

## Lec 15: Square Linear Systems – Analysis

Efficiency

# Notation: Big-O and Asymptotic

Let  $f, g$  be positive functions defined on  $\mathbb{N}$ .

- $f(n) = O(g(n))$  (" $f$  is big-O of  $g$ ") as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  if

$$\frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \leq C, \quad \text{for all sufficiently large } n.$$

- $f(n) \sim g(n)$  (" $f$  is asymptotic to  $g$ ") as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 1.$$

# Timing Vector/Matrix Operations – FLOPS

- One way to measure the “efficiency” of a numerical algorithm is to count the number of floating-point arithmetic operations (FLOPS) necessary for its execution.
- The number is usually represented by  $\sim cn^p$  where  $c$  and  $p$  are given explicitly.
- We are interested in this formula when  $n$  is large.

# FLOPS for Major Operations

## Vector/Matrix Operations

Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then

- (vector-vector)  $x^T y$  requires  $\sim 2n$  flops.
- (matrix-vector)  $Ax$  requires  $\sim 2n^2$  flops.
- (matrix-matrix)  $AB$  requires  $\sim 2n^3$  flops.

# Cost of PLU Factorization

Note that we only need to count the number of *flops* required to zero out elements below the diagonal of each column.

- For each  $i > j$ , we replace  $R_i$  by  $R_i + cR_j$  where  $c = -a_{i,j}/a_{j,j}$ . This requires approximately  $2(n - j + 1)$  *flops*:
  - 1 division to form  $c$
  - $n - j + 1$  multiplications to form  $cR_j$
  - $n - j + 1$  additions to form  $R_i + cR_j$
- Since  $i \in \mathbb{N}[j + 1, n]$ , the total number of *flops* needed to zero out all elements below the diagonal in the  $j$ th column is approximately  $2(n - j + 1)(n - j)$ .
- Summing up over  $j \in \mathbb{N}[1, n - 1]$ , we need about  $(2/3)n^3$  *flops*:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} 2(n - j + 1)(n - j) \sim 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (n - j)^2 = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} j^2 \sim \frac{2}{3}n^3$$

# Cost of Forward Elimination and Backward Substitution

## Forward Elimination

- The calculation of  $y_i = \beta_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \ell_{ij}y_j$  for  $i > 1$  requires approximately  $2i$  flops:
  - 1 subtraction
  - $i - 1$  multiplications
  - $i - 2$  additions
- Summing over all  $i \in \mathbb{N}[2, n]$ , we need about  $n^2$  flops:

$$\sum_{i=2}^n 2i \sim 2\frac{n^2}{2} = n^2.$$

## Backward Substitution

- The cost of backward substitution is also approximately  $n^2$  flops, which can be shown in the same manner.

# Cost of G.E. with Partial Pivoting

Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting involves three steps:

- PLU factorization:  $\sim (2/3)n^3$  flops
- Forward elimination:  $\sim n^2$  flops
- Backward substitution:  $\sim n^2$  flops

## Summary

The total cost of Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is approximately

$$\frac{2}{3}n^3 + n^2 + n^2 \sim \frac{2}{3}n^3$$

flops for large  $n$ .



# Application: Solving Multiple Square Systems Simultaneously

To solve two systems  $Ax_1 = b_1$  and  $Ax_2 = b_2$ .

## Method 1.

- Use G.E. for both.
- It takes  $\sim (4/3)n^3$  flops.

```
%% method 1
x1 = A \ b1;
x2 = A \ b2;
```

## Method 2.

- Do it in two steps:
  - 1 Do PLU factorization  $PA = LU$ .
  - 2 Then solve  $LUx_1 = Pb_1$  and  $LUx_2 = Pb_2$ .
- It takes  $\sim (2/3)n^3$  flops.

```
%% method 2
[L, U, P] = lu(A);
x1 = U \ (L \ (P*b1));
x2 = U \ (L \ (P*b2));
```

```
%% compact implementation
X = A \ [b1, b2];
x1 = X(:, 1);
x2 = X(:, 2);
```

## Vector and Matrix Norms

# Vector Norms

The “length” of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  can be measured by its **norm**.

## Definition 1 ( $p$ -Norm of a Vector)

Let  $p \in [1, \infty)$ . The  $p$ -norm of  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{v}\|_p$  and is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m |v_i|^p \right)^{1/p}.$$

When  $p = \infty$ ,

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} |v_i|.$$

The most commonly used  $p$  values are 1, 2, and  $\infty$ :

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m |v_i|, \quad \|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m |v_i|^2}.$$

# Vector Norms

In general, any function  $\|\cdot\| : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$  is called a **vector norm** if it satisfies the following three properties:

- 1  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = 0$ .
- 2  $\|\alpha\mathbf{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{x}\|$  for any constant  $\alpha$  and any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .
- 3  $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$  for any  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . This is called the *triangle inequality*.

# Unit Vectors

- A vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is called a **unit vector** if  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ .
- Depending on the norm used, unit vectors will be different.
- For instance:

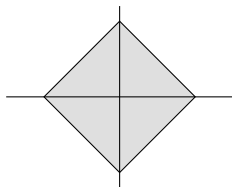


Figure 1: 1-norm

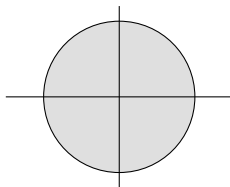


Figure 2: 2-norm

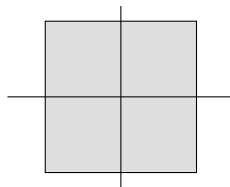


Figure 3:  $\infty$ -norm

# Matrix Norms

The “size” of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  can be measured by its **norm** as well. As above, we say that a function  $\|\cdot\| : \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$  is a **matrix norm** if it satisfies the following three properties:

- 1  $\|A\| = 0$  if and only if  $A = 0$ .
- 2  $\|\alpha A\| = |\alpha| \|A\|$  for any constant  $\alpha$  and any  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ .
- 3  $\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$  for any  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . This is called the *triangle inequality*.

## Matrix Norms (Cont')

- If, in addition to satisfying the three conditions, it satisfies

$$\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\| \quad \text{for all } A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \text{ and all } B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p},$$

it is said to be **consistent**.

- If, in addition to satisfying the three conditions, it satisfies

$$\|A\mathbf{x}\| \leq \|A\| \|\mathbf{x}\| \quad \text{for all } A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \text{ and all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

then we say that it is **compatible** with a vector norm.

# Induced Matrix Norms

## Definition 2 ( $p$ -Norm of a Matrix)

Let  $p \in [1, \infty]$ . The  $p$ -norm of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is given by

$$\|A\|_p = \max_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{\|A\mathbf{x}\|_p}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_p} = \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_p=1} \|A\mathbf{x}\|_p .$$

- The definition of this particular matrix norm is **induced** from the vector  $p$ -norm.
- By construction, matrix  $p$ -norm is a compatible norm.
- Induced norms describe how the matrix stretches unit vectors with respect to the vector norm.



# Induced Matrix Norms

The commonly used  $p$ -norms (for  $p = 1, 2, \infty$ ) can also be calculated by

$$\|A\|_1 = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}|,$$

$$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)} = \sigma_{\max}(A),$$

$$\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|.$$

In words,

- The 1-norm of  $A$  is the maximum of the 1-norms of all column vectors.
- The 2-norm of  $A$  is the square root of the largest eigenvalue of  $A^T A$ .
- The  $\infty$ -norm of  $A$  is the maximum of the 1-norms of all row vectors.

# Non-Induced Matrix Norm – Frobenius Norm

## Definition 3 (Frobenius Norm of a Matrix)

The Frobenius norm of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is given by

$$\|A\|_F = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

- This is not induced from a vector  $p$ -norm.
- However, both  $p$ -norm and the Frobenius norm are consistent and compatible.
- For compatibility of the Frobenius norm, the vector norm must be the 2-norm, that is,  $\|A\mathbf{x}\|_2 \leq \|A\|_F \|\mathbf{x}\|_2$ .

# Norms in MATLAB

- Vector  $p$ -norms can be easily computed:

```
norm(v, 1)      % = sum(abs(v))  
norm(v, 2)      % = sqrt(v'*v)   if v is a column  
norm(v, 'inf')  % = max(abs(v))
```

- The same function `norm` is used to calculate matrix  $p$ -norms:

```
norm(A, 1)      % = max(sum(abs(A), 1))  
norm(A, 2)      % = max(sqrt(eig(A'*A)))  
norm(A, Inf)    % = max(sum(abs(A), 2))
```

- To calculate the Frobenius norm:

```
norm(A, 'fro')  % = sqrt(A(:)'*A(:))  
               % = norm(A(:), 2)
```