Sequential LU Decomposition

Sections 2.1-2.2 of Parallel Scientific Computation, 2nd edition

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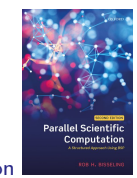


Solving a linear system of equations

Find x_0, x_1, x_2 such that

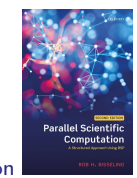
$$\begin{array}{rcrcrcl} x_0 & + & 4x_1 & + & 6x_2 & = & 16 \\ 2x_0 & + & 10x_1 & + & 17x_2 & = & 44 \\ 3x_0 & + & 16x_1 & + & 31x_2 & = & 78 \end{array}$$

In matrix language, solve

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

where

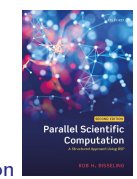
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 2 & 10 & 17 \\ 3 & 16 & 31 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 44 \\ 78 \end{bmatrix}$$



Solving linear systems is important

Applications often have as their core a linear system solver:

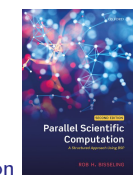
- Building bridges. Finite element models in engineering give rise to linear systems involving a stiffness matrix.
- Designing aircraft. Wind tunnels have been replaced by numerical simulations, which routinely solve linear systems with millions of equations and variables.
- Minimizing energy consumption. Many industrial companies minimize their energy costs under given constraints by linear programming, repeatedly solving a large sparse linear system (with many zero coefficients).



Lower and upper triangular matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 2 & 10 & 17 \\ 3 & 16 & 31 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = LU.$$

- L is lower triangular if $l_{ij} = 0$ for all $i < j$.
- U is upper triangular if $u_{ij} = 0$ for all $i > j$.
- LU decomposition is the factorization of A into $A = LU$, with L lower triangular and U upper triangular.
- We assume L is unit lower triangular, i.e., $l_{ii} = 1$ for all i.



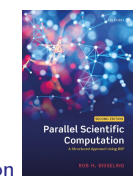
Triangular systems are easier to solve

Let $A = LU$. Then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \iff L(U\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b} \iff L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b} \text{ and } U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 44 \\ 78 \end{bmatrix} \Longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 12 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 16 \\ 12 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \Longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$



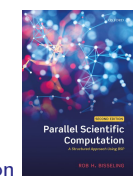
Deriving an algorithm for LU decomposition

Some simple algebra:

$$A = LU \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad a_{ij} = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \quad \text{for all } i, j.$$

Assume $i \leq j$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} a_{ij} &= \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \;=\; \sum_{r=0}^{i} l_{ir} u_{rj} \quad (\text{because } l_{ir} = 0 \text{ for } r > i) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{i-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} + l_{ii} u_{ij} \;=\; \sum_{r=0}^{i-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} + u_{ij} \quad (\text{because } l_{ii} = 1) \\ &\Longleftrightarrow \\ u_{ij} &= a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{i-1} l_{ir} u_{rj}. \end{aligned}$$



Formulae for computing l_{ij} and u_{ij}

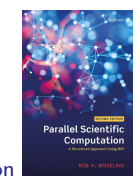
Aim: rewrite the linear system to express l_{ij} and u_{ij} in terms of a_{ij} and previously computed l_{ij} and u_{ij}.

We have obtained

$$u_{ij} = a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{i-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \quad \text{for } i \leq j.$$

Similarly,

$$l_{ij} = \frac{1}{u_{jj}} \left(a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{j-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \right) \quad \text{for } i > j.$$



Modifying the matrix A in stages

For $0 \leq k \leq n$, define the intermediate matrix $A^{(k)}$ of stage k:

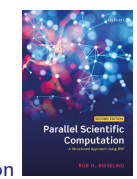
$$a_{ij}^{(k)} = a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} l_{ir} u_{rj}.$$

Note that $A^{(0)} = A$ and $A^{(n)} = 0$. In this notation,

$$u_{ij} = a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{i-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad u_{ij} = a_{ij}^{(i)}$$

$$l_{ij} = \frac{1}{u_{jj}} \left(a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{j-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \right) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad l_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij}^{(j)}}{u_{jj}}$$

We retrieve values $u_{kj} = a_{kj}^{(k)}$ $(j \geq k)$ and $l_{ik} = a_{ik}^{(k)}$ $(i > k)$ in stage k.

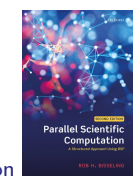


Sequential LU decomposition algorithm

input: A : $n \times n$ matrix.
output: L : $n \times n$ unit lower triangular matrix,
U : $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix,
such that $LU = A$.

$A^{(0)} := A$;
for $k := 0$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

for $j := k$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**
$u_{kj} := a_{kj}^{(k)}$;



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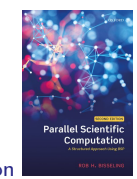
for $k := 0$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

  for $j := k$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**
    $u_{kj} := a_{kj}^{(k)}$;
  for $i := k + 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**
    $l_{ik} := \frac{a_{ik}^{(k)}}{u_{kk}}$;



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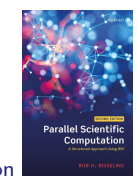
$A^{(0)} := A$;
for $k := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**

  for $j := k$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    $u_{kj} := a_{kj}^{(k)}$;
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    $l_{ik} := \frac{a_{ik}^{(k)}}{u_{kk}}$;
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    for $j := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
      $a_{ij}^{(k+1)} := a_{ij}^{(k)} - l_{ik} u_{kj}$;

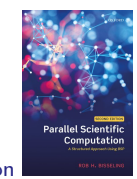


Loop invariant

- A loop invariant is a statement that remains true while a loop is being executed; usually it depends on a changing loop index.
- For LU decomposition, we state

$$\text{Invariant}(k): \quad a_{ij}^{(k)} = a_{ij} - \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} l_{ir} u_{rj} \quad \text{for all } i,j \geq k.$$

- Giving an invariant at the right place in an algorithm text helps in proving the correctness of the algorithm.
- You can use the `assert` facility in the C-language to check invariants (and other statements).

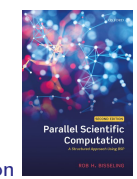


Sequential algorithm with loop invariant

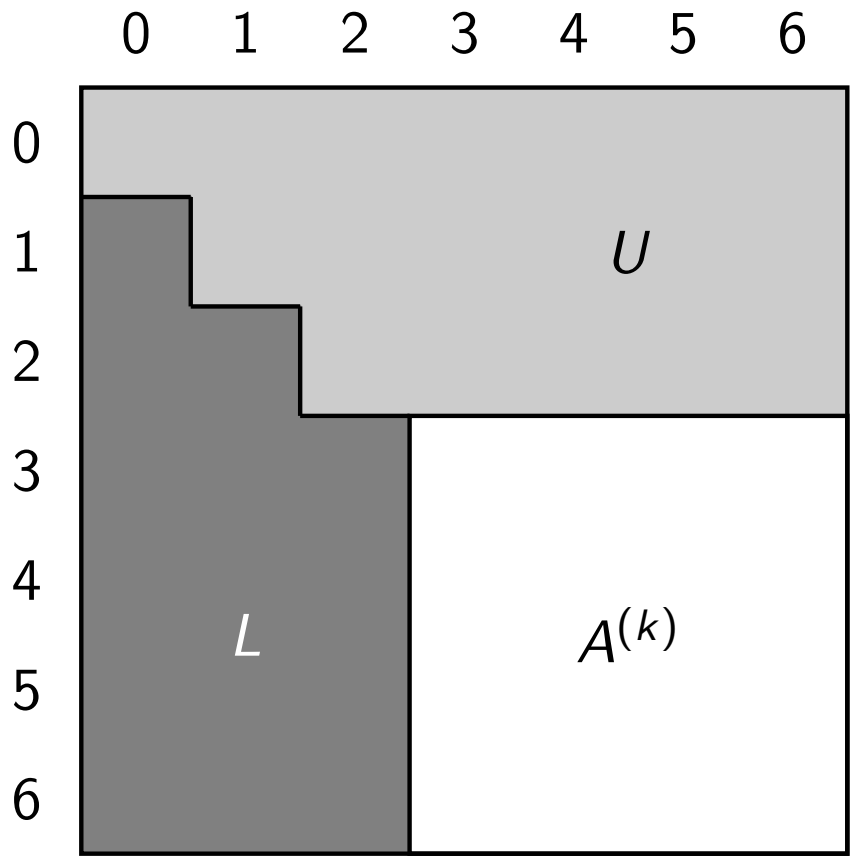
input: A : $n \times n$ matrix.

output: L : $n \times n$ unit lower triangular matrix,
U : $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix,
such that $LU = A$.

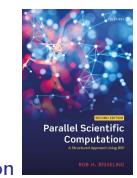
$A^{(0)} := A$;
for $k := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
  { Invariant(k) }
  for $j := k$ **to** $n-1$ **do** ▷ Use the invariant
    $u_{kj} := a_{kj}^{(k)}$;
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    $l_{ik} := \frac{a_{ik}^{(k)}}{u_{kk}}$;
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do** ▷ Maintain the invariant
    for $j := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
      $a_{ij}^{(k+1)} := a_{ij}^{(k)} - l_{ik} u_{kj}$;
  { Invariant($k+1$) }



Storing L, U, $A^{(k)}$ in the space of A



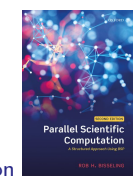
- Already computed at the start of stage $k = 3$: rows 0, 1, 2 of U on or above the diagonal and columns 0, 1, 2 of L below the diagonal.



Memory-efficient sequential LU decomposition

input: A : $n \times n$ matrix, $A = A^{(0)}$.
output: A : $n \times n$ matrix, $A = L - I_n + U$, with
L : $n \times n$ unit lower triangular matrix,
U : $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix, such that $LU = A^{(0)}$.

for $k := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    $a_{ik} := \frac{a_{ik}}{a_{kk}}$;
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    for $j := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
      $a_{ij} := a_{ij} - a_{ik}a_{kj}$;

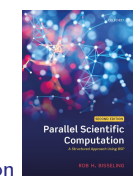


Transformations of A by LU decomposition

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 2 & 10 & 17 \\ 3 & 16 & 31 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(0)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 13 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(1)} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence,

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$



Row permutations needed

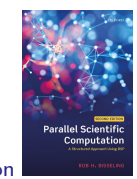
- LU decomposition breaks down immediately in stage 0 for

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

  because we try to divide by 0.
- A solution is to permute the rows suitably.
- Thus, we compute a permuted LU decomposition,

$$PA = LU.$$

- Here, P is a permutation matrix, obtained by permuting the rows of the identity matrix I_n.
- The output of an LU decomposition of A is L, U, P.

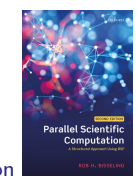


Permutations and permutation matrices

Let $\sigma : \{0, \ldots, n-1\} \to \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ be a permutation.
We define the permutation matrix P_σ corresponding to σ by

$$(P_\sigma)_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = \sigma(j), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore, column j of P_σ is 1 in row $\sigma(j)$, and 0 everywhere else.

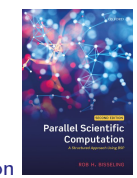


Example of the relation between σ and P_σ

Let $\sigma(0) = 1$, $\sigma(1) = 2$, and $\sigma(2) = 0$. Then

$$P_\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & 1 \\ 1 & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & 1 & \cdot \end{bmatrix}.$$

(For clarity, zeros are shown as dots.)

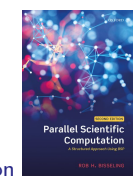


Property of P_σ

Let $\sigma : \{0, \ldots, n-1\} \to \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ be a permutation.
Let $\mathbf{x}$ be a vector of length n. Then

$$(P_\sigma \mathbf{x})_i = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (P_\sigma)_{ij} x_j = x_{\sigma^{-1}(i)},$$

because only the term with $\sigma(j) = i$ is nonzero, i.e., with $j = \sigma^{-1}(i)$.

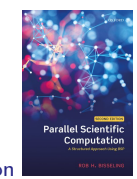


Lemma 2.5 : properties of P_σ

Let $\sigma : \{0, \ldots, n-1\} \to \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ be a permutation.
Let $\mathbf{x}$ be a vector of length n and A an $n \times n$ matrix. Then

$$(P_\sigma \mathbf{x})_i = x_{\sigma^{-1}(i)}, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i < n,$$
$$(P_\sigma A)_{ij} = a_{\sigma^{-1}(i),j}, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i, j < n,$$
$$(P_\sigma A P_\sigma^{\mathrm{T}})_{ij} = a_{\sigma^{-1}(i),\sigma^{-1}(j)}, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i, j < n.$$

Proofs: similar to before.



Lemma 2.6: permutation matrices are isomorphic to permutations

Let $\sigma, \tau : \{0, \ldots, n-1\} \to \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ be permutations. Then

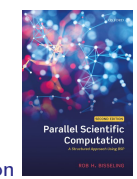
$$P_\tau P_\sigma = P_{\tau\sigma} \text{ and } (P_\sigma)^{-1} = P_{\sigma^{-1}}.$$

Here, $\tau\sigma$ denotes σ followed by τ.

Proof first part:

$$(P_\tau P_\sigma)_{ij} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (P_\tau)_{ik}(P_\sigma)_{kj} = (P_\sigma)_{\tau^{-1}(i),j}$$

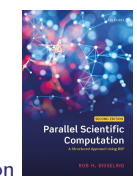
because only one term $k = \tau^{-1}(i)$ is nonzero. By the definition of P_σ, the result is 1 if $\tau^{-1}(i) = \sigma(j)$, i.e., $i = \tau(\sigma(j)) = (\tau\sigma)(j)$, and 0 otherwise. This is the same as for $(P_{\tau\sigma})_{ij}$.
Therefore, $(P_\tau P_\sigma)_{ij} = (P_{\tau\sigma})_{ij}$ for all i, j. Hence $P_\tau P_\sigma = P_{\tau\sigma}$. □



Sequential LU decomposition with partial row pivoting.

input: A : $n \times n$ matrix, $A = A^{(0)}$.
output: A : $n \times n$ matrix, $A = L - I_n + U$, with
L : $n \times n$ unit lower triangular matrix,
U : $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix,
π : permutation vector of length n.

for $i := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do** $\pi_i := i$;
for $k := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
  $r := \mathrm{argmax}(|a_{ik}| : k \leq i < n)$;
  swap(π_k, π_r);
  for $j := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    swap(a_{kj}, a_{rj});



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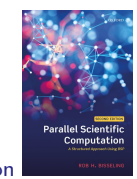
for $k := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
  $r := \mathrm{argmax}(|a_{ik}| : k \leq i < n)$;
  swap(π_k, π_r);
  for $j := 0$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    swap(a_{kj}, a_{rj});
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    $a_{ik} := a_{ik}/a_{kk}$;
  for $i := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
    for $j := k+1$ **to** $n-1$ **do**
      $a_{ij} := a_{ij} - a_{ik}a_{kj}$;



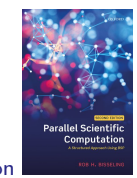
Partial row pivoting

- The pivot element in stage k is the largest element a_{rk} (in absolute value) in column k. Everything revolves around it. It is farthest from 0 and division by a_{rk} is most stable.
- The pivot row r is thus determined by

$$|a_{rk}| = \max(|a_{ik}| : k \leq i < n).$$

- r is the argmax, the argument (or index) of the maximum.
- Full pivoting would take the largest pivot from the whole submatrix $A(k\colon n-1, k\colon n-1)$. This gives the best stability, but is more costly. In practice, partial row pivoting suffices.
- If you encounter a practical case where it fails, you should know what James H. Wilkinson said, one of the founders of the field of numerical linear algebra:

  Anyone that unlucky has already been run over by a bus.



The meaning of π

- The algorithm multiplies the original matrix by an unknown permutation matrix P_σ. We obtain the LU decomposition $P_\sigma A = LU$.
- The same permutation matrix is applied to the initial vector $\mathbf{e} = (0, 1, 2, \ldots, n-1)^{\mathrm{T}}$ (with $e_i = i$). We obtain $\pi = P_\sigma \mathbf{e}$.
- Therefore, by the first part of Lemma 2.5,

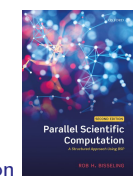
$$\pi(i) = (P_\sigma \mathbf{e})_i = e_{\sigma^{-1}(i)} = \sigma^{-1}(i).$$

- Thus, $\pi = \sigma^{-1}$ and consequently

$$P_{\pi^{-1}} A = LU.$$

- By the second part of Lemma 2.5, this is equivalent to

$$a_{\pi(i),j} = (LU)_{ij}, \text{ for all } i, j.$$



Sequential time complexity

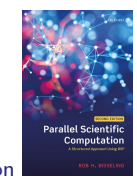
We use Lemma 2.7:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \quad \sum_{k=0}^{n} k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

Proof: By induction on n. Think of the kid Gauss.

The number of flops of the LU decomposition algorithm is

$$\begin{aligned} T_{\text{seq}} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2(n-k-1)^2 + n - k - 1) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (2k^2 + k) \\ &= \frac{(n-1)n(2n-1)}{3} + \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \\ &= (n-1)n\left(\frac{2n}{3} + \frac{1}{6}\right) = \frac{2n^3}{3} - \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{6}. \end{aligned}$$



Summary

- A linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ can best be solved by:
  - finding an LU decomposition $PA = LU$;
  - permuting $\mathbf{b}$ into $P\mathbf{b}$;
  - solving the triangular systems $L\mathbf{y} = P\mathbf{b}$ and $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$.
- The LU decomposition costs about $\frac{2n^3}{3}$ flops and each triangular system solve about n^2 flops.
- It is often difficult to keep permutations and their inverses apart. In theoretical analysis, it is sometimes easier to work with permutation matrices than with the corresponding permutations.
- We defined the matrix P_σ: its jth column is 1 in row $\sigma(j)$, and 0 everywhere else.
- An important connection between a permutation σ and the matrix P_σ is given by $(P_\sigma \mathbf{x})_i = x_{\sigma^{-1}(i)}$.