

Dense linear algebra : direct methods

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Outline

Linear Algebra Basics

Gaussian Elimination and LU factorization LU Factorization with partial pivoting Symmetric matrices Cholesky Factorization

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Gaussian Elimination and LU factorization

LU Factorization with partial pivoting Symmetric matrices Cholesky Factorization

System of linear equations?

Example:

$$2 x_1 - 1 x_2 + 3 x_3 = 13$$

 $-4x_1 + 6 x_2 - 5 x_3 = -28$
 $6 x_1 + 13 x_2 + 16 x_3 = 37$

can be written under the form:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b},$$
 with $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ -4 & 6 & -5 \\ 6 & 13 & 16 \end{pmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 13 \\ -28 \\ 37 \end{pmatrix}$

Gaussian Elimination

Example:

$$2x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 = 13 (1)$$

$$-4x_1 + 6x_2 - 5x_3 = -28 (2)$$

$$6x_1 + 13x_2 + 16x_3 = 37 (3)$$

With 2 * (1) + (2) \rightarrow (2) and -3*(1) + (3) \rightarrow (3) we obtain:

$$2x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 = 13 (4)$$

$$0x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 = -2 (5)$$

$$0x_1 + 16x_2 + 7x_3 = -2 (6)$$

Thus x_1 is eliminated from (5) and (6). With $-4*(5) + (6) \rightarrow (6)$:

$$2x_1 - x_2 + 3x_3 = 13$$

$$0x_1 + 4x_2 + x_3 = -2$$

$$0x_1 + 0x_2 + 3x_3 = 6$$

The linear system is then solved by backward $(x_3 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow x_1)$ substitution: $x_3 = \frac{6}{3} = 2$, $x_2 = \frac{1}{4}(-2 - x_3) = -1$, and finally $x_1 = \frac{1}{2}(13 - 3x_3 + x_2) = 3$

LU Factorization

▶ Find **L** unit lower triangular and **U** upper triangular such that:

$$A = L \times U$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ -4 & 6 & -5 \\ 6 & 13 & 16 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Procedure to solve $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
 - ▶ A = LU
 - Solve Ly = b (forward elimination, down)
 - Solve Ux = y (backward substitution, up)

$$Ax = (LU)x = L(Ux) = Ly = b$$

From Gaussian Elimination to LU Factorization

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \ \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}^{(1)}, \ \mathbf{A}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}^{(1)} :$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad 2 \leftarrow 2 - 1 \times a_{21}/a_{11}$$

$$3 \leftarrow 3 - 1 \times a_{31}/a_{11}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{(2)}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & a_{23}^{(2)} \\ 0 & a_{32}^{(2)} & a_{33}^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2^{(2)} \\ b_3^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} \quad b_2^{(2)} = b_2 - a_{21}b_1/a_{11}$$

$$\mathbf{Finally} \quad 3 \leftarrow 3 - 2 \times a_{32}/a_{22} \text{ gives } \mathbf{A}^{(3)}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}^{(3)}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Finally} \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & a_{23}^{(2)} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33}^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2^{(2)} \\ b_3^{(3)} \end{pmatrix} \quad a_{33}^{(3)} = a_{33}^{(2)} - a_{32}^{(2)}a_{32}^{(2)}/a_{22}^{(2)}$$

$$\mathbf{a}_{33}^{(3)} = a_{33}^{(2)} - a_{32}^{(2)}a_{33}^{(2)}/a_{22}^{(2)}$$

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From Gaussian Elimination to LU Factorization

Typical Gaussian elimination at step k:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & a_{1n}^{(1)} \\ 0 & \ddots & & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & a_{k-1k-1}^{(k-1)} & \dots & \dots & \dots & a_{k-1n}^{(k-1)} \\ \vdots & 0 & a_{kk}^{(k)} & a_{kk+1}^{(k)} & \dots & a_{kn}^{(k)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & a_{k+1k}^{(k)} & a_{k+1k+1}^{(k)} & \dots & a_{k+1n}^{(k)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & a_{nk}^{(k)} & a_{nk+1}^{(k)} & \dots & a_{nn}^{(k)} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} b_1^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ b_k^{(k-1)} \\ b_{k-1}^{(k)} \\ b_k^{(k)} \\ b_{k+1}^{(k)} \\ \vdots \\ b_n^{(k)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$a_{ij}^{(k+1)} = a_{ij}^{(k)} - \frac{a_{ik}^{(k)}}{a_{kk}^{(k)}} a_{kj}^{(k)}$$
, for $i > k$

(and
$$a_{ij}^{(k+1)} = a_{ij}^{(k)}$$
 for $i \leq k$)

From Gaussian Elimination to LU factorization

$$\begin{cases} a_{ij}^{(k+1)} = a_{ij}^{(k)} - \frac{a_{ik}^{(k)}}{a_{kk}^{(k)}} a_{kj}^{(k)}, \text{ for } i > k \\ a_{ij}^{(k+1)} = a_{ij}^{(k)}, \text{ for } i \leq k \end{cases}$$

▶ One step of Gaussian elimination can be written:

$$\mathbf{A}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{L}^{(k)} \mathbf{A}^{(k)} \quad (\text{and } b^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{L}^{(k)} b^{(k)}), \text{ with}$$

$$\mathbf{L}^{k} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & -l_{k+1,k} & \\ & -l_{k} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } l_{ik} = \frac{a_{ik}^{(k)}}{a_{kk}^{(k)}}.$$

After n-1 steps, $\mathbf{A}^{(n)} = \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{L}^{(n-1)} \dots \mathbf{L}^{(1)} \mathbf{A}$ gives $\boxed{\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{U}}$, with $\mathbf{L} = [\mathbf{L}^{(1)}]^{-1} \dots [\mathbf{L}^{(n-1)}]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{21} & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

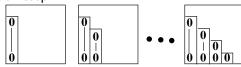
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ l_{21} & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \\ l_{n1} & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ 1 & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & & l_{n,n-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 & & \\ l_{21} & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \\ l_{n1} & \dots & l_{n,n-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

LU Factorization Algorithm

- lackbox Overwrite matrix f A: we store $a_{ij}^{(k)}, k=2,\ldots,n$ in f A(i,j)
- ▶ In the end, $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{(n)} = \mathbf{U}$

```
\begin{array}{l} \mbox{do } k \! = \! 1, \; n \! - \! 1 \\ \mbox{do } i \! = \! k \! + \! 1, \; n \\ \mbox{do } i \! = \! k \! + \! 1, \; n \\ \mbox{L(i,k)} = \! A(i,k) \! / \! A(k,k) \\ \mbox{do } j \! = \! k, \; n \; \; ! \; (\textit{better than: do } j \! = \! 1,n) \\ \mbox{A(i,j)} = \! A(i,j) - \! L(i,k) * A(k,j) \\ \mbox{end do} \\ \mbox{enddo} \\ \mbox{enddo} \\ \mbox{L(n,n)} \! = \! 1 \end{array}
```

Matrix A at each step:



- ► Avoid building the zeros under the diagonal
- Before

```
\begin{array}{l} L(n,n){=}1\\ \textbf{do} \ k{=}1,\ n{-}1\\ L(k,k) = 1\\ \textbf{do} \ i{=}k{+}1,\ n\\ L(i,k) = A(i,k)/A(k,k)\\ \textbf{do} \ j{=}k,\ n\\ A(i,j) = A(i,j) - L(i,k) * A(k,j) \end{array}
```

After

```
\begin{array}{l} L(n,n){=}1\\ \textbf{do} \ k{=}1,\ n{-}1\\ L(k,k) = 1\\ \textbf{do} \ i{=}k{+}1,\ n\\ L(i,k) = A(i,k)/A(k,k)\\ \textbf{do} \ j{=}k{+}1,\ n\\ A(i,j) = A(i,j) - L(i,k) * A(k,j) \end{array}
```

- ▶ Use lower triangle of array **A** to store $L_{i,k}$ multipliers
- Before:

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{L(n,n)=1} \\ \textbf{do } k=1, \ n-1 \\  & \textbf{L(k,k)=1} \\ \textbf{do } i=k+1, \ n \\  & \textbf{L(i,k)=A(i,k)/A(k,k)} \\ \textbf{do } j=k+1, \ n \\  & \textbf{A(i,j)=A(i,j)-L(i,k)*A(k,j)} \end{array}
```

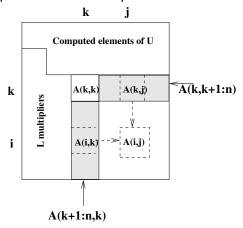
After (diagonal 1 of L is not stored):

```
\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{do} & k = 1, \ n - 1 \\ \mbox{do} & i = k + 1, \ n \\ & \mbox{A(i,k)} &= \mbox{A(i,k)} / \mbox{A(k,k)} \\ \mbox{do} & j = k + 1, \ n \\ & \mbox{A(i,j)} &= \mbox{A(i,j)} - \mbox{A(i,k)} * \mbox{A(k,j)} \end{array}
```

More compact array syntax (Matlab, scilab):

$$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{do } k{=}1, \ n{-}1 \\ \mbox{ } A(k{+}1{:}n\,,k\,) \ = \ A(k{+}1{:}n\,,k\,) \ \ / \ \ A(k\,,k\,) \\ \mbox{ } A(k{+}1{:}n\,,k{+}1{:}n\,) \ = \ A(k{+}1{:}n\,,k\,) \ \ * \ \ A(k\,,k{+}1{:}n\,) \\ \mbox{ } - \ \ A(k{+}1{:}n\,,k\,) \ \ * \ \ A(k\,,k{+}1{:}n\,) \end{array}$$
 end do

corresponds to a rank-1 update:



What we have computed

- ▶ we have stored the **L** and **U** factors in **A**:
 - ▶ $\mathbf{A}_{i,j}$, i > j corresponds to I_{ij}
 - ▶ $\mathbf{A}_{i,j}$, $i \leq j$ corresponds to u_{ij}
 - with $I_{ii} = 1, i = 1, n$
- ► Finally,



after factorization: $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} + \mathbf{U} - I$

LU factorization : summary

- Step by step columns of **A** are set to zero and **A** is updated $\mathbf{L}^{(n-1)} \dots \mathbf{L}^{(1)} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}$ leading to $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{U}$ where $\mathbf{L} = [\mathbf{L}^{(1)}]^{-1} \dots [\mathbf{L}^{(n-1)}]^{-1}$
- At each step $\mathbf{A}(k, k)$ is referred to as the pivot
 - zero entries in column of A can be replaced by entries in L
 - row entries of ${f U}$ are stored in corresponding locations of ${f A}$

Algorithm 1 LU factorization

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{for } k=1, n-1 \textbf{ do} \\ \textbf{ if } |\textbf{A}(k,k)| \textbf{ too small then} \\ \textbf{ exit (small pivots are not allowed)} \\ \textbf{ end if} \\ A(k+1:n,k) = A(k+1:n,k) \ / \ A(k,k) \\ A(k+1:n,k+1:n) = A(k+1:n,k+1:n) \ - \ A(k+1:n,k)*A(k,k+1:n) \\ \textbf{ end for} \end{array}
```

When $|\mathbf{A}(k,k)|$ is too small, one could consider other pivots: numerical pivoting strategies will be introduced later.

Existence and uniqueness of LU decomposition

Theorem 1

 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ has an LU factorization (where \mathbf{L} is unit lower triangular and \mathbf{U} is upper triangular) if $\det(\mathbf{A}(1:k,1:k)) \neq 0$ for all $k \in \{1\dots n-1\}$. If the $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}$ factorization exists, then it is unique and $\det(\mathbf{A}) = u_{11}\dots u_{nn}$.

Theorem 2

For each nonsingular matrix \mathbf{A} , there exists a permutation matrix \mathbf{P} such that $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{A}$ possesses an LU factorization $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}$.

Definition 1

 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is strictly diagonally dominant iff $|a_{ii}| > \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} |a_{ij}|$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$

Theorem 3

If ${\bf A}^T$ is strictly diagonally dominant then ${\bf A}$ is non-singular and ${\bf A}$ has an LU factorization and $l_{ij} \leq 1$

Solution phase : Lx = b (Left-Looking and Right-looking)

Algorithm 2 LL (sans report)

```
x = b

for j = 1, n do

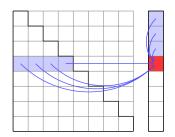
for i = 1, j - 1 do

x_j = x_j - l_{ji}x_i

end for

x_j = \frac{X_j}{l_{jj}}

end for
```



Algorithm 3 RL (avec report)

```
x = b

for j = 1, n do

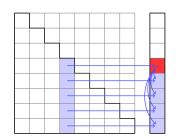
x_j = \frac{x_j}{l_{jj}}

for i = j + 1, n do

x_i = x_i - l_{ij}x_j

end for

end for
```



Blocked **LU** and Schur decomposition

Exercise 1 (Blocked **LU** and Schur decomposition)

Let A be a non singular matrix of order n for which $\exists P$ permutation matrix such that PA can be factored without pivoting and consider the block form

$$PA = \begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \end{pmatrix}.$$
 We define the so called Schur matrix S as
$$S = A_{2,2} - A_{2,1} (A_{1,1})^{-1} A_{1,2}$$

- 1. Explain how to adapt the LU factorisation algorithm to obtain the following decomposition of PA. PA = $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{1,1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{L}_{2,1} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1,1} & \mathbf{U}_{1,2} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{1,1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{L}_{2,1} & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1,1} & \mathbf{U}_{1,2} \\ \mathbf{0} & I \end{pmatrix}$
- 2. Prove that $det(\mathbf{A}) = det(\mathbf{P})det(\mathbf{A}_{1,1})det(\mathbf{S})$
- 3. We assume that we know how to compute \mathbf{Y} such that $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{Z}$. Describe how to use previous incomplete blocked factorization to solve $\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$.

Blocked factorization and null space

Exercise 2 (Null space)

of the null space.

We suppose that after n-r steps of LU factorization we have $\mathbf{PA} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{1,1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{L}_{2,1} & I_r \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{U}_{1,1} & \mathbf{U}_{1,2} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S}_r \end{pmatrix}$ where \mathbf{S}_r is the Schur complement matrix of order r. We also suppose that $\mathbf{S}_r = 0$ (in practice one could also assume that $\|\mathbf{S}_r\| \leq \varepsilon \|\mathbf{A}\|$ for some matrix norm). Finally we assume that $\det(\mathbf{U}_{11}) \neq 0$. Prove that the dimension of the null-space is r and compute a basis

Number of floating-point operations (flops)

▶ In forward elimination (Ly = b), computing the k^{th} unknown

$$y_k = b_k - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} L_{kj} y_j$$

leads to (k-1) multiplications and (k-1) additions, for $1 \le k \le n$ $n^2 - n$ flops overall

- ▶ Idem for Ux = y and at worst n divisions $(U_{kk} \neq 1)$.
- Number of flops during factorization:
 - \triangleright n-k divisions
 - $(n-k)^2$ multiplications, $(n-k)^2$ additions
 - k = 1, 2, ..., n 1
 - ▶ total: $\approx \frac{2 \times n^3}{3}$ (Strassen's algorithm can reduce this to $\Theta(n^{\log_2 7}) \simeq \Theta(n^{2.8})$)

Computational complexity

Exercise 3 (How to compute \mathbf{x} such that $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A}^2)^{-1} \mathbf{b}$)

Let **A** be a non singular matrix of order n (i.e. it exists **L**, **U** and **P** such that PA = LU (note that A^2 is also non singular).

- 1. Compare the computational complexity of solving $\mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with the following two algorithms:
 - 1.1 Compute $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^2$, factor \mathbf{B} and solve $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
 - 1.2 Factor **A** and use the factored form to solve $\mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
- 2. Explain why computing directly $\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{A}^2)^{-1}$ and performing $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{b}$ is not a method of choice.

Linear Algebra Basics

Gaussian Elimination and LU factorization

LU Factorization with partial pivoting

Symmetric matrices

Cholesky Factorization

Consider
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\kappa_2(A) = \frac{\lambda_{max}}{\lambda_{min}} = \frac{1 + \varepsilon + \sqrt{5 + \varepsilon^2 - 2\varepsilon}}{-1 - \varepsilon + \sqrt{5 + \varepsilon^2 - 2\varepsilon}} \simeq 2.6$$

If one solves:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 1+\varepsilon \\ 2 \end{array}\right]$$

Exact solution $x^* = (1, 1)$.

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & 1 \end{array} \right] \times \left[\begin{array}{cc} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{array} \right]$$

$ $ ε	$\frac{\ x^*-x\ }{\ x^*\ }$	$\kappa_2(A)$
10^{-3}	$6 imes 10^{-16}$	2.621
10^{-6}	2×10^{-11}	2.618
10^{-9}	$9 imes 10^{-8}$	2.618
10^{-12}	$9 imes 10^{-5}$	2.618
10^{-15}	7×10^{-2}	2.618

Table: Relative error as a function of ε .

► Even if *A* is well conditioned, Gaussian elimination may introduce errors

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{bmatrix}$$

ε	$\frac{\ x^*-x\ }{\ x^*\ }$	$\kappa_2(A)$
10^{-3}	$6 imes 10^{-16}$	2.621
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10^{-9}	$9 imes 10^{-8}$	2.618
10^{-12}	$9 imes 10^{-5}$	2.618
10^{-15}	7×10^{-2}	2.618

Table: Relative error as a function of ε .

- ► Even if *A* is well conditioned, Gaussian elimination may introduce errors
- Explanation: pivot ε is too small and leads to a large element growth (growth factor) in L and U: $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ in L leads to a loss of information/accuracy in $1 \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & 1 \end{array} \right] \times \left[\begin{array}{cc} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{array} \right]$$

▶ Let us try to exchange rows 1 and 2 of A and b:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 1 + \varepsilon \end{array}\right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \varepsilon \end{array}\right]$$

- \rightarrow Multipliers are bounded: $\forall i = k+1: n, \quad \frac{|a_{i,k}^{(k)}|}{|a_{k,k}^{(k)}|} \leq 1$
- ightarrow terms of original matrix remain significant in $\dot{L}U$ factors
- \rightarrow perfect accuracy obtained!

Partial Pivoting

- Partial pivoting: choose at each step the largest element of the column as the pivot
- → avoids large elements in factors matrix (growth factor)
 - ▶ Then (*P*: permutation), PA = LU, Ly = Pb, Ux = y
 - ► LU with partial pivoting is practically backward stable

$$\frac{\|Ax - b\|}{\|A\| \times \|x\| + \|b\|} \approx \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{\|x - x^*\|}{\|x^*\|} \approx \varepsilon \times \kappa(A) \qquad (2)$$

- (1) small backward error (and small residual) independently of the conditioning
- (2) accuracy depends on conditioning if $\varepsilon \approx 10^{-q}$ et $\kappa(A) \approx 10^p$ then x has approximatively (q-p) correct digits

LU factorization with partial pivoting

Next algorithm computes L and U such that PA = LU, and computes Pb.

Algorithm 4 LU factorization with partial pivoting

```
for k=1,n-1 do

Pivot search: Find index i of largest entry in \mathbf{A}(k:n,k)

if |A(i,k)| \leq \varepsilon \|A\| then
exit since \mathbf{A} is numerically singular
end if

Swap rows i and k of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{b}
A(k+1:n,k) = A(k+1:n,k) / A(k,k)
A(k+1:n,k+1:n) = A(k+1:n,k+1:n) - A(k+1:n,k)*A(k,k+1:n)
end for
```

Extensions to **LU** factorization with partial pivoting

Exercise 4 (LU with pivoting)

- 1. Explain how to modify algorithm 4 to factor singular matrices in the form proposed at exercice 2 (so that using exercice 2 one could then also compute the null-space of **A**)
- 2. Let us suppose then that in algorithm 4, we want at each step of Pivot search step to find the largest entry not only in the column $(\mathbf{A}(k:n,k))$ both also $(\mathbf{A}(k:n,k:n))$, so called total pivoting. Describe how algorithm 4 should be modified.
- 3. Compare algorithm proposed at questions 1 and 2.

Linear Algebra Basics

Gaussian Elimination and LU factorization LU Factorization with partial pivoting

Symmetric matrices

Cholesky Factorization

Symmetric matrices

- Assumption: A has a LU factorization
- ► A symmetric: only store lower or upper triangle
- ▶ A = LU and $A^T = A \Rightarrow LU = U^TL^T$, thus $LU(L^T)^{-1} = U^T \Rightarrow (U)(L^T)^{-1} = L^{-1}U^T = D$ diagonal and $U = DL^T$, finally $A = L(DL^T) = LDL^T$, with D = Diag(U) and
- Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -8 & -4 \\ -8 & 18 & 14 \\ -4 & 14 & 25 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ Solution of Ax = b: with $A = LDL^T$:
 - 1. Ly = b then Dz = y followed by
 - 2. $L^T x = z$

Properties of *LDL*^T Algorithm

We have shown that if **A** symmetric and A = LU exists then $\exists L$ and D(= Diag(U)) such that $A = LDL^T$. **LU** Algorithm 1 thus already computes all we need: L and D.

Proposition 1 (LDL^T Algorithm)

Given a symmetric matrix A for which an LU factorisation exists, the LU algorithm 1 can be adapted to compute LDL^T factorization.

Proposition 2 (Complexity of LDL^{T} factorization)

If only the lower triangular part of the matrix (including diagonal) is used/updated and if only L and D matrices are stored, then the cost of LDL^T factorisation is $\approx \frac{n^3}{3}$

LDL[™] Algorithm for symmetric matrices

▶ let I_k be column k of L and u_k be row k of U then in Algorithm 1,

$$A(k+1:n,k+1:n) = A(k+1:n,k+1:n) - I_k * u_k^T$$

▶ since $l_k = u_k/u_{kk}$, when U is not stored, one must temporarily save u_k to perform the update.

Algorithm 5 LDT^T factorization

```
for k = 1, n - 1 do

if |\mathbf{A}(k, k)| too small exit (small pivots

\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k}+1:\mathbf{n},\mathbf{k}) (corresponds to u_k in LU Agorithm)

\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k}+1:\mathbf{n},\mathbf{k}) = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k}+1:\mathbf{n},\mathbf{k}) / \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{k})

for j = k + 1, n do

\mathbf{A}(j:\mathbf{n},j) = \mathbf{A}(j:\mathbf{n},j) - \mathbf{A}(j:\mathbf{n},\mathbf{k})^*\mathbf{v}_k(j)

end for

end for
```

Complexity of LDL^T factorization

```
for k = 1, n - 1 do
   if |\mathbf{A}(k, k)| too small exit (small pivots
   \mathbf{v}_k = A(k+1:n,k) (corresponds to u_k in LU Agorithm)
   A(k+1:n,k) = A(k+1:n,k) / A(k,k)
   for i = k + 1, n do
     A(j:n,j) = A(j:n,j) - A(j:n,k) * \mathbf{v}_k(j)
   end for
end for
• flops(LDL^T) = 2\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-k} i\right) = 2\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(\frac{(n-k)(n-k+1)}{2}\right)
   flops(LDL^T) \approx \sum_{n=1}^{n-1} (n-k)^2 (thus \frac{1}{2}flops(LU))
                        LDL^T \approx \frac{n^3}{2} floating point operations
```

Symmetric matrices and pivoting

- Diagonal pivoting preserves symmetry but is insufficient for stability
- ▶ In general one looks for a permutation *P* such that:

$$PAP^{T} = LDL^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ x & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ x & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ x & x & x & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & x & x & 0 \\ 0 & x & x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & x \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & x & x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

▶ D: matrix of diagonal 1×1 and 2×2 blocks

Examples of 2x2 pivots:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 & 1 \\ 1 & \varepsilon_2 \end{bmatrix}$

▶ Pivot choice more complex: 2 columns at each step Let

$$PAP^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} E & C^{T} \\ C & B \end{bmatrix}. \text{ If } E \text{ is a 2x2 pivot, form } E^{-1} \text{ to get:}$$

$$PAP^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ CE^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} E & 0 \\ 0 & B - CE^{-1}C^{T} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & E^{-1}C^{T} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear Algebra Basics

Gaussian Elimination and LU factorization LU Factorization with partial pivoting Symmetric matrices

Cholesky Factorization

Cholesky Factorization

- ▶ **A** positive definite if $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$
- ▶ **A** symmetric positive definite \Rightarrow Cholesky factorization $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T$ with L lower triangular, \mathbf{L} is unique
- By identification :

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{32} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{21} & l_{31} \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

► It follows: $\begin{array}{lll} a_{11} = l_{11}^2 & a_{21} = l_{21} \times l_{11} & a_{31} = l_{31} \times l_{11} \\ a_{22} = l_{21}^2 + l_{22}^2 & a_{32} = l_{31} \times l_{21} + l_{32} \times l_{22} & a_{33} = l_{31}^2 + l_{32}^2 + l_{33}^2 \end{array}$

Thus:
$$\begin{split} I_{11} &= \sqrt{a_{11}} & \quad I_{21} = a_{21}/I_{11} & \quad I_{31} = a_{31}/I_{11} \\ a_{22}^{(1)} &= a_{22} - I_{21}^2 & \quad a_{32}^{(1)} = a_{32} - I_{31} \times I_{21} & \quad a_{33}^{(1)} = a_{33} - I_{31}^2 \\ I_{22} &= \sqrt{a_{22}^{(1)}} & \quad I_{32} = a_{32}^{(1)}/I_{22} & \quad a_{33}^{(2)} = a_{33}^{(1)} - I_{32}^2 \\ I_{33} &= \sqrt{a_{33}^{(2)}} & \quad a_{33}^{(2)} & \quad a_{33}^{$$

Cholesky Factorization

Cholesky Factorization

```
\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{do } k\!=\!1, & n \\ & A(k\,,k)\!=\!\mbox{sqrt} \left(A(k\,,k\,)\right) \\ & A(k\!+\!1\!:\!n\,,k\,) = A(k\!+\!1\!:\!n\,,k\,)/A(k\,,k\,) \\ & \mbox{do } j\!=\!k\!+\!1, & n \\ & A(j\!:\!n\,,j\,) = A(j\!:\!n\,,j\,) - A(j\!:\!n\,,k\,) \ A(j\,,k\,) \\ & \mbox{end do} \\ \mbox{end do} \end{array}
```

- Cholesky is backward stable (without pivoting)
- ▶ Factorization: $\approx \frac{n^3}{3}$ flops
- ▶ Similar to LU, but only on the lower triangle. **LU** factorization:

$$\begin{array}{l} A(\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,,\,k\,) \;=\; A(\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,,\,k\,)\,/\,A(\,k\,,\,k\,) \\ A(\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,,\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,) \;=\; A(\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,,\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,) \;-\; \& \\ A(\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,,\,k\,) \;*\; A(\,k\,,\,k\,+\,1:\,n\,) \end{array}$$