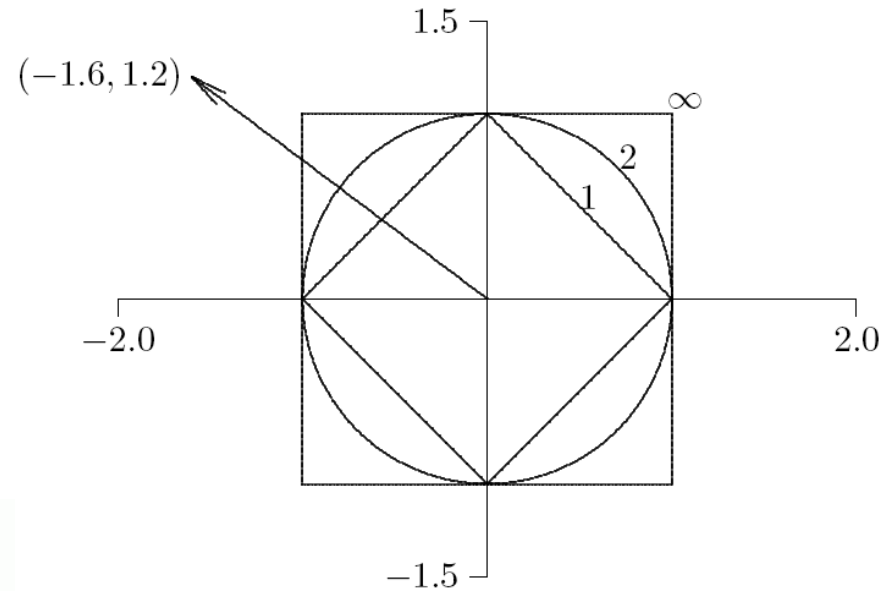


Linear System

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$



Important special cases

- 1-norm: $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$
- 2-norm: $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2}$
- ∞ -norm: $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$

Matrix norm corresponding to given vector norm is defined by

$$\|A\| = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}$$

Condition number of square nonsingular matrix A is defined by

$$\text{cond}(A) = \|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\|$$

$$\|A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| = \left(\max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \right) \cdot \left(\min_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} \right)^{-1}$$

condition number measures ratio of maximum stretching to maximum shrinking matrix does to any nonzero vectors

Case 1:

Let x be the solution of $Ax=b$ and \hat{x} be the solution of $A\hat{x}=b+\Delta b$, the error $\Delta x = x - \hat{x}$ and the residual $r = b - A\hat{x} = A(x - \hat{x})$:

we have $\|\Delta x\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \|r\|$ together with $b = Ax$

$$\Rightarrow \|b\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|, \text{ the inequality } \frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \text{cond}(A) \frac{\|r\|}{\|b\|}$$

- Small residual is easy to obtain, but does not necessarily imply computed solution is accurate
- small relative residual implies small relative error in approximate solution *only if A is well-conditioned*

Case 2:

Let \hat{x} be the solution of $(A+E)\hat{x}=b$, the error $\Delta x = x - \hat{x}$ and the residual $r = b - A\hat{x} = A(x - \hat{x})$:

- Similar result holds for relative change in matrix: if $(A + E)\hat{x} = b$, then

$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|\hat{x}\|} \leq \text{cond}(A) \frac{\|E\|}{\|A\|}$$

- If input data are accurate to machine precision, then bound for relative error in solution x becomes

$$\frac{\|\hat{x} - x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \text{cond}(A) \epsilon_{\text{mach}}$$

$$\|r\| = \|b - A\hat{x}\| = \|A(x - \hat{x})\| \leq \|A\|\|\Delta x\|$$

$$\|x\| \leq \|A^{-1}\|\|b\|$$

$$\frac{\|r\|}{\|A^{-1}\|\|b\|} \leq \frac{\|A\|\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \Rightarrow \frac{\|r\|}{\|b\|} \leq \text{cond}(A) \frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|}$$

- For well-conditioned A , large *relative residual implies large backward error in matrix*, and algorithm used to compute solution is unstable.
- For ill-conditioned A , large relative residual does not necessary imply the relative error is also large.

$$\begin{aligned}
E\hat{x} = b - A\hat{x} = r &\Rightarrow \|r\| \leq \|E\|\|\hat{x}\| \leq \|E\|\|(A + E)^{-1}\|\|b\| \\
\Rightarrow \frac{\|r\|}{\|b\|} &\leq \|E\|\|(A(I + A^{-1}E))^{-1}\| \leq \|E\|\|A^{-1}\|\|(I + A^{-1}E)^{-1}\| \\
&< \|E\|\|A^{-1}\|\frac{1}{1 - \|A^{-1}E\|} \text{ when } \|A^{-1}E\| \ll 1 \text{ (see Lemma 1 at p.30)} \\
&\approx \frac{\|E\|}{\|A\|} \text{cond}(A)
\end{aligned}$$

One can estimate the backward error is about

$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \approx O\left(\frac{\|E\|}{\|A\|}\right)$$

Solve linear system by iterations

Direct Solver: Gauss Elimination based on LU decomposition:

Observation (1)

- *Forward-substitution* for lower triangular system $Lx = b$

$$x_1 = b_1/\ell_{11}, \quad x_i = \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \ell_{ij}x_j \right) / \ell_{ii}, \quad i = 2, \dots, n$$

```
for  $j = 1$  to  $n$                                 { loop over columns }
  if  $\ell_{jj} = 0$  then stop                        { stop if matrix is singular }
   $x_j = b_j/\ell_{jj}$                                 { compute solution component }
  for  $i = j + 1$  to  $n$ 
     $b_i = b_i - \ell_{ij}x_j$                           { update right-hand side }
  end
end
```

Observation (2):

- *Back-substitution* for upper triangular system $Ux = b$

$$x_n = b_n / u_{nn}, \quad x_i = \left(b_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n u_{ij}x_j \right) / u_{ii}, \quad i = n - 1, \dots, 1$$

```
for  $j = n$  to 1                                { loop backwards over columns }
  if  $u_{jj} = 0$  then stop                       { stop if matrix is singular }
   $x_j = b_j / u_{jj}$                                { compute solution component }
  for  $i = 1$  to  $j - 1$ 
     $b_i = b_i - u_{ij}x_j$                          { update right-hand side }
  end
end
```


Question (1)

Can one decompose a matrix A into the product of a lower triangular matrix L and an upper triangular matrix U ?

Question (2)

Suppose we can, what would be the algorithm to find L and U ?

Question (3)

Is the algorithm in question (2) stable?

Existence of LU-Decomposition

LU decomposition exists when all leading principal minors of the $n \times n$ matrix A are nonsingular.

i.e.

$$A^{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & \cdots & a_{kk} \end{pmatrix}, \quad k = 1 \sim n.$$

This is difficult to check in real computation.

Every strictly diagonally dominant matrix is nonsingular and has an LU-factorization.

Strictly diagonal-dominant matrix $|a_{ii}| > \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$, for all i

Proof: Consider

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \omega^T \\ \nu & C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \beta & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \\ 0 & \delta \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \gamma = \omega^T \\ \beta\alpha = \nu \Rightarrow \beta = \frac{\nu}{\alpha} \\ \delta = C - \beta\gamma = C - \frac{\omega^T \nu}{\alpha} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{\nu}{\alpha} & I \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & C - \frac{\nu\omega^T}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix}}_u \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \omega^T \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \omega^T \\ 0 & C - \frac{\nu\omega^T}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix}$$

If one can show $B = C - \frac{\omega^T \nu}{\alpha}$ is diagonally dominant, when

A and C are diagonally dominant then, by assumption of induction,

we have $B = \tilde{L}\tilde{U}$

$$\Rightarrow A = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \underline{v} & \mathbf{I} \\ \alpha & \end{bmatrix}}_L \cdot \tilde{L} \cdot \underbrace{\tilde{U} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \omega^T \\ 0 & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}}_U \Rightarrow \text{By math induction,}$$

A has a L - U factorization. Finally, since

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ i \neq j}}^{n-1} |b_{ij}| &= \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ i \neq j}}^{n-1} \left| c_{ij} - \frac{v_i \omega_j}{\alpha} \right| \leq \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ i \neq j}}^{n-1} |c_{ij}| + \left| \frac{v_i}{\alpha} \right| \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ i \neq j}}^{n-1} |\omega_j| \\ &< |c_{ii}| - |v_i| + \left| \frac{v_i}{\alpha} \right| \left(\underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} |\omega_j|}_{< |\alpha|} - |\omega_i| \right) < |c_{ii}| - \frac{|v_i| |\omega_i|}{\alpha} \\ &\leq \left| c_{ii} - \frac{v_i \omega_i}{\alpha} \right| = |b_{ii}|, \end{aligned}$$

Hence, B is strictly diagonally dominant.

Remark:

- If A is irreducibly, diagonally dominant with strictly inequality holds for at least one row, then A is non-singular and has a LU factorization.

(assuming the strict dominant inequality. holds at first row $[\alpha , \omega^T]$, clearly, the above argument still holds.)

- LU factorization is good for multiple right hand sides.

- LU uniqueness:

- Despite variations in computing it, LU factorization is unique up to diagonal scaling of factors
- Provided row pivot sequence is same, if we have two LU factorizations $PA = LU = \hat{L}\hat{U}$, then $\hat{L}^{-1}L = \hat{U}U^{-1} = D$ is both lower and upper triangular, hence diagonal
- If both L and \hat{L} are unit lower triangular, then D must be identity matrix, so $L = \hat{L}$ and $U = \hat{U}$
- Uniqueness is made explicit in LDU factorization $PA = LDU$, with L unit lower triangular, U unit upper triangular, and D diagonal

LU Algorithm

For $k = 1 : n$,

$$\ell_{kk} \mathbf{u}_{kk} = a_{kk} - \sum_{m=1}^{k-1} \ell_{km} \mathbf{u}_{mk}$$

For $j = k + 1 : n$,

$$\mathbf{u}_{kj} = \underbrace{\left(a_{kj} - \sum_{m=1}^{k-1} \ell_{km} \mathbf{u}_{mj} \right)}_{2k-1 \text{ operations}} / \ell_{kk}$$

end.

For $i = k + 1 : n$,

$$\ell_{ik} = \underbrace{\left(a_{ik} - \sum_{m=1}^{k-1} \ell_{im} \mathbf{u}_{mj} \right)}_{(k-1)+(k-2)+1+1=2k-1 \text{ operations}} / \mathbf{u}_{kk}$$

end

end

Computation cost

$$2 \left(\sum_{k=1}^n (n-k) \cdot (2k-1) \right) +$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n 2(k-1) = O(n^3)$$

Remark:

- $O(n^3)$ computational cost is too expensive.
- Possible halt when l_{kk} or $u_{kk} = 0$, pivoting strategy is needed.

Consider $A = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{bmatrix} = L \cdot U$. When overflow,

$$L \cdot U \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{A}, \text{ one has } \|E\| = \|A - \hat{A}\| = O(1),$$

according to the backward error estimation

$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \approx O\left(\frac{\|E\|}{\|A\|}\right) \approx O(1) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{The solution is unreliable with about 100\% relative error}$$

exercise: check the estimate by solving $Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\hat{A}\hat{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$,
and computing the error.

Pivoting strategy: largest entries should be ordered first

$Ax = b \Rightarrow PAx = Pb \Rightarrow A_p x = b_p$. Consider

$$A_p = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_P \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - \varepsilon \end{bmatrix}.$$

Even when underflow occurs in evaluating $1 - \varepsilon$,

$$\hat{A}_p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \varepsilon & 1 + \varepsilon \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \|A_p - \hat{A}_p\| = O(\varepsilon).$$

So, the solution from the pivoted system is reliable.

Example:

(Hydraulic network) Let us consider the hydraulic network shown in the right figure, which is fed by a reservoir of water at constant pressure $p_r = 10$ bar. In this problem, pressure values refer to the difference between the real pressure and the atmospheric one.

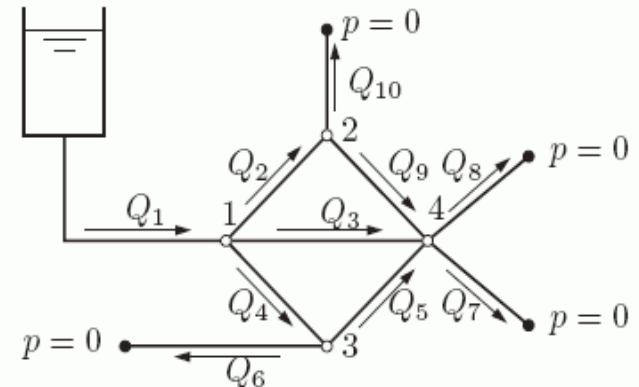


Fig. 5.1. The pipeline network of Problem 5.1

For the j -th pipeline, the following relationship holds between the flow-rate Q_j and the pressure gap Δp_j at pipe-ends: $Q_j = kL \Delta p_j$, where k is the hydraulic resistance and L is the length of the pipeline. We assume that water flows from the outlets at atmospheric pressure, which is set to 0 bar. What is the pressure values at each internal node 1, 2, 3, 4 ?

pipeline	k	L	pipeline	k	L	pipeline	k	L
1	0.01	20	2	0.005	10	3	0.005	14
4	0.005	10	5	0.005	10	6	0.002	8
7	0.002	8	8	0.002	8	9	0.005	10
10	0.002	8						

Answer

$$Q_2 + Q_3 + Q_4 = Q_1 \quad \longrightarrow \quad k_2 L_2 (P_2 - P_1) + k_3 L_3 (P_4 - P_1) + k_4 L_4 (P_3 - P_1) = k_1 L_1 (P_1 - 10)$$

$$Q_9 + Q_{10} = Q_2$$

$$Q_9 + Q_3 + Q_5 = Q_7 + Q_8$$

$$Q_5 + Q_6 = Q_4$$

$$0.005 \times 10 \times (P_2 - P_1) + 0.005 \times 14 \times (P_4 - P_1) + 0.005 \times 10 \times (P_3 - P_1) = 0.01 \times 20 \times (P_1 - 10)$$

$$-0.37P_1 + 0.05P_2 + 0.05P_3 + 0.07P_4 = -2$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -0.370 & 0.050 & 0.050 & 0.070 \\ 0.050 & -0.116 & 0 & 0.050 \\ 0.050 & 0 & -0.116 & 0.050 \\ 0.070 & 0.050 & 0.050 & -0.202 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Rank one updating

Sherman-Morrison Formula

- Sometimes refactorization can be avoided even when matrix *does* change
- *Sherman-Morrison formula* gives inverse of matrix resulting from rank-one change to matrix whose inverse is already known

$$(A - uv^T)^{-1} = A^{-1} + A^{-1}u(1 - v^T A^{-1}u)^{-1}v^T A^{-1}$$

where u and v are n -vectors

- Evaluation of formula requires $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ work (for matrix-vector multiplications) rather than $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ work required for inversion

- To solve linear system $(A - uv^T)x = b$ with new matrix, use Sherman-Morrison formula to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}x &= (A - uv^T)^{-1}b \\ &= A^{-1}b + A^{-1}u(1 - v^T A^{-1}u)^{-1}v^T A^{-1}b\end{aligned}$$

which can be implemented by following steps

- Solve $Az = u$ for z , so $z = A^{-1}u$
 - Solve $Ay = b$ for y , so $y = A^{-1}b$
 - Compute $x = y + ((v^T y)/(1 - v^T z))z$
- If A is already factored, procedure requires only triangular solutions and inner products, so only $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ work and no explicit inverses

Rank m update

Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury Formula

$$\left(A + UV^T \right)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}U \left(I + V^T A^{-1}U \right)^{-1} V^T A^{-1}$$

where U and V are $n \times m$ matrices, $n \gg m$.

Exercise:

Use the LU algorithm to solve the equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use rank one updating to solve the equation

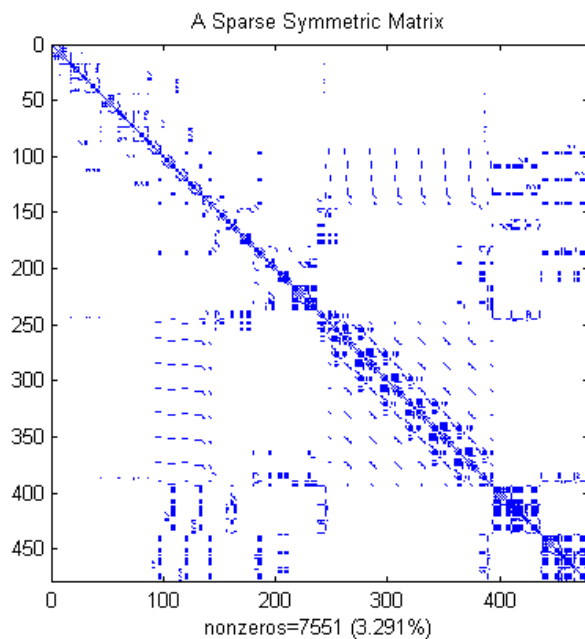
$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Possible fill-in in LU might give high storage cost :
Node reordering algorithm can improve !!! A classical algorithm is the Cuthill Mckee reordering

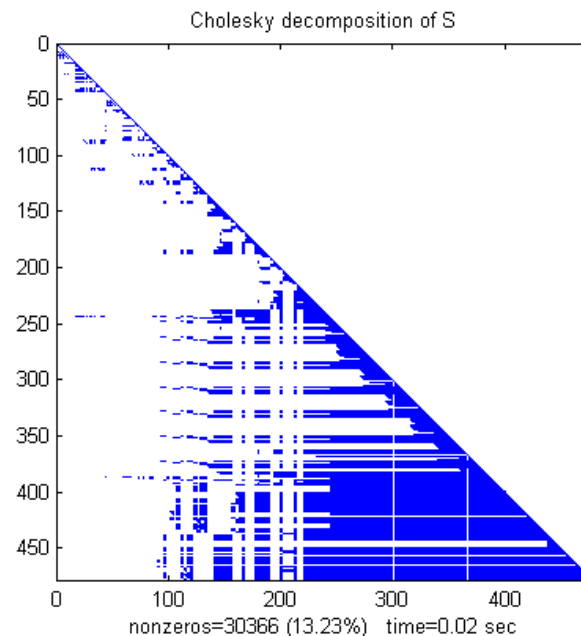
► **Difficulty in Gaussian elimination: Fill-in**

Trivial Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} + & + & + & + & + & + \\ + & + & & & & \\ + & & + & & & \\ + & & & + & & \\ + & & & & + & \\ + & & & & & + \end{pmatrix}$$

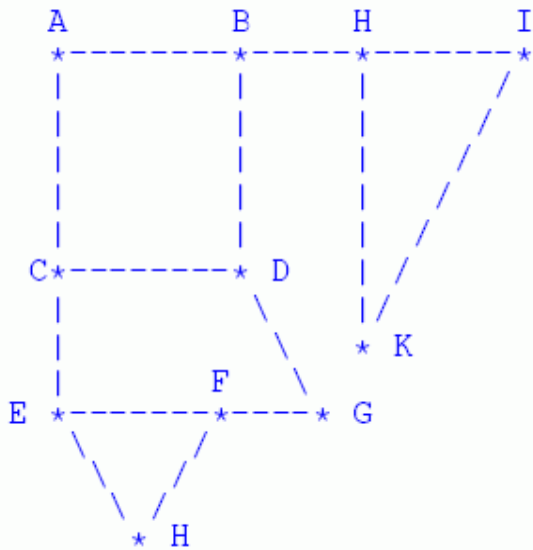


7550 non-zero elements



30366 non-zero elements

Breadth First Search



BFS from node A:

Level 0: A

Level 1: B, C;

Level 2: E, D, H;

Level 3: I, K, E, F, G, H.

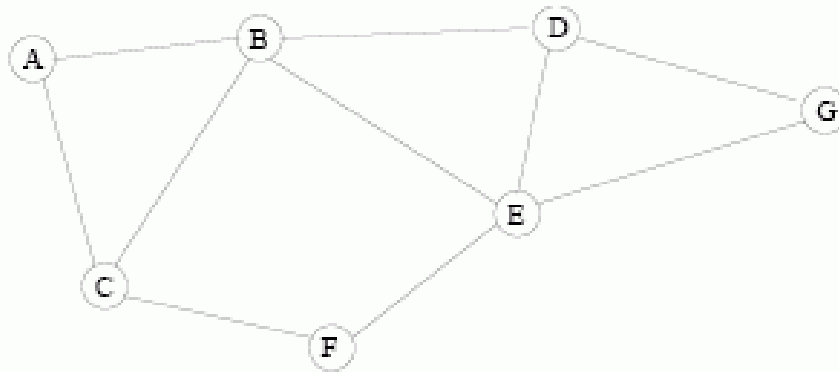
Algorithm $BFS(G, v)$ – by level sets –

- Initialize $S = \{v\}$, $seen = 1$; Mark v ;
- While $seen < n$ Do
 - $S_{new} = \emptyset$;
 - For each node v in S do
 - * For each unmarked w in $adj(v)$ do
 - Add w to S_{new} ;
 - Mark w ;
 - $seen++$;
 - $S := S_{new}$

Cuthill McKee ordering

Algorithm proceeds by levels. Same as BFS except: in each level, nodes are ordered by increasing degree

Example

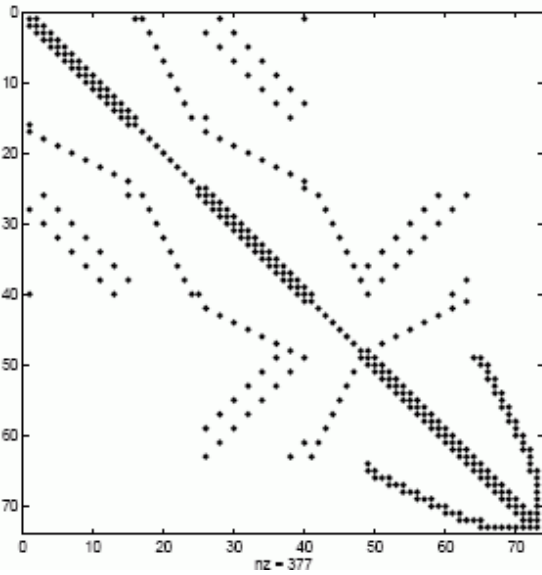


Level	Nodes	Deg.	Order
0	A	2	A
1	B, C	4, 3	C, B
2	D, E, F	3, 4, 2	F, D, E
3	G	2	G

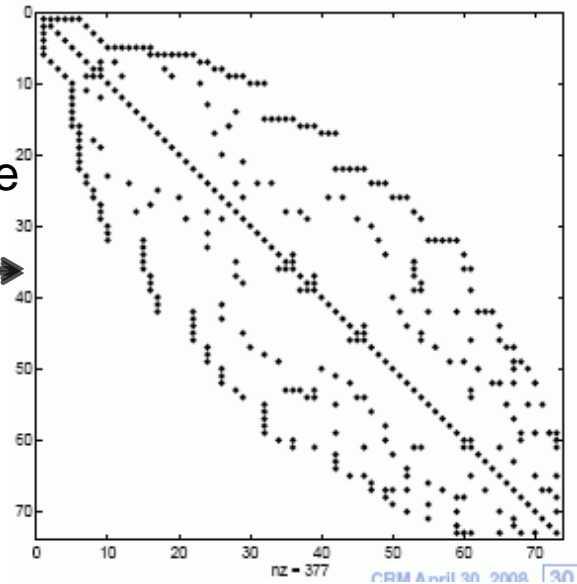
ALGORITHM : 1 ■ *Cuthill Mc Kee ordering*

0. *Find an initial node for the traversal*
1. *Initialize $S = \{v\}$, $seen = 1$, $\pi(seen) = v$; Mark v ;*
2. *While $seen < n$ Do*
3. $S_{new} = \emptyset$;
4. *For each node v , going from lowest to highest degree, Do:*
5. $\pi(++ seen) = v$;
6. *For each unmarked w in $adj(v)$ do*
7. *Add w to S_{new} ;*
8. *Mark w ;*
9. *EndDo*
10. $S := S_{new}$
11. *EndDo*
12. *EndWhile*

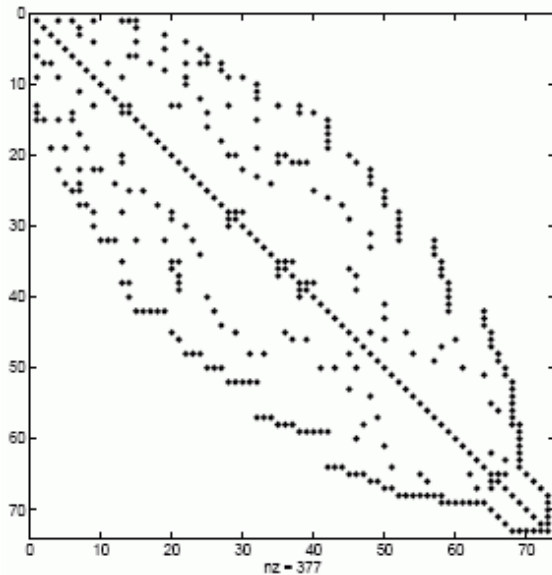
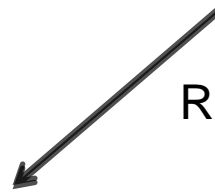
Reverse Cuthill Mckee : reverse the Cuthill-Mckee order

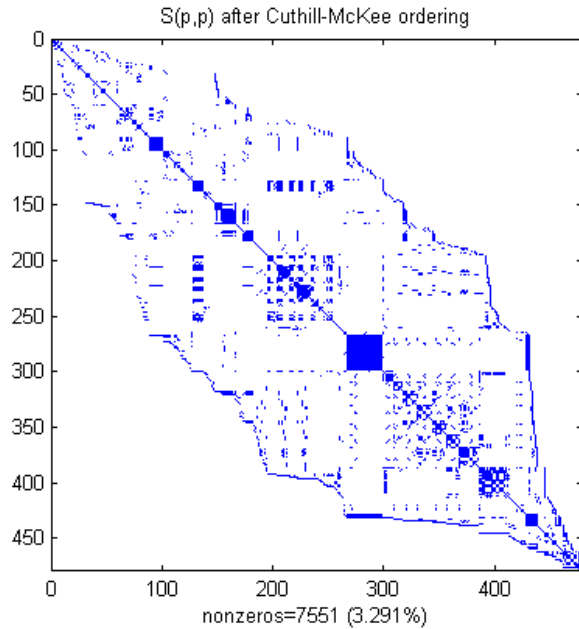


Cuthill-Mckee

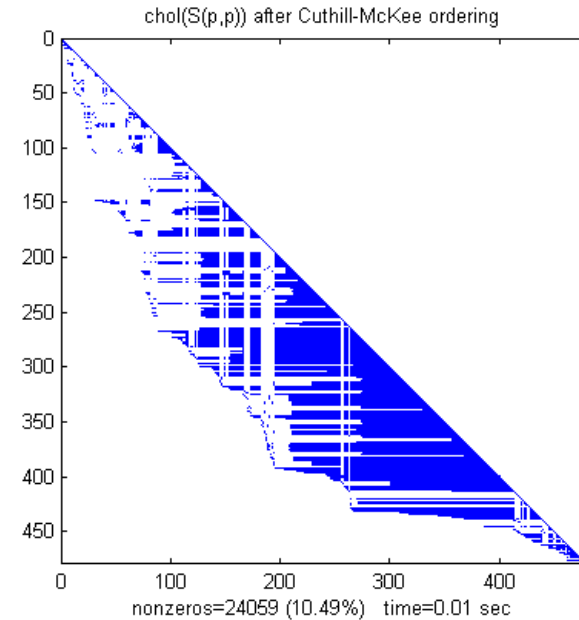


Reverse order





After reverse Cuthill_McKee



24059 nonzero in LU

There are other reordering algorithm available such as column count and minimal degree reordering, etc.

