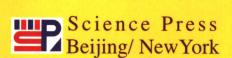
Numerical Linear Algebra and Its Applications

(数值线性代数及其应用)



Xiao-qing Jin and Yi-min Wei

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To Our Families

Preface

Numerical linear algebra, also called matrix computation, has been a center of scientific and engineering computing since 1946, the first modern computer was born. Most of problems in science and engineering finally become problems in matrix computation. Therefore, it is important for us to study numerical linear algebra. This book gives an elementary introduction to matrix computation and it also includes some new results obtained in recent years. In the beginning of this book, we first give an outline of numerical linear algebra in Chapter 1.

In Chapter 2, we introduce Gaussian elimination, a basic direct method, for solving general linear systems. Usually, Gaussian elimination is used for solving a dense linear system with median size and no special structure. The operation cost of Gaussian elimination is $O(n^3)$ where n is the size of the system. The pivoting technique is also studied.

In Chapter 3, in order to discuss effects of perturbation and error on numerical solutions, we introduce vector and matrix norms and study their properties. The error analysis on floating point operations and on partial pivoting technique is also given.

In Chapter 4, linear least squares problems are studied. We will concentrate on the problem of finding the least squares solution of an overdetermined linear system Ax = b where A has more rows than columns. Some orthogonal transformations and the QR decomposition are used to design efficient algorithms for solving least squares problems.

We study classical iterative methods for the solution of Ax = b in Chapter 5. Iterative methods are quite different from direct methods such as Gaussian elimination. Direct methods based on an LU factorization of the matrix A are prohibitive in terms of computing time and computer storage if A is quite large. Usually, in most large problems, the matrices are sparse. The sparsity may be lost during the LU factorization procedure and then at the end of LU factorization, the storage becomes a crucial issue. For such kind of problem, we can use a class of methods called iterative methods. We only consider some classical iterative methods in this chapter.

In Chapter 6, we introduce another class of iterative methods called Krylov

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subspace methods proposed recently. We will only study two versions among those Krylov subspace methods: the conjugate gradient (CG) method and the generalized minimum residual (GMRES) method. The CG method proposed in 1952 is one of the best known iterative method for solving symmetric positive definite linear systems. The GMRES method was proposed in 1986 for solving nonsymmetric linear systems. The preconditioning technique is also studied.

Eigenvalue problems are particularly interesting in scientific computing. In Chapter 7, nonsymmetric eigenvalue problems are studied. We introduce some well-known methods such as the power method, the inverse power method and the QR method.

The symmetric eigenvalue problem with its nice properties and rich mathematical theory is one of the most interesting topics in numerical linear algebra. In Chapter 8, we will study this topic. The symmetric QR iteration method, the Jacobi method, the bisection method and a divide-and-conquer technique will be discussed in this chapter.

In Chapter 9, we will briefly survey some of the latest developments in using boundary value methods for solving systems of ordinary differential equations with initial values. These methods require the solutions of one or more nonsymmetric, large and sparse linear systems. Therefore, we will use the GMRES method in Chapter 6 with some preconditioners for solving these linear systems. One of the main results is that if an A_{ν_1,ν_2} -stable boundary value method is used for an m-by-m system of ODEs, then the preconditioned matrix can be decomposed as I + L where I is the identity matrix and the rank of L is at most $2m(\nu_1 + \nu_2)$. It follows that when the GMRES method is applied to the preconditioned system, the method will converge in at most $2m(\nu_1 + \nu_2) + 1$ iterations. Applications to different delay differential equations are also given.

"If any other mathematical topic is as fundamental to the mathematical sciences as calculus and differential equations, it is numerical linear algebra." - L. Trefethen and D. Bau III

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Numerical linear algebra (NLA) is also called matrix computation. It is a center of scientific and engineering computing since the first modern computer came to this world around 1946. Most of problems in science and engineering are finally transferred into problems in NLA. Thus, it is very important for us to study NLA. This book gives an elementary introduction to NLA and it also includes some new results obtained in recent years.

1.1 Basic symbols

We will use the following symbols throughout this book.

- Let \mathbb{R} denote the set of real numbers, \mathbb{C} denote the set of complex numbers and $\mathbf{i} \equiv \sqrt{-1}$.
- Let \mathbb{R}^n denote the set of real *n*-vectors and \mathbb{C}^n denote the set of complex *n*-vectors. Vectors will almost always be column vectors.
- Let $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ denote the linear vector space of m-by-n real matrices and $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ denote the linear vector space of m-by-n complex matrices.
- We will use the upper case letters such as A, B, C, Δ and Λ , etc, to denote matrices and use the lower case letters such as x, y, z, etc, to denote vectors.
- The symbol a_{ij} will denote the ij-th entry in a matrix A.
- The symbol A^{T} will denote the transpose of the matrix A and A^{*} will denote the conjugate transpose of the matrix A.
- Let $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (or \mathbb{C}^n). We will use span $\{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ to denote the linear vector space of all the linear combinations of a_1, \dots, a_m .
- Let rank(A) denote the rank of the matrix A.
- Let $\dim(S)$ denote the dimension of the vector space S.

• We will use det(A) to denote the determinant of matrix A and use $diag(a_{11}, \dots, a_{nn})$ to denote the n-by-n diagonal matrix:

$$\operatorname{diag}(a_{11}, \cdots, a_{nn}) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

- For matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$, the symbol |A| will denote the matrix with entries $(|A|)_{ij} = |a_{ij}|$.
- The symbol I will denote the identity matrix, i.e.,

$$I = \left[egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \ 0 & 1 & \ddots & dots \ dots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{array}
ight],$$

and e_i will denote the *i*-th unit vector, i.e., the *i*-th column vector of I.

- We will use $\|\cdot\|$ to denote a norm of matrix or vector. The symbols $\|\cdot\|_1$, $\|\cdot\|_2$ and $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ will denote the *p*-norm with $p=1,2,\infty$, respectively.
- As in MATLAB, in algorithms, A(i,j) will denote the (i,j)-th entry of matrix A; A(i,:) and A(:,j) will denote the i-th row and the j-th column of A, respectively; $A(i_1:i_2,k)$ will express the column vector constructed by using entries from the i_1 -th entry to the i_2 -th entry in the k-th column of A; $A(k,j_1:j_2)$ will express the row vector constructed by using entries from the j_1 -th entry to the j_2 -th entry in the k-th row of A; A(k:l,p:q) will denote the (l-k+1)-by-(q-p+1) submatrix constructed by using the rows from the k-th row to the l-th row and the columns from the p-th column to the q-th column.

1.2 Basic problems in NLA

NLA includes the following three main important problems which will be studied in this book:

(1) Find the solution of linear systems

$$Ax = b$$

where A is an n-by-n nonsingular matrix and b is an n-vector.

(2) Linear least squares problems: For any m-by-n matrix A and an m-vector b, find an n-vector x such that

$$||Ax - b||_2 = \min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} ||Ay - b||_2.$$

(3) Eigenvalues problems: For any n-by-n matrix A, find a part (or all) of its eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors. We remark here that a complex number λ is called an eigenvalue of A if there exists a nonzero vector $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that

$$Ax = \lambda x$$
.

where x is called the eigenvector of A associated with λ .

Besides these main problems, there are many other fundamental problems in NLA, for instances, total least squares problems, matrix equations, generalized inverses, inverse problems of eigenvalues, and singular value problems, etc.

1.3 Why shall we study numerical methods?

To answer this question, let us consider the following linear system,

$$Ax = b$$

where A is an n-by-n nonsingular matrix and $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$. If we use the well-known Cramer rule, then we have the following solution:

$$x_1 = \frac{\det(A_1)}{\det(A)}, \quad x_2 = \frac{\det(A_2)}{\det(A)}, \cdots, \quad x_n = \frac{\det(A_n)}{\det(A)},$$

where A_i , for $i=1,2,\dots,n$, are matrices with the *i*-th column replaced by the vector *b*. Then we should compute n+1 determinants $\det(A_i)$, $i=1,2,\dots,n$, and $\det(A)$. There are

$$[n!(n-1)](n+1) = (n-1)(n+1)!$$

multiplications. When n=25, by using a computer with 10 billion operations/sec., we need

$$\frac{24 \times 26!}{10^{10} \times 3600 \times 24 \times 365} \approx 3.06$$
 billion years.

If one uses Gaussian elimination, it requires

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (i-1)(i+1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 - n = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1) - n = O(n^3)$$

multiplications. Then less than 1 second, we could solve 25-by-25 linear systems by using the same computer. From above discussions, we note that for solving the same problem by using different numerical methods, the results are much different. Therefore, it is essential for us to study the properties of numerical methods.

1.4 Matrix factorizations (decompositions)

For any linear system Ax = b, if we can factorize (decompose) A as A = LU where L is a lower triangular matrix and U is an upper triangular matrix, then we have

$$\begin{cases}
Ly = b, \\
Ux = y.
\end{cases}$$
(1.1)

By substituting, we can easily solve (1.1) and then Ax = b. Therefore, matrix factorizations (decompositions) are very important tools in NLA. The following theorem is basic and important in linear algebra, see [16].

Theorem 1.1 (Jordan Decomposition Theorem) If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, then there exists a nonsingular matrix $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$X^{-1}AX = J \equiv \operatorname{diag}(J_1, J_2, \cdots, J_p),$$

or $A = XJX^{-1}$, where J is called the Jordan canonical form of A and

$$J_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{i} & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_{i} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{n_{i} \times n_{i}},$$

for $i=1,2,\dots,p$, are called Jordan blocks with $n_1+\dots+n_p=n$. The Jordan canonical form of A is unique up to the permutation of diagonal Jordan blocks. If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with only real eigenvalues, then the matrix X can be taken to be real.

1.5 Perturbation and error analysis

The solutions provided by numerical algorithms are seldom absolutely correct. Usually, there are two kinds of errors. First, errors appear in input data caused by prior computations or measurements. Second, there may be errors caused by algorithms themselves because of approximations made within algorithms. Thus, we need to carry out a perturbation and error analysis.

(1) Perturbation.

For a given x, we want to compute the value of function f(x). Suppose there is a perturbation δx of x and $|\delta x|/|x|$ is very small. We want to find a positive number c(x) as small as possible such that

$$\frac{|f(x+\delta x)-f(x)|}{|f(x)|} \le c(x)\frac{|\delta x|}{|x|}.$$

Then c(x) is called the condition number of f(x) at x. If c(x) is large, we say that the function f is ill-conditioned at x; if c(x) is small, we say that the function f is well-conditioned at x.

Remark: A computational problem being ill-conditioned or not has no relation with numerical methods that we used.

(2) Error.

By using some numerical methods, we calculate the value of a function f at a point x and we obtain \hat{y} . Because of the rounding error (or chopping error), usually

$$\hat{y} \neq f(x)$$
.

If there exists δx such that

$$\hat{y} = f(x + \delta x), \qquad |\delta x| \le \epsilon |x|,$$

where ϵ is a positive constant having a closed relation with numerical methods and computers used, then we say that the method is stable if ϵ is small; the method is unstable if ϵ is large.

Remark: A numerical method being stable or not has no relation with computational problems that we faced.

With the perturbation and error analysis, we obtain

$$\frac{|\hat{y}-f(x)|}{|f(x)|} = \frac{|f(x+\delta x)-f(x)|}{|f(x)|} \le c(x)\frac{|\delta x|}{|x|} \le \epsilon c(x).$$

Therefore, whether a numerical result is accurate depends on both the stability of the numerical method and the condition number of the computational problem.

┥

1.6 Operation cost and convergence rate

Usually, numerical algorithms are divided into two classes:

(i) direct methods;(ii) iterative methods.

By using direct methods, one can obtain an accurate solution of computational problems within finite steps in exact arithmetic. By using iterative methods, one can only obtain an approximation solution of computational problems within finite steps.

The operation cost is an important measurement of algorithms. The operation cost of an algorithm is the total operations of "+, -, \times , \div " used in the algorithm. We remark that the speed of algorithms is only partially depending on the operation cost. In modern computers, the speed of operations is much faster than that of data transfer. Therefore, sometimes, the speed of an algorithm is mainly depending on the total amount of data transfers.

For direct methods, usually, we use the operation cost as a main measurement of the speed of algorithms. For iterative methods, we need to consider

- (i) operation cost in each iteration;(ii) convergence rate of the method.
- For a sequence $\{x_k\}$ provided by an iterative algorithm, if $\{x_k\} \longrightarrow x$, the exact solution, and if $\{x_k\}$ satisfies

$$||x_k - x|| \le c||x_{k-1} - x||, \quad k = 1, 2, \cdots,$$

where 0 < c < 1, then we say that the convergence rate is linear. If it satisfies

$$||x_k - x|| \le c||x_{k-1} - x||^p, \quad k = 1, 2, \cdots,$$

where 0 < c < 1 and p > 1, then we say that the convergence rate is superlinear.

Exercises:

1. Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times l}$. Prove that

$$rank(AB) \ge rank(A) + rank(B) - m$$
.

2. Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{array} \right],$$

where A_{ij} , for i, j = 1, 2, are square matrices and satisfy $A_{11}A_{21} = A_{21}A_{11}$. Then

$$\det(A) = \det(A_{11}A_{22} - A_{21}A_{12}).$$

Exercises 7

3. Show that $\det(I - uv^*) = 1 - v^*u$ where $u, v \in \mathbb{C}^m$ are column vectors.

- 4. A matrix is strictly upper triangular if it is upper triangular with zero diagonal elements. Show that if A is a strictly upper triangular matrix of order n, then $A^n = 0$.
- 5. Let A be an m-by-n matrix and B be an n-by-m matrix. Show that the matrices

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} AB & \mathbf{0} \\ B & \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right] \quad \text{and} \quad \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ B & BA \end{array}\right]$$

are similar. Conclude that the nonzero eigenvalues of AB are the same as those of BA.

6. A matrix $M \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is Hermitian positive definite if it satisfies

$$M=M^*, \qquad x^*Mx>0.$$

for all $x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Let A and B be Hermitian positive definite matrices.

- (1) Show that the matrix product AB has positive eigenvalues.
- (2) Show that AB is Hermitian if and only if A and B commute.
- 7. Show that if A is skew-Hermitian, i.e., $A^* = -A$, then all its eigenvalues lie on the imaginary axis.
- 8. Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{array} \right].$$

Assume that A_{11} , A_{22} are square, and A_{11} , $A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$ are nonsingular. Let

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{cc} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{array} \right]$$

be the inverse of A. Show that

$$B_{22} = (A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12})^{-1}, \quad B_{12} = -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}B_{22},$$

$$B_{21} = -B_{22}A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}, \quad B_{11} = A_{11}^{-1} - B_{12}A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}.$$

- 9. Suppose that A and B are Hermitian with A being positive definite. Show that A + B is positive definite if and only if all the eigenvalues of $A^{-1}B$ are greater than -1.
- 10. Let A be idempotent, i.e., $A^2 = A$. Show that the eigenvalues of A are zero and one.
- 11. Prove that any matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ has a polar decomposition A = HQ, where H is Hermitian positive semi-definite and Q is unitary. We recall that $M \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is a unitary matrix if $M^{-1} = M^*$. Moreover, if A is nonsingular, then H is Hermitian positive definite and the polar decomposition of A is unique.