamma\left[\begin{array}{cc}
U^{\prime} G C U & U^{\prime} G C V \\
V^{\prime} G C U & V^{\prime} G C V
\end{array}\right] \\
& =I-\gamma\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & U^{\prime} G C V \\
0 & V^{\prime} G C V
\end{array}\right] \\
& \equiv\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -\gamma N \\
0 & I-\gamma H
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $H$ has eigenvalues with positive real parts. Hence for some $\gamma>0$,

$$
\rho(I-\gamma H)<1
$$

so $I-\gamma H$ is a contraction ...

## Nullspace Decomposition of Deterministic Iteration



Figure: Iteration decomposition into components on $\mathbf{N}(C)$ and $\mathbf{N}(C)^{\perp}$.

$$
x_{k}=x^{*}+U y_{k}+V z_{k}
$$

- Nullspace component: $y_{k+1}=y_{k}-\gamma N z_{k}$
- Orthogonal component: $z_{k+1}=z_{k}-\gamma H z_{k} \quad$ CONTRACTIVE


## Stochastic Iterative Method May Diverge

The stochastic iteration

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G_{k}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right)
$$

approaches the deterministic iteration

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\gamma G\left(C x_{k}-d\right), \quad \text { where } \quad \rho(I-\gamma G C) \leq 1 .
$$

However, since

$$
\rho\left(I-\gamma G_{k} C_{k}\right) \rightarrow 1
$$

$\rho\left(I-\gamma G_{k} C_{k}\right)$ may cross above 1 too frequently, and we can have divergence.

Difficulty is that the orthogonal component is now coupled to the nullspace
component with simulation noise

## Divergence of the Stochastic/Singular Iteration



Figure: NOISE LEAKAGE FROM $\mathbf{N}(C)$ to $\mathbf{N}(C)^{\perp}$

$$
x_{k}=x^{*}+U y_{k}+V z_{k}
$$

- Nullspace component:

$$
y_{k+1}=y_{k}-\gamma N z_{k}+\operatorname{Noise}\left(y_{k}, z_{k}\right)
$$

- Orthogonal component: $\quad z_{k+1}=z_{k}-\gamma H z_{k}+\operatorname{Noise}\left(y_{k}, z_{k}\right)$


## Divergence Example for a Singular Problem

## $2 \times 2$ Example

Let the noise be $\left\{e_{k}\right\}$ : MC averages with mean 0 so $e_{k} \rightarrow 0$, and let

$$
x_{k+1}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1+e_{k} & 0 \\
e_{k} & 1 / 2
\end{array}\right] x_{k}
$$

- Nullspace component $y_{k}=x_{k}(1)$ diverges:

$$
\prod_{t=1}^{k}\left(1+e_{t}\right)=O\left(e^{\sqrt{k}}\right) \rightarrow \infty
$$

- Orthogonal component $z_{k}=x_{k}(2)$ diverges:

$$
x_{k+1}(2)=1 / 2 x_{k}(2)+e_{k} \prod_{t=1}^{k}\left(1+e_{t}\right)
$$

where

$$
e_{k} \prod_{t=1}^{k}\left(1+e_{t}\right)=O\left(\frac{e^{\sqrt{k}}}{\sqrt{k}}\right) \rightarrow \infty
$$

## What Happens in Nearly Singular Problems?

- "Divergence" until Noise << "Stability Margin" of the iteration
- Compare with roundoff error problems in inversion of nearly singular matrices


## A Simple Example

Consider the inversion of a scalar $c>0$, with simulation error $\eta$. The absolute and relative errors are

$$
E=\frac{1}{c+\eta}-\frac{1}{c}, \quad E_{r}=\frac{E}{1 / c}
$$

By a Taylor expansion around $\eta=0$ :

$$
\left.E \approx \frac{\partial(1 /(c+\eta))}{\partial \eta}\right|_{\eta=0} \eta=-\frac{\eta}{c^{2}}, \quad E_{r} \approx-\frac{\eta}{c}
$$

For the estimate $\frac{1}{c+\eta}$ to be reliable, it is required that

- $|\eta| \ll|C|$.
- Number of i.i.d. samples needed: $k \gg 1 / c^{2}$.


## Nullspace Consistent Iterations

## Nullspace Consistency and Convergence of Residual

- If $\mathbf{N}\left(G_{k} C_{k}\right) \equiv \mathbf{N}(C)$, we say that the iteration is nullspace-consistent.
- Nullspace consistent iteration generates convergent residuals ( $C x_{k}-d \rightarrow 0$ ), iff the deterministic iteration converges.


## Proof Outline:

$$
x_{k}=x^{*}+U y_{k}+V z_{k}
$$

- Nullspace component: $\quad y_{k+1}=y_{k}-\gamma N z_{k}+\operatorname{Noise}\left(y_{k}, z_{k}\right)$
- Orthogonal component: $\quad z_{k+1}=z_{k}-\gamma H z_{k}+\operatorname{Noise}\left(z_{k}\right)$ DECOUPLED

LEAKAGE FROM $\mathbf{N}(C)$ IS ANIHILATED by $V$ so

$$
C x_{k}-d=C V z_{k} \rightarrow 0
$$

## Interesting Special Cases

## Proximal/Quadratic Regularization Method

$$
x_{k+1}=x_{k}-\left(C_{k}^{\prime} C_{k}+\beta I\right)^{-1} C_{k}^{\prime}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right)
$$

Can diverge even in the nullspace consistent case.

- In the nullspace consistent case, under favorable conditions $x_{k} \rightarrow$ some solution $x^{*}$.
- In these cases the nullspace component $y_{k}$ stays constant.


## Approximate DP (projected equation and aggregation)

The estimates often take the form

$$
C_{k}=\Phi^{\prime} M_{k} \Phi, \quad d_{k}=\Phi^{\prime} h_{k}
$$

where $M_{k} \rightarrow M$ for some positive definite $M$.

- If $\Phi$ has dependent columns, the matrix $C=\Phi^{\prime} M \Phi$ is singular.
- The iteration using such $C_{k}$ and $d_{k}$ is nullspace consistent.
- In typical methods (e.g., LSPE) $x_{k} \rightarrow$ some solution $x^{*}$.


## Stabilization of Divergent Iterations

## A Stabilization Scheme

Shifting the eigenvalues of $I-\gamma G_{k} C_{k}$ by $-\delta_{k}$ :

$$
x_{k+1}=\left(1-\delta_{k}\right) x_{k}-\gamma G_{k}\left(C_{k} x_{k}-d_{k}\right) .
$$

## Convergence of Stabilized Iteration

Assume that the eigenvalues are shifted slower than the convergence rate of the simulation:

$$
\left(C_{k}-C, d_{k}-d, G_{k}-G\right) / \delta_{k} \rightarrow 0, \quad \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta_{k}=\infty
$$

Then the stabilized iteration generates $x_{k} \rightarrow$ some $x^{*}$ iff the deterministic iteration without $\delta_{k}$ does.

- Stabilization is interesting even in the nonsingular case
- It provides a form of "regularization"


## Stabilization of the Earlier Divergent Example



(i) $\quad \delta_{k}=k^{-1 / 3}$



## Thank You!

