

# Outline

- Gaussian Elimination (without pivoting)
- Gaussian Elimination (with partial pivoting)

## 1 Stability of LU Factorization

## 2 Cholesky Factorization

## 3 Software for Linear Algebra

# Gaussian Elimination and LU Factorization

- Gaussian elimination can be viewed as "triangular triangularization" of nonsingular  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{L}_{m-1} \cdots \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{L}_1}_{\mathbf{L}^{-1}} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}$$

analogous to Householder QR factorization of matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{Q}_n \cdots \mathbf{Q}_2 \mathbf{Q}_1}_{\mathbf{Q}^*} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}$$

- Example of LU factorization of  $4 \times 4$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{L}_1 \rightarrow & \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ 0 & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{A}} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{L}_2} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{A}} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{L}_3} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times \\ & & 0 & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{L}_3 \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{A}} \end{array}$$

# What is Matrices $\mathbf{L}_k$

- At step  $k$ , eliminate entries below  $a_{kk}$  : let  $x_k$  be  $k$ th column of  $\mathbf{L}_{k-1} \cdots \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{A}$ ,

$$x_k = [x_{1,k}, x_{2,k}, \dots, x_{k,k}, x_{k+1,k} \cdots x_{m,k}]^T$$

$$\mathbf{L}_k x_k = [x_{1,k}, x_{2,k}, \dots, x_{k,k}, 0 \cdots 0]^T$$

- The multipliers  $l_{jk} = x_{jk}/x_{kk}$  appear in  $\mathbf{L}_k$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & 0 & -l_{k+1,k} & 1 & & \\ & 0 & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ & 0 & -l_{m,k} & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Let  $l_k = [0, \dots, 0, l_{k+1,k}, \dots, l_{m,k}]^T$  and  $e_k = \underbrace{[0, \dots, 0, 1, \dots, 0]^T}_{k-1}$ , then  $\mathbf{L}_k = \mathbf{I} - l_k e_k^*$

# Forming $\mathbf{L}$

- Luckily, the  $\mathbf{L}$  matrix contains the multipliers  $l_{jk} = x_{jk}/x_{kk}$

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L}_1^{-1} \mathbf{L}_2^{-1} \cdots \mathbf{L}_{m-1}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ l_{21} & 1 & & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ l_{m1} & l_{m2} & \cdots & l_{m,m-1} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and is said to be a unit lower triangular matrix

- First,  $\mathbf{L}_k^{-1} = \mathbf{I} + l_k \mathbf{e}_k^*$ , because  $\mathbf{e}_k^* k_k = 0$  and  $(\mathbf{I} - l_k \mathbf{e}_k^*)(\mathbf{I} + l_k \mathbf{e}_k^*) = \mathbf{I} - l_k \mathbf{e}_k^* l_k \mathbf{e}_k^* = \mathbf{I}$
- Second,  $\mathbf{L}_1^{-1} \mathbf{L}_2^{-1} \cdots \mathbf{L}_{k+1}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} l_j \mathbf{e}_j^*$ , since (prove by induction)  
 $(\mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} l_j \mathbf{e}_j^*)(\mathbf{I} + l_{k+1} \mathbf{e}_{k+1}^*) = \mathbf{I} + \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} l_j \mathbf{e}_j^* + \sum_{j=1}^k l_j (\mathbf{e}_j^* l_{k+1} \mathbf{e}_{k+1}^*)$  where  $\mathbf{e}_j^* l_{k+1} \mathbf{e}_{k+1}^* = 0$  for  $j < k+1$
- In other words,  $\mathbf{L}$  is "union" of  $\mathbf{L}_1^{-1}, \mathbf{L}_2^{-1}, \dots, \mathbf{L}_{m-1}^{-1}$

# Gaussian Elimination without Pivoting

- Factorize  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  into  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}$

**Gaussian elimination without pivoting:**

$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I};$

for  $k = 1$  to  $m - 1$

for  $j = k + 1$  to  $m$

$$l_{jk} = u_{jk} / u_{kk}$$

$$u_{j,k:m} = u_{j,k:m} - l_{jk} u_{k,k:m}$$

- Flop count  $\sim \sum_{k=1}^m 2(m-k)(m-k) \sim 2 \sum_{k=1}^m k^2 \sim 2m^3/3$
- In actually,  $\mathbf{L}$  often overwrites lower-triangular part of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  overwrites upper-triangular part of  $\mathbf{A}$
- Question: What if  $u_{kk}$  is 0? Answer: The algorithm would break.

# Partial Pivoting

- At step  $k$ , we divide by  $u_{kk}$ , which would break if  $u_{kk}$  is 0 (or close to 0), which can happen even if  $\mathbf{A}$  is nonsingular

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times_{kk} & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times_{kk} & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

- However, any nonzero entry in  $k$ th column below diagonal can also be used as pivot

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times_{ik} & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times_{ik} & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

and we permute (interchange) row  $i$  with row  $k$

- In general, we take nonzero entry with largest absolute value

# More on Partial Pivoting

- $k$ th step of Gaussian elimination of partial pivoting

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \\ & & x_{ik} & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Pivotselection}} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}_k} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{kk} & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Rowinterchange}} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{L}_k} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{kk} & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times \\ & 0 & \times & \times \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Elimination}}$$

and we interchange row  $i$  with row  $k$

- In terms of matrices, it becomes  $\underbrace{\mathbf{L}_{m-1}\mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{L}_2\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{L}_1\mathbf{P}_1}_{\mathbf{L}^{-1}\mathbf{P}}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}$
- $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{P}_1$  and  $\mathbf{L} = (\mathbf{L}'_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{L}'_2\mathbf{L}'_1)^{-1}$ , where  $\mathbf{L}'_k = \mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{P}_{k+1}\mathbf{L}_k\mathbf{P}_{k+1}^{-1}\cdots\mathbf{P}_{m-1}^{-1}$
- It is easy to verify that  $\mathbf{L}_{m-1}\mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{L}_2\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{L}_1\mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{L}'_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{L}'_2\mathbf{L}'_1(\mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{P}_1)$
- $\mathbf{L}'_k = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{P}_{k+1}l_k\mathbf{e}_k^*$  and  $\mathbf{L}$  is "union" of  $(\mathbf{L}'_k)^{-1} \equiv \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{P}_{m-1}\cdots\mathbf{P}_{k+1}l_k\mathbf{e}_k^*$

# Algorithm of Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting

- Factorize  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  into  $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}$

**Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting:**

$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$

for  $k = 1$  to  $m - 1$

$i \leftarrow \arg \max_{i \geq k} |u_{ik}|$

$\mathbf{u}_{k,k:m} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{u}_{i,k:m}$

$l_{k,1:k-1} \leftrightarrow l_{i,1:k-1}$

$p_k \leftrightarrow p_i$

for  $j = k + 1$  to  $m$

$l_{jk} = u_{jk} / u_{kk}$

$u_{j,k:m} = u_{j,k:m} - l_{jk} u_{k,k:m}$

- Question: What if  $u_{kk}$  is 0?
- Flop count  $\sim \sum_{k=1}^m 2(m-k)(m-k) \sim 2 \sum_{k=1}^m k^2 \sim \frac{2}{3} m^3$ , same as without pivoting



# An Alternative Implementation

- In practice,  $L$  and  $U$  overwrite  $A$  and  $P$  is represented by a vector

## Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting (alternative)

$\mathbf{p} = [1, 2, \dots, m];$

for  $k = 1$  to  $m - 1$

$i \leftarrow \arg \max_{i \geq k} |a_{ik}|$

$\mathbf{a}_{k,1:m} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{a}_{i,1:m}$

$p_k \leftrightarrow p_i$

$a_{k+1:m,k} \leftarrow a_{k+1:m,k} / a_{k,k}$

$\mathbf{A}_{k+1:m,k+1:m} \leftarrow \mathbf{A}_{k+1:m,k+1:m} - a_{k+1:m,k} * \mathbf{a}_{k,k+1:m}$

- Using LU factorization to solve  $Ax = b$  :

- 1  $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}$ ; ( $LU$  factorization with partial pivoting)
- 2  $\mathbf{Ly} = \mathbf{Pb}$ ; (Forward substitution)
- 3  $\mathbf{Ux} = \mathbf{y}$ ; (Back substitution)

# Complete Pivoting

- More generally, we can use any nonzero entry
- In theory, any nonzero entry  $(i, j), i \geq k, j \geq k$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times \\ & & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & 0 & \times \\ & \times & x_{ij} & \times \\ & \times & 0 & \times \end{bmatrix}$$

and we then permute row  $i$  with row  $k$ , column  $j$  with column  $k$

- In matrix operations, it can be expressed as

$$\underbrace{L_{m-1}P_{m-1} \cdots L_2P_2L_1P_1}_{L^{-1}P} \underbrace{AQ_1Q_2 \cdots Q_{m-1}}_Q = U$$

- Therefore,  $PAQ = LU$  where  $P = P_{m-1} \cdots P_2P_1$  and  $L = (L'_{m-1} \cdots L'_2L'_1)^{-1}$
- However, complete pivoting is typically not used in practice because it increases cost in search of pivot and complexity of implementation

# Stability of LU Factorization

# Stability of LU without Pivoting

- For  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU}$  computed without pivoting

$$\tilde{\mathbf{L}}\tilde{\mathbf{U}} = \mathbf{A} + \delta\mathbf{A}, \quad \frac{\|\delta\mathbf{A}\|}{\|\mathbf{L}\|\|\mathbf{U}\|} = O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$$

- This is close to backward stability, except that we have  $\|\mathbf{L}\|\|\mathbf{U}\|$  instead of  $\|\mathbf{A}\|$  in the denominator
- Instability of Gaussian elimination can happen only if one or both of the factors  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  is large relative to size of  $\mathbf{A}$
- Unfortunately,  $\|\mathbf{L}\|$  and  $\|\mathbf{U}\|$  can be arbitrarily large (even for well-conditioned  $\mathbf{A}$ ), e.g.,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-20} & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^{20} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-20} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - 10^{20} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Therefore, the algorithm is unstable

# Stability of LU Partial Pivoting

- With pivoting, all entries of  $\mathbf{L}$  are in  $[-1, 1]$ , so  $\|\mathbf{L}\| = O(1)$
- To measure growth in  $\mathbf{U}$ , we introduce the growth factor  $\rho = \frac{\max_{i,j} |u_{ij}|}{\max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|}$ , and hence  $\|\mathbf{U}\| = O(\rho \|\mathbf{A}\|)$
- We then have  $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{L}}\tilde{\mathbf{U}} = \tilde{\mathbf{P}}\mathbf{A} + \delta\mathbf{A}, \quad \frac{\|\delta\mathbf{A}\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\|} = O(\rho \varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$$

- If  $|l_{ij}| < 1$  for each  $i > j$  (i.e., there is no tie for the pivoting), then  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = \mathbf{P}$  for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon_{\text{machine}}$
- If  $\rho = O(1)$ , then the algorithm is backward stable
- In fact,  $\rho \leq 2^{m-1}$ , so by definition  $\rho$  is a constant but can be very large

# The Growth Factor

- $\rho$  can indeed be as large as  $2^{m-1}$ . Consider matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ -1 & 1 & & & \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & & \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & & & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & 2 & & & \\ & & 4 & & \\ & & & 8 & \\ & & & & 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

where growth factor  $\rho = 16 = 2^{m-1}$

- $\rho = 2^{m-1}$  is as large as  $\rho$  can get. It can be catastrophic in practice
- Theoretically, Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is backward stable according to formal definition
- However, in the worst case, Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting may be unstable for practical values of  $m$

# The Growth Factor in Practice

- Good news: Large  $\rho$  occurs only for very skewed matrices. Experimentally, one rarely see very large  $\rho$
- Probability of large  $\rho$  decreases exponentially in  $\rho$
- "If you pick a billion matrices at random, you will almost certainly not find one for which Gaussian elimination is unstable"
- In practice,  $\rho$  is no larger than  $O(\sqrt{m})$ . However, this behavior is not fully understood yet
- In conclusion,
  - Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is backward stable
  - In theory, its error may grow exponentially in  $m$
  - In practice, it is stable for matrices of practical interests

# Cholesky Factorization



# Hermitian Positive-Definite Matrices

- Symmetric matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  is symmetric positive definite (SPD) if  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$  for  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{0\}$
- Hermitian matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  is Hermitian positive definite (HPD) if  $\mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$  for  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^m \setminus \{0\}$
- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $m \times m$  HPD and  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  has full column rank, then  $\mathbf{X}^* \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}$  is HPD
- Any principal submatrix (picking some rows and corresponding columns) of  $\mathbf{A}$  is HPD and  $a_{ii} > 0$
- HPD matrices have positive real eigenvalues and orthogonal eigenvectors
- Note: Most textbooks only talk about SPD or HPD matrices, but a positive-definite matrix does not need to be symmetric or Hermitian! A real matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is positive definite iff  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T$  is SPD.

# Cholesky Factorization

- Key idea: take advantage and preserve the properties of symmetry and positive-definiteness in factorization
- Eliminate below diagonal and to the right of diagonal

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \mathbf{w}^* \\ \mathbf{w} & \mathbf{K} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\alpha} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \frac{\mathbf{w}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & \mathbf{K} - \frac{\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^*}{a_{11}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\alpha} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \frac{\mathbf{w}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & \mathbf{K} - \frac{\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^*}{a_{11}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \frac{\mathbf{w}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R}_1^* \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{R}_1$$

where  $\alpha = \sqrt{a_{11}}$ , where  $a_{11} > 0$

- $\mathbf{K} - \frac{\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^*}{a_{11}}$  is principal submatrix of HPD  $\mathbf{A}_1 = \mathbf{R}_1^{-*} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{R}_1$  and therefore is HPD, with positive diagonal entries

# Cholesky Factorization

- Apply recursively to obtain

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{R}_1^* \mathbf{R}_2^* \cdots \mathbf{R}_m^*)(\mathbf{R}_m \cdots \mathbf{R}_2 \mathbf{R}_1) = \mathbf{R}^* \mathbf{R}, \quad r_{jj} > 0$$

which is known as Cholesky factorization

- Question: Is  $\mathbf{R}$  simply "union" of  $k$ th rows of  $\mathbf{R}_k$  (or  $\mathbf{R}^*$  "union" of  $k$ th columns of  $\mathbf{R}_k^*$ )? Yes. Hint: Write  $\mathbf{R}_k^*$  in a form similar to  $\mathbf{L}_k = \mathbf{I} + l_k \mathbf{e}_k^T$  in LU
- Existence and uniqueness: every HPD matrix has a unique Cholesky factorization
  - Exists because algorithm for Cholesky factorization always works for HPD matrices
  - Is unique since once  $\alpha = \sqrt{a_{11}}$  is determined at each step, entire column  $\frac{\mathbf{w}}{\alpha}$  is determined
  - Question: How to check whether a Hermitian matrix is positive definite? Answer: Run Cholesky factorization and it would succeed iff the matrix is positive definite.

# Algorithm of Cholesky Factorization

- Factorize Hermitian positive definite matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$  into  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}^* \mathbf{R}$

## Algorithm: Cholesky factorization

$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A}$

for  $k = 1$  to  $m$

for  $j = k + 1$  to  $m$

$$r_{j,j:m} \leftarrow r_{j,j:m} - r_{k,j:m} \bar{r}_{kj} / r_{kk}$$

$$r_{k,k:m} \leftarrow r_{k,k:m} / \sqrt{r_{kk}}$$

- Operation count

$$\sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{j=k+1}^m 2(m-j) \sim 2 \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^k j \sim \sum_{k=1}^m k^2 \sim \frac{m^3}{3}$$

# Stability

## Theorem

The computed Cholesky factor  $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}$  satisfies

$$\tilde{\mathbf{R}}^* \tilde{\mathbf{R}} = \mathbf{A} + \delta \mathbf{A}, \quad \frac{\|\delta \mathbf{A}\|}{\|\mathbf{A}\|} = O(\varepsilon_{\text{machine}}),$$

i.e. Cholesky factorization is backward stable

- Forward errors in  $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}$  is  $\|\tilde{\mathbf{R}} - \mathbf{R}\| / \|\mathbf{R}\| = O(\kappa(\mathbf{A})\varepsilon_{\text{machine}})$ , which may be large for ill-conditioned  $\mathbf{A}$
- Solve  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$  for positive definite  $\mathbf{A}$ 
  - Factorize  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}^* \mathbf{R}$ ; Solve  $\mathbf{R}^* \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ ; Solve  $\mathbf{Rx} = \mathbf{y}$
  - Operation count is  $\sim m^3/3$
  - Algorithm is backward stable:

# $LDL^*$ Factorization

- Cholesky factorization is sometimes given by  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LDL}^*$  where  $\mathbf{D}$  is diagonal matrix and  $\mathbf{L}$  is unit lower triangular matrix
- It avoids computing square roots
- Analogously, LU factorization can also be written as LDU, where  $\mathbf{U}$  is unit upper triangular
- Question: How is  $\mathbf{R}$  in  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}^*\mathbf{R}$  related to the  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  factors of  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU}$  ?
  - $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{DL}^* = \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}\mathbf{R}$ , where  $\sqrt{\mathbf{D}} \equiv \text{diag}(\sqrt{d_{11}}, \sqrt{d_{22}}, \dots, \sqrt{d_{mm}})$
- Hermitian indefinite systems can be factorized with  $\mathbf{PAP}^T = \mathbf{LDL}^*$ , but  $\mathbf{D}$  is block diagonal with  $1 \times 1$  and  $2 \times 2$  blocks. Its cost is similar to Cholesky factorization and is about 50 of Gaussian elimination.

## Software for Linear Algebra

# Software for Linear Algebra

- LAPACK: Linear Algebra PACKage ([www.netlib.org/lapack/lug](http://www.netlib.org/lapack/lug))
  - Standard library for solving linear systems and eigenvalue problems
  - Successor of LINPACK ([www.netlib.org/linpack](http://www.netlib.org/linpack)) and EISPACK ([www.netlib.org/eispack](http://www.netlib.org/eispack))
  - Depends on BLAS (Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms)
  - Parallel extensions include ScaLAPACK and PLAPACK
  - Note: Uses Fortran conventions for matrix arrangements



# Software for Linear Algebra

- MATLAB
  - Factorization **A**:  $\text{lu}(\mathbf{A})$  and  $\text{chol}(\mathbf{A})$
  - Solve  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ :  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A} \backslash \mathbf{b}$ 
    - Uses back/forward substitution for triangular matrices
    - Uses Cholesky factorization for positive-definite matrices
    - Uses LU factorization with column pivoting for nonsymmetric matrices
    - Uses Householder QR for least squares problems
    - Uses some special routines for matrices with special sparsity patterns
  - Uses LAPACK and other packages internally
- Serial and parallel solvers for sparse matrices (e.g., SuperLU, TAUCS)

# Using LAPACK Routines in C Programs

- LAPACK was written in Fortran 77. Special attention is required when calling from C.
- Key differences between C and Fortran
  - Storage of matrices: column major (Fortran) versus row major (C/C++)
  - Argument passing for subroutines in C and Fortran: pass by reference (Fortran) and pass by value (C/C++)
- Simple example C code, example.c, for solving linear system using sgesv.
  - See class website for sample code.
  - To compile, issue command "cc -o example example.c -llapack -lblas"
- Hint: To find a function name, refer to LAPACK Users' Guide.
- To find out arguments for a given function, search on netlib.org