

Enhancing Convergence in Singular Linear Systems: A Study on New Techniques and Drazin Inverse Solutions

Haeder Abdolrazzaq Jasem¹, Alaa mohammed Alwan², Nadhal Qasim Saadoon³

¹Postgraduate Student Affairs Department, Aliragia University

²Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research/IRAQ

³Researches & Islamic Studies Center, Aliragia University

We examine the expansion of the GMRES algorithm and present the methodologies of DGMRES and LDGMRES for the resolution of the equation $Ax=b$, in which A denotes a singular matrix. DGMRES is a computational method created to determine the Drazin-inverse solution of either consistent or inconsistent linear systems of the form $Ax = b$, where $A \in \mathbb{C}^{(n \times n)}$ is a singular and generally non-Hermitian matrix with an arbitrary index. Typically, this strategy involves restarting, which may hinder convergence and result in stagnation within the DGMRES procedure. By drawing from "the LGMRES and GMRES-E methodologies, we suggest two innovative tactics to improve the convergence of restarted DGMRES by introducing approximate error vectors or approximate eigenvectors (related to a subset of the smallest eigenvalues) to the Krylov subspace. We elaborate on the execution of these methods and offer numerical examples to showcase the efficacy of these approaches."

Keywords: Drazin inverse solution", Krylov subspace, GMRES, convergence.

1. Introduction

Consider the following linear system

$$Ax = b \quad (1.1)$$

where A is a real square matrix of size $n \times n$ and b is a real vector of size n is consistent, if it includes at least one solution, otherwise it said to be inconsistent [1]. For example,

the system

$$\begin{cases} x + 2y = 1 \\ x - y = 2 \end{cases}$$

is a consistent system,

but the system

$$\begin{cases} x + y = 1 \\ x + y = 2 \end{cases}$$

is inconsistent, because it has no solution.

The matrix coefficient A in the system (1.1) is said to be singular, if

$$\det A = 0,$$

The matrix A is nonsingular [3,5], if

$$\det A \neq 0,$$

If the matrix A is nonsingular, then, there exists the inverse of A . Moreover, if the system (1.1) is also consistent, then it has unique solution

$$x = A^{-1}b.$$

1.1 Hermitian matrix

The square matrix A is Hermitian, if [7]

$$A^H = A, \quad \text{where } A^H = \bar{A}^T,$$

with \bar{A} as conjugate of A and A^T is the transpose of A .

If A is a real matrix, then $A^H = A^T$.

In other words, a real matrix A is Hermitian, whenever, $A^T = A$.

For example, the matrix

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

Is Hermitian matrix

1.2 Eigenvalue and Eigenvector

For any square matrix A of size $m \times m$, if there exist a scalar value λ and a nonzero vector x such that [13,2]

$$Ax = \lambda x, \quad (1.2)$$

then λ and x are called eigenvalue and eigenvector of A

For example, if $A = I$ an identity matrix, then we will obviously have $Ix = 1x$, that is, " $\lambda = 1$ is an eigenvalue of A and any vector in \mathbb{R}^m is an eigenvector of A . One not that" (1) implies that

$$(A - \lambda I)x = 0, \quad (1.3)$$

The equation (1.2) has non-trivial solution, if $A - \lambda I$ is a singular matrix. In other words, if

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0, \quad (1.4)$$

the equation (1.3) includes non-trivial solution [6].

If A is of size 3×3 ,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

we will have

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} - \lambda & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (a_{11} - \lambda) \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{22} - \lambda & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} - \lambda \end{pmatrix} - \\ &\quad (a_{12}) \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} - \lambda \end{pmatrix} + (a_{13}) \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} - \lambda \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (a_{11} - \lambda)((a_{22} - \lambda)(a_{33} - \lambda) - a_{23}a_{32}) - a_{12}(a_{21}(a_{33} - \lambda) - a_{23}a_{31}) + \\ &\quad a_{13}(a_{21}a_{32} - a_{31}(a_{22} - \lambda)) \\ &= -\lambda^3 + (a_{11} + a_{22} + a_{33})\lambda^2 + \\ &\quad (-a_{11}a_{22} - a_{11}a_{33} - a_{22}a_{33} + a_{23}a_{32} + a_{12}a_{21} + a_{13}a_{31})\lambda + \\ &\quad (-a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{13}a_{31}a_{22}). \end{aligned}$$

It is seen that $\det(A - \lambda I)$ is a polynomial of degree 3 and so it has 3 roots. So, in general for $m \times m$ matrix A , we have

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = (-1)^m ((\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2) \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_m)), \quad (1.5)$$

where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_m$ are roots of $\det(A - \lambda I)$ and also are eigenvalues of A .

1.3 Definition Two square matrices of A and B are similar, if there exists a nonsingular matrix P such that $B = P^{-1}AP$ [4,6].

1.4 Definition Positive definite and positive semi definite A square matrix A of size $m \times m$ is positive definite if for any nonzero $x \in \mathbb{C}^m$ [10]

$$x^H A x > 0,$$

Semi-positive definite if for any nonzero

$$x \in \mathbb{C}^m \quad x^H A x \geq 0,$$

Symmetric positive definite, if $A^H = A$,

and for any nonzero $x \in \mathbb{C}^m$

$$x^H A x > 0,$$

Symmetric semi-positive definite, if

$$A^H = A,$$

and for any nonzero $x \in \mathbb{C}^m$

$$x^H Ax \geq 0.$$

For example, the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

is symmetric positive definite, because

$$A^H = A^T = A, \text{ and for any nonzero } x \in \mathbb{C}^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} x^H Ax &= [\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2] \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = [\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2] \begin{bmatrix} 5x_1 + x_2 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 5x_1\bar{x}_1 + x_2\bar{x}_1 + x_1\bar{x}_2 + 4x_2\bar{x}_2 \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |x_1 + x_2|^2 &= (x_1 + x_2)(\overline{x_1 + x_2}) = (x_1 + x_2)(\bar{x}_1 + \bar{x}_2) \\ &= x_1\bar{x}_1 + x_2\bar{x}_1 + x_1\bar{x}_2 + x_2\bar{x}_2 \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$x^H Ax = |x_1 + x_2|^2 + 4x_1\bar{x}_1 + 3x_2\bar{x}_2 = |x_1 + x_2|^2 + 4|x_1|^2 + 3|x_2|^2 > 0$$

2. Drazin inverse

Drazin inverse is in fact a generalization of the inverse of a square matrix. It is extended to the case that a square matrix has no custom inverse. Before that we need to define the index of a matrix [5,9,11].

2.1 Index of a matrix

For a square matrix A , the index of A , denoted by $ind(A)$, is the smallest nonnegative integer number k such that [8]

$$rank(A^{k+1}) = rank(A^k),$$

where $rank(A)$ shows the rank of the matrix A .

Example. For any identity matrix I ,

$$I^1 = I^0 = I,$$

and so, $rank(I^1) = rank(I^0)$.

Therefore, $ind(A) = 0$.

Example Consider the following matrix:

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

It is seen that

$$\text{rank}(A^4) = \text{rank}(A^3).$$

So, $\text{ind}(A) = 3$.

2.2 Drazin-inverse matrix [2]

Let A be a real or complex square matrix of dimension $n \times n$ with $\text{ind}(A) = k$.

The matrix A^D is called the Drazin inverse of A , if it satisfies the following three conditions:

$$1- A \times A^D = A^D \times A,$$

$$2- A^D \times A \times A^D = A^D,$$

$$3- A^k \times A^D \times A = A^k.$$

2.3 Nilpotent of a matrix [12]

A square matrix N is nilpotent of order k , if

$$N^k = 0, \quad (2.1)$$

where k is the smallest positive integer number satisfying (2-1).

Example: For the matrix

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

we have $N^3 = 0$, So, N is nilpotent of order 3.

Now, we are ready to directly compute the Drazine inverse of a square matrix. In fact, one way is to compute the Jordan canonical form of A . In other words, if

$$A = P \begin{bmatrix} C & 0 \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}, \quad (2,2)$$

in which

P is a nonsingular matrix,

C is a nonsingular matrix,

$\text{Rank}(C) = \text{Rank}(A^k)$, where k is the index of A ,

N is nilpotent of order k .

In this case, the Drazin inverse A^D is directly given by

$$A^D = P \begin{bmatrix} C^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1},$$

If $\text{ind}(A) = 1$, then $N = 0$ in (2.2).

Example Compute the Drazin inverse A^D of the following matrix:

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

It is readily seen that $\text{ind}(A) = 2$ and also the eigenvalues of A are $\lambda_1 = 1$ with geometric multiplicity of $\sigma = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 0$ with geometric multiplicity $\sigma = 1$. The Jordan canonical form of A is given as follows:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \\ \frac{5}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \\ \frac{5}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1},$$

and so

$$A^D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \\ \frac{5}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \\ \frac{5}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1},$$

Because the inverse of

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

Is the same matrix.

How to generate a real Singular matrix?

In this section, we produce a real matrix with positive index. In fact, we produce a singular matrix that is applicable to derive the Drazin inverse of such a matrix. For this sake, we consider the following problem that is Poisson's equation with Neumann condition [5,8]:

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta u = f, & \text{in } \varphi = (0,1) \times (0,1) \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = 0, & \text{on } \partial\varphi, \end{cases} \quad (2.3)$$

Where The Laplacian operator Δ is defined by

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2},$$

$\partial\varphi$ denoted the boundary of φ ,

The Neumann boundary condition is defined by

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = \langle \nabla u, n \rangle,$$

where n is the outward normal vector. In order to discretize the problem (2.3), we consider the uniform mesh φ_h as follows:

$$\varphi_h = \{(ih, jh) : 0 \leq i, j \leq M\},$$

where $(xi, yj) = (ih, jh)$ and M is a positive integer number. The parameter h is called step

length and it is defined by

$$h = \frac{1}{M},$$

By Taylor expansion, the terms of Laplacian operator Δ can be given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}(x_i, y_i) = \frac{u_{i-1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j}}{h^2} + \mathcal{O}(h^2),$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}(x_i, y_i) = \frac{u_{i,j-1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j+1}}{h^2} + \mathcal{O}(h^2),$$

Hence, a discretization of Poisson's equation can be given by

$$-\left(\frac{u_{i-1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j}}{h^2} + \frac{u_{i,j-1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j+1}}{h^2}\right) = f_{i,j}, \quad (2.4)$$

where $f_{i,j} = f(x_i, y_i)$. The equation (2.4) can be rewritten by

$$\frac{u_{i-1,j} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j}}{h^2} + \frac{u_{i,j-1} - 2u_{i,j} + u_{i,j+1}}{h^2} = -f_{i,j}, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq M-1 \quad (2.5)$$

As Figure 2.1 shows, the scheme (2.5) is a 5-point stencil of finite difference scheme as follows [4]:

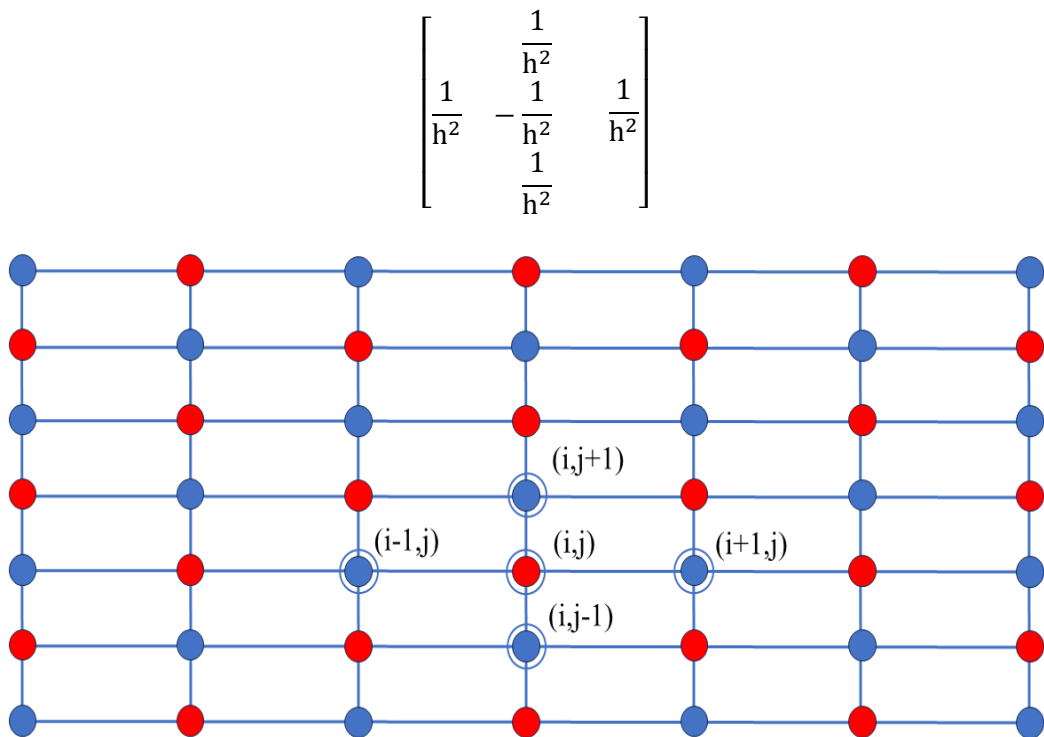


Figure 2.1. A schematic of the mesh points on unit square.

In order to apply the boundary condition, let the Neumann boundary condition is on the boundary $x = 0$. At point $(0, y_j)$, we have (see Figure 2.2)

$$0 = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x_0, y_i) \times (-1), \quad (2,6)$$

We use the central difference of first order derivative for (2.6) as follows:

$$0 = \frac{u_{1,j} - u_{-1,j}}{2h}, \quad (2,7)$$

that implies

$$u_{1,j} = u_{-1,j} \quad , \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, M. \quad (2,8)$$

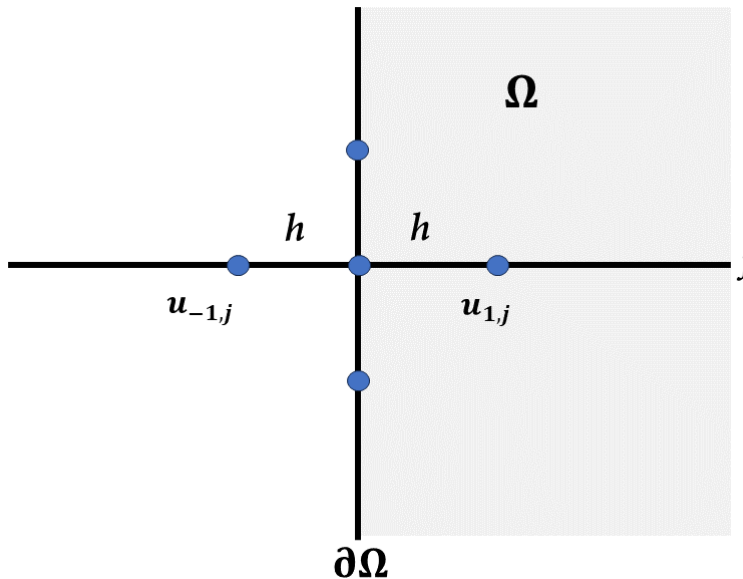


Figure 2.2. The mesh points on the lines $x = 0$ and $y = \frac{j}{M}$.

Now, by (2.5), we have

$$u_{i,j+1} + u_{i,j-1} + u_{i-1,j} - 4u_{i,j} + u_{i+1,j} = -h^2 f_{i,j}, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq M \quad (2,9)$$

For $i = 0$, by (2.8) and (2.9), we have the following extra equations:

$$u_{0,j+1} + u_{0,j-1} - 4u_{0,j} + 2u_{1,j} = -h^2 f_{i,j} \quad . \quad (2,10)$$

Now, by (2.9) and (2.10), the structure of the matrix coefficient is as follows:

