Matrix Computations Lecture 1: LU decomposition & Solving linear system

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Main content

- LU decomposition
- PLU decomposition
- LDL decomposition
- Iterative methods for solving linear systems

LU Decomposition

LU decomposition : Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, find two matrices $\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$A = LU$$
,

where

 $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is lower triangular with unit diagonal elements (i.e., $\ell_{ii} = 1$ for all i) (unit lower triangular);

 $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is upper triangular.

Finding **U**, **L** by Gauss Elimination

Let $A^{(k)} = M_k A^{(k-1)}$, $A^{(0)} = A$. Note $A^{(k)} = M_k \cdots M_2 M_1 A$.

Step k: Choose \mathbf{M}_k such that

$$\mathbf{M}_{k}\mathbf{a}_{k}^{(k-1)} = [a_{1k}^{(k-1)}, \dots, a_{kk}^{(k-1)}, 0, \dots, 0]^{T}.$$

$$\mathbf{M}_{k}\mathbf{a}_{k}^{(k-1)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1k}^{(k-1)}, \dots, a_{kk}^{(k-1)}, 0, \dots, 0 \end{bmatrix}^{T}.$$
• If $a_{kk}^{(k-1)} \neq 0$, let
$$\mathbf{M}_{k} = \mathbf{I} - \boldsymbol{\tau}^{(k)} \mathbf{e}_{k}^{T}, \qquad \boldsymbol{\tau}^{(k)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0, \dots, 0, \frac{a_{k+1,k}^{(k-1)}}{a_{kk}^{(k-1)}}, \dots, \frac{a_{n,k}^{(k-1)}}{a_{nk}^{(k-1)}} \end{bmatrix}^{T},$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{(k)} = \mathbf{M}_{k}\mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^{(k-1)} & \dots & a_{1k}^{(k-1)} & \dots & \times \\ 0 & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & & \ddots & \ddots \\ \vdots & & & & & \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{(k)} = \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} \mathbf{A}^{(k$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{(k)} = \mathbf{M}_k \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} = \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} - \tau^{(k)} \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)}(k,:)$$

• $\mathbf{A}^{(n-1)} = \mathbf{U}$ is upper triangular

•
$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{M}_1^{-1} \dots \mathbf{M}_{n-1}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \tau^{(k)} \mathbf{e}_k^T$$

LU decomposition Code

```
function [L,U] = my_lu(A)
n= size(A,1);
L= eye(n); tau= zeros(n,1); U= A;
for k=1:1:n-1,
    rows= k+1:n;
    tau(rows) = U(rows,k)/U(k,k);
    U(rows,rows) = U(rows,rows) - tau(rows)*U(k,rows);
    U(rows,k) = 0;
    L(rows,k) = tau(rows);
end;
```

- complexity: $O(2n^3/3)$
- works as long as $a_{kk}^{(k-1)}$ —the so-called **pivots** —are all nonzero

Example & Exercise

• Example 1: Conduct the LU code to decompose

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -3 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Exercise 1: Conduct the LU code to decompose

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -2 \\ 4 & 7 & 7 \\ 6 & 18 & 22 \end{bmatrix}$$

PLU Decomposition

PLU decomposition : Given any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, find $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$PA = LU$$
,

where

 $\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a permutation matrix;

 $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is unit lower triangular;

 $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is upper triangular.

Partial Pivoting

Given
$$\mathbf{A}^{(k-1)}$$
, $k = 1, ..., n-1$, $\mathbf{A}^{(0)} = \mathbf{A}$.

- 1. Find $piv(k) = arg \max_{j \in [k,n]} |\mathbf{A}^{(k-1)}(j,k)|$
- 2. Let $\Pi_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be the interchange permutation that swaps row k and row piv(k) of I
- 3. Determine the Gauss Transformation $\mathbf{M}_k = \mathbf{I}_n \tau^{(k)} \mathbf{e}_k^T$, where

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}^{(k)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}_k \\ \left(\mathbf{\Pi}_k \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} \right) (k+1:n,k) / \left(\mathbf{\Pi}_k \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} \right) (k,k) \end{bmatrix}$$

4. $\mathbf{A}^{(k)} = \mathbf{M}_k \left(\mathbf{\Pi}_k \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} \right)$ (which satisfies $\mathbf{A}^{(k)}(k+1:n,k) = 0$)

Results

- $P = \Pi_{n-1} \cdots \Pi_1$
- $U = A^{(n-1)}$
- $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \tilde{\tau}^{(k)} \mathbf{e}_k^T$ with $\tilde{\tau}^{(k)} = \mathbf{\Pi}_{n-1} \cdots \mathbf{\Pi}_{k+1} \tau^{(k)}$



PLU decomposition with Partial Pivoting Code

Find L, U s.t. PA = LU in MATLAB

• In the above code:

```
A(k, k : n) = \mathbf{U}(k, k : n), \ \forall k = 1, 2, ..., n

A(k+1 : n, k) = \mathbf{L}(k+1 : n, k), \ \forall k = 1, 2, ..., n-1
```

- $O(n^2)$ comparisons for searching for the pivots
- $O(2n^3/3)$ flops



Example & Exercise

• **Example 2**: Conduct the PLU code to decompose

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -3 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Exercise 2: Conduct the PLU code to decompose

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 17 \\ 3 & 6 & -12 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & -3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

LDM Decomposition

LDM decomposition: given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, find matrices $\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$A = LDM^T$$
,

L, **M** is **unit** lower/upper triangular, $\mathbf{D} = \text{Diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ **Idea**: examine $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{M}^T$ column by column:

$$\mathbf{A}(:,j) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{e}_j = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{v}$$

 $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{M}^T\mathbf{e}_j$

Observations:

- 1. $v_i = d_i m_{ii}$;
- 2. $v_i = 0, i = j + 1, \ldots, n$;
- 3. $\mathbf{A}(:,j) = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{v}$ can be partitioned as

$$\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{A}(1:j,j) \\
\mathbf{A}(j+1:n,j)
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{L}(1:j,1:j) & \mathbf{0} \\
\mathbf{L}(j+1:n,1:j) & \mathbf{L}(j+1:n,j+1:n)
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{v}(1:j) \\
\mathbf{0}
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{L}(1:j,1:j)\mathbf{v}(1:j) \\
\mathbf{L}(j+1:n,1:j)\mathbf{v}(1:j)
\end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

Solving LDM Decomposition

Recall from the last page that

$$A(1:j,j) = L(1:j,1:j)v(1:j)$$
 (2)

$$A(j+1:n,j) = L(j+1:n,1:j)v(1:j)$$
(3)

Idea: Recursively find each column of \boldsymbol{L} , each row of \boldsymbol{M} , and each diagonal entry of \boldsymbol{D}

For j = 1 : n

- Step 1. Form L(1:j,1:j) using the columns $1,\ldots,j-1$ of L and L(j,j)=1
- Step 2. Solve the linear system $\mathbf{A}(1:j,j) = \mathbf{L}(1:j,1:j)\mathbf{v}(1:j)$ for $\mathbf{v}(1:j)$
- Step 3. Compute L(j + 1 : n, j) according to (not needed for j = n)

$$\mathbf{L}(j+1:n,j) = (\mathbf{A}(j+1:n,j) - \mathbf{L}(j+1:n,1:j-1)\mathbf{v}(1:j-1))/\mathbf{v}(j)$$

- Step 4. Set $d_j = v_j$, $m_{ji} = v_i/d_i$ for all i = 1, ..., j-1
 - Complexity: $O(2n^3/3)$ (same as the previous LU code)



LDL Decomposition for Symmetric Matrices

If **A** is real symmetric, then the LDM decomposition may be reduced to

$$A = LDL^T$$
.

Solving LDL:

 recall that in the previous LDM decomposition, the key is to find the unknown

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{e}_j$$

by solving $\mathbf{A}(1:j,j) = \mathbf{L}(1:j,1:j)\mathbf{v}(1:j)$ by forward substitution.

• Now, since $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{L}$,

$$v_i = d_i \ell_{ji}$$
.

Finding \mathbf{v} is much easier and there is no need to run forward substitution.

- With the knowledge of the columns $1, \ldots, j-1$ of **L**, we can easily find $v_i = d_i \ell_{ji}$, $i = 1, \ldots, j-1$
- Then, find v_i by $v_j = \mathbf{A}(j,j) \mathbf{L}(j,1:j-1) * \mathbf{v}(1:j-1)$



An LDL Decomposition Code

```
function [L,D] = my_ldl(A)
n = size(A,1);
L= eye(n); d= zeros(n,1); M = eye(n);
v = zeros(n.1):
for j=1:n.
     v(1:j) = ForwardSubstitution(L(1:j,1:j),A(1:j,j));
     v(1:j-1) = L(j,1:j-1)'.*d(1:j-1);
     v(j) = A(j,j) - L(j,1:j-1)*v(1:j-1);
% replace for_subs.
     d(i) = v(i);
     for i=1: j-1,
         M(i,i) = v(i)'/d(i);
     end:
     L(j+1:n,j) = (A(j+1:n,j)-L(j+1:n,1:j-1)*v(1:j-1))/v(j);
end;
D= diag(d);
```

• complexity: $O(n^3/3)$, half of LU or LDM

Example & Exercise

• Example 3: Conduct the LDL code to decompose

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -3 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Exercise 3: Conduct the LDL code to decompose

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 18 & 26 \\ 5 & 26 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

Cholesky Decomposition for Positive Definite Matrices

Cholesky decomposition : given a positive definite $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{S}^n$, decompose \mathbf{A} as

$$A = GG^T$$

where $\mathbf{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is lower triangular with positive diagonal elements. Idea: if \mathbf{A} is symmetric and PD, then its LDL decomposition

$$A = LDL^T$$

uniquely exist and has $d_i > 0$ for all i = 1, ..., n. Putting $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}^{\frac{1}{2}}$ yields the Cholesky factorization.

Example 4: Use the Algorithm 4.2.1 in the textbook to decompose the matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 8 & 12 \\ 3 & 12 & 27 \end{bmatrix}$$

• complexity: $O(n^3/3)$, similar to LDL



Extensions - Vandermonde system

A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1)\times (n+1)}$ is a Vandermonde matrix is

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} (x_0, \dots, x_n) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_0 & x_1 & \cdots & x_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_0^n & x_1^n & \cdots & x_n^n \end{bmatrix} (Vandermonde \ matrix)$$

- If any $x_i \neq x_j$, **A** is nonsingular
- Using **LU** decomposition, solving Az = b requires $O(n^3)$ flops
- A more efficient method with $O(n^2)$ complexity is in Chapter 4.6 of **[Golub-van-Loan'13]** ((Refer to it for details))

Extensions - Toeplitz system

A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n) \times (n)}$ is a Toeplitz matrix is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} h_0 & h_{-1} & \dots & \dots & h_{-n+1} \\ h_1 & h_0 & h_{-1} & & \vdots \\ \vdots & h_1 & h_0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & h_{-1} \\ h_{n-1} & \dots & \dots & h_1 & h_0 \end{bmatrix} (Toeplitz \ Matrix)$$

or $a_{ij} = h_{i-j}$ for all i, j

• See Chapter 4.7 in [Golub-van-Loan'13] for a more efficient method with $O(n^2)$ complexity to solve Ax = b

Iterative Methods for Linear Systems

- solving linear systems $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ via $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}$ requires $O(n^3)$
- $O(n^3)$ is too much for large-scale linear systems
- the motivation behind iterative methods is to seek less expensive ways to find an (approximate) linear system solution

The Key Insight of Iterative Methods

- assume $a_{ii} \neq 0$ for all i
- observe

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \iff b_i = a_{ii}x_i + \sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij}x_j, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\iff x_i = \left(b_i - \sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij}x_j\right) / a_{ii}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (\dagger)$$

example

$$x_1 = (b_1 - a_{12}x_2 - a_{13}x_3)/a_{11},$$

 $x_2 = (b_2 - a_{21}x_1 - a_{23}x_3)/a_{22},$
 $x_3 = (b_3 - a_{31}x_1 - a_{32}x_2)/a_{33}.$

• idea: find an **x** that fulfils the equations in (†)



Jacobi Iterations

```
input: a starting point \mathbf{x}^{(0)} for k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots x_i^{(k+1)} = \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)}\right) / a_{ii}, for i = 1, \ldots, n end
```

- complexity per iteration: $O(n^2)$ for dense **A**
- Let D_A = diag(diag(A)), L_A = tril(A,-1), and U_A = triu(A, 1) The
 Jacobi iterations has the form

$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathrm{J}}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{J}}\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{b}$$

where $\mathbf{M}_{\mathrm{J}} = \mathbf{D}_{A}$ and $\mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{J}} = -(\mathbf{L}_{A} + \mathbf{U}_{A})$.

- convergence properties of Jacobi iterations
 - $\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \mathbf{x}^{\star}\| \le \|\mathbf{M}_{\mathsf{J}}^{-1}\mathbf{N}_{\mathsf{J}}\|^{k} \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|$ with $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^{\star} = \mathbf{b}$
 - it converges if the diagonal elements a_{ii}'s are "dominant" compared to the off-diagonal elements; see Theorem 11.2.2 in [Golub-van-Loan'13] for details



Gauss-Seidel Iterations

input: a starting point $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ for k = 0, 1, 2, ... for i = 1, 2, ..., n $x_i^{(k+1)} = \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)}\right) / a_{ii}$

end

end

- use the most recently available x to perform update
- The Gauss-Seidel iteration is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathrm{GS}}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{GS}}\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{b}$$

where
$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathrm{GS}} = \mathbf{D}_A + \mathbf{L}_A$$
 and $\mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{GS}} = -\mathbf{U}_A$.

- convergence properties of Gauss-Seidel iterations
 - $\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \mathbf{x}^{\star}\| \le \|\mathbf{M}_{GS}^{-1} \mathbf{N}_{GS}\|^{k} \|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|$
 - A is symmetric PD; see Theorem 11.2.3 in [Golub-van-Loan'13]



Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR):

The SOR iteration has the following term

$$\mathbf{M}_{\omega}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{N}_{\mathrm{GS}}\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{b}$$

where $\mathbf{M}_{\omega} = \frac{1}{\omega} \mathbf{D}_A + \mathbf{L}_A$, $\mathbf{N}_{\omega} = (\frac{1}{\omega} - 1) \mathbf{D}_A + \mathbf{U}_A$, $0 < \omega < 2$.

- Idea: choosing proper ω to reduce $\|\mathbf{M}_{\omega}^{-1}\mathbf{N}_{\omega}\|$
- $\omega = 1$, Gauss-Seidel Iterations

```
input: a starting point \mathbf{x}^{(0)} for k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots for i = 1, 2, \ldots, n  x_i^{(k+1)} = \omega \left( b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} \right) / a_{ii} + (1 - \omega) \cdot x_i^{(k)}  end end
```

Exercise

• Exercise 4: Randomly generate a symmetric, positive definite matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{100 \times 100}$ and a random vector $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{100 \times 1}$. Use Jacobi iterations, Gauss-Seidel iterations and SOR to solve $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ and compare their convergence performance.

Extensions – Discretized Poisson Equation in Two Dimensions

The discretized Poisson equation in two dimensions: Suppose F(x, y) is defined on R, we wish to find a function u that satisfies

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = -F(x, y) \longrightarrow \mathbf{A}u = f$$

on $R = \{(x, y) : \alpha_x \le x \le \beta_x, \alpha_y \le y \le \beta_y\}$. **A** is a sparse symmetric positive definite matrix.

Refer to Chapter 4.8, Chapter 11.2 in [Golub-van-Loan'13]

- how to transform the differential equation into $\mathbf{A}u = f$?
- how to use the above iterative methods to solve $\mathbf{A}u = f$?

References

[Golub-van-Loan'13] G. H. Golub and C. F. Van Loan, *Matrix Computations*, 4rd edition, JHU Press, 2013.