

SPECIAL LINEAR SYSTEMS OF EQUATIONS

- Symmetric positive definite matrices.
- The LDL^T decomposition; The Cholesky factorization
- Banded systems

6-1

Positive-Definite Matrices

- A real matrix is said to be positive definite if

$$(Au, u) > 0 \text{ for all } u \neq 0, u \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- Let A be a real positive definite matrix. Then there is a scalar $\alpha > 0$ such that

$$(Au, u) \geq \alpha \|u\|_2^2.$$

- Consider now the case of Symmetric Positive Definite (SPD) matrices.
- Consequence 1: A is nonsingular
- Consequence 2: the eigenvalues of A are (real) positive

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TB: 23; AB:1.3.1--2,1.5.1-4; GvL 4 - SPD

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A few properties of SPD matrices

- Diagonal entries of A are positive
- Recall: the k -th principal submatrix A_k is the $k \times k$ submatrix of A with entries a_{ij} , $1 \leq i, j \leq k$ (Matlab: $A(1:k, 1:k)$).
- ☒ Each A_k is SPD
- ☒ Consequence: $\text{Det}(A_k) > 0$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$.
- ☒ For any $n \times k$ matrix X of rank k , the matrix $X^T A X$ is SPD.
- The mapping : $x, y \rightarrow (x, y)_A \equiv (Ax, y)$

defines a proper inner product on \mathbb{R}^n . The associated norm, denoted by $\|\cdot\|_A$, is called the **energy norm**, or simply the **A-norm**:

$$\|x\|_A = (Ax, x)^{1/2} = \sqrt{x^T A x}$$

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- Related measure in Machine Learning, Vision, Statistics: the **Mahalanobis distance** between two vectors:

$$d_A(x, y) = \|x - y\|_A = \sqrt{(x - y)^T A (x - y)}$$

Appropriate distance (measured in # standard deviations) if x is a sample generated by a Gaussian distribution with covariance matrix A and center y .

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TB: 23; AB:1.3.1--2,1.5.1-4; GvL 4 - SPD

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More terminology

- A matrix is **Positive Semi-Definite** if: $(Au, u) \geq 0$ for all $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - Eigenvalues of symmetric positive semi-definite matrices are real nonnegative, i.e., ...
 - ... A can be singular [If not, A is SPD]
 - A matrix is said to be **Negative Definite** if $-A$ is positive definite. Similar definition for Negative Semi-Definite
 - A matrix that is neither positive semi-definite nor negative semi-definite is **indefinite**
- ☐ Show that if $A^T = A$ and $(Ax, x) = 0 \forall x$ then $A = 0$
- ☐ Show: A is indefinite iff $\exists x, y : (Ax, x)(Ay, y) < 0$

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TB: 23; AB:1.3.1--2,1.5.1-4; GvL 4 - SPD

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The LDL^T and Cholesky factorizations

- ☐ The LU factorization of an SPD matrix A exists
- Let $A = LU$ and $D = \text{diag}(U)$ and set $M \equiv (D^{-1}U)^T$.
- Then $A = LU = LD(D^{-1}U) = LDM^T$
- Both L and M are unit lower triangular
 - Consider $L^{-1}AL^{-T} = DM^TL^{-T}$
 - Matrix on the right is upper triangular. But it is also symmetric. Therefore $M^TL^{-T} = I$ and so $M = L$
 - The diagonal entries of D are positive [Proof: consider $L^{-1}AL^{-T} = D$]. In the end:

$$A = LDL^T = GG^T \text{ where } G = LD^{1/2}$$

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TB: 23; AB:1.3.1--2,1.5.1-4; GvL 4 - SPD

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- Cholesky factorization is a specialization of the LU factorization for the SPD case. Several variants exist.

First algorithm: row-oriented LDLT

Adapted from Gaussian Elimination [Work only on upper triang. part]

1. For $k = 1 : n - 1$ Do:
2. For $i = k + 1 : n$ Do:
3. $piv := a(k, i) / a(k, k)$
4. $a(i, i : n) := a(i, i : n) - piv * a(k, i : n)$
5. End
6. End

- This will give the U matrix of the LU factorization. Therefore $D = \text{diag}(U)$, $L^T = D^{-1}U$.

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Row-Cholesky (outer product form)

Scale the rows as the algorithm proceeds. Line 4 becomes

$$a(i, :) := a(i, :) - [a(k, i) / \sqrt{a(k, k)}] * [a(k, :) / \sqrt{a(k, k)}]$$

ALGORITHM : 1. Outer product Cholesky

1. For $k = 1 : n$ Do:
2. $A(k, k : n) = A(k, k : n) / \sqrt{A(k, k)}$;
3. For $i := k + 1 : n$ Do :
4. $A(i, i : n) = A(i, i : n) - A(k, i) * A(k, i : n)$;
5. End
6. End

- Result: Upper triangular matrix U such $A = U^TU$.

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Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ☞ Is A symmetric positive definite?
- ☞ What is the LDL^T factorization of A ?
- ☞ What is the Cholesky factorization of A ?

Column Cholesky. Let $A = GG^T$ with $G =$ lower triangular. Then equate j -th columns:

$$a(i, j) = \sum_{k=1}^j g(j, k)g^T(k, i) \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} A(:, j) &= \sum_{k=1}^j G(j, k)G(:, k) \\ &= G(j, j)G(:, j) + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} G(j, k)G(:, k) \rightarrow \\ G(j, j)G(:, j) &= A(:, j) - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} G(j, k)G(:, k) \end{aligned}$$

- Assume that first $j - 1$ columns of G already known.
- Compute unscaled **column-vector**:

$$v = A(:, j) - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} G(j, k)G(:, k)$$

- Notice that $v(j) \equiv G(j, j)^2$.
- Compute $\sqrt{v(j)}$ and scale v to get j -th column of G .

ALGORITHM : 2. *Column Cholesky*

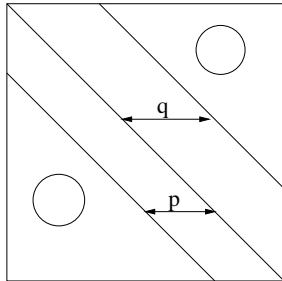
1. For $j = 1 : n$ do
2. For $k = 1 : j - 1$ do
3. $A(j : n, j) = A(j : n, j) - A(j, k) * A(j : n, k)$
4. EndDo
5. If $A(j, j) \leq 0$ ExitError("Matrix not SPD")
6. $A(j, j) = \sqrt{A(j, j)}$
7. $A(j + 1 : n, j) = A(j + 1 : n, j) / A(j, j)$
8. EndDo

☞ Try algorithm on:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

Banded matrices

- Banded matrices arise in many applications
- A has upper bandwidth q if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j - i > q$
- A has lower bandwidth p if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i - j > p$



- Simplest case: tridiagonal ➤ $p = q = 1$.

- First observation: Gaussian elimination (no pivoting) preserves the initial banded form. Consider first step of Gaussian elimination:

2. For $i = 2 : n$ Do:
3. $a_{i1} := a_{i1}/a_{11}$ (pivots)
4. For $j := 2 : n$ Do :
5. $a_{ij} := a_{ij} - a_{i1} * a_{1j}$
6. End
7. End

- If A has upper bandwidth q and lower bandwidth p then so is the resulting $[L/U]$ matrix. ➤ Band form is preserved (induction)

☒ Operation count?

What happens when partial pivoting is used?

If A has lower bandwidth p , upper bandwidth q , and if Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is used, then the resulting U has upper bandwidth $p + q$. L has at most $p + 1$ nonzero elements per column (bandedness is lost).

- Simplest case: tridiagonal ➤ $p = q = 1$.

Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$