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Thrn, it's a Fact

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Overview

Ch9. Matrix factorizations and numerical linear algebra

9.1 The LU factorization

9.2 Partial pivoting

9.3 The Cholesky factorization

The LU factorization

Observation

Consider a linear system $Ax = b$, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a nonsingular upper triangular matrix, i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ 0 & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

This system can be solved by

$$x_n = b_n / A_{nn}$$
$$x_k = \left(b_k - \sum_{i=k+1}^n A_{ki} x_i \right) / A_{kk}.$$

Observation

If A is a nonsingular lower triangular matrix,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n2} & \cdots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$x_1 = b_1/A_{11}$$

$$x_k = \left(b_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} A_{ki}x_i \right) / A_{kk}.$$

Observation

Hence if $A = LU$ where L is a nonsingular lower triangular matrix and U is a nonsingular upper triangular matrix, the system $Ax = b$ can be solved by the simple algorithm.

Moreover, if the diagonal entries of L are all 1, we can find the solution by more simple calculation.

The LU factorization

For given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, if no row interchanges are required when Gaussian elimination is applied, then there is a nonsingular lower triangular matrix L such that $U = L^{-1}A$.

Theorem (378)

Let $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be lower triangular and invertible. Then L^{-1} is also lower triangular. Similarly, if $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is upper triangular and invertible, then U^{-1} is also upper triangular.

Theorem (379)

Let $L_1, L_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be two lower triangular matrices. Then $L_1 L_2$ is also lower triangular. Similarly, the product of two upper triangular matrices is upper triangular.

Theorem (381)

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. For each $k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, let $M^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ be the submatrix extracted from the upper left-hand corner of A . If each $M^{(k)}$ is nonsingular, then A has a unique LU factorization.

Proof

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} M^{(n-1)} & a \\ \hline b^T & A_{nn} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} L_1 & 0 \\ \hline u^T & 1 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} U_1 & v \\ \hline 0 & \alpha \end{array} \right]$$

where $M^{(n-1)} = L_1 U_1$, $L_1 v = a$, $u^T U_1 = b^T$, and $u \cdot v + \alpha = A_{nn}$.

Ex 9.1.1

Find the LU factorization of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 10 & 5 & 15 \\ -1 & -7 & 3 & -17 \\ -2 & -6 & 1 & -12 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ \textcolor{red}{3} & 10 & 5 & 15 \\ \textcolor{red}{-1} & -7 & 3 & -17 \\ \textcolor{red}{-2} & -6 & 1 & -12 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{L_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & \textcolor{blue}{-4} & 5 & -13 \\ 0 & \textcolor{blue}{0} & 5 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \\
 & \xrightarrow{L_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & \textcolor{orange}{5} & -4 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{L_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$L = \textcolor{orange}{L_1}^{-1} \textcolor{blue}{L_2}^{-1} \textcolor{red}{L_3}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \textcolor{orange}{3} & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -4 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex 9.1.7

(a) Show that there do not exist matrices of the form

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ l & 1 \end{bmatrix}, U = \begin{bmatrix} u & v \\ 0 & w \end{bmatrix}$$

such that $LU = A$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Show that A has infinitely many LU factorizations.

Ex 9.1.10

Show that, if L is $n \times n$ and unit lower triangular, then the cost of solving $Lc = b$ is $n^2 - n$ arithmetic operations.

Proof

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \cdots & \vdots \\ l_{n1} & l_{n2} & l_{n3} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then for $k = 2, \dots, n$, $x_k = b_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} l_{ki}x_i$. So to compute x_k , need $k-1$ multiplications and $k-1$ subtractions. Thus

$\sum_{k=2}^n 2(k-1) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} 2k = 2 \frac{(n-1)n}{2} = n^2 - n$ operations are needed.

Partial pivoting

Floating number in Python

```
import sys  
print(sys.float_info)
```

```
Result : sys.float_info(max=1.7976931348623157e+308,  
max_exp=1024, max_10_exp=308, min=2.2250738585072014e-308,  
min_exp=-1021, min_10_exp=-307, dig=15, mant_dig=53,  
epsilon=2.220446049250313e-16, radix=2, rounds=1)
```

A round-off error

If $\epsilon > 0$ is sufficiently small, a computer system treats ϵ as 0. For example,

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

is theoretically nonsingular. In practice, however, $\det(A) = 10^{-10} \approx 0$. So a computer may think A is singular.

Partial pivoting

Consider

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This system has the exact unique root $(1 - 10^{-5}, 1 - \frac{1}{10^5 - 1}) \approx (1, 1)$.

If we take a row reduction algorithm,

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 & | & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & | & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - 10^5 & | & 2 - 10^5 \end{bmatrix} \\ \xrightarrow{\text{round off}} & \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 & | & 1 \\ 0 & -10^5 & | & -10^5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 & | & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & | & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ & \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & | & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & | & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & | & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So a practical solution is $(0, 1)$.

Partial pivoting

This situation happens because we divide 1 by 10^{-5} . To avoid this situation, for each row reduction step, pivot rows so that the absolute value of A_{11} is maximum over A_1 .

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 10^{-5} & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{pivot}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 10^{-5} & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\
 \rightarrow & \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 - 10^{-5} & 1 - 2 \cdot 10^{-5} \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{round off}} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\
 & \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Then we get another practical solution $(1, 1)$.

Ex 9.2.1

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2.30 & 14.40 & 8.00 \\ 1.20 & -3.50 & 9.40 \\ 3.10 & 6.20 & -9.90 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} 1.80 \\ -10.50 \\ 22.30 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} -2.30 & 14.40 & 8.00 & 1.80 \\ 1.20 & -3.50 & 9.40 & -10.50 \\ 3.10 & 6.20 & -9.90 & 22.30 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{pivot}} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 6.20 & -9.90 & 22.30 \\ -2.30 & 14.40 & 8.00 & 1.80 \\ 1.20 & -3.50 & 9.40 & -10.50 \end{array} \right] \\
 & \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 6.20 & -9.90 & 22.30 \\ 0 & 19.00 & 0.66 & 18.25 \\ 0 & -5.90 & 13.23 & -19.13 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 6.20 & -9.90 & 22.30 \\ 0 & 19.00 & 0.66 & 18.25 \\ 0 & 0 & 13.44 & -13.44 \end{array} \right] \\
 & \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 6.20 & -9.90 & 22.30 \\ 0 & 19.00 & 0.66 & 18.25 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.00 & -1.00 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 6.20 & 0 & 12.40 \\ 0 & 19.00 & 0 & 19.0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.00 & -1.00 \end{array} \right] \\
 & \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 6.20 & 0 & 12.40 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.00 & -1.00 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 3.10 & 0 & 0 & 6.20 \\ 0 & 1.00 & 0 & 1.00 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.00 & -1.00 \end{array} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the solution is $(2.00, 1.00, -1.00)$

Ex 9.2.5

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ has an LU decomposition. Prove that the product of the diagonal entries of U equals the product of the eigenvalues of A .

Ex 9.2.6

Suppose $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^n and (i_1, \dots, i_n) is a permutation of $(1, \dots, n)$. Let P be the permutation matrix with rows e_{i_1}, \dots, e_{i_n} .

- (a) Let A be an $n \times m$ matrix. Prove that if the rows of A are r_1, \dots, r_n , then the rows of PA are r_{i_1}, \dots, r_{i_n} .
- (b) Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Prove that if the columns of A are A_1, \dots, A_n , then the rows of AP^T are A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_n} .

The Cholesky factorization

Lemma (386)

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric and positive definite. Then all the diagonal entries of A are positive. Moreover, the largest entry in magnitude of A lies on the diagonal.

Lemma (387)

If a step of Gaussian elimination is applied to an SPD matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the result has the form

$$A^{(2)} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A_{11} & a^T \\ \hline 0 & B \end{array} \right],$$

where $B \in \mathbb{R}^{(n-1) \times (n-1)}$ is also SPD and $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. Moreover,

$$\max\{|B_{ij}|\} \leq \max\{|A_{ij}|\}.$$

Proof

For $i, j > 1$,

$$A_{ij}^{(2)} = A_{ij} - \frac{A_{i1}}{A_{11}} A_{1j}.$$

Therefore,

$$A_{ij}^{(2)} = A_{ji}^{(2)},$$

or B is symmetric.

Proof

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. Write $y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ x \end{bmatrix}$ for some $y_1 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\begin{aligned} x \cdot Bx &= \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=2}^n A_{ij}^{(2)} y_i y_j \\ &= \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=2}^n \left(A_{ij} - \frac{A_{i1} A_{1j}}{A_{11}} \right) y_i y_j \\ &= \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=2}^n A_{ij} y_i y_j - \frac{1}{A_{11}} \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=2}^n A_{i1} A_{1j} y_i y_j \\ &= \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=2}^n A_{ij} y_i y_j - \frac{1}{A_{11}} (a \cdot x)^2. \\ y \cdot Ay &= \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=2}^n A_{ij} y_i y_j + A_{11} y_1^2 + 2(a \cdot x) y_1 \end{aligned}$$

Proof

If we can choose y_1 so that

$$A_{11}y_1^2 + 2(a \cdot x)y_1 = -\frac{1}{A_{11}}(a \cdot x)^2$$

we get $x \cdot Bx = y \cdot Ay$. Thus B is positive definite.

Finally,

$$B_{ii} = A_{ii}^{(2)} = A_{ii} - \frac{A_{i1}}{A_{11}}A_{1i} = A_{ii} - \frac{A_{i1}^2}{A_{11}} \leq A_{ii}.$$

Theorem (388)

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be SPD. Then Gaussian elimination can be performed without partial pivoting. Moreover, the largest entry in any of the intermediate matrices during Gaussian elimination lies in the original matrix A . Finally, in the factorization $A = LU$, all the diagonal entries of U are positive.

Corollary (389)

- ▶ $A = LU$, where L is unit lower triangular and U is upper triangular.
- ▶ $A = LDL^T$, where L is unit lower triangular and D is diagonal with positive diagonal entries.
- ▶ $A = R^T R$ (the Cholesky factorization), where R is upper triangular with positive diagonal entries.

The Cholesky factorization

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ has the Cholesky factorization, $A = R^T R$. By calculating $R^T R$ directly, we get

$$R_{ii} = \sqrt{A_{ii} - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} R_{ki}^2}$$

$$R_{ij} = \frac{A_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} R_{ki} R_{kj}}{R_{ii}} \text{ for } j = i+1, \dots, n.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & \\ \cdots & A_{ij} & \cdots \\ \vdots & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ R_{12} & R_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ R_{1n} & R_{2n} & \cdots & R_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & \cdots & R_{1n} \\ 0 & R_{22} & \cdots & R_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & R_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex 9.3.1

Let

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ -3 & 13 & -10 \\ 2 & -10 & 12 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- (a) Find the Cholesky factorization, $A = R^T R$.
- (b) Using R , find the factorization $A = LU$ and $A = LDL^T$.

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ -3 & 13 & -10 \\ 2 & -10 & 12 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Ex 9.3.5

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be SPD. Prove that the Cholesky factorization of A is unique.

Ex 9.3.6

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric and there exists an upper triangular matrix $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with positive diagonal entries such that $A = R^T R$. Prove that A is positive definite.

The End