

## Lecture 21 - *PIVOTING*

### OBJECTIVE:

Pure Gaussian elimination is unstable.

But this instability can be controlled by permuting the rows of  $\mathbf{A}$  as we proceed; this process is called *pivoting*. Pivoting has been a standard feature of Gaussian elimination computations since the 1950s.

### ◇ PIVOTS

At step  $k$  of Gaussian elimination, multiples of row  $k$  are subtracted from rows  $k + 1, k + 2, \dots, m$  of the working matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  in order to zero out the elements below the diagonal.

In this operation, row  $k$ , column  $k$ , and especially  $x_{kk}$  play special roles.

We call  $x_{kk}$  the *pivot*.

From every entry in the submatrix  $\mathbf{X}(k+1 : m, k : m)$  we subtract the product of a number in row  $k$  and a number in column  $k$ , divided by  $x_{kk}$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{kk} & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{kk} & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & * & * & * \\ & 0 & * & * & * \\ & 0 & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

But there is no inherent reason to eliminate against the  $k^{th}$  row.

→ we could just as easily zero out other entries against row  $i$  ( $k < i \leq m$ ).

In this case,  $x_{ik}$  would be the pivot.

e.g.,  $k = 2, i = 4$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{ik} & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & * & * & * \\ & 0 & * & * & * \\ & x_{ik} & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & * & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, we could zero out the entries in column  $j$  instead of  $k$  ( $k < j \leq m$ ).

e.g.,  $k = 2, i = 4, j = 3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & x_{ij} & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & * & 0 & * & * \\ & * & 0 & * & * \\ & \times & x_{ij} & \times & \times \\ & * & 0 & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

Basically, we can choose any entry of  $\mathbf{X}(k : m, k : m)$  as the pivot, as long as it is not zero.

This flexibility is good because  $x_{kk} = 0$  is possible even in exact arithmetic!

In a floating-point number system,  $x_{kk}$  may be “numerically” zero.

For stability, we choose as pivot the element with the largest magnitude among the pivot candidates.

Pivoting in this crazy (but smart!) fashion can be confusing.

→ It is easy to lose track of what has been zeroed and what still needs to be zeroed.

Instead of leaving  $x_{ij}$  in place after it is chosen as pivot (as illustrated above) we interchange rows and columns of the matrix so that  $x_{ij}$  takes the position of  $x_{kk}$ .

This interchange of rows and/or columns is what is commonly referred to as *pivoting*.

→ we maintain the look of pure Gaussian elimination in this way.

**Note 1.** *Elements may or may not actually be swapped in practice!*

*We may just keep a list of the positions of the swapped elements.*

## ◇ PARTIAL PIVOTING

If we consider every element in  $\mathbf{X}(k : m, k : m)$  as a possible pivot at step  $k$ , then we must examine  $(m - k + 1)^2$  elements to see which is largest.

∴ total number of elements examined =

$$\sum_{k=1}^m (m - k + 1)^2 = \mathcal{O}(m^3) \quad (\text{verify!})$$

→ *this adds significantly to the overall cost of Gaussian elimination.*

(This strategy is called *complete pivoting*)

In practice, pivots of essentially the same quality can be found by searching far fewer entries

→ this is known as *partial pivoting*

We only allow row interchanges

↔ we only search the elements in column  $k$  for the largest one.

So now we only search  $(m - k + 1)$  elements for a total number =

$$\sum_{k=1}^m (m - k + 1) = \mathcal{O}(m^2) \quad (\text{verify!})$$

→ this does not add significantly to the overall cost of

Gaussian elimination (why?).

The act of swapping rows can be viewed as left multiplication by a *permutation matrix*  $\mathbf{P}$ .

A permutation matrix is simply an identity matrix with its rows or columns permuted.

e.g.,

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The permutations required to get from  $\mathbf{I}$  to  $\mathbf{P}$  tell you what permutations  $\mathbf{P}$  performs.

e.g., with the above  $\mathbf{P}$

$$\mathbf{PA} = (\mathbf{A} \text{ with 2nd and 3rd rows permuted})$$

$$\mathbf{AP} = (\mathbf{A} \text{ with 2nd and 3rd columns permuted})$$

*(verify!)*

We also saw in the last lecture that the elimination at step  $k$  corresponds to left-multiplication by an elementary lower-triangular matrix  $\mathbf{L}_k$ .

So the  $k^{th}$  step of Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting can be summed up as

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{ik} & \times & \times & \times \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{array} \right] & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}_1} & \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{ik} & * & * & * \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & * & * & * & * \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{array} \right] \\
 \text{pivot-selection} & & \text{row interchange} \\
 \\
 \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{ik} & * & * & * \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & * & * & * & * \\ & \times & \times & \times & \times \end{array} \right] & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{L}_1} & \left[ \begin{array}{ccccc} \times & \times & \times & \times & \times \\ & x_{ik} & \times & \times & \times \\ & 0 & * & * & * \\ & 0 & * & * & * \\ & 0 & * & * & * \end{array} \right] \\
 \text{row interchange} & & \text{elimination}
 \end{array}$$

After  $m - 1$  steps,  $\mathbf{A}$  is transformed into an upper-triangular matrix  $\mathbf{U}$ :

$$\mathbf{L}_{m-1}\mathbf{P}_{m-1} \dots \mathbf{L}_2\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{L}_1\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}$$

**Example:** Recall our friend

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 & 8 \end{array} \right]$$

To do Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting proceeds as follows:

Interchange the 1st and 3rd rows (left-multiplication by  $\mathbf{P}_1$ ):

$$\begin{bmatrix} & & 1 & \\ & 1 & & \\ 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

The first elimination step now looks like this (left-multiplication by  $\mathbf{L}_1$ ):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & & \\ -\frac{1}{4} & & 1 & \\ -\frac{3}{4} & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{5}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \\ -\frac{3}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{7}{4} & -\frac{17}{4} \\ \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \end{bmatrix}$$



Now the 2nd and 4th rows are interchanged (multiplication by  $\mathbf{P}_2$ ):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \\ -\frac{3}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} \\ \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ -\frac{3}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The second elimination step then looks like this (multiplication by  $\mathbf{L}_2$ ):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & \frac{3}{7} & & \\ & \frac{2}{7} & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ -\frac{3}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} & -\frac{5}{4} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{6}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now the 3rd and 4th rows are interchanged (multiplication by  $\mathbf{P}_3$ )

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ & \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ & & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \\ & & -\frac{6}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ & \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ & & -\frac{6}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \\ & & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} \end{bmatrix}$$

The final elimination step looks like this (multiplication by  $\mathbf{L}_3$ ):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & -\frac{1}{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ & \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ & & -\frac{6}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \\ & & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ & \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ & & -\frac{6}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \\ & & -\frac{2}{7} & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

# ◇ $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}$ AND A THIRD STROKE OF LUCK

Notice that if you form  $\mathbf{L}$  and then  $\mathbf{LU}$  from the previous example, you don't get  $\mathbf{LU} = \mathbf{A}$ !

But you will notice that you almost get  $\mathbf{A}$ ...you get a permuted version of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

(This should be understandable since we have been messing around with pivots.)

In fact,

$$\mathbf{LU} = \mathbf{PA}$$

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ \frac{3}{4} & 1 & & \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{3}{7} & 1 & \\ \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{3}{7} & \frac{1}{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ & \frac{7}{4} & \frac{9}{4} & \frac{17}{4} \\ & & -\frac{6}{7} & -\frac{2}{7} \\ & & & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Note 2.   \*\*IMPORTANT\*\***

*The entries of  $\mathbf{L}$  all satisfy  $|l_{ij}| \leq 1$ .*

*This is a consequence of pivoting ( $\leftrightarrow$  eliminating against  $|x_{kk}| = \max_j |x_{jk}|$ ).*

But given the way the permutations were introduced, it is not obvious as to why all of them can be lumped into one big  $\mathbf{P}$ .

i.e.,

$$\mathbf{L}_3\mathbf{P}_3\mathbf{L}_2\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{L}_1\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}$$

Here is where we use a third stroke of good luck:

These (elementary) operations can be reordered as follows:

$$\mathbf{L}_3\mathbf{P}_3\mathbf{L}_2\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{L}_1\mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{L}'_3\mathbf{L}'_2\mathbf{L}'_1\mathbf{P}_3\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{P}_1$$

where  $\mathbf{L}'_k = (\mathbf{L}_k$  with subdiagonal entries permuted).

To be precise,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{L}'_3 &= \mathbf{L}_3 \\ \mathbf{L}'_2 &= \mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{P}_3^{-1} \\ \mathbf{L}'_1 &= \mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{P}_2^{-1} \mathbf{P}_3^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

**Note 3.** Each  $\mathbf{P}_j$  has  $j > k$  for  $\mathbf{L}_k$   
 $\rightarrow \mathbf{L}'_k$  has the same structure of  $\mathbf{L}_k$  (verify!)

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{L}'_3 \mathbf{L}'_2 \mathbf{L}'_1 \mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_1 &= \mathbf{L}_3 (\mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{P}_3^{-1}) (\mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{P}_2^{-1} \mathbf{P}_3^{-1}) \mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_1 \\ &= \mathbf{L}_3 \mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{P}_1\end{aligned}$$

In the general  $m \times m$  case, Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting can be written as

$$(\mathbf{L}'_{m-1} \cdots \mathbf{L}'_2 \mathbf{L}'_1) (\mathbf{P}_{m-1} \cdots \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_1) \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}$$

where

$$\mathbf{L}'_k = \mathbf{P}_{m-1} \cdots \mathbf{P}_{k+1} \mathbf{L}_k \mathbf{P}_{k+1}^{-1} \cdots \mathbf{P}_{m-1}^{-1}$$

Now we write

$$\mathbf{L} = (\mathbf{L}'_{m-1} \cdots \mathbf{L}'_2 \mathbf{L}'_1)^{-1}$$

and

$$\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{P}_{m-1} \cdots \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_1)$$

to get

$$\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}.$$

**Note 4.** *In general, any square matrix (whether non-singular or not) has a factorization  $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}$ , where  $\mathbf{P}$  is a permutation matrix,  $\mathbf{L}$  is unit lower-triangular and whose elements satisfy  $|l_{ij}| \leq 1$ , and  $\mathbf{U}$  is upper-triangular.*

Despite this being a bit of an abuse of notation, this factorization is really what is meant by the LU factorization of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

The formula  $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{LU}$  has another great interpretation:

If you could permute  $\mathbf{A}$  *ahead of time* using matrix  $\mathbf{P}$ , then you could apply Gaussian elimination to  $\mathbf{A}$  and

you would not need pivoting!

Of course, this cannot be done in practice because  $\mathbf{P}$  is not known a priori.

## ALGORITHM 21.1: GAUSSIAN ELIMINATION WITH PARTIAL PIVOTING

$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A}$

$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}$

$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$

**for**  $k = 1$  to  $m - 1$  **do**

    select  $i \geq k$  to maximize  $|u_{ik}|$

$u(k, k : m) \longleftrightarrow u(i, k : m)$

$l(k, 1 : k - 1) \longleftrightarrow l(i, 1 : k - 1)$

$p(k, :) \longleftrightarrow p(i, :)$

**for**  $j = k + 1$  to  $m$  **do**

$l(j, k) = u(j, k) / u(k, k)$

$u(j, k : m) = u(j, k : m) - l(j, k) * u(k, k : m)$

**end for**

**end for**

To leading order, this has complexity  $\sim \frac{2}{3}m^3$ , just like pure Gaussian elimination.

In the above algorithm, storage could be saved by

overwriting  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{U}$  into  $\mathbf{A}$ .

$\mathbf{P}$  is never stored as a full matrix, but rather as a vector of indices.

For the example in this lecture,  $\mathbf{p} = (3, 4, 2, 1)$ .

### ◇ COMPLETE PIVOTING

In theory, this is more stable than partial pivoting, but the improvements realized in practice are usually marginal.

Formally, the algorithm proceeds as follows

$$\mathbf{L}_{m-1}\mathbf{P}_{m-1} \dots \mathbf{L}_2\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{L}_1\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{Q}_2 \dots \mathbf{Q}_{m-1} = \mathbf{U}$$

where the matrices  $\mathbf{Q}_k$  (potentially) permute the columns.

Once again we write this as

$$(\mathbf{L}'_{m-1} \dots \mathbf{L}'_2\mathbf{L}'_1)(\mathbf{P}_{m-1} \dots \mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{P}_1)\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{Q}_1\mathbf{Q}_2 \dots \mathbf{Q}_{m-1}) = \mathbf{U}$$

leading to

$$\mathbf{PAQ} = \mathbf{LU}.$$