Chapter 8: Factorizations and Sensitivity

1. Apply Gaussian elimination to obtain triangular system:

2. Back substitution

$$x_n = b_n/a_{nn}$$

 $x_{n-1} = (b_{n-1} - a_{n-1,n} \cdot x_n)/a_{n-1,n-1}$ ca. $\frac{1}{2}n^2$ LOps
 \vdots

LU factorization

Another formulation of Gaussian elimination with pivoting:

$$PA = LU$$
,

where

- P is a permutation matrix,
- *U* is an upper triangular after Gaussian eliminationen, and
- L is a unit lower triangular including elimination coefficients:

$$\ell_{ik} = f_{ik}, \quad k < i \quad \text{and} \quad \ell_{kk} = 1.$$

When we have LU factorization of \mathbf{A} , the solution of the linear system $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ equals $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{U}^{-1} \mathbf{L}^{-1} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{b}$, and it only costs n^2 LOps to obtain \mathbf{x} .

If the matrix **A** is symmetric, then we have

$$\boldsymbol{L} \, \boldsymbol{U} = \boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{A}^T = (\boldsymbol{L} \, \boldsymbol{U})^T = \boldsymbol{U}^T \, \boldsymbol{L}^T.$$

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Since *L* is unit lower triangular, it's invertible, then

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{L}^{-1} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{L}^T$$

If the matrix **A** is symmetric, then we have

$$LU = A = A^T = (LU)^T = U^T L^T.$$

Since L is unit lower triangular, it's invertible, then

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{L}^{-1} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{L}^T \implies \mathbf{U} (\mathbf{L}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{L}^{-1} \mathbf{U}^T.$$

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Since the left-hand side is upper triangular and the right-hand side is lower triangular, both sides have to be diagonal, say, D. Then, we have

$$U(L^T)^{-1} = D$$

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$$\mathbf{U}(\mathbf{L}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{D} \implies \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{D} \mathbf{L}^T \implies \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{L}^T.$$

Cholesky factorization (page 369-370)

The Matrix A is symmetric and positive definite (SPD) when

$$\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$$
 and $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$.

An important example: normal equation in data-fitting.

Due to symmetry, we have $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{L}^T$. Further, \mathbf{A} is SPD, so \mathbf{D} has a positive diagonal. Then, we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}^T} \mathbf{L}^T = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^T$$
, $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{L} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}$

This is called as Cholesky factorization.

NB: In Cholesky factorization *L* is lower triangular with a positive diagonal, which is different as *L* in LU factorization!

We can derive the elements in \boldsymbol{L} by comparing the elements in $\boldsymbol{L} \boldsymbol{L}^T$ and \boldsymbol{A} . For example, in a 2 \times 2 matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \ell_{11} & 0 \\ \ell_{21} & \ell_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \ell_{11} & \ell_{21} \\ 0 & \ell_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \ell_{11}^2 & \ell_{11}\ell_{21} \\ \ell_{11}\ell_{21} & \ell_{21}^2 + \ell_{22}^2 \end{bmatrix} \implies$$

$$\ell_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}}, \qquad \ell_{21} = a_{21}/\ell_{11}, \qquad \ell_{22} = \sqrt{a_{22} - \ell_{21}^2} .$$

Python-code for Cholesky factorization

This code is a bit different from the one in page 370:

```
for k in range(n):
    A[k, k] = np.sqrt(A[k, k])
    A[k+1:n, k] = A[k+1:n, k] / A[k, k]
    for j in range(k+1, n):
        A[j:n, j] = A[j:n, j] - A[j, k]*A[j:n, k]
L = np.tril(A) # lower triangle of A
```

Pivoting is not necessary in Cholesky factorization!

The algorithm overwrites the current element in \boldsymbol{A} , which is saved in \boldsymbol{L} in the end.

Only the lower triangular part of \boldsymbol{A} is needed – so in the end we only need save a part of the matrix.

Operation count $\approx 1/6n^3$, i.e. only half as in LU factorization.

Cholesky factorization in Python with np.linalg.cholesky

Solve linear systems with Cholesky factorization

$$A x = b \Rightarrow LL^{T} x = b$$

$$\Rightarrow L^{T} x = L^{-1} b$$

$$\Rightarrow x = (L^{T})^{-1} (L^{-1} b)$$

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$$\Rightarrow x = (L^{T})^{-1}(L^{-1}b)$$

In Python, there are two ways to implement this procedure:

```
>>> tmp = scipy.linalg.solve_triangular(L,b,lower=True)
>>> x = scipy.linalg.solve_triangular(L.T, tmp, lower=False)
```

OR

Sensitivity analysis for f(x) = 0 (Motivation)

How much does the root change, when the function f is perturbed?

Relevant to: when f is described by noisy data – in this case, is the root affected by the data error?

Sensitivity analysis/error assessment:

How sensitive is the root to the perturbation of the function *f*?

Error assessment of a simple root

When ξ is close to x^* we can always assume that $0 < M \le |f'(\xi)|$.

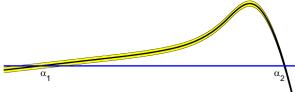
We want to calculate the root x^* of f, but we only have a *perturbed* function \tilde{f} and can calculate its root \tilde{x}^* . Assume that when ξ is close to x^* we have

$$|\widetilde{f}(\xi) - f(\xi)| \leq \delta$$
,

where δ is an upper bound for the absolute error of the function values. So we can obtain the upper bound for the absolute error:

$$|\tilde{x}^* - x^*| \le \delta/M.$$

Smaller M (lower bound of the slope) is, more sensitive the root is to the error in \tilde{f} :



Sensitivity analysis for $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

The rest of the lecture is about, how the solution x of Ax = b is affected by the perturbation in the data, i.e. the error in the right-hand side.

How much does x change, when the right-hand side b is perturbed?

Example: the right-hand side $ilde{m{b}}$ includes measurement error

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{b}} = \boldsymbol{b} + \text{error} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.3 \\ 2.4 \\ 3.5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.2 \\ 2.5 \\ 3.3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 \\ -0.1 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

How can we measure the difference between $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\tilde{\mathbf{b}}$.

Content:

- Vector and matrix norm.
- 2 Sensitivity analysis and condition number.

Review: absolute and relative error (page 5–6)

Absolute error

When we say the error in a is ± 0.01 , we mean

$$-0.01 \le a - \bar{a} \le 0.01$$
, $\bar{a} = \text{exact value}$.

Relative error

If we say a has a relative error 0.01 (or 1%), we mean

$$\frac{|a-\bar{a}|}{|\bar{a}|} \leq 0.01 .$$

But what can we say when we talk about the error in the vectors x and b?

Vector norm (page 405)

For a vector, we define vector norm:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$$
.

It is in fact an Euclidean distance in 2 and 3 dimensions.

Example:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \approx 3.74 \quad \text{Python: np.linalg.norm}(\mathbf{x}).$$

We can show that: $\max_i |x_i| \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 \le \sqrt{n} \max_i |x_i|$.

- If $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2$ is large, \mathbf{x} has at least one large element (because $\max_i |x_i| \ge \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 / \sqrt{n}$).
- If $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2$ is small, \mathbf{x} only has small elements (because $\max_i |x_i| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_2$).

An application of norm: error in vectors

Assume that \tilde{x} is an approximation of x. With the difference

$$\delta \mathbf{x} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}$$

it is not practical to be used for measuring the error, since we need observe all elements in the vector $\delta \mathbf{x}$.

By using the vector norm, we can define the absolute error

$$\|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_2 = \|\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}\|_2$$

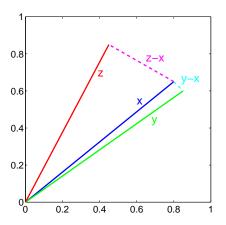
and the relative error

$$\frac{\|\delta \pmb{x}\|_2}{\|\pmb{x}\|_2} = \frac{\|\pmb{\tilde{x}} - \pmb{x}\|_2}{\|\pmb{x}\|_2}.$$

If the norm $\|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_2$ is small, then all elements in $\delta \mathbf{x} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}$ are small, then we can say that $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is close to \mathbf{x} . \rightarrow In the end of the lecture, we will show how to *estimate* these errors without known \mathbf{x} .

Example to use vector norm

Which vector is close to x? y or z?



Relative error: $\| \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \|_2 / \| \mathbf{x} \|_2 = 0.07$ and $\| \mathbf{z} - \mathbf{x} \|_2 / \| \mathbf{x} \|_2 = 0.20$.

Matrix norm (page 406)

We can also define the 2-norm for a matrix to measure its "magnitude":

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} = \sup\{\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_{2} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \ \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} = 1\}$$

$$= (\text{the largest eigenvalue of } \mathbf{A}^{T}\mathbf{A})^{1/2} = \text{np.linalg.norm}(\mathbf{A})$$
 (2)

Example:

$$m{A} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & -0.01 & 0 \ 0.02 & -5 & 3 \ -4 & 1 & -0.01 \end{bmatrix}, \quad m{B} = egin{bmatrix} 0.01 & -0.02 & 0 \ 0.03 & -0.01 & 0.05 \ -0.04 & 0 & 0.03 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\|m{A}\|_2 = 5.95, \quad \|m{B}\|_2 = 0.060.$

If the norm of $\|\boldsymbol{B}\|_2$ is small, then we can conclude that there are only small elements in \boldsymbol{B} .

Continue: vector and matrix norm (page 405-406)

Some important properties of vector and matrix norm:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 &= 0 &\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = 0 \;, & \|\mathbf{A}\|_2 &= 0 &\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A} = 0 \\ \|\alpha \mathbf{x}\|_2 &= |\alpha| \, \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \;, & \|\alpha \mathbf{A}\|_2 &= |\alpha| \, \|\mathbf{A}\|_2 \\ \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|_2 &\leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|_2 \;, & \|\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\|_2 &\leq \|\mathbf{A}\|_2 + \|\mathbf{B}\|_2 \;. \end{aligned}$$

Very important properties:

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} , \qquad \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} \|\mathbf{B}\|_{2} .$$

Any properties with "-"?

$$\|\mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})\|_2 \le \|\mathbf{y}\|_2 + \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2 \Longrightarrow \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 - \|\mathbf{y}\|_2 \le \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2$$

Python example with perturbation in the right-hand side

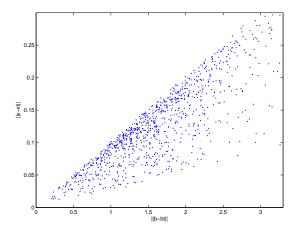
```
True solution x, perturbation solution xt, and x-xt:
    5.5090e+00 5.4010e+00
                                        1.0810e-01
    3.2564e+00 3.3586e+00 1.0214e-01
    1.6696e+00 1.6794e+00 9.8571e-03
llb-btll 2:
    1.5684e+00
||x-xt||_2:
    1.4905e-01
Is there any relation between \|\boldsymbol{b} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{b}}\|_2 and \|\boldsymbol{x} - \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}\|_2?
Let's test on 1000 different perturbation on \boldsymbol{b} \to \text{next slide}.
```

Python example with perturbation in the right-hand side

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
E = np.empty(1000)
D = np.empty(1000)
for i in range(1000):
    e = np.random.randn(3) # vector with 3 samples from N(0,1)
    E[i] = np.linalg.norm(e)
    d = np.linalg.solve(A, b) - np.linalg.solve(A, b+e)
    D[i] = norm(d)
end
```

Python example with perturbation in the right-hand side

```
plt.figure()
plt.plot(E, D, linewidth=0, marker='.')
plt.show()
```



Analysis of a perturbation in the right-hand side (page 407)

Let x denote the solution of Ax = b.

Now we perturb the right-hand side with a vector $\delta {\pmb b}$ and obtain $\tilde {\pmb b} = {\pmb b} + \delta {\pmb b}$, and compute

$$\mathbf{A}\,\tilde{\mathbf{x}}=\tilde{\mathbf{b}}\quad\Rightarrow\quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{A}^{-1}\tilde{\mathbf{b}}.$$

We want to measure the error $\delta \mathbf{x} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}$ in the solution, i.e. find the relation between $\|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_2$ and the perturbation $\|\delta \mathbf{b}\|_2$. We can easily get

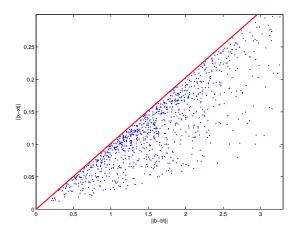
$$\mathbf{A}\,\delta\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\,\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{A}\,\mathbf{x} = \tilde{\mathbf{b}} - \mathbf{b} = \delta\mathbf{b} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \delta\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\delta\mathbf{b}.$$

Now based on the properties of vector and matrix norm, we obtain

$$\|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\delta \mathbf{b}\|_2 \le \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|_2 \|\delta \mathbf{b}\|_2.$$

This is an upper bound (a "worst-case") for the absolute error.

t = np.array([0, np.max(E)])
upp_bound = np.linalg.norm(np.linalg.inv(A))*t
plt.plot(t, upp_bound, color='red', linewidth=2)
||A^{-1}||_2 = 0.1054.



Relative error – condition number (page 406–407)

Now we want to measure the *relative* error $\|\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}\|_2 / \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_2 / \|\mathbf{x}\|_2$.

From the original linear system $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, we have

$$\|\boldsymbol{b}\|_2 = \|\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}\|_2 \le \|\boldsymbol{A}\|_2 \|\boldsymbol{x}\|_2 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad \frac{1}{\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_2} \le \frac{\|\boldsymbol{A}\|_2}{\|\boldsymbol{b}\|_2}.$$

Then combining with the former result on absolute error, we get

$$\frac{\|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_{2}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}} \|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_{2} \le \frac{\|\mathbf{A}\|_{2}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|_{2}} \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|_{2} \|\delta \mathbf{b}\|_{2} = \kappa(\mathbf{A}) \frac{\|\delta \mathbf{b}\|_{2}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|_{2}}.$$

We define the condition number:

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = \|\mathbf{A}\|_2 \|\mathbf{A}^{-1}\|_2 = \text{np.linalg.cond}(A)$$
.

Larger the condition number is, larger the relative error can be.

Example with a small perturbation on the right-hand side

$$m{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.582 \\ 0.294 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \tilde{m{b}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.583 \\ 0.293 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \frac{\|\delta m{b}\|_2}{\|m{b}\|_2} = \frac{\|\tilde{m{b}} - m{b}\|_2}{\|m{b}\|_2} = 0.00218$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.333 & 0.250 \\ 0.200 & 0.100 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \kappa(\mathbf{A}) = 13.3$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.916 \\ 1.108 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.895 \\ 1.140 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \frac{\|\delta \mathbf{x}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2} = \frac{\|\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2} = 0.0266.$$

The upper bound of the relative error:

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) \frac{\|\delta \mathbf{b}\|_2}{\|\mathbf{b}\|_2} = 13.3 \cdot 0.00218 = 0.0289.$$

The upper bound ("worst-case") of the relative error usually is only a little bit larger.

Summary

Simple LU factorization.

 ${m A} = {m L} \, {m U}$ where ${m L}$ is a unit lower triangular (with 1 on the diagonal) and ${m U}$ is an upper triangular. It is direct from Gaussian elimination.

• LU factorization with pivoting.

PA = LU where P is a permutation matrix, which is from pivoting in Gaussian elimination.

Use LU factorization.

Cholesky factorization.

For a symmetric positive definite matrix, we have $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^T$ and pivoting is not necessary.

Properties of vector and matrix norm.

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}, \quad \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\|_{2} \leq \|\mathbf{A}\|_{2} \|\mathbf{B}\|_{2}$$

• Upper bound of the relative error for the solution.

$$\frac{\|\delta \boldsymbol{x}\|_2}{\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_2} \leq \kappa(\boldsymbol{A}) \, \frac{\|\delta \boldsymbol{b}\|_2}{\|\boldsymbol{b}\|_2}, \qquad \kappa(\boldsymbol{A}) = \|\boldsymbol{A}\|_2 \, \|\boldsymbol{A}^{-1}\|_2 = \text{np.linalg.cond}(\boldsymbol{A})$$

How about the residual? (not in the book)

We have an approximated solution $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ and calculate the residual:

$$r = b - A\tilde{x}$$
.

But can we use it to check if \tilde{x} is a good approximation of the true solution?

Theorem. The relative error of \tilde{x} is upper bounded by

$$\frac{\|\tilde{\pmb{x}} - \pmb{x}\|_2}{\|\pmb{x}\|_2} \le \kappa(\pmb{A}) \, \frac{\|\pmb{r}\|_2}{\|\pmb{b}\|_2}.$$

If the condition number $\kappa(\mathbf{A})$ is large, we can still have a large error on $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ even with small residual \mathbf{r} !









Reminders

Final evaluation is open until Nov. 29.

Next week will be 4-hour exercises in databars.

Homework assignment for Block 4 should be handed in before Dec. 5 10pm.

Dec. 6: mock exam from 8am to 11am, then the evaluation will start at 11:15am at B208 A054.

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Thank you for attending the course!