1 Matrix inversion

• Algorithm: Cholesky Algorithm (algo. 1), Levinson-Durbin Algorithm (algo. 2)

• Input: A square matrix A

• Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$

• Data structure compatibility: N/A

• Common applications: Finding inverse, solving linear systems

Problem. Matrix inversion Finding the inverse of a matrix

Description

Two matrices are named inverse to each other if their product is the identity matrix of their size. That is to say

$$AA^{-1} = I_n$$

Finding the inverse of a matrix is very important in linear algebra and real life practices, so a good inversion method is necessary. The most intuitive method must be equation solving, which means building a linear system with regard to vectors and solve it using elimination and substitution. But this can be time-consuming.

However, based on some special features of matrix, the time of calculating the inverse could be reduced.

Cholesky algorithm is a inverse finding algorithm for Hermittian matrices. A $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be Hermittian if it is conjugate symmetric. In another word

$$a_{ij} = \bar{a_{ji}}$$
 for $1 \le i, j \le n$

And if the matrix is a real matrix, being Hermittian is equivalent to being symmetric.

Cholesky algorithm is based on the Cholesky decomposition of a Hermittian. Cholesky decomposition is decomposing a matrix into the product of an upper triangular matrix with its conjugate transpose. In a word, it is like

$$A = R^*R$$

where R is upper triangular.

After decomposing, the original equation can be divided into two equation systems .

$$R^*RA^{-1} = I_n \Rightarrow \begin{cases} R^*y &= I_n \\ RA^{-1} &= y \end{cases}$$

Solving this equation system is simpler since the coefficient matrices are now tiangular matrices and consequently methods like forward/backward substitution can be directly applied. What's more, based on the

Hermittian property the amount of operations can be reduced by nearly half. The decomposition part requires $\frac{n^3}{6}$ operations and the back substitution is a $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ process, so the complexity for Cholesky algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$

Another algorithm is Levinson-Durbin algorithm. This algorithm is designed for a special type of matrices called symmetric Toeplitz matrices. Toeplitz matrices are sugare matrices who have same entries on every diagonals (not only main diagonal), which is to say

$$A_{i,j} = a_{i-j}$$
 for $1 \le i, j \le n$

where $\{a_k\}$ is a constant sequence whose index ranges from -(n-1) to (n-1)

Levinson-Durbin algorithm uses the idea of recursion. Using recursive call, it first finds the inverse of the $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix on the left-top of A(denoted as A_{n-1}), denoted as A_{n-1}^{-1} . Then it adds a row of 0 at the bottom of A_{n-1}^{-1} .

It is clear that if you multiply the result of such operation with A, the result will only have differences with the first (n-1) columns in I_n on the last row.

The next step is to find the backward vector of A, which is a vector b_n such that (here e_n stands for the n_{th} column in the identity matrix I_n)

$$Ab_n = e_n$$

After finding this backward vector, weight it and add it to columns in A_{n-1}^{-1} to eliminate the errors in the last row and the append it to the right of A_{n-1}^{-1} , you will get A^{-1} .

The process of finding b_n is also recursive. And here another term called forward vector needs to be introduced, which is a vector f_n which satisfies

$$Af_n = e_1$$

Because the matrices studied are symmetric Toeplitz matrices, f_n is just the reverse of b_n , which means

$$f_n[i] = b_n[n-i+1] \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n$$

Here is the process of finding b_n . First use recursive call to find b_{n-1} , and generate f_{n-1} by reversing b_{n-1} . Append a 0 at the end of f_{n-1} and the beginning of b_{n-1} , then the product of A and the new two vectors(denoted as f'_n , b'_n) will only have difference with e_1 and e_n on the last/first row respectively.

Denote the deviations as δ_n , δ_1 , it can be seen that using linear combinations of these two vectors can eliminate the deviations and generate b_n

$$b_n = \frac{1}{1 - \delta_1 \delta_n} b'_n - \frac{\delta_1}{1 - \delta_1 \delta_n} f'_n$$

Levinson recursion originally serves to solve linear systems, and in that case it is of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ complexity. Because here the constant terms are vectors, the complexity will be $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$

```
Algorithm 1: Cholesky Algorithm
    Input: A Hermittian square matrix A
    Output: The inverse of A
 1 Function Cholesky(A):
         n \leftarrow size of A;
         R \leftarrow \text{size-n square matrix filled with zeros};
 3
         for i \leftarrow 1 to n do
 4
              for j \leftarrow i to n do
 5
                   for k\leftarrow 1 to i-1 do
 6
                        R[i,j] \leftarrow R[i,j] + R[k,i]^* R[k,j];
 7
                   end for
                   if i \neq j then
 9
                    R[i,j] \leftarrow \frac{A[i,j] - R[i,j]}{R[i,i]} ;
10
                   else
11
                       R[i,j] \leftarrow \sqrt{A[i,j] - R[i,j]};
12
                   end if
13
              end for
14
         end for
15
         X \leftarrow size-n square matrix filled with zeros;
16
         for i \leftarrow n to 1 do
17
              for j \leftarrow i to n do
18
                   X[i,j] \leftarrow \sum_{k=i+1}^{n} R[i,k]X[k,j];
19
                   if i=j then
20
                        X[i,j] \leftarrow \frac{\frac{1}{R[i,j]} - X[i,j]}{R[i,j]};
21
                   else
22
                        X[i,j] \leftarrow \frac{0-X[i,j]}{R[i,j]};
23
                        X[j,i] \leftarrow X[i,j]^*;
24
                   end if
25
              end for
26
         end for
27
         \mathbf{return}\ X
28
29 end
```

30 **return** Cholesky(A)

```
Algorithm 2: Levinson-Durbin Algorithm
   Input: A Symmetric Toeplitz matrix A
    Output: The inverse of A
 1 Function LevinsonDurbin(A):
        n \leftarrow size of A;
        if n=1 then
 3
             return \left[\frac{1}{A[1,1]}\right]
 4
        B \leftarrow LevinsonDurbin(A[1:n-1,1:n-1]);
 5
        Append a row of zeros to the bottom of B;
 6
        Append BackwardVector(A) to the right of B;
        for i \leftarrow 1 to n\text{-}1 do
 8
             d \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^{n} A[n, k]B[k, i];
 9
             for j \leftarrow 1 to n do
10
                B[j, i] \leftarrow B[j, i] - d \times B[j, n];
11
             end for
12
        end for
13
        return B
14
15 end
16 Function BackwardVector(A):
        n \leftarrow size of A;
17
        if n=1 then
18
            return \left[\frac{1}{A[1,1]}\right]
19
        b \leftarrow BackwardVector(A[1:n-1,1:n-1]);
20
        Append a zero at the head of b;
        f \leftarrow b \text{ reversed};
22
        dn \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^{n} A[n, k] f[k];
23
        d1 \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^{n} A[1, k] b[k];
24
        b \leftarrow \frac{1}{1-d1 \times dn} b - \frac{d1}{1-d1 \times dn} f;
25
        return b
26
27 end
28 return LevinsonDurbin(A)
```

References

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