

Review of numerical linear

algebra material

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To solve linear square system

$$\vec{A} \vec{x} = \vec{b}, \quad A \text{ is } \underline{\text{invertible}}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j = b_i \quad [a_{ij}^{(1)} = a_{ij}]$$

we use Gaussian elimination,

which multiplies each row

by

$$l_{ik}^{(h)} = \frac{a_{ih}^{(h)}}{a_{hh}^{(k)}} \quad \leftarrow \text{step } k \quad i > k$$

eq var

and subtracts from another row

$$a_{ij}^{(k+1)} = a_{ij}^{(k)} - l_{ik}^{(h)} a_{kj}^{(k)} \quad i,j > k$$

(1)

If we put the ℓ 's together
we form a lower triangular
matrix

$$\begin{cases} L_{ik} = \ell_{ik}, & i > k \\ L_{ii} = 1 \end{cases}$$

and what remains of A
is an upper triangular matrix

$$U_{ik} = a_{ik}^{(i)}, \quad i \geq k$$

This gives us the LU factorization
of a square invertible matrix

$$A = \underbrace{L}_{\text{unit lower triangular}} \underbrace{U}_{\substack{\text{upper triangular,} \\ \text{non zeros on} \\ \text{diagonal}}} \quad (2)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{determinant}} |A| = \prod_{i=1}^n U_{ii} \neq 0$$

If we encounter a zero on the diagonal, $a_{kk}^{(h)} = 0$, we do row pivoting (swap order of equations) to find the largest (in magnitude) value below the diagonal element.

$$LU = PA = \begin{matrix} \text{permuted } A \\ (\text{rows swapped}) \end{matrix}$$

Make sure you can perform pivoted LU factorization of a small or a large but simple matrix

(3)

Once we have LU, to
solve $Ax = b$ we do

$$L(Ux) = Ly = b$$

$Ly = b$ solve first using
forward substitution

Then solve

$$Ux = y \text{ using backward substitution}$$

LU factorization costs $O(n^3)$

(with a pre-factor of $O(1)$)
FLOPs — expensive for large n
but cheaper than any other
factorization for a general matrix.

Backward / Forward substitution
costs $O(n^2)$ FLOPS = much
cheaper

(4)

Conditioning number of a matrix

$$K(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$$

(in different norms, 1, 2, ∞)

Uncertainty of r.h.s. $b \leftarrow b + \delta b$
causes uncertainty in the
answer $x \leftarrow x + \delta x$

$$\frac{\|\delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq K(A) \frac{\|\delta b\|}{\|b\|}$$

$$\geq 10^{-16} \cdot K(A)$$

in double precision

We loose $\log_{10}(K)$ digits
of accuracy in x .

However, if we do pivoting,

$$\|Ax - b\| \sim 10^{-16} \|b\| \quad (5)$$

i.e., we find some x that solves $Ax = b$ to roundoff error.

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is not square, what we mean by

$$Ax = b, m > n$$

is least squares solution

$$x = \arg \min_{\tilde{x}} \|A\tilde{x} - b\|_2^2$$

Two ways to solve. First,
normal equations

$$(A^T A)x = A^T b$$

$\underbrace{\text{invertible is } A \text{ is full-rank}}$
 $n \times n$ linear system ⑥

This is simple but squares the conditioning number & is not the best on a computer.

Cost of normal equations is $O(m \cdot n^2) + O(n^3) = O(m \cdot n^2)$ FLOPS
since $m > n$

Better approach is to use QR factorization,

$A = QR$ upper triangular,
nonzeros on diagonal
orthogonal

$$Q^T Q = I$$

To solve for least squares x :

$$Rx = Q^T b \quad (\text{backward substitution})$$

(7)

To compute matrix \tilde{Q} , i.e.,
to find orthonormal basis for
column space of A , we use

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

$$\tilde{q}_1 \sim a_1$$

$$\tilde{q}_{k+1} = a_{k+1} - \text{Proj}\{q_1, \dots, q_k\} a_{k+1}$$

$$= a_{k+1} - \sum_{j=1}^k (a_{k+1} \cdot q_j) q_j$$

and normalize

$$q_{k+1} = \tilde{q}_{k+1} / \|\tilde{q}_{k+1}\|_2$$

We can do this for any
vector space, not just
 $\text{range}(A)$, and any inner product

⑧

We use least squares to fit linear models to data

$$y(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k f_k(x)$$

↑
unknown coefficients

important that unknowns enter linearly =
linear least squares

some linearly independent functions e.g.
 $\{1, x^1, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$

$$y_j = \sum_{k=1}^n (f_k(x_j)) a_k$$

↑
j=1,..,m

$$\vec{y} = \vec{V} \vec{a}$$

$$V_{kj} = f_k(x_j)$$

is "Vandermonde"-like matrix
 $(\underline{\text{not}} \text{ square in general})$ ⑨

Be able to formulate
linear least squares fitting
problems & solve them for
given data

If a square matrix is
diagonalizable (non-defective),
it has an eigenvalue
decomposition

$$A = X \Lambda X^{-1} \Rightarrow$$

$$X^{-1} A X = \Lambda$$

\uparrow \uparrow
Similarity Diagonal
transformation matrix

(10)

$\lambda_{kk} = \lambda_k$ = eigenvalues

$X_{:,k} = x_k$ = eigenvectors
as columns

$A x_k = \lambda_k x_k$ (definition)

If A is unitarily
diagonalizable, as all symmetric
matrices are,

$$A = U \Lambda U^*$$

↑
unitary (orthogonal) matrix

$$U^* U = U U^* = I \Rightarrow$$

$$U^{-1} = U^*$$

↑
columns are orthonormal

(11)

$$\begin{aligned}
 A^{-1} &= (U^*)^{-1} \Lambda^{-1} U^{-1} \\
 &= (U^{-1})^* \Lambda^{-1} U^{-1} \\
 &= (U^*)^* \Lambda^{-1} U^{-1} = U \Lambda^{-1} U^*
 \end{aligned}$$

More generally,

$$f(A) = U f(\Lambda) U^*$$

apply f to
 diagonal elements
 (eigenvalues)

E.g. $\exp(A)$ is used to
 solve linear systems of ODEs

Every matrix has an
SVD decomposition

$$A = U \Sigma V^*$$

$$[m \times n] = [m \times m] [m \times n] [n \times n]$$

or reduced SVD (more practical)

$$[m \times n] = [m \times n] [n \times n] [n \times n]$$

if $m > n$

$$[m \times n] = [m \times m] [m \times n] [m \times n]$$

if $n > m$

U and V are unitary /
orthogonal matrices

$$\Sigma = \text{Diag} \{ \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{\min\{m, n\}} \}$$

(13)

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_p \geq 0$$

$$\phi = \min(m, n)$$

SVD reveals rank of A:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r > 0 \\ \sigma_{r+1}, \sigma_{r+2}, \dots = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

Also allows us to define a
matrix **pseudoinverse** for
any matrix

$$A^+ = V \sum^+ U^*$$

$$\sum^+ = \text{Diag} \left\{ \sigma_1^{-1}, \sigma_2^{-1}, \dots, \sigma_r^{-1}, 0, \dots, 0 \right\}$$

(19)

$$X = A^+ b$$

works for square systems
 (helps with ill-conditioning),
 over determined and even
 under determined systems.

How do we compute eigenvalue decomposition?

Power method gives us the eigenvalue of largest magnitude & its eigenvector:

Choose random q_0

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \tilde{q}_k = A q_{k-1} \\ q_k = \tilde{q}_k / \|\tilde{q}_k\| \approx x_1 \end{array} \right. \quad (15)$$

$$\lambda_k = \underbrace{q_k^*}_\text{complex conjugate} A q_k \approx \lambda_1$$

transpose

Converges iff

$$|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2| \geq |\lambda_3| \geq \dots$$

$$\text{and } q_0 \cdot x_1 \neq 0$$

For finding all eigenvalues
use computer code, not by
hand. (QR algorithm).

To find SVD, do eigenvalue
decomposition of normal matrix

$$\begin{cases} AA^* = U |\Sigma|^2 U^* \\ A^* A = V |\Sigma|^2 V^* \end{cases}$$

(16)

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i(A^*A)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\lambda_i(AA^*)} \geq 0$$

↙
0

Matrix norm induced by
vector norm

$$\|A\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$$

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\|$$

$\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1$ = largest singular value

$$\Rightarrow K_2(A) = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_n} \quad (\text{conditioning number})$$

(17)

