18-660: Numerical Methods for Engineering Design and Optimization

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Overview

- Linear Equation Solver
 - Gaussian elimination
 - Condition number
 - ▼Full/partial pivoting

Linear Equation

Ordinary differential equation

$$\dot{x}(t) = A \cdot x(t) + B \cdot u(t) \quad x(0) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{Backward Euler}$$

$$x(t_{n+1}) = (I - \Delta t \cdot A)^{-1} \cdot [x(t_n) + \Delta t \cdot B \cdot u(t_{n+1})] \quad x(t_0) = 0$$

Partial differential equation

$$\rho \cdot C_p \cdot \frac{\partial T(x,y,z,t)}{\partial t} = \kappa \cdot \nabla^2 T(x,y,z,t) + f(x,y,z,t)$$
Finite Difference
$$\rho \cdot C_p \cdot \frac{\partial T_{i,j,k}}{\partial t} = f_{i,j,k} + \frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i+1,j,k} - T_{i,j,k}\right]}{(\Delta x)^2} - \frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i,j,k} - T_{i-1,j,k}\right]}{(\Delta x)^2} + \frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k}\right]}{(\Delta x)^2} - \frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k}\right]}{(\Delta z)^2}$$

$$\frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i,j+1,k} - T_{i,j,k}\right]}{(\Delta y)^2} - \frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j-1,k}\right]}{(\Delta z)^2} - \frac{\kappa \cdot \left[T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k-1}\right]}{(\Delta z)^2}$$
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Linear Equation Solver

$$A \cdot X = B$$

- In theory, X is equal to A⁻¹B
- In practice, explicitly inverting a matrix is never a good idea
- A more efficient algorithm should be applied

▼ E.g., use X = A\B in MATLAB

Gaussian Elimination

■ Step 1: convert A to an upper triangular matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{c}A\end{array}\right]\cdot\left[X\right]=\left[B\right]$$

■ Step 2: solve for X via backward substitution

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Gaussian Elimination

A simple example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -11 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{B} \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -11 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gaussian Elimination

■ Step 1: convert A to an upper triangular matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -11 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Gaussian Elimination

■ Step 1: convert A to an upper triangular matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gaussian Elimination

■ Step 2: solve for X via backward substitution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-\gamma_3 = 1$$

$$0.5x_2 + 0.5x_3 = 1$$
 $0.5x_2 - 0.5 = 1$ $x_2 = 3$

$$2x_1 + x_2 - x_3 = 8$$
 $2x_1 + 3 - (-1) = 3$

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Gaussian Elimination

■ Gaussian elimination is much cheaper than calculating A⁻¹

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} A \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[X \right] = \left[B \right]$$

Gaussian elimination: solve for X where B is an N x 1 vector

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & \\ \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & \\ \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Matrix inverse: solve for A}^{-1} \text{ where } \\ \text{I is an N x N identity matrix} \end{array}$$

The difference between Gaussian elimination and matrix inverse becomes more significant for large matrix

Numerical Noise

■ In theory, Gaussian elimination works well if A is nonsingular, i.e.,

$$A \cdot X = B$$
 where $det(A) \neq 0$

- A is singular if and only if det(A) = 0
- However, round-off errors in our numerical computation can bring about problems even if det(A) is not 0
 - Numerical noise can change the determinant value for Gaussian elimination

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Numerical Noise

A simple example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 100 & -100 \\ -100 & 100.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 100 & -100 \\ -100 & 100.01 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \det(A) = 100.00 - 100.00 \\ = 10001 - 10000 \\ = 1 \le 0 \end{array}$$

▼ If our machine only has 3 decimal digits of precision

$$A \approx \begin{bmatrix} 100 & -100 \\ -100 & 100 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \approx \begin{bmatrix} 100 & -100 \\ -100 & 100 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\det(A) = 100 \cdot 100 - 100 \cdot 100$

Condition Number

■ The "singularity" of a linear equation can be quantitatively measured by its condition number

$$A \cdot X = B$$

■ The condition number of A is defined as:

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

■ ||•|| is the norm of a matrix

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Condition Number

■ We can get different condition number values when using different matrix norm definitions

1-norm
$$||A||_1 = \max_{1 \le j \le N} \sum_{i=1}^N |a_{ij}|$$

F-norm
$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} |a_{ij}|^2}$$

Inf-norm
$$||A||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |a_{ij}|$$



Condition Number

- Condition number is highly correlated to singularity
 - Use 1-norm as an example

1-norm
$$||A||_1 = \max_{1 \le j \le N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |a_{ij}|$$

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

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10^{-5} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 10^5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

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

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10^{-5} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10^{-5} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Max(1, 10^{5}) = 10^{5}$$

$$Max(1, 10^{5}) = 10^{5}$$

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

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

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \infty \end{bmatrix} \qquad |\langle A \rangle| = |$$

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Condition Number

For the equation AX = B, the solution error is bounded by:

max = (100)=00

$$\frac{\|\Delta X\|}{\|X\|} \le k(A) \cdot \left(\frac{\|\Delta A\|}{\|A\|} + \frac{\|\Delta B\|}{\|B\|}\right) \leftarrow Condition humber$$

- ∆A and ∆B: errors of A and B respectively
- ∆X: errors of the solution X
- Large condition number yields large solution error
 - ▼ E.g., MATLAB will show a warning message if k(A) is more than 1016~1017

Simple Examples

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot X = B \qquad k \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = 1$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Delta B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Delta X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Simple Examples

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0.999 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot X = B$$

$$k \left[\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0.999 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right] = 4000$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Delta B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Delta X = \begin{bmatrix} -100 \\ 100 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -100 \\ 101 \end{bmatrix}$$

Pivoting for Accuracy

$$\frac{\left\| \Delta X \right\|}{\left\| X \right\|} \le k(A) \cdot \left(\frac{\left\| \Delta A \right\|}{\left\| A \right\|} + \frac{\left\| \Delta B \right\|}{\left\| B \right\|} \right)$$

- This inequality only considers numerical errors in A and B
 - It assumes that no additional error is introduced when solving the equation (e.g., during Gaussian elimination)
- Gaussian elimination adds extra numerical errors
 - ▼ Every intermediate step is not perfect (due to rounding)

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Pivoting for Accuracy

- When solving AX = B, we should minimize the additional numerical error introduced by the solver
- A general rule is to select large pivot values during Gaussian elimination





Pivots

Gaussian elimination

Pivoting for Accuracy

■ Example: solve the following problem on a machine that has 3 decimal digits of precision

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00e - 4 & 1.00 \\ 1.00 & 1.00 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.00 \\ 2.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

■ If we directly apply Gaussian elimination w/o pivoting:

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1e^{-4} & 1.00 \\
0.00 & -1e^{-4}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\times, \\
\times_2
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
1.00 \\
-1.00e^4
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$-1.00e^4 \cdot \times_2 = -1.00e^4$$

$$1.00e^{-4} \cdot \times_1 + \times_2 = 1.00$$

$$\times_1 + \times_2 = 1.00$$

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Pivoting for Accuracy

■ If we apply Gaussian elimination w/ pivoting:

1.00 1.00]
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & 1.00 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ 1.00e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & 1.00 \\ 0.00 & 1.60 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & 1.60 \\ 0.00 & 1.60 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.00e^{-t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.00 \\ 1.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Pivoting for Accuracy

- Various choices of pivoting (tradeoff between accuracy and runtime)
 - ▼Full: Swap rows and columns to get largest magnitude on the diagonal
 - ▼Partial: Swap to put largest magnitude from pivot row (or column) onto diagonal

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Summary

- Linear equation solver
 - Gaussian elimination
 - Condition number
 - ▼ Full/partial pivoting

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Overview

- Linear Equation Solver
 - LU decomposition
 - Cholesky decomposition

Linear Equation Solver

■ Gaussian elimination solves a linear equation

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} A \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[X \right] = \left[B \right]$$

Sometimes we want to repeatedly calculate the solutions for different right-hand-side vectors

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & \\ \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 \\ \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} A & \\ \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} X_2 \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} B_2 \\ \end{bmatrix}$$
Case 1
Case 2

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Ordinary Differential Equation Example

■ Backward Euler integration for linear ordinary differential equation with constant time step ∆t

$$\dot{x}(t) = A \cdot x(t) + B \cdot u(t) \quad x(0) = 0$$

$$x(t_{n+1}) = \underbrace{(I - \Delta t \cdot A)^{-1} \cdot \left[x(t_n) + \Delta t \cdot B \cdot u(t_{n+1}) \right]}_{\text{Identical}} \quad x(t_0) = 0$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Identical} \\ \text{@ all } t_n \text{'s} \end{array}$$

- It would be expensive to repeatedly run Gaussian elimination for many times
 - How can we save and re-use the intermediate results?
 - LU factorization is to address this problem

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} A \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[X_1 \right] = \left[B_1 \right]$$

Case 1

$$\left[\begin{array}{c}A\end{array}\right]\cdot\left[X_2\right]=\left[B_2\right]$$

Case 2

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LU Factorization

- Key idea:
 - Represent A as the product of L (lower triangular) and U (upper triangular) via Gaussian-elimination-like steps
 - All diagonal elements in U are set to 1 by proper scaling

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} A \end{array}\right] \cdot \left[X\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} B \end{array}\right]$$

LU factorization is unchanged as long as A is unchanged (i.e., independent of the right-hand-side vector B)

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & a_{N2} & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ l_{N1} & l_{N2} & \cdots & l_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1N} \\ 1 & \cdots & u_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 2 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 2 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ 2 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 2 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ 2 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ 2 & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\$$

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LU Factorization

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & a_{N2} & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} \\ l_{21} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ l_{N1} & l_{N2} & \cdots & l_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1N} \\ 1 & \cdots & u_{2N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a_{12} = l_{11} l_{02} + l_{02} = l_{11} l_{12}$$
 $a_{13} = l_{11} l_{13}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & a_{N2} & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ l_{N1} & l_{N2} & \cdots & l_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1N} \\ 1 & \cdots & u_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & & & & & \\ 1 & & & & & \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_{22} = l_{21} l_{12} l_{12} + l_{22}$$

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Memory Storage

- The matrix A can be iteratively replaced by L and U
 - No additional memory is required

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1N} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{N1} & a_{N2} & \cdots & a_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1N} \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & u_{N-1,N} \\ l_{N1} & l_{N2} & \cdots & l_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$

A Simple LU Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} \\ l_{21} \\ l_{31} \end{bmatrix} l_{22} \\ l_{31} l_{32} l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 1 & u_{23} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{2}{3} = \frac{l_{11}}{2} \cdot l$$

$$-3 = \frac{l_{21}}{2} \cdot l$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & | & -1 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 \\ -2 & | & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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A Simple LU Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ & 1 & u_{23} \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A Simple LU Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1/2 & -1/2 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{22} \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 1 & u_{23} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-1^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} l_{21} & l_{12} + l_{22} & -(-3) \cdot \frac{1}{2} + l_{22} & -\frac{3}{2} + l_{22} \\ l_{22} & = \frac{1}{2} \\ l_{21} & l_{12} + l_{32} & = (-2) \cdot \frac{1}{2} + l_{32} & = -\frac{1}{2} + l_{32} \\ l_{32} & = 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{-1}{2} \\ l_{32} & 2 & 2 \\ l_{32} & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

A Simple LU Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1/2 & -1/2 \\ -3 & 1/2 & 2 \\ -2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 1 & u_{23} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{2}{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 2/2 & 2/2 \end{pmatrix} +$$

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A Simple LU Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1/2 & -1/2 \\ -3 & 1/2 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 1 & u_{23} & \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 = l_{31} l_{13} + l_{32} l_{33} + l_{33} = (-2)(-\frac{1}{2}) + 2 \cdot (+l_{33})$$

$$= (+2 + l_{33}) + l_{33} = (-2)(-\frac{1}{2}) + 2 \cdot (+l_{33})$$

$$= (-2)(-\frac{1}{2}) + 2 \cdot (+l_{33})$$

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LU Factorization

■ Given L and U, solve linear equation via two steps

$$A \cdot X = B$$

$$A = 2 \cdot 0$$

$$2 \cdot 0 \cdot x = \beta$$

$$\sqrt{}$$

$$V = \beta$$

$$0 \times 1 \times 1 \times 1$$

Forward substitution

Backward substitution

- Only the above two steps are repeated if the right-hand-side vector B is changed
 - LU factorization is not repeated
 - More efficient than Gaussian elimination

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Cholesky Factorization

■ If the matrix A is symmetric and positive definite, Cholesky factorization is preferred over LU factorization

$$\left[\begin{array}{c}A\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}L\end{array}\right]\cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}L\end{array}\right]$$

- Cholesky factorization is cheaper than LU
 - lacksquare Only needs to find a single triangular matrix L (instead of two different matrices L and U)

Cholesky Factorization

- A must be symmetric and positive definite to make Cholesky factorization applicable
- A symmetric matrix A is positive definite if

$$P^T \cdot A \cdot P > 0$$
 for any real-valued vector $P \neq 0$

- Sufficient and necessary condition for a symmetric matrix A to be positive definite:
 - All eigenvalues of A are positive

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Partial Differential Equation Example

■ 1-D rod discretized into 4 segments

$$T_1$$
 T_2 T_3 T_4 T_5

$$\kappa \cdot \frac{\partial^2 T(x,t)}{\partial x^2} = 0$$
$$T_1 = 30 \quad T_5 = 100$$

$$\kappa \cdot (-T_{i-1} + 2T_i - T_{i+1}) = 0 \quad (2 \le i \le 4)$$

$$-30 + 2T_2 - T_3 = 0$$

$$-T_2 + 2T_3 - T_4 = 0$$

$$-T_3 + 2T_4 - 100 = 0$$

Partial Differential Equation Example

■ Eigenvalues of A

$$\lambda_1 = 3.41$$
 $\lambda_2 = 2.00$ (A is positive definite) $\lambda_3 = 0.58$

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Partial Differential Equation Example

- In practice, we never calculate eigenvalues to check if a matrix is positive definite or not
 - ▼ Eigenvalue decomposition is much more expensive than solving a linear equation
- If we apply finite difference to discretize steady-state heat equation, the resulting linear equation is positive definite

Partial Differential Equation Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{21} & l_{31} \\ & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ & & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 = l_{11} \cdot l_{11} = l_{21} \cdot \sqrt{2}$$

$$-1 = l_{21} \cdot l_{11} = l_{21} \cdot \sqrt{2}$$

$$l_{11} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$l_{21} = l_{21} \cdot l_{21} = l_{21} \cdot \sqrt{2}$$

$$l_{21} = 0$$

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Partial Differential Equation Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & -1 \\ -\sqrt{1/2} & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{21} & l_{31} \\ & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ & & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \frac{3}{2}$$

$$-1 = \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{32} = 0 \cdot (-\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}) + \frac{1}{32}, \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{32} = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{3}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

$$0 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{3}}, \quad 2$$

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Partial Differential Equation Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} & -1 \\ -\sqrt{1/2} & \sqrt{3/2} & -1 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{2/3} & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{22} \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{21} & l_{31} \\ l_{22} & l_{32} \\ l_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2^{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{32} + \frac{2}{32} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{33} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3}$$

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Summary

- Linear equation solver
 - LU decomposition
 - Cholesky decomposition

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