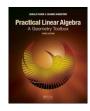
Practical Linear Algebra: A GEOMETRY TOOLBOX Third edition

Chapter 13: Alternative System Solvers

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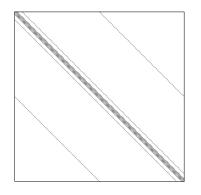


Outline

- 1 Introduction to Alternative System Solvers
- The Householder Method
- Vector Norms
- Matrix Norms
- **5** The Condition Number
- **6** Vector Sequences
- Iterative System Solvers: Gauss-Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel
- WYSK

Introduction to Alternative System Solvers

A sparse matrix: few nonzero entries (marked)



Gauss elimination methods work well for

- Moderately-sized linear systems (up to a few thousand equations)
- Systems absent of numerical problems

Ill-conditioned problems:

- More efficiently attacked using the Householder method Huge systems (≤ 1 million equations)
- More successfully solved with iterative methods

Problem: solve the linear system $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$ $n \times n$ matrix A comprised of n column vectors – each with n elements

$$[\mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_n]\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$$

Gauss elimination: apply shears G_i to achieve upper triangular form

$$G_{n-1}\ldots G_1A\mathbf{u}=G_{n-1}\ldots G_1\mathbf{b}$$

Solve for \mathbf{u} with back substitution Each G_i transforms i^{th} column vector $G_{i-1} \ldots G_1 \mathbf{a}_i$ to a vector with zeroes below the diagonal element $a_{i,i}$

Gauss elimination is not the most robust method

More numerically stable method: replace shears with *reflections*This is the Householder method

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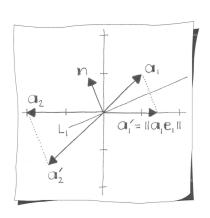
The Householder method:

Series of reflections H_i applied

$$H_{n-1}\ldots H_1A\mathbf{u}=H_{n-1}\ldots H_1\mathbf{b}$$

Each H_i transforms column vector $H_{i-1} ... H_1 \mathbf{a}_i$ to a vector with zeroes below the diagonal element

H_i called a Householder transformation



Example: 2×2 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

First transformation: H_1A Reflect \mathbf{a}_1 onto the \mathbf{e}_1 axis to the vector $\mathbf{a}_1' = ||\mathbf{a}_1||\mathbf{e}_1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Reflect about the line L_1 Construct a normal \mathbf{n}_1 to this line:

$$\mathbf{n}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{a}_1 - ||\mathbf{a}_1|| |\mathbf{e}_1||}{||\mathbf{a}_1 - ||\mathbf{a}_1|| |\mathbf{e}_1||}$$

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Implicit equation of the line L_1

$$\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} = 0$$

 $\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{a}_1$ is distance of the point $\mathbf{o} + \mathbf{a}_1$ to L_1 Reflection equivalent to moving twice $\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{a}_1$ in normal direction:

$$\mathbf{a}_1' = \mathbf{a}_1 - \left[2\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{a}_1 \right]\mathbf{n}_1 \qquad \left(2\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{a}_1 \ \text{ is a scalar} \right)$$

Reflection in matrix form:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}_1' &= \mathbf{a}_1 - 2\mathbf{n}_1 \left[\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{a}_1 \right] \\ &= \left(\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{n}_1 \mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \right) \mathbf{a}_1 \qquad \left(2\mathbf{n}_1 \mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}} \ \text{is a dyadic matrix} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Householder transformation:

$$H_1 = I - 2\mathbf{n}_1\mathbf{n}_1^{\mathrm{T}}$$

(Precisely the reflection constructed in Chapter 11), where (21)

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\mathbf{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad ||\mathbf{a}_1|| \mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Construct Householder matrix H_1 :

$$\textbf{n}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.382 \\ 0.923 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_1 = I - 2 \begin{bmatrix} 0.146 & -0.353 \\ -0.353 & 0.853 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.707 & 0.707 \\ 0.707 & -0.707 \end{bmatrix}$$

Transformed matrix is formed from the column vectors

$$H_1\mathbf{a}_1 = egin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $H_1\mathbf{a}_2 = egin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ -\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$

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 2×2 example illustrates underlying geometry of a reflection matrix General Householder transformation H_i construction more complicated

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ 0 & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{4,3} & a_{4,4} \end{bmatrix}$$

Construct H_3 to zero the element $a_{4,3}$ and preserve upper triangular structure

Let
$$\bar{\mathbf{a}}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ a_{3,3} \\ a_{4,3} \end{bmatrix}$$
 $H_3 \bar{\mathbf{a}}_3 = \gamma \mathbf{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \gamma \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ where $\gamma = \pm \|\bar{\mathbf{a}}_3\|$

- H_3 **a**₃ will only modify elements $a_{3,3}$ and $a_{4,3}$
- Length of a₃ preserved

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Develop idea for $n \times n$ matrices: Start with

$$ar{\mathbf{a}}_i = egin{bmatrix} 0 \ dots \ a_{i,i} \ dots \ a_{n,i} \end{bmatrix}$$

Want Householder matrix H_i for transformation

$$H_iar{\mathbf{a}}_i=\gamma\mathbf{e}_i=egin{bmatrix}0\ dots\ \gamma\ \end{bmatrix}$$
 where $\gamma=\pm\|ar{\mathbf{a}}_i\|$ $dots\ 0\end{bmatrix}$

Like the 2×2 example

$$H_i = I - 2\mathbf{n}_i\mathbf{n}_i^{\mathrm{T}}$$
 where $\mathbf{n}_i = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{a}}_i - \gamma\mathbf{e}_i}{\|\cdot\|}$ and $\gamma = \pm \|\bar{\mathbf{a}}_i\|$

- $\pm \|\bar{\mathbf{a}}_i\|$ used to combat numerical problems:
- If $\bar{\mathbf{a}}_i$ nearly parallel to \mathbf{e}_i then loss of *significant digits* will occur from subtraction of nearly equal numbers
- Better to reflect onto direction of \mathbf{e}_{i} -axis representing largest reflection

Householder matrix

$$H_i = I - 2\mathbf{n}_i\mathbf{n}_i^{\mathrm{T}}$$

Built from symmetric and idempotent matrix $N_i = \mathbf{n}_i \mathbf{n}_i^{\mathrm{T}}$

Properties of H_i :

- symmetric: $H_i = H_i^{\mathrm{T}}$ since N_i is symmetric
- involutary: $H_i H_i = I \implies H_i = H_i^{-1}$
- ullet unitary (orthogonal): $H_i^{
 m T} H_i = I \quad \Rightarrow \|H_i {f v}\| = \|{f v}\|$

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Implementation of Householder transformations:

- Householder matrix not explicitly constructed
- Numerically and computationally more efficient algorithm implemented using knowledge of how H_i acts on column vectors

Variables to aid optimization:

$$\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{\bar{a}}_i - \gamma \mathbf{e}_i$$
 where $\gamma = \begin{cases} -\text{sign } a_{i,i} \| \mathbf{\bar{a}}_i \| & \text{if } a_{i,i} \neq 0 \\ -\| \mathbf{\bar{a}}_i \| & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Leads to modification of **n**

$$2\mathbf{n}\mathbf{n}^{\mathrm{T}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^{\mathrm{T}}}{\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{v}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^{\mathrm{T}}}{\alpha}$$
 $\alpha = \gamma^{2} - a_{i,i}\gamma$

When H_i applied to column vector **c**

$$H_i \mathbf{c} = (I - \frac{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^{\mathrm{T}}}{\alpha})\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{c} - s\mathbf{v}$$

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In the Householder algorithm As we work on the $j^{
m th}$ column vector

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}_k = \begin{bmatrix} a_{j,k} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n,k} \end{bmatrix}$$

only elements j, \ldots, n of the k^{th} column vector \mathbf{a}_k $(k \ge j)$ are involved in a calculation

 \Rightarrow application of H_j results in changes in the sub-block of A with $a_{j,j}$ at the upper-left corner

Vector \mathbf{a}_j and $H_j\mathbf{a}_j$ coincide in the first j-1 components

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Algorithm:

Input:

 $n \times m$ matrix A, where $n \ge m$ and rank of A is m n vector \mathbf{b} , augmented to A as the $(m+1)^{st}$ column

Output:

Upper triangular matrix HA written over A $H\mathbf{b}$ written over \mathbf{b} in the augmented $(m+1)^{st}$ column of A $(H = H_{n-1} \dots H_1)$

Algorithm continued:

If
$$n=m$$
 then $p=n-1$; Else $p=m$ (p is last column to transform) For $j=1,2,\ldots,p$ $a=\hat{\mathbf{a}}_j\cdot\hat{\mathbf{a}}_j$ $\gamma=-\mathrm{sign}(a_{j,j})\sqrt{a}$ $\alpha=a-a_{j,j}\gamma$ Temporarily set $a_{j,j}=a_{j,j}-\gamma$ For $k=j+1,\ldots,m+1$ $s=\frac{1}{\alpha}(\hat{\mathbf{a}}_j\cdot\hat{\mathbf{a}}_k)$ $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_k=\hat{\mathbf{a}}_k-s\hat{\mathbf{a}}_j$ Set $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_j=\begin{bmatrix}\gamma&0&\ldots&0\end{bmatrix}^\mathrm{T}$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$j=1: \quad \gamma=-\sqrt{2} \quad \alpha=2+\sqrt{2} \quad \text{(temporarily set)} \ \hat{\mathbf{a}}_1= \begin{bmatrix} 1+\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k = 2$$
: $s = \sqrt{2}/(2 + \sqrt{2})$ $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

k = 3 : s = 0 and $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_3$ remains unchanged

$$k=4$$
: $s=-\sqrt{2}/2$ $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_4=\begin{bmatrix}\sqrt{2}/2\\\sqrt{2}/2\\0\end{bmatrix}$

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Set $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_1$ and reflection H_1 results in

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2}/2 \\ \sqrt{2}/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Not explicitly computed

$$\mathbf{n}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \sqrt{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} / \| \cdot \| \qquad H_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2}/2 & -\sqrt{2}/2 & 0 \\ -\sqrt{2}/2 & \sqrt{2}/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note:

- a₃ was not affected
 - It is in the plane about reflecting
 - Result of the involutary property of the Householder matrix
- Length of each column vector not changed
 - Result of the orthogonal property

Matrix is upper triangular

⇒ Use back substitution to find the solution vector

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Householder's algorithm is method of choice for ill-conditioned systems

Example: least squares solution for some data sets

— Forming $A^{\mathrm{T}}A$ is the problem (more on this later)

Revisit linear least squares approximation to time/temperature data problem: find line $x_2 = ax_1 + b$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 10 & 1 \\ 20 & 1 \\ 30 & 1 \\ 40 & 1 \\ 50 & 1 \\ 60 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 25 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 30 \\ 5 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix}$$

First Householder reflection (j = 1) linear system becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} -95.39 & -2.20 \\ 0 & 0.66 \\ 0 & 0.33 \\ 0 & -0.0068 \\ 0 & -0.34 \\ 0 & -0.68 \\ 0 & -1.01 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -54.51 \\ 16.14 \\ 22.28 \\ 13.45 \\ -5.44 \\ -39.29 \\ -28.15 \end{bmatrix}$$

Second Householder reflection (j = 2) linear system becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} -95.39 & -2.20 \\ 0 & -1.47 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -54.51 \\ -51.10 \\ 11.91 \\ 13.64 \\ 5.36 \\ -17.91 \\ 3.81 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solve system with back substitution — starting with first non-zero row

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.23 \\ 34.82 \end{bmatrix}$$

Excluding numerical round-off — same solution found using normal equations

Vector norm measures magnitude or length of a vector

Fundamental to many geometric operations in 3D

Fundamental in *n*-dimensions – even if vectors have no geometric meaning

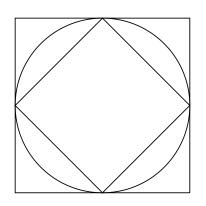
— Example: iterative methods for solving linear systems (later in chapter) Vector length key for monitoring improvements in the solution

"Usual" way to measure length:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \ldots + v_n^2}$$

- Non-negative scalar
- Referred to as the Euclidean norm because in \mathbb{R}^3 it is Euclidean length
- Subscript 2 is often omitted

Outline of the *unit vectors* 2-norm \Rightarrow circle, ∞ -norm \Rightarrow square, 1-norm \Rightarrow diamond



1-norm (Manhattan or taxicab norm)

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_1 = |v_1| + |v_2| + \ldots + |v_n|$$

 ∞ -norm (max norm)

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i} |v_{i}|$$

Family of norms — p-norms

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_p = (v_1^p + v_2^p + \ldots + v_n^p)^{1/p}$$

Example:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_1 = 3 \qquad \|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{5} \approx 2.24 \qquad \|\mathbf{v}\|_\infty = 2$$

Relationship between norms:

$$\|\textbf{v}\|_1 \geq \|\textbf{v}\|_2 \geq \|\textbf{v}\|_\infty$$

Example application:

Given: 100K point pairs and a 2-norm tolerance t

Find: point pairs closer than t

- 2-norm takes more CPU clock cycles than other norms
- Max norm allows for trivial reject of some point pairs If $\|\cdot\|_{\infty} \ge t$ then $\|\cdot\|_2 \ge t \Rightarrow$ reject point pair

Basic properties:

1.
$$\|\mathbf{v}\| \ge 0$$

2.
$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0$$
 if and only if $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

3.
$$\|c\mathbf{v}\| = |c|\|\mathbf{v}\|$$
 for $c \in \mathbb{R}$

4. $\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}\| \le \|\mathbf{v}\| + \|\mathbf{w}\|$ triangle inequality

Show: vector norm properties hold for the ∞ -norm

Properties 1 and 2:

For each \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n by definition $\max_i |v_i| \ge 0$ $\max_i |v_i| = 0$ iff $v_i = 0$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n \Rightarrow \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

Property 3:

$$\|c\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i} |cv_{i}| = |c| \max_{i} |v_{i}| = |c| \|\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty}$$

Property 4 (triangle inequality):

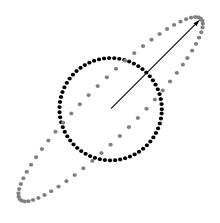
$$\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i} |v_i + w_i|$$

$$\leq \max_{i} \{|v_i| + |w_i|\}$$

$$\leq \max_{i} |v_i| + \max_{i} |w_i|$$

$$= \|\mathbf{v}\|_{\infty} + \|\mathbf{w}\|_{\infty}$$

Magnitude of a matrix?



Insight from a 2×2 matrix:

— Maps unit circle to action ellipse

Consider $A^{T}A$

— symmetric and positive definite

 \Rightarrow real and positive eigenvalues λ'_i Singular values of A:

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i'}$$

 σ_1 : length of semi-major axis σ_2 : length of semi-minor axis

If A symmetric and positive definite $\Rightarrow \sigma_i = \lambda_i$

How much does A distort the unit circle?

Measured by its 2-norm $||A||_2$

If we find the largest $||A\mathbf{v}_i||_2$ then have an indication of how much A distorts

With k unit vectors \mathbf{v}_i compute

$$||A||_2 \approx \max_i ||A\mathbf{v}_i||_2$$

Increase k: \Rightarrow better and better approximation to $||A||_2$

$$\|A\|_2 = \max_{\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = 1} \|A\mathbf{v}\|_2$$

Matrix norms not restricted to 2×2 matrices For $n \times n$

$$||A||_2 = \sigma_1$$
 (A's largest singular value)

Inverse matrix A^{-1} "undoes" the action of A Let singular values of A^{-1} be called $\hat{\sigma}_i$

$$\hat{\sigma}_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_n}, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_n = \frac{1}{\sigma_1}$$

$$\|A^{-1}\|_2 = \frac{1}{\sigma_n}$$

Singular values typically computed using a method called Singular Value Decomposition or SVD

— Focus of Chapter 16

Analogous to vector norms — there are several matrix norms

 $||A||_1$: maximum absolute column sum

 $||A||_{\infty}$: maximum absolute row sum

Careful: notation for matrix and vector norms identical

Frobenius norm: gives the total distortion caused by A

$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \ldots + \sigma_n^2}$$

Euclidean norm:

$$||A||_E = \sqrt{a_{1,1}^2 + a_{1,2}^2 + \ldots + a_{n,n}^2}$$

Not obvious: $||A||_F = ||A||_E$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 6 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Singular values: 10.5, 7.97, 0.334

$$\begin{split} \|A\|_2 &= \max\{10.5, 7.97, 0.334\} = 10.5 \\ \|A\|_1 &= \max\{9, 12, 15\} = 15 \\ \|A\|_{\infty} &= \max\{6, 12, 18\} = 18 \\ \|A\|_F &= \sqrt{1^2 + 3^2 + \dots (-7)^2} = \sqrt{10.5^2 + 7.97^2 + 0.334} = 13.2 \end{split}$$

Matrix norms are real-valued functions of the linear space defined over all $n \times n$ matrices

Matrix norms satisfy conditions very similar to the vector norm conditions

$$||A|| > 0 \text{ for } A \neq Z$$

 $||A|| = 0 \text{ for } A = Z$
 $||cA|| = |c|||A| \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$
 $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$
 $||AB|| \le ||A|| ||B||$

Z being the zero matrix

How to choose a matrix norm? Computational expense and properties of the norm are the deciders Example: the Frobenius and 2-norms are invariant with respect to orthogonal transformations

The Condition Number

How sensitive is the solution to $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$ is to changes in A and \mathbf{b} ?

Action ellipse/ellipsoid describes geometry of map

- Semi-major length $= \sigma_1$ (singular value of A) Semi-minor axis length $= \sigma_n$
- 2 × 2: if σ_1 very large and σ_2 very small \Rightarrow elongated ellipse

Condition number

$$\kappa(A) = ||A||_2 ||A^{-1}||_2 = \sigma_1/\sigma_n$$

Figure: symmetric, positive definite
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.05 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Condition Number

- ${\mathcal A}^{\mathrm T}{\mathcal A}$ is symmetric and positive definite $\Rightarrow \kappa({\mathcal A}) \geq 1$
- Well-conditioned matrix: $\kappa(A)$ close to one No distortion: $\kappa(A) = 1$ Example: the identity matrix
- Ill-conditioned matrix: $\kappa(A)$ "large"

Example: Rotation matrix — no distortion

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{\mathrm{T}}A = I \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \kappa(A) = 1$$

Example: Non-uniform scaling — severely distorting

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 100 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_1=100$$
 and $\sigma_2=0.01$ \Rightarrow $\kappa(A)=100/0.01=10,000$

The Condition Number

Back to solving $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$

Avoid creating a poorly designed linear system with ill-conditioned A

- Definition of large $\kappa(A)$ subjective and problem-specific
 - Guideline: $\kappa(A) \approx 10^k$ can result in a loss of k digits of accuracy
- If $\kappa(A)$ large then solution cannot be depended upon (irrespective of round-off)

Ill-conditioned matrix

 \Rightarrow solution is numerically very sensitive to small changes in A or \mathbf{b}

Well-conditioned matrix

 \Rightarrow can confidently calculate the inverse

The Condition Number

Condition number is a better measure of singularity than the determinant — Scale and size n invariant measure: $\kappa(sA) = \kappa(A)$

Example: Let n = 100

Form the identity matrix I and J = 0.1I

$$\det I = 1$$
 $\kappa(I) = 1$ $\det J = 10^{-100}$ $\kappa(J) = 1$

 $\det J \text{ small} \Rightarrow \text{problem with this matrix}$ But scale of J poses no problem in solving a linear system

The Condition Number

Overdetermined linear systems $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$

Least squares approximation:

- Solved the system $A^{\mathrm{T}}A\mathbf{u} = A^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b}$
- Condition number $\kappa(A^{\mathrm{T}}A) = \kappa(A)^2$
- If A has a high condition number \Rightarrow ill-posed problem
- The Householder method is preferred

Vector Sequences

Sequences of real numbers:

$$1,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{4},\frac{1}{8},\dots \qquad \text{limit } 0 \\ 1,2,4,8,\dots \qquad \text{no limit}$$

Limit: A sequence of real numbers a_i has a limit a if beyond some index i all a_i differ from the limit by an arbitrarily small ϵ

Vector sequences in \mathbb{R}^n : $\mathbf{v}^{(0)}, \mathbf{v}^{(1)}, \mathbf{v}^{(2)}, \dots$

A vector sequence has a limit if each component has a limit

Example: vector sequences

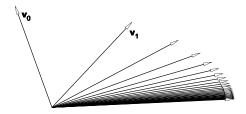
$$\mathbf{v}^{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/i \\ 1/i^2 \\ 1/i^3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{limit } \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v}^{(i)} = egin{bmatrix} i \ 1/i^2 \ 1/i^3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 no limit

Vector Sequences

Vector sequence *converges* to ${\bf v}$ with respect to a norm if for any tolerance $\epsilon>0$ there exists an integer m such that

$$\|\mathbf{v}^{(i)} - \mathbf{v}\| < \epsilon$$
 for all $i > m$



Vector Sequences

If sequence converges with respect to one norm it will converge with respect to all norms

In practical applications: limit vector ${\bf v}$ not known

For some problems: know limit exists but do not know it a priori

⇒ Modify the theoretical convergence measure to distance between iterations:

$$\|\mathbf{v}^{(i)} - \mathbf{v}^{(i+1)}\| < \epsilon$$

- Some applications generate linear systems with many thousands of equations
- Example: Finite Element Methods (FEM) and fluid flow problems
- Gauss elimination too slow
- Typically huge linear systems have a *sparse* coefficient matrix
- Only a few nonzero entries per row
- Example: $100,000 \times 100,000$ system $\Rightarrow 10,000,000,000$ matrix elements and 1,000,000 nonzero entries
- Solution to large sparse systems typically obtained by *iterative methods*



An iterative method starts from a *guess* for the solution. Then refines it until it *is* the solution

Gauss-Jacobi iteration:

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
Guess:
$$\mathbf{u}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^{(1)} \\ u_2^{(1)} \\ u_2^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A\mathbf{u}^{(1)} \neq \mathbf{b}$$

Better guess: use $u_i^{(1)}$ and solve i^{th} equation for a new $u_i^{(2)}$

$$4u_1^{(2)} + 1 = 1$$

$$2 + 5u_2^{(2)} + 1 = 0$$

$$-1 + 2 + 4u_3^{(2)} = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{u}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -0.6 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Next iteration:

$$4u_1^{(3)} - 0.6 = 1$$

$$5u_2^{(3)} + 0.5 = 0$$

$$-1.2 + 4u_2^{(3)} = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{u}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4 \\ -0.1 \\ 1.05 \end{bmatrix}$$

After a few more iterations — close enough to the true solution

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.333 \\ -0.333 \\ 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gauss-Jacobi iteration for $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$ with n equations and n unknowns

D: diagonal matrix with A's diagonal elements

R: A with all diagonal elements set to zero

$$A = D + R \quad \Rightarrow \quad D\mathbf{u} + R\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$$
$$\mathbf{u} = D^{-1}[\mathbf{b} - R\mathbf{u}]$$
$$\mathbf{u}^{(k+1)} = D^{-1}\left[\mathbf{b} - R\mathbf{u}^{(k)}\right]$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{u}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -0.6 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Will the Gauss-Jacobi method succeed?

 \Rightarrow Will sequence of vectors $\mathbf{u}^{(k)}$ converge?

Answer: sometimes yes and sometimes no

It will always succeed if A is diagonally dominant

- for every row:
 - $|\mathsf{diagonal}|$ element $|>\sum |\mathsf{remaining}|$ elements|
- Result of many practical problems e.g., FEM

How to determine if convergence is taking place? Length of the residual vector

$$||A\mathbf{u}^{(k)} - \mathbf{b}|| < \text{tolerance}$$

Gauss-Seidel iteration

Modification of Gauss-Jacobi

- In computation of $\mathbf{u}^{(k+1)}$: $u_2^{(k+1)}$ computed using $u_1^{(k)}, u_3^{(k)}, \dots, u_n^{(k)}$
- Instead: could use newly computed $u_1^{(k+1)}$
 - ⇒ Idea of Gauss-Seidel iteration

Summary:

Gauss-Jacobi updates the new guess vector once all elements computed Gauss-Seidel updates as soon as a new element is computed

Typically Gauss-Seidel converges faster than Gauss-Jacobi

WYSK

- reflection matrix
- Householder method
- overdetermined system
- symmetric matrix
- involutary matrix
- orthogonal matrix
- unitary matrix
- vector norm
- vector norm properties
- Euclidean norm
- L^2 norm

- Manhattan norm
- matrix norm
- matrix norm properties
- Frobenius norm
- action ellipse axes
- singular values
- condition number
- well-conditioned matrix
- ill-conditioned matrix

- vector sequence
- convergence
- iterative method
- sparse matrix
- Gauss-Jacobi method
- Gauss-Seidel method
- residual vector