# DM559 Linear and Integer Programming

## **LU** Factorization

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[Based on slides by Lieven Vandenberghe, UCLA]

## Outline

1. Operation Count

2. LU Factorization

3. Other Topics

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3. Other Topics

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## Complexity of matrix algorithms

- flop counts
- vector-vector operations
- matrix-vector product
- matrix-matrix product

## Flop counts

## floating-point operation (flop)

- one floating-point addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division
- other common definition: one multiplication followed by one addition

#### flop counts of matrix algorithm

- total number of flops is typically a polynomial of the problem dimensions
- usually simplified by ignoring lower-order terms

## applications

- a simple, machine-independent measure of algorithm complexity
- not an accurate predictor of computation time on modern computers

## **Vector-vector operations**

• inner product of two n-vectors

$$\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \ldots + x_ny_n$$

*n* multiplications and n-1 additions = 2n flops (2n if  $n \gg 1$ )

- addition or subtraction of *n*-vectors: *n* flops
- scalar multiplication of *n*-vector : *n* flops

## Matrix-vector product

matrix-vector product with  $m \times n$ -matrix A:

$$y = Ax$$

m elements in y; each element requires an inner product of length n:

$$(2n-1)m$$
 flops

approximately 2mn for large n special cases

- m = n, A diagonal: n flops
- m = n, A lower triangular: n(n + 1) flops
- A very sparse (lots of zero coefficients): #flops ≪ 2mn

## Matrix-matrix product

product of  $m \times n$ -matrix A and  $n \times p$ -matrix B:

$$C = AB$$

mp elements in C; each element requires an inner product of length n:

$$mp(2n-1)$$
 flops

approximately 2mnp for large n.

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## Overview

- factor-solve method
- LU factorization
- solving Ax = b with A nonsingular
- the inverse of a nonsingular matrix
- LU factorization algorithm
- effect of rounding error
- sparse LU factorization

## **Definitions**

## Definition (Triangular Matrices)

An  $n \times n$  matrix is said to be upper triangular if  $a_{ij} = 0$  for i > j and lower triangular if  $a_{ij} = 0$  for i < j. Also A is said to be triangular if it is either upper triangular or lower triangular.

## Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Definition (Diagonal Matrices)

An  $n \times n$  matrix is diagonal if  $a_{ij} = 0$  whenever  $i \neq j$ .

## Example:

```
1 0 0
0 1 0
0 0 3
```

### Multiple right-hand sides

two equations with the same matrix but different right-hand sides

$$Ax = b, \qquad A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$$

- factor A once (f flops)
- solve with right-hand side b (s flops)
- ullet solve with right-hand side  $\tilde{b}$  (s flops)

cost: f+2s instead of 2(f+s) if we solve second equation from scratch

**conclusion:** if  $f \gg s$ , we can solve the two equations at the cost of one

#### LU factorization

#### LU factorization without pivoting

$$A = LU$$

- $\bullet$  L unit lower triangular, U upper triangular
- does not always exist (even if A is nonsingular)

#### LU factorization (with row pivoting)

$$A = PLU$$

- $\bullet$  P permutation matrix, L unit lower triangular, U upper triangular
- ullet exists if and only if A is nonsingular (see later)

**cost**:  $(2/3)n^3$  if A has order n

#### Solving linear equations by LU factorization

solve Ax = b with A nonsingular of order n

#### factor-solve method using LU factorization

- 1. factor A as A = PLU ((2/3) $n^3$  flops)
- 2. solve (PLU)x = b in three steps
  - permutation:  $z_1 = P^T b$  (0 flops)
  - forward substitution: solve  $Lz_2 = z_1$  ( $n^2$  flops)
  - back substitution: solve  $Ux = z_2$  ( $n^2$  flops)

total cost:  $(2/3)n^3 + 2n^2$  flops, or roughly  $(2/3)n^3$ 

this is the standard method for solving Ax = b

## Multiple right-hand sides

two equations with the same matrix A (nonsingular and  $n \times n$ ):

$$Ax = b, \qquad A\tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$$

- $\bullet$  factor A once
- ullet forward/back substitution to get x
- ullet forward/back substitution to get  $ilde{x}$

cost:  $(2/3)n^3 + 4n^2$  or roughly  $(2/3)n^3$ 

exercise: propose an efficient method for solving

$$Ax = b, \qquad A^T \tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$$

#### Inverse of a nonsingular matrix

suppose A is nonsingular of order n, with LU factorization

$$A = PLU$$

• inverse from LU factorization

$$A^{-1} = (PLU)^{-1} = U^{-1}L^{-1}P^{T}$$

• gives interpretation of solve step: evaluate

$$x = A^{-1}b = U^{-1}L^{-1}P^{T}b$$

in three steps

$$z_1 = P^T b, \qquad z_2 = L^{-1} z_1, \qquad x = U^{-1} z_2$$

#### Computing the inverse

solve AX = I by solving n equations

$$AX_1 = e_1, \qquad AX_2 = e_2, \qquad \dots, \qquad AX_n = e_n$$

 $X_i$  is the ith column of X;  $e_i$  is the ith unit vector of size n

 $\bullet$  one LU factorization of A:  $2n^3/3$  flops

• n solve steps:  $2n^3$  flops

total:  $(8/3)n^3$  flops

(0/0/........

**conclusion**: do not solve Ax = b by multiplying  $A^{-1}$  with b

## LU factorization without pivoting

partition A, L, U as block matrices:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & U_{12} \\ 0 & U_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- $a_{11}$  and  $u_{11}$  are scalars
- $L_{22}$  unit lower-triangular,  $U_{22}$  upper triangular of order n-1

determine L and U from A = LU, i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & U_{12} \\ 0 & U_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & U_{12} \\ u_{11}L_{21} & L_{21}U_{12} + L_{22}U_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### recursive algorithm:

ullet determine first row of U and first column of L

$$u_{11} = a_{11}, U_{12} = A_{12}, L_{21} = (1/a_{11})A_{21}$$

ullet factor the (n-1) imes (n-1)-matrix  $A_{22}-L_{21}U_{12}$  as

$$A_{22} - L_{21}U_{12} = L_{22}U_{22}$$

this is an LU factorization (without pivoting) of order n-1

**cost**:  $(2/3)n^3$  flops (no proof)

#### Example

LU factorization (without pivoting) of

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 8 & 2 & 9 \\ 4 & 9 & 4 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 \end{array} \right]$$

write as A = LU with L unit lower triangular, U upper triangular

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 9 \\ 4 & 9 & 4 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

• first row of U. first column of L:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 9 \\ 4 & 9 & 4 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3/4 & l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\bullet$  second row of U, second column of L:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 \\ 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 3/4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 8 & -1/2 \\ 11/2 & 9/4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 11/16 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -1/2 \\ 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

• third row of U:  $u_{33} = 9/4 + 11/32 = 83/32$ 

conclusion:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 9 \\ 4 & 9 & 4 \\ 6 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3/4 & 11/16 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 8 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 83/32 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Not every nonsingular A can be factored as A = LU

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

• first row of *U*, first column of *L*:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & l_{32} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

• second row of U, second column of L:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ l_{32} & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} u_{22} & u_{23} \\ 0 & u_{33} \end{array}\right]$$

$$u_{22} = 0$$
,  $u_{23} = 2$ ,  $l_{32} \cdot 0 = 1$ ?

## LU factorization (with row pivoting)

if A is  $n \times n$  and nonsingular, then it can be factored as

$$A = PLU$$

P is a permutation matrix, L is unit lower triangular, U is upper triangular

- $\bullet$  not unique; there may be several possible choices for P, L, U
- interpretation: permute the rows of A and factor  $P^TA$  as  $P^TA = LU$
- also known as Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting (GEPP)
- cost:  $(2/3)n^3$  flops

we will skip the details of calculating P, L, U

#### Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 & 5 \\ 2 & 9 & 0 \\ 6 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 15/19 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 8 & 8 \\ 0 & 19/3 & -8/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 135/19 \end{bmatrix}$$

the factorization is not unique; the same matrix can be factored as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 & 5 \\ 2 & 9 & 0 \\ 6 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -19/5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 27 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Effect of rounding error

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 10^{-5} & 1\\ 1 & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1\\ x_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 1\\ 0 \end{array}\right]$$

exact solution:

$$x_1 = \frac{-1}{1 - 10^{-5}}, \qquad x_2 = \frac{1}{1 - 10^{-5}}$$

let us solve the equations using LU factorization, rounding intermediate results to 4 significant decimal digits

we will do this for the two possible permutation matrices:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

first choice of P: P = I (no pivoting)

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 10^{-5} & 1\\ 1 & 1 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\\ 10^5 & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} 10^{-5} & 1\\ 0 & 1 - 10^5 \end{array}\right]$$

L, U rounded to 4 decimal significant digits

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 \\ 0 & -10^5 \end{bmatrix}$$

forward substitution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies z_1 = 1, \quad z_2 = -10^5$$

back substitution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10^{-5} & 1 \\ 0 & -10^5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -10^5 \end{bmatrix} \implies x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = 1$$

error in  $x_1$  is 100%

**second choice of** *P*: interchange rows

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

 $L,\,U$  rounded to 4 decimal significant digits

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^{-5} & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

forward substitution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 10^{-5} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies z_1 = 0, \quad z_2 = 1$$

backward substitution

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies x_1 = -1, \quad x_2 = 1$$

error in  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  is about  $10^{-5}$ 

#### conclusion:

- for some choices of P, small rounding errors in the algorithm cause very large errors in the solution
- this is called numerical instability: for the first choice of P, the algorithm is unstable; for the second choice of P, it is stable
- from numerical analysis: there is a simple rule for selecting a good (stable) permutation (we'll skip the details, since we skipped the details of the factorization algorithm)
- ullet in the example, the second permutation is better because it permutes the largest element (in absolute value) of the first column of A to the 1,1-position

### Sparse linear equations

if A is sparse, it is usually factored as

$$A = P_1 L U P_2$$

 $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are permutation matrices

ullet interpretation: permute rows and columns of A and factor  $\tilde{A}=P_1^TAP_2^T$ 

$$\tilde{A} = LU$$

- ullet choice of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  greatly affects the sparsity of L and U: many heuristic methods exist for selecting good permutations
- in practice: #flops  $\ll (2/3)n^3$ ; exact value is a complicated function of n, number of nonzero elements, sparsity pattern

#### Conclusion

different levels of understanding how linear equation solvers work:

**highest level:**  $x = A b costs (2/3)n^3$ ; more efficient than x = inv(A)\*b

intermediate level: factorization step A=PLU followed by solve step

**lowest level:** details of factorization A = PLU

- for most applications, level 1 is sufficient
- $\bullet$  in some situations (e.g., multiple right-hand sides) level 2 is useful
- level 3 is important only for experts who write numerical libraries

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## **Numerical Solutions**

- A matrix A is said to be ill conditioned if relatively small changes in the entries of A can cause relatively large changes in the solutions of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .
- A is said to be well conditioned if relatively small changes in the entries of A result in relatively small changes in the solutions of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .
- reaching RREF as in Gauss-Jordan requires more computation and more numerical instability hence disadvantageous.
- Gauss elimination is a direct method: the amount of operations can be specified in advance.
   Indirect or Iterative methods work by iteratively improving approximate solutions until a
   desired accuracy is reached. Amount of operations depend on the accuracy required. (way to
   go if the matrix is sparse)

# Gauss-Seidel Iterative Method

$$x_1 - 0.25x_2 - 0.25x_3 = 50$$
  
 $-0.25x_1 + x_2 - 0.25x_4 = 50$   
 $-0.25x_1 + x_3 - 0.25x_4 = 25$   
 $-0.25x_2 - 0.25x_3 + x_4 = 25$ 

$$x_1 = 0.25x_2 + 0.25x_3 + 50$$
  
 $x_2 = 0.25x_1 + 0.25x_4 + 50$   
 $x_3 = 0.25x_1 + 0.25x_4 + 25$   
 $x_4 = 0.25x_2 + 0.25x_3 + 25$ 

We start from an approximation, eg,  $x_1^{(0)} = 100, x_2^{(0)} = 100, x_3^{(0)} = 100, x_4^{(0)} = 100$ , and use the equations above to find a perhaps better approximation:

$$x_1^{(1)} = 0.25x_2^{(0)} + 0.25x_3^{(0)} + 0.25x_4^{(0)} + 50.00 = 100.00$$
 $x_2^{(1)} = 0.25x_1^{(1)} + 0.25x_4^{(0)} + 50.00 = 100.00$ 
 $x_3^{(1)} = 0.25x_1^{(1)} + 0.25x_2^{(1)} + 0.25x_3^{(1)} + 25.00 = 75.00$ 
 $x_4^{(1)} = 0.25x_2^{(1)} + 0.25x_3^{(1)} + 25.00 = 68.75$ 

$$x_1^{(2)} = 0.25x_1^{(1)} + 0.25x_3^{(1)} + 0.25x_4^{(1)} + 50.00 = 93.750$$
 $x_2^{(2)} = 0.25x_1^{(2)} + 0.25x_4^{(1)} + 50.00 = 90.625$ 
 $x_3^{(2)} = 0.25x_1^{(2)} + 0.25x_2^{(2)} + 0.25x_3^{(2)} + 25.00 = 65.625$ 
 $x_4^{(2)} = 0.25x_2^{(2)} + 0.25x_3^{(2)} + 25.00 = 64.062$