## A Gaussian Elimination Example

To solve:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\epsilon & 1 \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

First factor the matrix to get:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{\epsilon} & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\epsilon & 1 \\
0 & 1-\frac{1}{\epsilon}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Next solve:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{\epsilon} & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
y_{1} \\
y_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

To get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}=1 \\
& y_{2}=1-\frac{1}{\epsilon}
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally solve:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\epsilon & 1 \\
0 & 1-\frac{1}{\epsilon}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
y_{1} \\
y_{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

To get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=0 \\
& x_{2}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

Which is the solution to the original system. When viewed this way, Gaussian elimination is just LU factorization of a matrix followed by some simple substitutions.

## Floating Point

We consider a model of floating point computation where it is possible to represent numbers of the form:

$$
\frac{m}{2^{t}} 2^{b}
$$

Where $m$ is an integer such that $-2^{t} \leq m \leq 2^{t}$.
In this model, $t$ is the precision of the floating point representation. In what follows, we will ignore bounds on $b$.

Let $\epsilon_{\text {mach }}$ be defined so that $1+\epsilon_{\text {mach }}$ is the smallest number greater than 1 which the machine can represent.

The goal of a floating point computation is to provide an answer which is correct to within a factor of ( $1 \pm \epsilon_{\text {mach }}$ ).

Consider the example in the previous section where $\epsilon<\epsilon_{\text {mach }}$. In this case, we will compute the LU factorization as:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{\epsilon} & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\epsilon & 1 \\
0 & -\frac{1}{\epsilon}
\end{array}\right]
$$

This means that using Gaussian Elimination (with no pivoting) we will actually be solving the system:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\epsilon & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

And so will get the solution:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=1 \\
& x_{2}=1-\epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

Which is nowhere near the correct solution to the original system.
Note: The matrix in the previous example is well-conditioned, having a condition number of about 2.68, but we still fail miserably when doing Gaussian Elimination on this matrix.

Exercise: Do the same thing for the system:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
\epsilon & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{2} \\
x_{1}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

You should observe that permuting the rows/columns of the matrix (pivoting) allows you to solve the system with Gaussian Elimination even when $\epsilon<\epsilon_{\text {mach }}$.

Theorem 1 (Wilkinson) If you solve $A x=b$ computing $\hat{L}, \hat{U}$ and $\hat{x}$, then there exists $a$ $\delta A$ such that

$$
(A+\delta A) \hat{x}=b
$$

and

$$
\frac{\|\delta A\|_{\infty}}{\|A\|_{\infty}} \leq n \epsilon_{\operatorname{mach}}\left(3+\frac{5\|\hat{L}\|_{\infty}\|\hat{U}\|_{\infty}}{\|A\|_{\infty}}\right)
$$

The problem with the previous example is that although $A$ had small entries, $U$ had a very large entry.

When doing Gaussian Elimination, we say that the growth factor is:

$$
\frac{\|U\|_{\infty}}{\|A\|_{\infty}}
$$

## Partial Pivoting

Idea: Permute the rows but not the columns such that the pivot is the largest entry in its column.

Note: This is the technique used by Matlab.
At step $j$ in the Gaussian Elimination, permute the rows so that $\left|a_{j, j}\right| \geq\left|a_{i, j}\right|$ for all $i>j$. This guarantees that $\|L\|_{\infty} \leq 1$. However, in the worst case, partial pivoting yields a growth factor of $2^{n-1}$ for an $n$-by- $n$ matrix.

## Complete Pivoting

Idea: Permute the rows and the columns such that the pivot is the largest entry in the matrix.

Wilkinson proved that Complete Pivoting guarantees that:

$$
\frac{\|U\|_{\infty}}{\|A\|_{\infty}} \leq n^{\frac{1}{2} \log (n)}
$$

However, it is conjectured that the growth factor can be upper bounded by something closer to $n$.

Unfortunately, using complete pivoting requires about twice as many floating point operations as partial pivoting. Therefore, since partial pivoting works well in practice, complete pivoting is hardly ever used.

## Sometimes You Don't Need to Pivot

1. If $A$ is diagonally dominant then it is possible to bound the size of the entries in $L$.
2. If $A$ is positive definite then it is possible to bound the size of the entries in $U$.

Having both of these conditions is very nice. In practice, both of these conditions show up quite often.

Definition 2 A matrix, $A$, is (column-wise) diagonally dominant if for all $j$,

$$
\left|a_{j, j}\right| \geq \sum_{i \neq j} a_{i, j}
$$

Theorem 3 If $A$ is (column-wise) diagonally dominant, then $l_{i, j} \leq 1$. Equivalently, if $A$ is diagonally dominant then one does not permute when using partial pivoting.

Proof After the $k^{t h}$ round of Gaussian Elimination, we refer to the $n-k$ by $n-k$ matrix in the lower left corner as $A^{(k)}$.

If suffices to prove that all of the $A^{(k)}$ are diagonally dominant. We will show that $A^{(1)}$ is diagonally dominant. A straightforward inductive argument can be used to show all of the $A^{(k)}$ are diagonally dominant.

Claim $4 A^{(1)}$ is diagonally dominant.

Let

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha & w \\
v & B
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then one step of Gaussian Elimination yields

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
\frac{v}{\alpha} & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & w \\
0 & B-\frac{v w}{\alpha}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Therefore, $A^{(1)}=B-\frac{v w}{\alpha}$.
Let $a_{i, j}^{(1)}$ be the $i, j$ entry of $A^{(1)}$. It suffices to show that

$$
\left|a_{j, j}^{(1)} \geq \sum_{i \geq 2, i \neq j}\right| a_{i, j}^{(1)} \mid
$$

We know that

$$
\sum_{i \geq 2, i \neq j}\left|a_{i, j}^{(1)}\right|=\sum_{i \geq 2, i \neq j}\left|b_{i, j}-\frac{v_{i} w_{j}}{\alpha}\right| \leq \sum_{i \geq 2, i \neq j}\left|b_{i, j}\right|+\frac{\left|w_{j}\right|}{\alpha} \sum_{i \geq 2, i \neq j}\left|v_{i}\right|
$$

Since $A$ is diagonally dominant, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i \geq 2, i \neq j}\left|a_{i, j}^{(1)}\right| & \leq\left(\left|b_{j, j}\right|-\left|w_{j}\right|\right)+\frac{\left|w_{j}\right|}{\alpha}\left(|\alpha|-\left|v_{j}\right|\right)=\left|b_{j, j}\right|-\frac{\left|w_{j}\right|}{|\alpha|}\left|v_{j}\right| \\
& \leq\left|b_{j, j}-\frac{w_{j} v_{j}}{\alpha}\right|=\mid a_{j, j}^{(1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition $5 A$ is positive definite if $A$ is symmetric and for all $x, x A x^{T}>0$

Exercise: The above definition is equivalent to the following:

1. All eigenvalues of $A$ are positive.
2. All principal minors of $A$ are positive definite.

Exercise: Eigenvalues of $A_{2 . . n, 2 . . n}$ interlace the eigenvalues of $A$.
Additionally, the following two facts are implied by Item $\# 2$ above:

- Diagonal entries of $A$ are positive.
- The entry with the largest absolute value lies on a diagonal.

Theorem 6 If $A$ is positive definite, then $\left\|A^{(k)}\right\|_{\infty} \leq\|A\|_{\infty}$.

Note: This implies that $\|U\|_{\infty} \leq\|A\|_{\infty}$.

Proof We first prove that the $A^{(k)}$ are positive definite. We will show that $A^{(1)}$ is positive definite. A straightforward inductive argument can be used to show all of the $A^{(k)}$ are diagonally dominant.

It is easy to see that $A^{(1)}$ is symmetric and so it suffices to show that for all $x, x A x^{T}>0$.
Let

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha & v^{T} \\
v & B
\end{array}\right]
$$

and recall that

$$
A^{(1)}=B-\frac{v v^{T}}{\alpha}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x A x^{T}-\left(x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right) A^{(1)}\left(x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right)^{T}= \\
& \quad \alpha x_{1}^{2}+2 x_{1} \sum_{i \geq 2} v_{i} x_{i}+\sum_{i \geq 2, j \geq 2} b_{i, j} x_{i} x_{j}-\sum_{i \geq 2, j \geq 2}\left(b_{i, j}-\frac{v_{i} v_{j}}{\alpha}\right) x_{i} x_{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, by cancellation,

$$
x A x^{T}-\left(x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right) A^{(1)}\left(x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right)^{T}=\alpha\left(x_{i}+\sum_{i \geq 2} \frac{v_{i} x_{i}}{\alpha}\right)^{2}
$$

This means that for any $x_{2} \ldots x_{n}$, setting

$$
x_{1}=-\sum_{i \geq 2} \frac{v_{i} x_{i}}{\alpha}
$$

yields $x A x^{T}=\left(x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right) A^{(1)}\left(x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right)^{T}$. Therefore, if $A^{(1)}$ is not positive definite, then neither is $A$.

Now all that remains to be shown is that $\left\|A^{(1)}\right\|_{\infty} \leq\|A\|_{\infty}$. This will follow from two facts that were previously observed about positive definite matrices. (We repeat them here for convenience.

- Diagonal entries of $A$ are positive.
- The entry with the largest absolute value lies on a diagonal.

Therefore, we know that the largest entry of $A^{(1)}$ is $a_{j, j}^{(1)}$ for some $j \geq 2$.

$$
0<a_{j, j}^{(1)}=b_{j, j}-\frac{v_{j}^{2}}{\alpha} \leq b_{j, j}=a_{j, j}
$$

## A Smoothed Analysis Theorem

Theorem 7 Let $\bar{A}$ be any matrix with $\|\bar{A}\|_{\infty} \leq 1$ and let $A=\bar{A}+G$ where $G$ is a Gaussian random matrix with variance $\sigma^{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
\operatorname{Prob}\left[\|U\|_{\infty}>4 n^{\frac{7}{2}} \sqrt{\log (n)} / \epsilon\right]<\frac{\epsilon}{\sigma}  \tag{1}\\
\operatorname{Prob}\left[\|L\|_{\infty}>4 n^{\frac{7}{2}} \sqrt{\log (n)} / \epsilon\right]<\frac{\epsilon \log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)}{\sigma} \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $A=L U$.

We will prove this theorem during the next lecture.

