

Matrix Inversion

Group 23

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Definition

The **inverse** of a $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} , denoted as \mathbf{A}^{-1} , is a matrix that satisfies the expression

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_n$$

Where \mathbf{I}_n is a $n \times n$ matrix with 1 on its diagonal and 0 otherwise.

Naive Matrix Inversion Method

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The naive method to solve matrix inversion is to treat the expression $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n$ as a linear equation system whose unknowns are $1 \times n$ vectors (rows of \mathbf{A}^{-1})

Solving this equation is of $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$ complexity (Gaussian Elimination)

Two Matrix Inversion Algorithms

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- Cholesky Decomposition
 - Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$
 - Application: Positive Definite Hermitian matrices
- Levinson-Durbin Recursion
 - Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$
 - Application: Symmetric Toeplitz matrices

Cholesky Decomposition

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A positive definite symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} can be represented as product of two transpose triangular matrix as the following

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U}$$

where \mathbf{U} is an $n \times n$ upper triangular matrix.

Note: The implementation of finding \mathbf{U} for a certain \mathbf{A} can be in-place, so that no extra space is needed.

Based on the Cholesky decomposition, the equation can be transformed as

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{I}_n \\ \mathbf{U} \mathbf{A}^{-1} &= \mathbf{B} \end{cases}$$

and solving these two equations is simple because back/forward substitution can be directly applied.

What's more, the symmetric property of \mathbf{A} will also cause a reduction in the calculation.

Levinson-Durbin Recursion

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The first step of Levinson Durbin is to partition the matrix into blocks

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{(n-1) \times (n-1)} & \mathbf{C}_{(n-1) \times 1} \\ \mathbf{D}_{1 \times (n-1)} & \mathbf{E}_{1 \times 1} \end{bmatrix}$$

The algorithm will first find an inversion of \mathbf{B} , denoted as \mathbf{B}^{-1} using recursive call and also find a **backward vector** of \mathbf{A} , denoted as \mathbf{u} which satisfies

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Append a row of zeros to the bottom of \mathbf{B}^{-1} , and it can be seen that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{(n-1) \times (n-1)} & \mathbf{C}_{(n-1) \times 1} \\ \mathbf{D}_{1 \times (n-1)} & \mathbf{E}_{1 \times 1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}_{(n-1) \times (n-1)}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0}_{1 \times (n-1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{(n-1)} \\ \text{error}_{1 \times (n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then what should we do is add scaled \mathbf{u} on the columns of the new matrix to eliminate the errors. At last append \mathbf{u} to the right, then \mathbf{A}^{-1} is calculated.

Python specifics included to improve coding efficiency

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The basic object used is **numpy.mat** to store the matrices.
There are several reasons

- It is more convenient for storing and generating test matrices using numpy commands
- Many loops and case statement in the implementation can be substituted by matrices operations (row operation, matrix partition, matrix multiplication, etc.), and numpy.mat has adequate implementations of these operations.

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