A Fast Distributed Solver for Symmetric Diagonally Dominant Linear Equations

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Abstract
In this paper, we propose a fast distributed solver for linear equations given by symmetric diagonally dominant M-Matrices. Our approach is based on a distributed implementation of the parallel solver of Spielman and Peng by considering a specific approximated inverse chain which can be computed efficiently in a distributed fashion. Representing the system of equations by a graph $G$, the proposed distributed algorithm is capable of attaining $\epsilon$-close solutions (for arbitrary $\epsilon$) in time proportional to $n^3$ (number of nodes in $G$), $\alpha$ (upper bound on the size of the R-Hop neighborhood), and $\frac{W_{\text{max}}}{W_{\text{min}}}$ (maximum and minimum weights of edges in $G$).
1. Introduction

Solving systems of linear equations in symmetric diagonally matrices (SDD) is of interest to researchers in a variety of fields including but not limited to, solutions to partial differential equations [7], computations of maximum flows in graphs [9], machine learning [23], and as basis for various algorithms [8].

Much interest has been devoted to determining fast algorithms for solving SDD systems. Spielman and Teng [21] proposed a nearly linear-time algorithm for solving SDD systems, which benefited from the multi-level framework of [1, 10], preconditioners [6], and spectral graph sparsifiers [3, 22]. Further exploiting these ingredients, Koutis et. al [14, 13] developed an even faster algorithm for acquiring \( \epsilon \)-close solutions to SDD linear systems. Further improvements have been discovered by Kelner et. al [12], where their algorithm relied on only spanning-trees and eliminated the need for graph sparsifiers and the multi-level framework.

On the parallel side, much progress has been made on developing such solvers. Koutis and Miller [13] proposed an algorithm requiring nearly-linear work and \( m^{1/6} \) depth for planar graphs. This was then extended to general graphs by [5] leading to depth close to \( m^{1/3} \). Peng and Spielman [20] have proposed an efficient parallel solver requiring nearly-linear work and poly-logarithmic depth without the need for low-stretch spanning trees. Their algorithm, which we distribute in this paper, requires sparse approximate inverse chains [20] which facilitates the solution of the SDD system.

Less progress, on the other hand, has been made on the distributed version of these solvers. Current methods, e.g., Jacobi iteration [2, 4], can be used for distributed solutions but require substantial complexity. In [17], the authors propose a gossiping framework which can be used for a distributed solution of the above linear system. Recent work [16] considers a local and asynchronous solution for solving systems of linear equations, where they acquire a bound on the number of needed multiplication proportional to the degree and condition number for one component of the solution vector.

Contributions: In this paper, we propose a fast distributed solver for linear equations given by symmetric diagonally dominant M-Matrices. Our approach distributes the parallel solver in [20] by considering a specific approximated inverse chain which can be computed efficiently in a distributed fashion. Our algorithm’s computational complexity is given by \( O \left( n^3 \alpha W_{\text{max}} \log \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\delta} \right) \right) \), with \( n \) being the number of nodes in graph \( G \), \( W_{\text{max}} \) and \( W_{\text{min}} \) denoting the largest and smaller weights of the edges in \( G \), respectively, \( \alpha = \min \left\{ n, \frac{d_{\text{max}}-1}{d_{\text{max}}-\delta} \right\} \) representing the upper bound on the size of the R-Hop neighborhood \( \forall v \in V \), and \( \epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2}] \) being the precision parameter. Our approach improves current linear methods by a factor of \( \log n \) and by a factor of the degree compared to [16] for each component of the solution vector.

2. Problem Definition & Notation

We consider the following system of linear equations:

\[
M_0 x = b_0
\]

where \( M_0 \) is a Symmetric Diagonally Dominant M-Matrix (SDDM). Namely, \( M_0 \) is symmetric positive definite with non-positive off diagonal elements, such that for all \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \):

\[
[M_0]_{ii} \geq - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} [M_0]_{ij}
\]

The system of Equations in (1) can be interpreted as representing an undirected weighted graph, \( G \), with \( M_0 \) being its Laplacian. Namely, \( G = (V, E, W) \), with \( V \) representing the set of nodes, \( E \) denoting the edges, and \( W \) representing the weighted graph adjacency. Nodes \( v_i \) and \( v_j \) are connected with an edge \( e = (i, j) \) iff \( W_{ij} > 0 \), where:

\[
W_{ij} = [M_0]_{ii} \quad (\text{if } i = j), \quad \text{or} \quad W_{ij} = -[M_0]_{ij}, \quad \text{otherwise.}
\]

Following [20], we seek \( \epsilon \)-approximate solutions to \( x^* \), being the exact solution of \( M_0 x = b_0 \), defined as:

Definition 1. Let \( x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n \) be the solution of \( M_0 x = b_0 \). A vector \( \tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \) is called an \( \epsilon \)- approximate solution, if:

\[
||x^* - \tilde{x}||_{M_0} \leq \epsilon ||x^*||_{M_0}, \quad \text{where} \quad ||u||_{M_0}^2 = u^T M_0 u.
\]
The R-hop neighbourhood of node \(v_k\) is defined as \(N_r(v_k) = \{v \in \mathcal{V} : \text{dist}(v_k, v) \leq r\}\). We also make use of the diameter of a graph, \(\mathcal{G}\), defined as \(\text{diam}(\mathcal{G}) = \max_{v_i, v_j \in \mathcal{V}} \text{dist}(v_i, v_j)\).

**Definition 2.** We say that a matrix \(A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\) has a sparsity pattern corresponding to the R-hop neighborhood if \(A_{ij} = 0\) for all \(i = 1, \ldots, n\) and for all \(j\) such that \(v_j \notin N_r(v_i)\).

We will denote the spectral radius of a matrix \(A\) by \(\rho(A) = \max|\lambda_i|\), where \(\lambda_i\) represents an eigenvalue of the matrix \(A\). Furthermore, we will make use of the condition number \(\kappa(A)\) of a matrix \(A\) defined as \(\kappa = \frac{\lambda_{\max}(A)}{\lambda_{\min}(A)}\). In \([21]\) it is shown that the condition number of the graph Laplacian is at most \(O\left(n^2 \frac{W_{\max}}{W_{\min}}\right)\), where \(W_{\max}\) and \(W_{\min}\) represent the largest and the smallest edge weights in \(\mathcal{G}\). Finally, the condition number of a sub-matrix of the Laplacian is at most \(O\left(n^4 \frac{W_{\max}}{W_{\min}}\right)\), see \([21]\).

### 2.1. Problem Definition

We assume that each node \(v_k \in \mathcal{V}\) has information about the weights of adjacent edges. Further, each node \(v_k\) has the capabilities of storing the value of the \(i^{th}\) component of \(b_0\), which is denoted as \([b_0]_i\). At each time step, nodes can exchange information with their neighbours. Each node is responsible for determining the corresponding component, \(x_i\), of the solution vector \(x \in \mathbb{R}^n\). We also assume a synchronized model whereby time complexity is measured by a global clock. The goal is to find \(\epsilon\)-approximate solution for \(M_0 x = b_0\) in a distributed fashion, while being restricted to R-hop communication between the nodes.

### 3. Background

#### 3.1. Standard Splittings \\& Approximations

Following the setup in \([20]\), we provide standard definitions required in the remainder of the paper:

**Definition 3.** The standard splitting of a symmetric matrix \(M_0\) is:

\[
M_0 = D_0 - A_0
\]

(3)

here \(D_0\) is a diagonal matrix such that \([D_0]_{ii} = [M_0]_{ii}\) for \(i = 1, 2, \ldots, n\), and \(A_0\) representing a non-negative symmetric matrix such that \([A_0]_{ij} = -[M_0]_{ij}\) if \(i \neq j\), and \([A_0]_{ii} = 0\).

We also define the Loewner ordering:

**Definition 4.** Let \(S(n)\) be the space of \(n \times n\)-symmetric matrices. The Loewner ordering \(\preceq\) is a partial order on \(S(n)\) such that \(Y \preceq Y\) if and only if \(X - Y\) is positive semidefinite.

Finally, we define the “\(\approx\)” operation used in the sequel to come as:

**Definition 5.** Let \(X\) and \(Y\) be positive semidefinite symmetric matrices. Then \(X \approx_\alpha Y\) if and only if

\[
e^{-\alpha} X \preceq Y \preceq e^\alpha X
\]

(4)

with \(A \preceq B\) meaning \(B - A\) is positive semidefinite.

Based on the above definitions, the following lemma represents the basic characteristics of the \(\approx_\alpha\) operator:

**Lemma 1.** \([20]\) Let \(X, Y, Z\) and \(Q\) be symmetric positive semi definite matrices. Then

1. If \(X \approx_\alpha Y\), then \(X + Z \approx_\alpha Y + Z\).
2. If \(X \approx_\alpha Y\) and \(Z \approx_\alpha Q\), then \(X + Z \approx_\alpha Y + Q\).
3. If \(X \approx_\alpha Y\) and \(Z \approx_\alpha Q\), then \(X + Z \approx_\alpha Y + Q\).
4. If \(X \approx_\alpha Y\) and \(Y \approx_\alpha Z\), then \(X \approx_\alpha Z + Z\).
5. If \(X\) and \(Y\) are non singular and \(X \approx_\alpha Y\), then \(X^{-1} \approx_\alpha Y^{-1}\).
6. If \(X \approx_\alpha Y\) and \(V\) is a matrix, then \(V^T X V \approx_\alpha V^T Y V\).

The next lemma shows that good approximations of \(M_0^{-1}\) guarantee good approximated solutions of \(M_0 x = b_0\).

**Lemma 2.** Let \(Z_0 \approx_\epsilon M_0^{-1}\), and \(\tilde{x} = Z_0 b_0\). Then \(\tilde{x}\) is \(\sqrt{2\epsilon(\epsilon - 1)}\) approximate solution of \(M_0 x = b_0\).

**Proof.** The proof can be found in the appendix.

We next discuss the parallel SDDM solver introduced in \([20]\).
3.2. The Parallel SDDM Solver

The parallel SDDM solver proposed in [20] is a parallelized technique for solving the problem of Section 2.1. It makes use of inverse approximated chains (see Definition 6) to determine \( \tilde{x} \) and can be split in two steps. In the first step, denoted as Algorithm 1, a “crude” approximation, \( x_0 \), of \( \tilde{x} \) is returned. \( x_0 \) is driven to the \( \epsilon \)-close solution, \( \tilde{x} \), using Richardson Preconditioning in Algorithm 2. Before we proceed, we start with the following two Lemmas which enable the definition of inverse chain approximation.

Lemma 3. [20] If \( M = D - A \) is an SDDM matrix, with \( D \) being positive diagonal, and \( A \) denoting a non-negative symmetric matrix, then \( D - AD^{-1}A \) is also SDDM.

Lemma 4. [20] Let \( M = D - A \) be an SDDM matrix, where \( D \) is positive diagonal and, \( A \) a symmetric matrix. Then

\[
(D - A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ D^{-1} + (I + D^{-1}A)(D - AD^{-1}A)^{-1}(I + AD^{-1}) \right]
\]

(5)

Given the results in Lemmas 3 and 4, we now can consider inverse approximated chains of \( M_0 \):

Definition 6. Let \( C = \{M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d\} \) be a collection of SDDM matrices such that \( M_i = D_i - A_i \), with \( D_i \) a positive diagonal matrix, and \( A_i \) denoting a non-negative symmetric matrix. Then \( C \) is an inverse approximated chain if there exists positive real numbers \( \epsilon_0, \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_d \) such that: (1) For \( i = 1, \ldots, d \): \( D_i - A_i \approx_{\epsilon_{i-1}} D_{i-1} - A_{i-1}D_{i-1}^{-1}A_{i-1} \), (2) For \( i = 1, \ldots, d \): \( D_i \approx_{\epsilon_{i-1}} D_{i-1} \), and (3) \( D_d \approx_{\epsilon_d} D_d - A_d \).

Algorithm 1 ParallelRSolve \((M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d, b_0)\)

1: Input: Inverse approximated chain, \( \{M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d\} \), and \( b_0 \) being
2: Output: The “crude” approximation, \( x_0 \), of \( x^* \)
3: for \( i = 1 \) to \( d \) do
4: \( b_i = (I + A_{i-1}D_{i-1}^{-1})b_{i-1} \)
end for
5: \( x_d = D_d^{-1}b_d \)
6: for \( i = d - 1 \) to \( 0 \) do
7: \( x_i = \frac{1}{2} \left[ D_i^{-1}b_i + (I + D_i^{-1}A_i)x_{i+1} \right] \)
end for
8: return \( x_0 \)

The quality of the “crude” solution returned by Algorithm 1 is quantified in the following lemma:

Lemma 5. [20] Let \( \{M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d\} \) be the inverse approximated chain and denote \( Z_0 \) be the operator defined by ParallelRSolve \((M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d, b_0)\), namely, \( x_0 = Z_0b_0 \). Then

\[
Z_0 \approx_{\sum_{i=0}^{d} \epsilon_i} M_0^{-1}
\]

(6)

Algorithm 1 returns a “crude” solution to \( M_0x = b \). To obtain arbitrary close solutions, Spielman et al. [20] introduced the preconditioned Richardson iterative scheme, summarized in Algorithm 2. Following their analysis, Lemma 6 provides the iteration count needed by Algorithm 2 to arrive at \( \tilde{x} \).

Lemma 6. [20] Let \( \{M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d\} \) be an inverse approximated chain such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{d} \epsilon_i < \frac{1}{3}\ln 2 \). Then ParallelESolve \((M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d, b_0, \epsilon)\) arrives at an \( \epsilon \) close solution of \( x^* \) in \( q = \mathcal{O} \left( \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \) iterations.

4. Distributed SDDM Solvers

Next, we distribute the parallel solver of Section 3.2. Similar to [20], we first introduce an approximate inverse chain which can be computed in a distributed fashion. This leads us to distributed version of the “crude” solver (see Section 4.1). Contrary to [20], however, we then generalize the “crude” distributed solver to allow for exact solutions (see Section 4.2) of Equation 11. We summarize our results in the following theorem:

Theorem 1. There exists a distributed algorithm, \( A \left( \{[M_0]_k, \ldots, [M_0]_k\}, [b_0]_k, \epsilon \right) \), that computes \( \epsilon \)-close approximations to the solution of \( M_0x = b_0 \) in \( \mathcal{O} \left( n^2 \log \kappa \log \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \right) \) time steps, with \( n \) the number of nodes in \( \mathbb{G} \), \( \kappa \) the condition number of \( M_0 \), and \( [M_0]_k \), the \( k \)-th row of \( M_0 \), as well as \( \epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2}] \) representing the precision parameter.

Note that for each node \( v_k \in \mathbb{V} \), the input information for algorithm \( A \) is the \( k \)-th row of \( M_0 \) (i.e., the weights of the edges adjacent to \( v_k \)), the precision parameter \( \epsilon \), and the \( k \)-th component of \( [b_0] \) (i.e., \( [b_0]_k \)), easily rendering a distributed solver.
Algorithm 2 ParallelESolve \( (M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d, b_0, \epsilon) \)

1: \textbf{Input:} Inverse approximated chain \( \{M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d\}, b_0 \), and \( \epsilon \).
2: \textbf{Output:} \( \epsilon \) close approximation, \( \tilde{x} \), of \( x^* \).
3: \textbf{Initialize:} \( y_0 = 0 \).
4: \textbf{Algorithm 2:} ParallelESolve \( (M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d, b_0) \) (i.e., Algorithm 1)
5: \textbf{for} \( k = 1 \) to \( q \) \textbf{do}
6: \hspace{1em} \( y_k^{(1)} = M_0 y_{k-1} \)
7: \hspace{1em} \( y_k^{(2)} = \text{ParallelRSolve} \left( M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_d, u_k^{(1)} \right) \)
8: \hspace{1em} \( y_k = y_{k-1} - y_k^{(2)} + \chi \)
9: \textbf{end for}
10: \( \tilde{x} = y_q \)
11: \textbf{return} \( \tilde{x} \)

Algorithm 3 DistrRSolve \( \left( \{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_{k}, d \right) \)

\textbf{Part One: Computing} \( [b_i]_k \)

\( [b_i]_k = [b_0]_k + \sum_{j \in [v_i]} [A_0 D_0^{-1}]_{kj} [b_0]_j \)

\textbf{for} \( i = 2 \) to \( d \) \textbf{do}

\hspace{1em} \textbf{for} \( j : v_j \in N_{2i-1}(v_k) \) \textbf{do}

\hspace{2em} \( \left[ (A_0 D_0^{-1})^{2i-1} \right]_{kj} = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \left[ D_0^{t} A_0^{t} \right]_{kj} \left[ (A_0 D_0^{-1})^{2i-2} \right]_{kr} \left[ (A_0 D_0^{-1})^{2i-1} \right]_{jr} \)

\hspace{2em} \textbf{end for}

\hspace{1em} \( [b_i]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + \sum_{j : v_j \in N_{2i-1}(v_k)} \left[ (A_0 D_0^{-1})^{2i-1} \right]_{kj} [b_{i-1}]_j \)

\textbf{end for}

\textbf{Part Two: Computing} \( [x_0]_k \)

\( [x_0]_k = \frac{[b_0]_k}{2 D_0^{k} A_0} + \frac{[x_{i+1}]_k}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j : v_j \in N_{2i}(v_k)} \left[ (D_0^{-1} A_0)^{2} \right]_{kj} [x_{i+1}]_j \)

\textbf{return:} \( [x_0]_k \)

4.1. “Crude” Distributed SDDM Solver

Starting from \( M_0 = D_0 - A_0 \), consider the collection \( C = \{ A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d \} \), where \( D_k = D_0 \), and \( A_k = D_0 (D_0^{-1} A_0)^{2k} \), for \( k = 1, \ldots, d \), with \( D_0 = D_0 \), and \( A_0 = A_0 \). Since the magnitude of the eigenvalues of \( D_0^{-1} A_0 \) is strictly less than 1, \( (D_0^{-1} A_0)^{2k} \) tends to zero as \( k \) increases which reduces the length of the chain needed for the distributed solver. It is easy to verify that \( C \) is an inverse approximated chain, since: (1) \( D_i - A_i \approx \epsilon_i, D_{i-1} - A_{i-1} D_1^{-1} A_{i-1} \) with \( \epsilon_i = 0 \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, d \), (2) \( D_i \approx \epsilon_i D_{i-1} \) with \( \epsilon_i = 0 \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, d \), and (3) \( D_i \approx \epsilon_d D_d - A_d \). Using the above, Algorithm 3 (our first contribution) describes the distributed version of the “crude” parallel solver, which returns the \( k \)th component of the approximate solution vector, \( [x_0]_k \). Each node, \( v_k \in V \), receives the \( k \)th row of \( M_0 \), the \( k \)th value of \( b_0 \) (i.e., \( [b_0]_k \)), and the length of the inverse approximated chain \( d \) as inputs. It operates in two parts, \textbf{Part One} and \textbf{Part Two}. The first, computes the \( k \)th component of \( [b_i]_k \) for \( i \in \{1, \ldots, d\} \), which is then used in \textbf{Part Two} to return \( [x_0]_k \).

\textbf{Analysis of Algorithm 3} Next, we present the theoretical analysis, showing that DistrRSolve computes the \( k \)th component of the “crude” approximation of \( x^* \). Further, we provide the time complexity analysis.

\textbf{Lemma 7.} Let \( M_0 = D_0 - A_0 \) be the standard splitting of \( M_0 \). Let \( Z' \) be the operator defined by
Algorithm 4: DistrESolve (\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d, \epsilon)

Initialize: \([y_0]_k = 0; [x]_k = \text{DistrRSolve} (\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d)\) (i.e., Algorithm 3)

for \(t = 1\) to \(q\) do
\[
\begin{align*}
[u]_k^{(1)} &= [D_0]_{kk}[y_{t-1}]_k - \sum_{j:v_j \in N_i(v_k)} [A_0]_{kj}[y_{t-1}]_j \\
[u]_k^{(2)} &= \text{DistrRSolve} (\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [u]^{(1)}_k, d, \epsilon) \\
[y]_k &= [y_{t-1}]_k - [u]_k^{(2)} + [x]_k
\end{align*}
\]
end for
\[
[x]_k = [y]_k
\]
return \([x]_k\)


\text{DistrRSolve} (\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d)\) (i.e., \(x_0 = Z_0' b_0\)). Then
\[
Z_0' \approx_{\epsilon_d} M_0^{-1}
\]

Moreover, Algorithm 2 requires \(O\left(dn^2\right)\) time steps.

Proof. See Appendix.

4.2. “Exact” Distributed SDDM Solver

Having introduced DistrRSolve, we are now ready to present a distributed version of Algorithm 2 which enables the computation of \(\epsilon\) close solutions for \(M_0 x = b_0\). Similar to DistrRSolve, each node \(v_k \in V\) receives the \(k^{th}\) row of \(M_0, [b_0]_k, d\) and a precision parameter \(\epsilon\) as inputs. Node \(v_k\) then computes the \(k^{th}\) component of the \(\epsilon\) close approximation of \(x^*\).

Analysis of Algorithm 4. The following lemma shows that DistrESolve computes the \(k^{th}\) component of the \(\epsilon\) close approximation of \(x^*\) and provides the time complexity analysis.

Lemma 8. Let \(M_0 = D_0 - A_0\) be the standard splitting. Further, let \(\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3}\ln 2\) in the inverse approximated chain \(C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}\). Then \(\text{DistrESolve} (\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d, \epsilon)\) requires \(O\left(\log \frac{1}{\epsilon_d}\right)\) iterations to return the \(k^{th}\) component of the \(\epsilon\) close approximation of \(x^*\).

Proof. See Appendix.

The following lemma provides the time complexity analysis of DistrESolve:

Lemma 9. Let \(M_0 = D_0 - A_0\) be the standard splitting. Further, let \(\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3}\ln 2\) in the inverse approximated chain \(C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}\). Then \(\text{DistrESolve} (\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d, \epsilon)\) requires \(O\left(dn^2 \log (\frac{1}{\epsilon_d})\right)\) time steps.

Proof. See Appendix.

4.3. Length of the Inverse Chain

Both introduced algorithms depend on the length of the inverse approximated chain, \(d\). Here, we provide an analysis to determine the value of \(d\) which guarantees \(\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3}\ln 2\) in \(C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}\):

Lemma 10. Let \(M_0 = D_0 - A_0\) be the standard splitting and \(\kappa\) denote the condition number of \(M_0\). Consider the inverse approximated chain \(C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}\) with a length \(d = \lceil \log 2 \ln \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2} - 1}\right) \kappa \rceil\), then \(D_0 \approx_{\epsilon_d} D_0 - (D_0^{-1} A_0)^{2^d}\), with \(\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3}\ln 2\).

Proof. The proof will be given as a collection of claims:
Claim: Let \(\kappa\) be the condition number of \(M_0 = D_0 - A_0\), and \(\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n\) denote the eigenvalues of \(D_0^{-1} A_0\). Then, \(|\lambda| \leq 1 - \frac{1}{\kappa}\) for all \(i = 1, \ldots, n\)
Proof. See Appendix.
Notice that if $\lambda_i$ represented an eigenvalue of $D_0^{-1}A_0$, then $\lambda'_i$ is an eigenvalue of $(D_0^{-1}A_0)^r$ for all $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, we have
\[
\rho \left( (D_0^{-1}A_0)^{2^d} \right) \leq \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\kappa} \right)^{2^d}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (7)

Claim: Let $M$ be an SDDM matrix and consider the splitting $M = D - A$, with $D$ being non negative diagonal and $A$ being symmetric non negative. Further, assume that the eigenvalues of $D^{-1}A$ lie between $-\alpha$ and $\beta$. Then, $(1 - \beta)D \preceq D - A \preceq (1 + \alpha)D$.

Proof. See Appendix.

Combining the above results, give $\left[ 1 - (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^{2^d} \right] D_d \preceq D_d - A_d \preceq \left[ 1 + (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^{2^d} \right] D_d$ Hence, to guarantee that $D_d \approx_{\epsilon_d} D_d - A_d$, the following system must be satisfied: (1) $e^{-\epsilon_d} \leq 1 - (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^{2^d}$, and (2) $e^{\epsilon_d} \geq 1 + (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^{2^d}$. Introducing $\gamma$ for $\left( 1 - \frac{1}{\kappa} \right)^{2^d}$, we arrive at: (1) $\epsilon_d \geq \ln \left( \frac{1}{1 - \gamma} \right)$, and (2) $\epsilon_d \geq \ln(1 + \gamma)$. Hence, $\epsilon_d \geq \max \{ \ln \left( \frac{1}{1 - \gamma} \right), \ln(1 + \gamma) \} = \ln \left( \frac{1}{1 - \epsilon} \right)$. Now, notice that if $d = \lceil \log \alpha \rceil$ then, $\gamma = (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^{2^d} = (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^{\epsilon_d} \leq \frac{1}{e^d}$. Hence, $\ln \left( \frac{1}{1 - \epsilon} \right) \leq \ln \left( \frac{e^d}{e^d - 1} \right)$. This gives $c = \lceil 2 \ln \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2} - 1} \right) \rceil$, implying $\epsilon_d = \ln \left( \frac{e^d}{e^d - 1} \right) < \frac{1}{3} \ln 2$.

Using the above results the time complexity of DistrESolve with $d = \lceil \log \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2} - 1} \kappa \right) \rceil$ is $O(n^2 \log \kappa \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon}))$ times steps, which concludes the proof of Theorem 1.

5. Distributed R-Hop SDDM Solver

Though the previous algorithm requires no knowledge of the graph’s topology, but it requires the information of all other nodes (i.e., full communication). We will outline an R-Hop version of the algorithm in which communication is restricted to the R-Hop neighborhood between nodes. The following theorem summarizes these main results:

Theorem 2. There is a decentralized algorithm $\mathcal{A}(\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, R, \epsilon)$, that uses only R-Hop communication between the nodes and computes $\epsilon$-close solutions to $M_0x = b_0$ in $O\left( \left( \frac{\alpha \kappa}{\kappa + \alpha Rd_{\max}} \right) \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) \right)$ time steps, with $n$ being the number of nodes in $\mathcal{G}$, $d_{\max}$ denoting the maximal degree, $\kappa$ the condition number of $M_0$, and $\alpha = \min \left\{ n, \left( \frac{d_{\max} + 1}{d_{\max} - 1} \right) \right\}$ representing the upper bound on the size of the R-hop neighborhood $\forall v \in \mathcal{V}$, and $\epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2}]$ being the precision parameter.

Given a graph $\mathcal{G}$ formed from the weighted Laplacian $M_0$, the following corollary easily follows:

Corollary 1. Let $M_0$ be the weighted Laplacian of $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{W})$. There exists a decentralized algorithm that uses only R-hop communication between nodes and computes $\epsilon$ close solutions of $M_0x = b_0$ in $O\left( \frac{n^2 \alpha W_{\max}}{R W_{\min}} \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) \right)$ time steps, with $n$ being the number of nodes in $\mathcal{G}$, $W_{\max}$, $W_{\min}$ denoting the largest and the smallest weights of edges in $\mathcal{G}$, respectively, $\alpha = \min \left\{ n, \left( \frac{d_{\max} + 1}{d_{\max} - 1} \right) \right\}$ representing the upper bound on the size of the R-hop neighborhood $\forall v \in \mathcal{V}$, and $\epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2}]$ being the precision parameter.

5.1. “Crude” R-Hop SDMM Solver

Algorithm 5 presents the “crude” R-Hop solver for SDDM systems using the same inverse chain of Section 4. Each node $v_k \in \mathcal{V}$ receives the $k^{th}$ row of $M_0$, $k^{th}$ component, $[b_0]_k$ of $b_0$, the length of the inverse chain, $d$, and the local communication bounds $R$ as inputs, and outputs the $k^{th}$ component of the “crude” approximation of $x^*$.

Analysis of Algorithm 5. The following Lemma shows that RDistRSolve computes the $k^{th}$ component of the “crude” approximation of $x^*$ and provides the algorithm’s time complexity.

\footnote{For simplicity, $R$ is assumed to be in the order of powers of 2, i.e., $R = 2^e$.}
Algorithm 5 \textbf{RDistRSolve} ([\([M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\], [b_0]_k, d, R)\\

Part One:\\
\{[A_0 D_0^{-1}]_{k1}, \ldots, [A_0 D_0^{-1}]_{kn}\} = \{[A_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [A_0]_{kn}\}, \{[D_0^{-1}]_{k1}, \ldots, [D_0^{-1}]_{kn}\} = \{[A_0]_{k1}/[D_0]_{kk}, \ldots, [A_0]_{kn}/[D_0]_{kk}\}\\
\{C_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [C_0]_{kn} = \text{Comp}_0 ([M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}, R), \{C_1]_{k1}, \ldots, [C_1]_{kn} = \text{Comp}_1 ([M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}, R)\\

Part Two:\\
for \(i = 1\) to \(d\) do\\
\text{if} \quad i - 1 < \rho\\
\quad [u^{(i-1)}]_k = [A_0 D_0^{-1} b_{i-1}]_k\\
\text{for} \quad j = 2 \text{ to } 2^{i-1} \text{ do}\\
\quad [u^{(i-1)}]_k = [A_0 D_0^{-1} u^{(i-1)}]_k\\
\text{end for}\\
\quad [b_i]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [u^{(i-1)}]_k\\
\text{if} \quad i - 1 \geq \rho\\
\quad l_{i-1} = 2^{i-1}/R\\
\quad [u^{(i-1)}]_k = [C_0 b_{i-1}]_k\\
\text{for} \quad j = 2 \text{ to } l_{i-1} \text{ do}\\
\quad [u^{(i-1)}]_k = [C_0 u^{(i-1)}]_k\\
\text{end for}\\
\quad [b_i]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [u^{(i-1)}]_k\\
\text{end for}\\

Part Three:\\
[x_d]_k = [b_0]_k/[D_0]_{kk}\\
for \(i = d - 1\) to 1 do\\
\text{if} \quad i < \rho\\
\quad \eta^{(i+1)}_1 = [D_0^{-1} A_0 x_{i+1}]_k\\
\text{for} \quad j = 2 \text{ to } 2^i \text{ do}\\
\quad \eta^{(i+1)}_j = [D_0^{-1} A_0 \eta^{(i+1)}_{j-1}]_k\\
\text{end for}\\
\quad x_i]_k = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{[b_0]_k}{[D_0]_{kk}} + [x_{i+1}]_k + [\eta^{(i+1)}_{2i}]_k \right]\\
\text{if} \quad i \geq \rho\\
\quad l_i = 2^i/R\\
\quad \eta^{(i+1)}_1 = [C_1 x_{i+1}]_k\\
\text{for} \quad j = 2 \text{ to } l_i \text{ do}\\
\quad \eta^{(i+1)}_j = [C_1 \eta^{(i+1)}_{j-1}]_k\\
\text{end for}\\
\quad x_i]_k = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{[b_0]_k}{[D_0]_{kk}} + [x_{i+1}]_k + [\eta^{(i+1)}_{l_i}]_k \right]\\
\text{end for}\\
\quad [x_0]_k = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{[b_0]_k}{[D_0]_{kk}} + [x_1]_k + [D_0^{-1} A_0 x_1]_k \right]\\
\text{return} \quad [x_0]_k\\

Algorithm 6 \textbf{Comp}_0 ([\([M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\], R)\\
for \(l = 1\) to \(R - 1\) do\\
\text{for j s.t.} \quad v_j \in N_{l+1}(v_k) \text{ do}\\
\quad [([A_0 D_0^{-1}]^{l+1})]_k = \sum_{r: v_r \in N_l(v_j)} \frac{[D_0]_{kr}}{[D_0]_{jj}} ([A_0 D_0^{-1}]^l]_{kr} [A_0 D_0^{-1}]^{l}]_{jr}\\
\text{end for}\\
\text{end for}\\
\text{return} \quad c_0 = \{([A_0 D_0^{-1}]^R]_{k1}, \ldots, ([A_0 D_0^{-1}]^R]_{kn}\)
Algorithm 7 Comp$_1([M_0]_{k1}, \ldots ,[M_0]_{kn}, R)$

for $l = 1$ to $R - 1$ do
  for $j$ s.t. $v_j \in \mathbb{N}_{l+1}(v_k)$ do
    \[
    [(D_0^{-1}A_0)^{l+1}]_{kj} = \sum_{r: v_r \in \mathbb{N}_l(v_j)} \frac{D_0}{D_0} [(D_0^{-1}A_0)^l]_{kr} [D_0^{-1}A_0]_{jr}
    \]
  end for
end for
return $c_1 = \{(D_0^{-1}A_0)^R]_{k1}, \ldots , (D_0^{-1}A_0)^R]_{kn}\$

Lemma 11. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting and let $Z_0'$ be the operator defined by RDistRSolve, namely, $x_0 = Z_0' b_0$. Then, $Z_0' \approx_{\epsilon d} M_0^{-1}$. RDistRSolve requires $O\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon} \alpha + \alpha R d_{\text{max}}\right)$, where $\alpha = \min\left\{n, \left(\frac{d_{\text{max}}+1}{d_{\text{max}}-1}\right)\right\}$, to arrive at $x_0$.

The proof of the above Lemma can be arrived at by proving a collection of claims:

Claim: Matrices $(D_0^{-1}A_0)^r$ and $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{-r}$ have sparsity patterns corresponding to the $R$-Hop neighborhood for any $R \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. The above claim is proved by induction on $R$. We start with the base case: for $R = 1$

\[
[A_0D_0^{-1}]_{ij} = \frac{[A_0]_{ij}}{[D_0]_{ii}} \quad \text{(if } j: v_j \in \mathbb{N}_1(v_i)\text{)} \quad \text{or} \quad [A_0D_0^{-1}]_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{(otherwise)}
\]

Therefore, $A_0D_0^{-1}$ has a sparsity pattern corresponding to the 1-Hop neighborhood. Assume that for all $1 \leq p \leq R - 1$, $(A_0D_0^{-1})^p$ has a sparsity pattern corresponding to the $p$-hop neighborhood. Consider, $(A_0D_0^{-1})^R$

\[
[(A_0D_0^{-1})^R]_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} [(A_0D_0^{-1})^{R-1}]_{ik} [A_0D_0^{-1}]_{kj} \tag{8}
\]

Since $A_0D_0^{-1}$ is non-negative, then $[(A_0D_0^{-1})^R]_{ij} \neq 0$ if and only if there exists $k$ such that $v_k \in \mathbb{N}_{R-1}(v_i)$ and $v_k \in \mathbb{N}_1(v_j)$, namely, $v_k \in \mathbb{N}_R(v_i)$. The proof can be done in a similar fashion for $D_0^{-1}A_0$.

The next claim provides complexity guarantees for Comp$_0$ and Comp$_1$ described in Algorithms 6 and 7 respectively.

Claim: Algorithms 6 and 7 use only the R-hop information to compute the $k^\text{th}$ row of $(D_0^{-1}A_0)^R$ and $(A_0D_0^{-1})^R$, respectively, in $O(\alpha R d_{\text{max}})$ time steps, where $\alpha = \min\left\{n, \left(\frac{d_{\text{max}}+1}{d_{\text{max}}-1}\right)\right\}$.

Proof. The proof will be given for Comp$_0$ described in Algorithm 6 as that for Comp$_1$ can be performed similarly. Due to Claim 5.1, we have

\[
[(A_0D_0^{-1})^{l+1}]_{kj} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} [(A_0D_0^{-1})^l]_{kr} [A_0D_0^{-1}]_{rj} = \sum_{r: v_r \in \mathbb{N}_l(v_j)} [(A_0D_0^{-1})^l]_{kr} [A_0D_0^{-1}]_{rj} \tag{9}
\]

Therefore at iteration $l + 1$, $v_k$ computes the $k^\text{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{l+1}$ using: (1) the $k^\text{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^l$, and (2) the $r^\text{th}$ column of $A_0D_0^{-1}$. Node $v_r$, however, can only send the $r^\text{th}$ row of $A_0D_0^{-1}$ making $A_0D_0^{-1}$ non-symmetric. Noting that $[A_0D_0^{-1}]_{kr}/[D_0]_{rr} = [(A_0D_0^{-1})]_{kr}/[D_0]_{rr}$, since $D_0^{-1}A_0D_0^{-1}$ is symmetric, leads to $[(A_0D_0^{-1})^{l+1}]_{kj} = \sum_{r: v_r \in \mathbb{N}_l(v_j)} \frac{D_0}{D_0} [(A_0D_0^{-1})^l]_{kr} [A_0D_0^{-1}]_{rj}$. To prove the time complexity guarantee, at each iteration $v_k$ computes at most $\alpha$ values, where $\alpha = \min\left\{n, \left(\frac{d_{\text{max}}+1}{d_{\text{max}}-1}\right)\right\}$ is the upper bound on the size of the R-hop neighborhood $\forall v \in \mathbb{V}$. Each such computation requires at most $O(d_{\text{max}})$ operations. Thus, the overall time complexity is given by $O(\alpha R d_{\text{max}})$.

\[\square\]
We are now ready to provide the proof of Lemma 11.

**Proof.** From Parts Two and Three of Algorithm 5 it is clear that node $v_k$ computes $[b_1]_k, [b_2]_k, \ldots, [b_d]_k$ and $[x_d]_k, [x_{d-1}]_k, \ldots, [x_0]_k$, respectively. These are determined using the inverse approximated chain as follows

\[
\begin{align*}
\[b_i\]_k &= (I + (A_{i-1}D_{i-1}^{-1})[b_{i-1}]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + (A_0D_0^{-1})^{2^{i-1}}[b_{i-1}]_k \\
\[x_i\]_k &= \frac{1}{2}D_i^{-1}[b_i] + (I + D_i^{-1}A_1)[x_{i+1}]_k = \frac{1}{2}[D_0^{-1}b_i + x_{i+1}] + (D_0^{-1}A_0)^{2^i}x_{i+1}
\end{align*}
\]

(10)

Considering the computation of $[b_1]_k, \ldots, [b_d]_k$ for $\rho > i - 1$, we have

\[
[b_i]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2^{i-1}}[b_{i-1}]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [A_0D_0^{-1} \ldots A_0D_0^{-1} b_{i-1}]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [A_0D_0^{-1} \ldots A_0D_0^{-1} u_{i-1}]_k
\]

\[
\times [b_{i-1}]_k + \left[u_{2^{-i-1}}^{(i-1)}\right]_k, \text{ with } u_{j+1}^{(i-1)} = A_0D_0^{-1}u_{j}^{(i-1)} \text{ for } j = 1, \ldots, 2^{i-1} - 1.
\]

Since $A_0D_0^{-1}$ has a sparsity pattern corresponding to 1-hop neighborhood (see Claim 5.1), node $v_k$ computes $[u_{j+1}^{(i-1)}]_k$, based on $u_{j}^{(i-1)}$, acquired from its 1-hop neighbors. It is easy to see that $\forall i$ such that $i - 1 < \rho$ the computation of $[b_i]_k$ requires $O(2^{i-1}d_{\max})$ time steps. Thus, the computation of $[b_1]_k, \ldots, [b_d]_k$ requires $O(2^{d}\max) = O(Rd_{\max})$. Now, consider the computation of $[b_i]_k$ but for $i - 1 \geq \rho$

\[
[b_i]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2^{i-1}}[b_{i-1}]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [C_0 \ldots C_0 b_{i-1}]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + [C_0 \ldots C_0 u_{1}^{(i-1)}]_k = [b_{i-1}]_k + \left[u_{2^{-i-1}}^{(i-1)}\right]_k
\]

with $C_0 = (A_0D_0^{-1})^R$, $l_{i-1} = 2^{i-1} - 1$, and $u_{j+1}^{(i-1)} = C_0u_{j}^{(i-1)}$ for $j = 1, \ldots, 2^{i-1} - 1$. Since $C_0$ has a sparsity pattern corresponding to R-hop neighborhood (see Claim 5.1), node $v_k$ computes $[u_{j+1}^{(i-1)}]_k$ based on the components of $u_{j}^{(i-1)}$ attained from its R-hop neighbors. For each $i$ such that $i - 1 \geq \rho$ the computing $[b_i]_k$ requires $O\left(2^{i-1}R\alpha\right)$ time steps, where $\alpha = \min\left\{n, \frac{(d_\max)^{i+1}}{(d_\max - 1)}\right\}$ being the upper bound on the number of nodes in the $R-$ hop neighborhood $\forall v \in V$. Therefore, the overall computation of $[b_{p+1}]_k, [b_{p+2}]_k, \ldots, [b_d]_k$ is achieved in $O\left(2^{d}R\alpha\right)$ time steps. Finally, the time complexity for the computation of all of the values $[b_1]_k, [b_2]_k, \ldots, [b_d]_k$ is $O\left(2^{d}R\alpha + Rd_{\max}\right)$. Similar analysis can be applied to determine the computational complexity of $[x_{d}]_k, [x_{d-1}]_k, \ldots, [x_1]_k$, i.e., Part Three of Algorithm 5. Using Lemma 5.1 we arrive at $Z_0' \approx \epsilon_d M_0^{-1}$. Finally, using Claim 5.1, the time complexity of EDistRSolve (Algorithm 5) is $O\left(2^{d}R\alpha + \alpha Rd_{\max}\right)$. \hfill $\square$

### 5.2. “Exact” Distributed R-Hop SDDM Solver

Having developed an R-hop version which computes a “rude” approximation to the solution of $M_0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_0$, we now provide an exact R-hop solver presented in Algorithm 8. Similar to EDistRSolve, each node $v_k$ receives the $k^{th}$ row $M_0, [b_0]_k, d, R$, and a precision parameter $\epsilon$ as inputs, and outputs the $k^{th}$ component of the $\epsilon$ close approximation of vector $\mathbf{x}$.

**Algorithm 8** EDistRSolve ($\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d, R, \epsilon$)

1. **Initialize:** $[y_0]_k = 0$, and $[\chi]_k = \text{RDistRSolve}(\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d, R)$
2. for $t = 1$ to $q$
   1. $[u_1^{(t)}]_k = [D_0]_{kk}[y_{t-1}] - \sum_{j:v_j \in N_1(v_k)}[A_0]_{kj}[y_{t-1}]$
   2. $[u_2^{(t)}]_k = \text{RDistRSolve}(\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [u_1^{(t)}]_k, d, R)$
3. $[y_t]_k = [y_{t-1}]_k - [u_2^{(t)}]_k + [\chi]_k$
4. end for
5. return $[\tilde{x}]_k = [y_q]_k$

**Analysis of Algorithm 8** The following Lemma shows that EDistRSolve computes the $k^{th}$ component of the $\epsilon$ close approximation to $\mathbf{x}$ and provides the time complexity analysis.
Lemma 12. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting. Further, let $\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3} \ln 2$. Then Algorithm 5 requires $O\left(\log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$ iterations to return the $k^{th}$ component of the $\epsilon$ close approximation to $x^*$.

Proof. See Appendix.

Next, the following Lemma provides the time complexity analysis of EDistRSolve.

Lemma 13. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting and let $\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3} \ln 2$, then EDistRSolve requires $O\left(\left(\frac{d^2}{d_0} + \alpha R d_{\text{max}}\right) \log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon_d}\right)\right)$ time steps. Moreover, for each node $v_k$, EDistRSolve only uses information from the $R$-hop neighbors.

Proof. See Appendix

5.3. Length of the Inverse Chain

Again these introduced algorithms depend on the length of the inverse approximated chain, $d$. Here, we provide an analysis to determine the value of $d$ which guarantees $\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3} \ln 2$ in $G = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}$. These results are summarized the following lemma

Lemma 14. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting and let $\kappa$ denote the condition number $M_0$. Consider the inverse approximated chain $C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}$ with length $d = \left\lceil \log \left(\frac{3}{2} \sqrt{\kappa} \right) \right\rceil$, then $D_0 \approx \epsilon_d D_0 - D_0 \left(D_0^{-1} A_0\right)^{2d},$ with $\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3} \ln 2$.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Section 4.3 and can be found in the Appendix.

6. Discussion & Conclusions

We developed a distributed version of the parallel SDDM solver of [20] and proposed a fast decentralized solver for SDDM systems. Our approach is capable of acquiring $\epsilon$-close solutions for arbitrary $\epsilon$ in $O\left(n^3 R W_{\text{max}}\log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$, with $n$ the number of nodes in graph $G$, $W_{\text{max}}$ and $W_{\text{min}}$ denoting the largest and smaller weights of the edges in $G$, respectively, $\alpha = \min \left\{ n, \frac{d^{R+1}}{d_{\text{max}} - 1} \right\}$ representing the upper bound on the size of the R-Hop neighborhood $\forall v \in V$, and $\epsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ as the precision parameter. After developing the full communication version, we proposed a generalization to the R-Hop case where communication is restricted.

Our method is faster than state-of-the-art methods for iteratively solving linear systems. Typical linear methods, such as Jacobi iteration [2], are guaranteed to converge if the matrix is strictly diagonally dominant. We proposed a distributed algorithm that generalizes this setting, where it is guaranteed to converge in the SDD/SDDM scenario. Furthermore, the time complexity of linear techniques is $O(n^{1.5} \log n)$, hence, a case of strictly diagonally dominant matrix $M_0$ can be easily constructed to lead to a complexity of $O(n^4 \log n)$. Consequently, our approach not only generalizes the assumptions made by linear methods, but is also faster by a factor of $\log n$.

In centralized solvers, nonlinear methods (e.g., conjugate gradient descent [11, 18], etc.) typically offer computational advantages over linear methods (e.g., Jacobi iteration) for iteratively solving linear systems. These techniques, however, can not be easily decentralized. For instance, the stopping criteria for nonlinear methods require the computation of weighted norms of residuals (e.g., $||p_k||_{M_0}$ with $p_k$ being the search direction at iteration $k$). To the best of our knowledge, the distributed computation of weighted norms is difficult. Namely using the approach in [19], this requires the calculation of the top singular value of $M_0$ which amounts to a power iteration on $M_0^T M_0$ leading to the loss of sparsity. Furthermore, conjugate gradient methods require global computations of inner products.

Another existing method which we compare our results to is the recent work of the authors [16] where a local and asynchronous solution for solving systems of linear equations is considered. In their work, the authors derive a complexity bound, for one component of the solution vector, of $O\left(\min \left\{ d_{\text{max}}, d_{\text{max}}\ln c, \frac{d_{\text{max}}\ln c}{\ln |G|} \right\}\right)$, with $c$ being the precision parameter, $d$ a constant bound on the maximal degree of $G$, and $G$ is defined as $x = Gx + z$ which can be directly mapped to $Ax = b$. The relevant scenario to our work is when $A$ is PSD and $G$ is symmetric. Here, the bound on the number of multiplications is given by $O\left(\min \left\{ d_{\text{max}}, d_{\text{max}}\ln c, \frac{d_{\text{max}}\ln c}{\ln |G|} \right\}\right)$, with $\kappa(A)$ being the condition number of $A$. In the general case, when the degree depends on the number of nodes (i.e., $d = d(n)$), the minimum in the above bound will be the result of the second term ($\frac{d_{\text{max}}\ln c}{\ln |G|}$) leading to $O\left(d(n)\kappa(A)\ln c\right)$, Consequently, in such a general setting, our approach outperforms [16] by a factor of $d(n)$.
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Appendix

In this appendix, we will provide proof of the Lemmas in the original submission.

Lemma 1. Let $Z_0 \approx \epsilon M_0^{-1}$, and $\bar{x} = Z_0 b_0$. Then $\bar{x}$ is $\sqrt{2^r(\epsilon^r-1)}$ approximate solution of $M_0 x = b_0$.

Proof. Let $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the solution of $M_0 x = b_0$, then

$$||x^* - \bar{x}||^2_{M_0} = (x^* - \bar{x})^T M_0 (x^* - \bar{x}) = (x^*)^T M_0 x^* + (\bar{x})^T M_0 \bar{x} - 2(x^*)^T M_0 \bar{x}$$

(11)

Consider each term separately in (11):

1. $(x^*)^T M_0 \bar{x} = b_0^T M_0^{-1} M_0 Z_0 b_0 = b_0^T Z_0 b_0$
2. $(x^*)^T M_0 x^* = b_0^T M_0^{-1} M_0 M_0^{-1} b_0 = b_0^T M_0^{-1} b_0 \leq \epsilon b_0^T Z_0 b_0$
3. $\bar{x}^T M_0 \bar{x} = b_0^T Z_0 M_0 Z_0 b_0 \leq \epsilon b_0^T Z_0 b_0$

where in the last step we used that if $Z_0 \approx \epsilon M_0^{-1}$, then $M_0 \approx \epsilon Z_0^{-1}$.

Therefore, (11) can be rewritten as:

$$||x^* - \bar{x}||^2_{M_0} \leq 2(\epsilon^r - 1) b_0^T Z_0 b_0$$

(12)

Combining (12) with $b_0^T Z_0 b_0 = (x^*)^T M_0 Z_0 M_0 x^*$:

$$||x^* - \bar{x}||^2_{M_0} \leq 2(\epsilon^r - 1) \epsilon^r (x^*)^T M_0 x^* = 2(\epsilon^r - 1) \epsilon^r ||x^*||^2_{M_0}$$

Lemma 2. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting of $M_0$. Let $Z'_0$ be the operator defined by $\text{DistrRSolve}([\{M_0\}_{k_1}, \ldots, \{M_0\}_{k_n}], [b_0]_{k}, d)$ (i.e., $x_0 = Z'_0 b_0$). Then $Z'_0 \approx \epsilon_a M_0^{-1}$

Moreover, Algorithm 3 requires $\mathcal{O}(dn^2)$ time steps.

Proof. The proof commences by showing that $(D_0^{-1} A_0)^r$ and $(A_0 D_0^{-1})^r$ have a sparsity pattern corresponding to the r-hop neighborhood for any $r \in \mathbb{N}$. This case be shown using induction as follows

1. Base case: If $r = 1$, we have

$$[A_0 D_0^{-1}]_{ij} = \begin{cases} [A_0]_{ij} / [D_0]_{ii} & \text{if } j \in N_1(i), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $A_0 D_0^{-1}$ has sparsity pattern corresponding to the 1-hop neighborhood.

Assume that for all $1 \leq p \leq r - 1$, $(A_0 D_0^{-1})^p$ has a sparsity pattern corresponding to the p-hop neighborhood.

2. Now, consider $(A_0 D_0^{-1})^r$, where

$$[(A_0 D_0^{-1})^r]_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} ([A_0 D_0^{-1}]^{r-1})_{ik} [A_0 D_0^{-1}]_{kj}$$

(13)

Since $A_0 D_0^{-1}$ is non negative then it is easy to see that $[(A_0 D_0^{-1})^r]_{ij} \neq 0$ if and only if there exists $k$ such that $v_k \in N_{r-1}(v_i)$ and $v_k \in N_1(v_j)$ (i.e., $v_j \in N_r(v_i)$).
Clearly, at the $i^{th}$ iteration node $v_k$ requires the $k^{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$ (i.e., the $k^{th}$ row from the previous iteration) in addition to the $j^{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$ from all nodes $v_j \in \mathbb{N}_{2i-1}(v_k)$ to compute the $k^{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$.

For computing $[(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}]_{kj}$, node $v_k$ requires the $k^{th}$ row and $j^{th}$ column of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$. The problem, however, is that node $v_j$ can only send the $j^{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$ which can be easily seen not to be symmetric. To overcome this issue, node $v_k$ has to compute the $j^{th}$ column of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$ based on its $j^{th}$ row. The fact that $D_0^{-1}(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$ is symmetric, manifests that for $r = 1, \ldots, n$

$$\frac{[(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}]_{j}}{[D_0]_{rr}} = \frac{[(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}]_{j}}{[D_0]_{jj}}$$

Hence, for all $r = 1, \ldots, n$

$$[(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}]_{j} = \frac{[D_0]_{rr}}{[D_0]_{jj}} [(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}]_{j}$$

(14)

Now, let’s analyze the time complexity of computing components $[b_1]_k, [b_2]_k, \ldots, [b_d]_k$.

**Time Complexity Analysis:** At each iteration $i$, node $v_k$ receives the $j^{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$ from all nodes $v_j \in \mathbb{N}_{2i-1}(v_k)$. Using Equation (14) node $v_k$ computes the corresponding columns as well as the product of these columns with the $k^{th}$ row of $(A_0D_0^{-1})^{2i-2}$. Therefore, the time complexity at the $i^{th}$ iteration is $O(n^2 + \text{diam}(G))$, where $n^2$ is responsible for the $k^{th}$ row computation, and $\text{diam}(G)$ represents the communication cost between the nodes. Using the fact that $\text{diam}(G) \leq n$, the total complexity of **Part One** in DistrRSolve algorithm is $O(dn^2)$.

In **Part Two**, node $v_k$ computes (in a distributed fashion) $[\tilde{x}_{d-1}]_k, [\tilde{x}_{d-2}]_k, \ldots, [\tilde{x}_0]_k$ using the same inverse approximated chain $C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}$.

$$x_i = \frac{1}{2}D_0^{-1}b_i + \frac{1}{2} \bigg[ I + (D_0^{-1}A_0)^2 \bigg] x_{i+1} = \frac{1}{2}D_0^{-1}b_i + \frac{1}{2}x_{i+1} + \frac{1}{2}(D_0^{-1}A_0)^2 x_{i+1}$$

(15)

for $i = d - 1, \ldots, 1$. Thus,

$$x_0 = \frac{1}{2}D_0^{-1}b_0 + \frac{x_1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(D_0^{-1}A_0)x_1$$

Similar to the analysis of **Part One** of DistrRSolve algorithm the time complexity of **Part Two** as well as the time complexity of the whole algorithm is $O(dn^2)$.

Finally, using Lemma 3 of the original paper for the inverse approximated chains $C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}$ yields:

$$Z_0' \approx \epsilon_d M_0^{-1}.$$
Proof. Notice that iterations in DistrESolve corresponds to Preconditioned Richardson Iteration:

$$y_t = [I - Z'_0 M_0] y_{t-1} + Z_0 b_0$$

where $Z'_0$ is the operator defined by DistrRSeqve and $y_0 = 0$. Therefore, from Lemma 2

$$Z'_0 \approx \epsilon_d M_0^{-1}$$

Finally, applying Lemma 3 of the main submission gives that DistrESolve algorithm needs $O \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$ iterations to $k^{th}$ component of the $\epsilon$ approximated solution for $x^*$. \hfill \square

Lemma 4. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting. Further, let $\epsilon_d < \frac{1}{3} \ln 2$ in the inverse approximated chain $C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}$. Then, DistrESolve($\{[M_0]_{k1}, \ldots, [M_0]_{kn}\}, [b_0]_k, d, \epsilon$) requires $O \left( dn^2 \log \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \right)$ time steps.

Proof. Each iteration of DistrESolve algorithm calls DistRSolve routine, therefore, using Lemmas 2 and 3 the total time complexity of f DistrESolve algorithm is $O \left( dn^2 \log \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \right)$ time steps. \hfill \square

Claim: Let $\kappa$ be the condition number of $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$, and $\{\lambda_i\}^n_{i=1}$ denote the eigenvalues of $D_0^{-1} A_0$. Then, $|\lambda_i| < 1 - \frac{1}{\kappa}$, for all $i = 1, \ldots, n$

Proof. See Proposition 5.3 in [20]. \hfill \square

Claim: Let $M$ be an SDDM matrix and consider the splitting $M = D - A$, with $D$ being non negative diagonal and $A$ being symmetric non negative. Further, assume that the eigenvalues of $D^{-1} A$ lie between $-\alpha$ and $\beta$. Then, $\alpha (1 - \beta) D \geq D - A \geq (1 + \alpha) D$.

Proof. See Proposition 5.4 in [20]. \hfill \square

Lemma 5. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting. Further, let $\epsilon_d < 1/3 \ln 2$. Then Algorithm 3 requires $O \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$ iterations to return the $k^{th}$ component of the $\epsilon$ close approximation to $x^*$. 

Proof. Please note that the iterations of EDistRSolve correspond to a distributed version of the preconditioned Richardson iteration scheme

$$y_t = [I - Z'_0 M_0] y_{t-1} + Z_0 b_0$$

with $y_0 = 0$ and $Z'_0$ being the operator defined by RDistRSolve. From Lemma 11 it is clear that $Z'_0 \approx \epsilon_d M_0^{-1}$. Applying Lemma 6 provides that EDistRSolve requires $O \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$ iterations to return the $k^{th}$ component of the $\epsilon$ close approximation to $x^*$. Finally, since EDistRSolve uses procedure RDistRSolve as a subroutine, it follows that for each node $v_k$ only communication between the R-hop neighbors is allowed. \hfill \square

Lemma 6. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting and let $\epsilon_d < 1/3 \ln 2$, then EDistRSolve requires $O \left( \left( 2^c/\alpha + \alpha Rd_{max} \right) \log \left( 1/\epsilon \right) \right)$ time steps. Moreover, for each node $v_k$, EDistRSolve only uses information from the R-hop neighbors.

Proof. Notice that at each iteration EDistRSolve calls RDistRSolve as a subroutine, therefore, for each node $v_k$ only R-hop communication is allowed. Lemma 11 gives that the time complexity of each iteration is $O \left( \frac{2^c \alpha + \alpha Rd_{max}}{\pi} \right)$, and using Lemma 6 immediately gives that the time complexity of $O \left( \left( 2^c/\alpha + \alpha Rd_{max} \right) \log \left( 1/\epsilon \right) \right)$. \hfill \square

Lemma 7. Let $M_0 = D_0 - A_0$ be the standard splitting and let $\kappa$ denote the condition number $M_0$. Consider the inverse approximated chain $C = \{A_0, D_0, A_1, D_1, \ldots, A_d, D_d\}$ with length $d = \lceil \log \left( 2 \ln \left( \frac{\sqrt{2} \kappa}{\sqrt{2} - 1} \right) \kappa \right) \rceil$, then $D_0 \approx \epsilon_d D_0 - D_0 \left( D_0^{-1} A_0 \right)^{2^c d}$, with $\epsilon_d < 1/3 \ln 2$.

Proof. The proof takes similar steps as in Lemma 13. \hfill \square