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# Lecture Notes 15: Direct Methods for Linear Systems

CPSC 302: Numerical Computation for Algebraic Problems

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# Goals of this Chapter

- Learn **practical methods** to handle the most common problem in numerical computation.
- Get familiar (again) with the ancient method of **Gaussian elimination** in its modern form of **LU decomposition**, and develop **pivoting** methods for its stable computation.
- Consider LU decomposition in the very important special cases of **symmetric positive definite** and **sparse matrices**.
- Study the expected quality of the computed solution, introducing as we go the fundamental concept of a **condition number**.

# Motivation

- Here and in Chapter 6 we consider the problem of finding  $\mathbf{x}$  which solves

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b},$$

where  $A$  is a given, real, nonsingular,  $n \times n$  matrix, and  $\mathbf{b}$  is a given, real vector.

- *Such problems are ubiquitous in applications!*

# Motivation (cont.)

Two solution approaches:

- *Direct methods*: yield exact solution in absence of roundoff error.
  - Variations of **Gaussian elimination**.
  - Considered in this chapter
- *Iterative methods*: iterate in a similar fashion to what we do for nonlinear problems.
  - Use only when direct methods are ineffective.
  - Considered in Chapter 6

# Chapter 4: Direct Methods for Linear Systems

- Gaussian Elimination and Backward Substitution
- LU Decomposition
- Pivoting Strategies
- Efficient Implementation
- Estimating Errors and Condition Number
- Cholesky Decomposition
- Sparse Matrices

# Outline

1. Review Gaussian Elimination

2. LU Decomposition

# Gaussian Elimination

$$(A|\mathbf{b}) = \left( \begin{array}{ccccc|c} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3n} & b_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{n(n-1)} & a_{nn} & b_n \end{array} \right)$$

$\Downarrow$  eliminate 1st column

$$(A^{(1)}|\mathbf{b}^{(1)}) = \left( \begin{array}{ccccc|c} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(1)} & a_{23}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(1)} & b_2^{(1)} \\ \vdots & a_{32}^{(1)} & a_{33}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{3n}^{(1)} & b_3^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & a_{n2}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{n(n-1)}^{(1)} & a_{nn}^{(1)} & b_n^{(1)} \end{array} \right)$$

$\Downarrow$  eliminate 2nd, ..., (n-1)th column

$$(A^{(n-1)}|\mathbf{b}^{(n-1)}) = \left( \begin{array}{ccccc|c} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(1)} & a_{23}^{(1)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(1)} & b_2^{(1)} \\ \vdots & 0 & a_{33}^{(2)} & \cdots & a_{3n}^{(2)} & b_3^{(2)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{nn}^{(n-1)} & b_n^{(n-1)} \end{array} \right)$$

# Example

$$(A|\mathbf{b}) = \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 3 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 & 3 & 2 \end{array} \right) \quad \left| \quad \begin{array}{l} l_{21} = a_{21}/a_{11} = 1/3 \\ \mathbf{a}_{2:}^{(1)} = \mathbf{a}_{2:} - l_{21} \mathbf{a}_{1:} \\ l_{31} = a_{31}/a_{11} = 1/3 \\ \mathbf{a}_{3:}^{(1)} = \mathbf{a}_{3:} - l_{31} \mathbf{a}_{1:} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\rightsquigarrow (A^{(1)}|\mathbf{b}^{(1)}) = \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 3 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 5/3 & -1/3 & 11/3 \\ 0 & -1/3 & 8/3 & 5/3 \end{array} \right) \quad \left| \quad \begin{array}{l} l_{32} = a_{32}^{(1)}/a_{22}^{(1)} = -1/5 \\ \mathbf{a}_{3:}^{(2)} = \mathbf{a}_{3:}^{(1)} - l_{32} \mathbf{a}_{2:}^{(1)} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\rightsquigarrow (A^{(2)}|\mathbf{b}^{(2)}) = \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 3 & -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 5/3 & -1/3 & 11/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 13/5 & 12/5 \end{array} \right) = (\mathbf{U}|\mathbf{b}^{(2)})$$

$$A^{(2)} = MA = \mathbf{U}$$

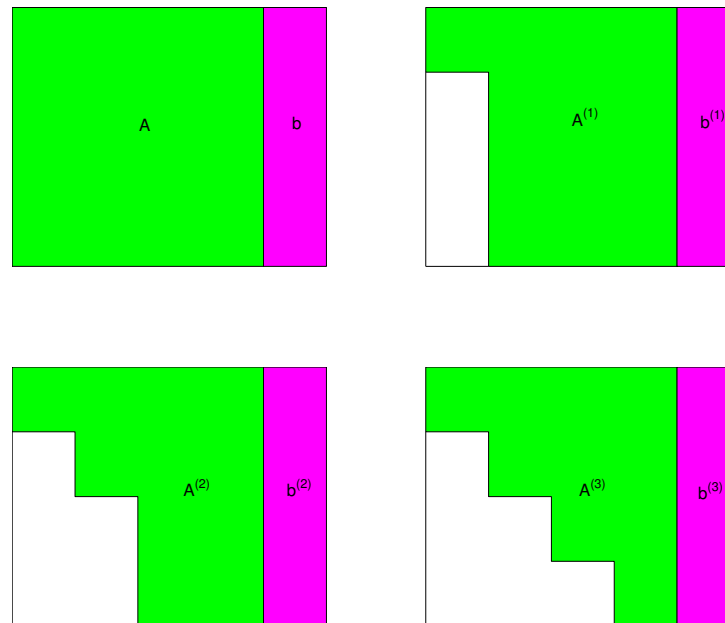


# Gaussian Elimination (cont.)

- Can multiply a row of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  by a scalar and add to another row: **elementary transformation**.
- Use this to transform  $A$  to upper triangular form:

$$MA\mathbf{x} = M\mathbf{b}, \quad U = MA.$$

- Apply backward substitution to solve  $U\mathbf{x} = M\mathbf{b}$ .



# Outline

## 1. Review Gaussian Elimination

## 2. LU Decomposition

- Elementary Transformation

- Matrix Decomposition

- Equivalence to Gaussian Elimination

# Outline

1. Review Gaussian Elimination

2. LU Decomposition

Elementary Transformation

Matrix Decomposition

Equivalence to Gaussian Elimination

# LU Decomposition

- What if we have many right hand side vectors, or we don't know  $\mathbf{b}$  right away?
- Note that determining transformation  $M$  such that  $MA = U$  does not depend on  $\mathbf{b}$ .

## Example (cont.)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M^{(1)}A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ -l_{31} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = A^{(1)}$$

$$M^{(2)}A^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -l_{32} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 5/3 & -1/3 \\ 0 & -1/3 & 8/3 \end{pmatrix} = A^{(2)}$$

$$U = A^{(2)} = M^{(2)}A^{(1)} = M^{(2)}M^{(1)}A = MA$$

## LU Decomposition (cont.)

$$MA = U$$

$M = M^{(n-1)} \dots M^{(2)} M^{(1)}$ , where  $M^{(k)}$  is the transformation of the  $k$ th outer loop step. These are elementary lower triangular matrices, e.g.,

$$M^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & -l_{32} & \ddots & \\ & \vdots & & \ddots & \\ & -l_{n2} & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

# Outline

## 1. Review Gaussian Elimination

## 2. LU Decomposition

Elementary Transformation

Matrix Decomposition

Equivalence to Gaussian Elimination

## Example (cont.) – Inverse of $M^{(1)}$ , $M^{(2)}$

$$M^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1/3 & 1 & 0 \\ -1/3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad [M^{(1)}]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 1 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad [M^{(2)}]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



## LU Decomposition (cont.)

$$MA = U$$

- The matrix  $M = M^{(n-1)} \dots M^{(2)} M^{(1)}$  is unit lower triangular.
- The matrix  $L = M^{-1}$  is also unit lower triangular:

$$A = LU, \quad L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ l_{21} & 1 & & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ l_{n1} & l_{n2} & \cdots & l_{n,n-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

# Outline

## 1. Review Gaussian Elimination

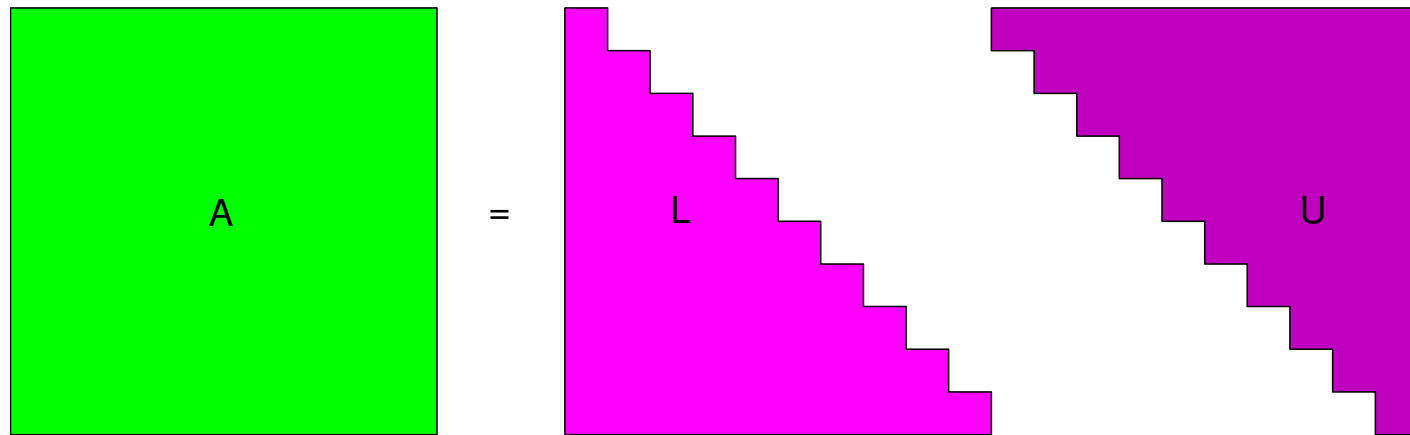
## 2. LU Decomposition

Elementary Transformation

Matrix Decomposition

Equivalence to Gaussian Elimination

## LU Decomposition (cont.)



So, the Gaussian elimination method is equivalent to:

1. decompose  $A = LU$ . Now, for a given  $\mathbf{b}$  we have to solve  $L(U\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b}$ ;
2. use forward substitution to solve  $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ ;
3. use backward substitution to solve  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ .

# Examples where the LU Decomposition is Useful

- When we have multiple right-hand sides, form *once* the LU decomposition (which costs  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  flops); then for each right-hand side only apply forward/backward substitutions (which are computationally cheap at  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  flops each).
- Can compute  $A^{-1}$  by decomposing  $A = LU$  once, and then solving  $LU\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_k$  for each column  $\mathbf{e}_k$  of the unit matrix. These are  $n$  right hand sides, so the cost is approximately  $\frac{2}{3}n^3 + n \cdot 2n^2 = \frac{8}{3}n^3$  flops. (However, typically we try to avoid computing the inverse  $A^{-1}$ ; the need to compute it *explicitly* is rare.)
- Compute determinant of  $A$  by

$$\det(A) = \det(L) \det(U) = \prod_{k=1}^n u_{kk}.$$

## Another Example (1/3) – Home

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Obtain

1.  $l_{21} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$ ,  $l_{31} = \frac{3}{1} = 3$ , so

$$M^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{(1)} = M^{(1)} A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & -3 \\ 0 & 10 & -8 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2.  $l_{32} = \frac{10}{5} = 2$ , so

$$M^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{(2)} = M^{(2)} A^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## Example (2/3)

- We thus obtain

$$U = A^{(2)} = M^{(2)} A^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Note that since  $U = M^{(2)} M^{(1)} A$ , we have  $A = [M^{(1)}]^{-1} [M^{(2)}]^{-1} U$ .
- Verify directly that

$$[M^{(1)}]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad [M^{(2)}]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

and hence that

$$L = [M^{(1)}]^{-1} [M^{(2)}]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## Example (3/3)

- To get the matrix  $L$  we therefore collect the multipliers  $l_{21}$ ,  $l_{31}$  and  $l_{32}$  into the unit lower triangular matrix

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Indeed,  $A = LU$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$