DM559 Linear and Integer Programming

LU Factorization

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[Based on slides by Lieven Vandenberghe, UCLA]

Outline

Operation Count LU Factorization Other Topics

1. Operation Count

2. LU Factorization

3. Other Topics

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Complexity of matrix algorithms

Operation Count LU Factorization Other Topics

- 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

 $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \ldots + x_n y_n$

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:

 $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$

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

Operation Count LU Factorization Other Topics

- 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:

3	0	0	3	5	1]
2	1	0	0	1	3
1	4	3	0	0	7

Definition (Diagonal Matrices)

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

Example:

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

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)
- 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

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

LU factorization (with row pivoting)

A = PLU

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

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

LU factorization

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 $n \times n$):

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

- factor A once
- forward/back substitution to get x
- forward/back substitution to get \tilde{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

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

in three steps

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

LU factorization

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 *i*th column of X; e_i is the *i*th unit vector of size n

- one LU factorization of A: $2n^3/3$ flops
- n solve steps: $2n^3$ flops

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

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:

• determine first row of U and first column of \boldsymbol{L}

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

• factor the
$$(n-1) \times (n-1)$$
-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

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

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:

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

• 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:

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

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

LU factorization

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

- not unique; there may be several possible choices for P, L, U
- interpretation: permute the rows of A and factor $P^T A$ as $P^T A = L U$
- 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)

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

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

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

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%

LU factorization

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

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right] \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad x_1 = -1, \quad x_2 = 1$$

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

LU factorization

conclusion:

- \bullet 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)
- 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

• interpretation: permute rows and columns of A and factor $\tilde{A} = P_1^T A P_2^T$

$$\tilde{A} = LU$$

- 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: $x = A \ costs (2/3)n^3$; 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
- 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 rlatively 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

Operation Count LU Factorization Other Topics

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 equatiuons above to find a perhaps better approximation: