Computation Guidelines

In performing calculations, it is best to keep #'s on the same side

e.g.
$$e^{x}$$
, $x = 0.17$

$$e^{x} = 1 - \frac{x^{2}}{2} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \cdots$$

$$\frac{1}{e^{x}} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{x^{2}}{2} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \cdots}$$
e.g. $x^{2} + hx + c = 0$

$$x + = -h + \sqrt{b^{2} - 4c}$$

$$x^{2} + 10000x = 0$$

$$x_{1} = \frac{-b + sgn(-b)\sqrt{b^{2}-4c}}{2}$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{c}{2}$$

In statistics, we often need to compute

$$S^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2}, \quad \overline{\chi} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2}$$

which is often rewritten as

This formula is no good-- if the x_i 's are all large, then we're adding a bunch of large #'s, then subtracting a large # -- of course, the advantage for this is that it is a "one-pass" algorithm, whereas the first one was a "two-pass" algorithm

Sherman-Morrison Formula

Suppose we have A, A^{-1} , want to compute $(A + \boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^T)^{-1}$

$$(A + uv^T)^{1/2}$$

without re-computing the entire inverse; or maybe we want $(A + \boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^T)^{1/2}$ or in general $f(A + \boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^T)$

aside: we can't do this for eigenvalues

we'd like to know how changing only one element changes things:

$$A := A + \begin{pmatrix} \overline{a_{11}} - a_{11} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This is the same as

$$A + \begin{pmatrix} a_{17} - a_{11} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1, 0, 00 \end{pmatrix}$$

In perturbation theory we had $A + \varepsilon E$

Here we have $(A+\boldsymbol{u}\boldsymbol{v}^T)\boldsymbol{y}=\boldsymbol{b}$; original problem was $A\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{b}$

$$(I + A^{-1}uv^{T})y = A^{-1}b = x$$
; let $w = A^{-1}u$

So our problem is $\mathbf{y} = (I + \mathbf{w}\mathbf{v}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{x}$

Want a matrix X satisfying $(I + \boldsymbol{w}\boldsymbol{v}^T)X = I$ $(I + \boldsymbol{w}\boldsymbol{v}^T)^{-1} = ?$

Observe that the eigenvalues of a rank one matrix are easy to compute:

$$\mathbf{w}\mathbf{v}^{T} ? = \lambda?$$
 $\lambda = \mathbf{v}^{T}\mathbf{w}, 0, ..., 0$ $\mathbf{v}^{T}\mathbf{w}\mathbf{v}^{T} ? = \lambda\mathbf{v}^{T} ?$

Matrix inversion Corresponds to reciprocating eigenvalues, so

$$X = (I + \sigma \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}^T)$$

 $(I + \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}^T)(I + \sigma \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}^T)$?= I

multiplying out gives

need these to sum to 0

The three terms above can be expressed as $(\sigma + 1 + \sigma \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}^T$

So
$$\sigma(1 + \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w}) = -1$$

$$\sigma = \frac{-1}{1 + \vec{v}^{T} \vec{w}}$$

This gives our algorithm

- 1) Solve Ax = b
- 2) Solve Aw = u

3)
$$y = (I + wv^T)^{-1}x$$

=
$$(\mathbf{I} + \sigma \mathbf{w} \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}}) \mathbf{x}$$

= $\mathbf{x} + \sigma (\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{w}$,

$$\sigma = \frac{-1}{1 + v^{\mathsf{T}} w}$$

The idea: first solve the problem without perturbation, then Compute with the perturbation then compute σ from that, and done

Unfortunately this is extremely prone to numerical inaccuracies, so use with caution

Over the years, people have applied separation of variables to solve Poisson equation on rectangular domains -- how

about a pair of linear domains?

So, this matrix is really like

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}
A_{I} \\
O \\
O\end{array}\right) + \left(\begin{array}{c}
\chi \\
\chi
\end{array}\right)$$

Called "domain decomposition". -the idea is to break the problem into subdomains, solve on them, then make corrections

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$
, A: $n \times n$, full rank

Wart to solve the system; one idea is to factor *A*

$$PQx = b$$

- 1) Solve Py = b
- 2) Solve Qx = y

Different kinds of P, Q:

$$\begin{cases}
P = D = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
d_i x_i \cdot b_i \\
\chi_i \cdot b_i / d_i
\end{cases}$$

The one we focus on most is when *P* is lower triangular:

$$p_{11}x_1 = b_1$$

 $p_{21}x_1 + p_{22}x_2 = b_2$
 $p_{n1}x_1 + ... + p_{nn}x_n = b_n$

$$\chi_{1} = \frac{b_{1}}{\mu_{11}}$$

$$\chi_{2} = \frac{b_{2} - \rho_{21} x_{1}}{\rho_{22}}$$

This is called "back substitution" and requires $O(n^2)$ operations

The object is to get these Equations into simple form

Gaussian Elimination

It turns out that Gaussian Elimination amounts to factorization into *LU*, lower and upper triangular

$$a_{11}X_1 + a_{12}X_2 + ... + a_{1n}X_n = b_1$$

 $a_{21}X_1 + a_{22}X_2 + ... + a_{2n}X_n = b_2$
 $a_{n1}X_1 + a_{n2}X_2 + ... + a_{nn}X_n = b_n$

Provided $\alpha_{11} \neq 0$, can multiply equation (1) by α_{11} and subtract from 2:

$$a_{11}x_{1} + \frac{+a_{1n}x_{n} \cdot b_{1}}{(a_{11}x_{1})}$$

$$a_{11}x_{1} + \frac{+a_{1n}x_{n} \cdot b_{1}}{(a_{2n}x_{n})}$$

where
$$a_{27}' = a_{27}' - \left(\frac{a_{27}}{a_{17}}\right) a_{17}'$$

WC can do the same thing with the first entry of every equation:

how many operations? There are (n-1) rows and n columns so $n^2 - n$

We can continue the whole procedure to knock out all entries below the diagonal

$$A^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}^{(1)} & a_{12}^{(1)} & - & a_{1n}^{(1)} \\ 0 & a_{22}^{(2)} & - & a_{2n}^{(1)} \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^{(1)}_{1n} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1n}^{(1)} & a_{2n}^{(1)} & - & a_{2n}^{(1)} \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Provided $\mathcal{A}^{(i)} \neq \emptyset$

It takes a total of $\sim \frac{n^3}{6}$ operations to get the matrix to this form, and backsubstitution takes $\frac{n^2}{2}$

Continued

Consider a new matrix

$$M_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -l_{21} & 0 & 1 \\ -l_{n1} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$k_{i1} = \frac{a_{i1}}{a_{11}}$$
 $A_{2} = \frac{M_{1}}{A_{2}}$
 $A_{3} = \frac{M_{2}}{A_{2}}$

(we already computed $\bigwedge_{\lambda} = \bigwedge^{(\lambda)}$)

$$M_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 1 & & \\ & -l_{32} & & \\ 0 & -l_{n2} & & \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 2 & \\ 2 & \\ & 2 & \\ & & \end{pmatrix}$$

In general

 $A_{k+1} = M_k A_k = M_k M_{k-1} A_{k-1}$ $A_n = M_{n-1} M_{n-2} ... M_2 M_1 A =: U,$ U upper triangular

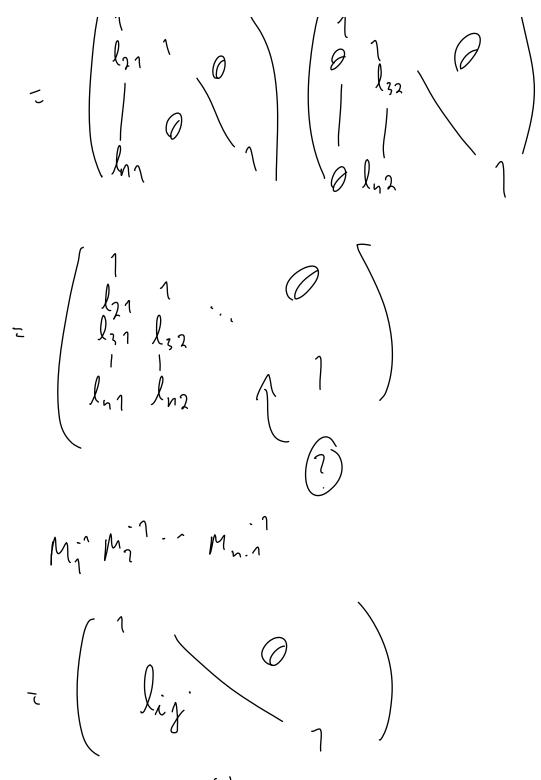
Recall that

$$M_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -l_{21} & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Claim that

$$M_{1}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ l_{21} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

how about $M_1 M_2^{-1}$?



Theorem: if $a_{i,i}^{(i)} \neq 0$, then A = LU $\det A = \det(LU) = \det L \det U = u_{11}u_{22}...u_{nn}$

Note if we partition

$$A = LU$$

$$\left(\frac{\bigwedge_{11} \bigwedge_{12} \bigwedge_{13}}{\bigwedge_{11} \bigwedge_{11} \bigwedge_{12}} \right) \quad \text{then } A_{11} = L_1 U_1$$

ie this factorization is a factorization of submatrices

so
$$u_{\dot{\gamma}\dot{\dot{\gamma}}} \neq \emptyset$$
 providing $\int_{e} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} - a_{1\dot{\gamma}} \\ a_{11} - a_{1\dot{\gamma}} \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

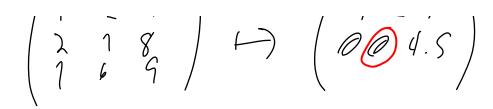
non Zero

So, $\angle \mathcal{U}$ factorization always exists if

$$\mathcal{A}e^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{c} a_{11} \\ - \\ - \end{array}\right)$$
 nonzero

But this would break down

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 7 \\ 2 & 1 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 4.5 \end{pmatrix}$$



Key to remember is that Gaussian elimination is factorization