THE REVERSE BORDERING METHOD*

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Abstract. The bordering method allows recursive computation of the solution of a system of linear equations by adding one new row and one new column at each step of the procedure. When some of the intermediate systems are nearly singular, it is possible, by the block bordering method, to add several new rows and columns simultaneously. However, in that case, the solutions of some of the intermediate systems are not computed. The reverse bordering method allows computation of the solutions of these systems afterwards. Such a procedure has many applications in numerical analysis, that include orthogonal polynomials, Padé approximation, and the progressive forms of extrapolation processes.

Key words. linear equations, bordering methods, extrapolation, Padé approximants, orthogonal polynomials

AMS subject classifications. 65F05, 65B05

1. Introduction. The bordering method is a recursive method for computing the solution of a system of linear equations. It consists, at each step, of adding one new row and one new column to the previous matrix and using the previous solution to compute the new one. This method can only be used if some quantity is different from zero at each step. If, at some steps, this quantity is zero (or nearly zero), then it is possible to add several new rows and columns to the matrix simultaneously. However, if this situation occurs, the solutions of the intermediate systems that have been skipped are not computed. This is a drawback of the method since, in some applications, the solutions of all the intermediate systems must be known (if non-singular). In this paper we propose the reverse bordering method for avoiding this case. The procedure is, after jumping over the near-singular intermediate systems and computing the solution of the first nonnear-singular system, to go back by decreasing the dimension of the matrix (that is, by deleting the last row and the last column) and using the solution of the previous larger system for computing the solutions of the smaller systems that have been skipped. Such a procedure has applications in the recursive computation of orthogonal polynomials, in Padé approximation, and in the implementation of the progressive forms of extrapolation algorithms.

2. Bordering method. When we must solve a system of linear equations that is obtained by adding one new equation and one new unknown to a given system or, in other words, when the matrix of the system has been bordered by a new row

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* Received by the editors March 17, 1992; accepted for publication (in revised form) January 26, 1993.
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and a new column, the bordering method can be used to save computational time. This method is well known in numerical analysis and permits us to solve a system recursively by using the solution of the previous system (see, Faddeeva [7]). Let us first explain this method.

Let $A_k$ be a regular square matrix of dimension $k$ and $d_k$ a vector of dimension $k$. Let $z_k$ be the solution of the system

$$A_k z_k = d_k.$$ 

Now let $u_k$ be a column vector of dimension $k$, $v_k$ a row vector of dimension $k$, and $a_k$ a scalar. We consider the bordered matrix $A_{k+1}$ of dimension $k + 1$ given by

$$A_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} A_k & u_k \\ v_k & a_k \end{pmatrix}.$$ 

We have

$$A_{k+1}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} A_k^{-1} + A_k^{-1} u_k v_k A_k^{-1} / \beta_k & -A_k^{-1} u_k / \beta_k \\ -v_k A_k^{-1} / \beta_k & 1 / \beta_k \end{pmatrix}$$

with $\beta_k = a_k - v_k A_k^{-1} u_k$.

Let $f_k$ be a scalar and $z_{k+1}$ be the solution of the bordered system

$$A_{k+1} z_{k+1} = d_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} d_k \\ f_k \end{pmatrix}.$$ 

Then we have

$$z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} z_k \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{f_k - v_k z_k}{\beta_k} \begin{pmatrix} -A_k^{-1} u_k \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$ 

This formula gives the solution of the bordered system in terms of the solution of the previous system.

To avoid computation and storage of $A_k^{-1}$, we can set $q_k = -A_k^{-1} u_k$ and compute it recursively by the same bordering method. In such a way, we obtain the following variant of the bordering method that needs the storage of $A_k$ instead of that of $A_k^{-1}$ for the original procedure.

Let $q_k^{(i)}$ be the solution of the system

$$A_i q_k^{(i)} = -u_k^{(i)},$$

where $u_k^{(i)}$ is the vector formed by the first $i$ components of $u_k$. Thus $u_i^{(i)} = u_i$ and $q_i^{(i)} = q_i$ for all $i$. $A_i$ is the matrix of dimension $i$ formed by the first $i$ rows and columns of $A_k$.

We have, since $A_1$ is a number,

$$q_k^{(1)} = -\frac{u_k^{(1)}}{A_1},$$

$$q_k^{(i+1)} = \begin{pmatrix} q_k^{(i)} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{u_k, i+1 + v_i q_k^{(i)}}{a_i + v_i q_i^{(i)}} \begin{pmatrix} q_i^{(i)} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, k - 1,$$
where \( u_{k,i+1} \) is the \((i+1)\)th component of \( u_k \).

Then
\[
q^{(k)}_k = q_k = -A^{-1}_k u_k,
\]

thus allowing us to use the previous formula for computing \( z_{k+1} \) without knowledge of \( A^{-1}_k \); [3] and [4] contain the subroutine BORDER performing this variant of the bordering method.

3. Block bordering method. The bordering method can be applied only if \( \beta_k \neq 0 \) for all \( k \). When this is not the case, we can use a block bordering procedure (see Brezinski, Redivo-Zaglia, and Sadok [5]).

We now assume the following dimensions for the matrices involved in the process:
\[
\begin{align*}
A_k & \quad n_k \times n_k, \\
u_k & \quad n_k \times p_k, \\
v_k & \quad p_k \times n_k, \\
a_k & \quad p_k \times p_k,
\end{align*}
\]

and finally
\[
A_{k+1} \quad n_{k+1} \times n_{k+1}
\]

with \( n_{k+1} = n_k + p_k \).

We set
\[
\beta_k = a_k - v_k A^{-1}_k u_k,
\]

and we have
\[
A^{-1}_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix}
A^{-1}_k + A^{-1}_k u_k \beta_k^{-1} v_k A^{-1}_k & -A^{-1}_k u_k \beta_k^{-1} \\
-\beta_k^{-1} v_k A^{-1}_k & \beta_k^{-1}
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

\( f_k \) is now a vector with \( p_k \) components and we obtain
\[
z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix}
z_k \\
0
\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}
-A^{-1}_k u_k \\
I_k
\end{pmatrix} \beta_k^{-1} (f_k - v_k z_k),
\]

where \( I_k \) is the identity matrix of dimension \( p_k \).


Remark. We note that the subroutine BLBORD only works if \( a_{11} \neq 1 \), which can always be made true. It is also possible to add the instruction \( A(1,1)=1.0D0/A(1,1) \) after the instruction \( Z(1)=D(1)/A(1,1) \).

Again it is possible to avoid computation and storage of \( A^{-1}_k \) by setting \( q_k = -A^{-1}_k u_k \) (whose dimension is \( n_k \times p_k \)) and computing it recursively by the bordering method in the following way.

Let \( u^{(i)}_k \) be the \( n_i \times p_k \) matrix formed by the first \( n_i \) rows of \( u_k \) for \( i \leq k \), \( n_i \leq n_k \). We have \( u^{(i)}_i = u_i \). Let \( q^{(i)}_k \) be the \( n_i \times p_k \) matrix satisfying \( A_i q^{(i)}_k = -u^{(i)}_k \) for \( i \leq k \). We have \( q^{(i)}_i = q_i \).

We set
\[
q^{(1)}_k = -A^{-1}_1 u^{(1)}_k
\]
and then we have

\[ q_k^{(i+1)} = \begin{pmatrix} q_k^{(i)} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} q_k^{(i)} \\ I_i \end{pmatrix} \beta_i^{-1} \left( u_{k,i+1} + v_i q_k^{(i)} \right), \quad i = 1, \ldots, k - 1 \]

with \( \beta_i = a_i + v_i q_i^{(i)} \) and \( u_{k,i+1} \) the matrix formed by the rows \( n_i + 1, \ldots, n_i + p_i \) of \( u_k \).

Instead of using the block bordering method when \( \beta_k \) is zero for some \( k \), it is possible to use a pivoting strategy. If, for some \( k \), \( \beta_k = 0 \), then the last row of the matrix can be interchanged with the next one and so on until some \( \beta_k \neq 0 \) has been obtained. Such a procedure is not adapted when the solutions of the intermediate systems must be computed. It can be used if only the last solution is needed and if the solutions of the intermediate systems are not required.

Obviously, the block bordering method can also be used even if the matrix \( \beta_k \) is nonsingular and thus, at each step, an arbitrary number of new rows and columns can be added. In particular, when some of the intermediate systems are almost singular, such a strategy allows us to jump over them and thus improve the numerical stability and precision of the solutions of the subsequent systems. However, in such a case the solutions of the systems that have been skipped have not been computed. The reverse bordering method that we now present allows us to come back afterwards to these systems by deleting rows and columns one by one and obtain their solutions from the solution of the larger system.

4. Reverse bordering method. Let us now look at the possibility of finding \( A_k^{-1} \) from \( A_{k+1}^{-1} \).

We write the inverse matrix \( A_{k+1}^{-1} \) of dimension \( n_{k+1} \) under the form

\[
A_{k+1}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} n'_{k} & n'_{k} \\ A_k & A_k' \end{pmatrix}
\]

The matrix \( A_{k+1} \) will also be partitioned by blocks with the same corresponding dimensions. Thus \( A_k \) will be the square matrix of dimension \( n'_k = n_{k+1} - p'_k \) obtained by suppressing the last \( p'_k \) rows and columns of \( A_{k+1} \).

From the block bordering method we know that

\[
A'_k = A_k^{-1} + A_k^{-1} u_k \beta_k^{-1} v_k A_k^{-1} \\
u_k' = -A_k^{-1} u_k \beta_k^{-1}, \quad v_k' = -\beta_k^{-1} v_k A_k^{-1}, \\
A'_k = \beta_k^{-1}, \quad \beta_k = a_k - v_k A_k^{-1} u_k.
\]

Because

\[
a_k^{-1} = \beta_k
\]

then

\[
u_k' a_k^{-1} = -A_k^{-1} u_k,
\]

and thus

\[
u_k' a_k^{-1} v_k' = A_k^{-1} u_k \beta_k^{-1} v_k A_k^{-1}.
\]
Thus using this in the expression of $A'_k$ gives us

$$A'_k = A'_k - u'_k a^{-1}_k v'_k.$$

This formula, which corresponds to the Schur complement, was already given by Duncan in 1944 [6]. The following relations also hold.

$$\text{det } A_k^{-1} = \text{det } A_{k+1}^{-1}/\text{det } a_k,$$

$$\text{det } A_{k+1} = \text{det } A_k \cdot \text{det } \beta_k.$$

Moreover, from the Sherman–Morrison formula (see [8] for review), we have

$$A'_k = (A_k - u_k a^{-1}_k v_k)^{-1},$$

and

$$A_k = (A'_k - u'_k a^{-1}_k v'_k)^{-1} = A_k^{-1} + A'_k - u'_k \beta^{-1}_k v'_k A_k'^{-1},$$

with

$$\beta'_k = a'_k - v'_k A_k'^{-1} u'_k.$$

This is another proof of (1).

From these formulæ, we obtain

$$A_k = A'_k - u_k a^{-1}_k v_k = (A'_k - u'_k a^{-1}_k v'_k)^{-1},$$

$$A'_k = A_k^{-1} + u'_k a^{-1}_k v'_k = (A_k - u_k a^{-1}_k v_k)^{-1}.$$

Now we want to compute the solution $z_k$ of the previous system

$$A_k z_k = d_k$$

starting from the solution $z_{k+1}$ of the bordered system

$$A_{k+1} z_{k+1} = d_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} d_k \\ f_k \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n'_k \\ n'_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

As previously stated

$$z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} z'_{k+1} \\ c_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} z_k \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -A_k^{-1} u_k \\ I_k \end{pmatrix} \beta^{-1}_k (f_k - v_k z_k)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} z_k \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} u'_k \\ a'_k \end{pmatrix} (f_k - v_k z_k).$$

Thus

$$c_k = a'_k f_k - a'_k v_k z_k,$$

that is,

$$a'_k c_k = f_k - v_k z_k \quad \text{or} \quad v_k z_k = f_k - a'_k c_k$$

and

$$z'_{k+1} = z_k + u'_k (f_k - v_k z_k) = z_k + u'_k a'_k c_k.$$
Finally, it holds that
\[ z_k = z'_k - u'_k a'^{-1}_k c_k. \]

Another way of finding \( z_k \) is as follows. From (1), we have
\[ A_k^{-1} d_k = A'_k d_k - u'_k a'^{-1}_k v'_k d_k. \]

But
\[ \begin{pmatrix} z'_k \\ c_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A'_k & u'_k \\ v'_k & a'_k \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} d_k \\ f_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A'_k d_k + u'_k f_k \\ v'_k d_k + a'_k f_k \end{pmatrix}. \]

Thus
\[ A'_k d_k = z'_k - u'_k f_k \quad \text{and} \quad v'_k d_k = c_k - a'_k f_k \]

and we have
\[
\begin{align*}
 z_k &= A_k^{-1} d_k = z'_k - u'_k f_k - u'_k a'^{-1}_k (c_k - a'_k f_k) \\
 &= z'_k - u'_k f_k - u'_k a'^{-1}_k c_k + u'_k a'_k^{-1} a'_k f_k \\
 &= z'_k - u'_k a'^{-1}_k c_k.
\end{align*}
\]

5. Variants and particular cases. Instead of bordering the matrix \( A_k \) as we did, we can also add the new rows and columns on the top and on the left according to the scheme
\[ A_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} a_k & v_k \\ u_k & A_k \end{pmatrix}. \]

Thus the inverse matrix becomes
\[
A_{k+1}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_k^{-1} & -\beta_k^{-1} v_k A_k^{-1} \\ -A_k^{-1} u_k \beta_k^{-1} & A_k^{-1} + A_k^{-1} u_k \beta_k^{-1} v_k A_k^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.
\]

The solution \( z_{k+1} \) of the bordered system
\[ A_{k+1} z_{k+1} = d_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} f_k \\ d_k \end{pmatrix} \]

can be computed by
\[ z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ z_k \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} I_k \\ -A_k^{-1} u_k \end{pmatrix} \beta_k^{-1} (f_k - v_k z_k). \]

Similarly for the reverse bordering method, starting from
\[ A_{k+1}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} v'_k & n'_k \\ a'_k & v'_k \\ u'_k & A'_k \\ n'_k \end{pmatrix}, \]

we have
\[ A_k^{-1} = A'_k - u'_k a'^{-1}_k v'_k. \]
The solution $z_k$ of the system

$$A_k z_k = d_k$$

can be obtained from the solution $z_{k+1}$ of the bordered system

$$A_{k+1} z_{k+1} = d_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} f_k \\ d_k \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p'_k \\ n'_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

We set

$$z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} c_k \\ z'_k \\ n_k \end{pmatrix}$$

and we have

$$z_k = z'_k - u'_k a'_k d'_{k-1} c_k.$$

Thus the block bordering method and the reverse bordering method can be applied in the following two cases.

**Case 1.**

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_k & u_k \\ v_k & a_k \end{pmatrix} z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} d_k \\ f_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Case 2.**

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_k & v_k \\ u_k & A_k \end{pmatrix} z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} f_k \\ d_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

There are also two other possibilities of bordering that could be investigated.

**Case 3.**

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_k & A_k \\ a_k & v_k \end{pmatrix} z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} d_k \\ f_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

This case can be treated the same as Case 2 because we can put the last $p_k$ rows of the matrix and the right-hand side on the top and all the formulæ for the methods are the same.

**Case 4.**

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_k & a_k \\ A_k & u_k \end{pmatrix} z_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} f_k \\ d_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

This case can be treated the same as Case 1 for the reason explained in Case 3.

Two particular cases can be interesting since they have many applications.

Let us first consider the case where $A_k$ is a Hankel matrix; that is, when its elements $a_{ij}$ are such that $a_{ij} = c_{i+j}$ where the $c_i$ are given complex numbers. In this case, the reverse bordering method must be applied in its normal formulation because the structure of the inverse matrix does not permit any simplification.

Let us now consider the case of Toeplitz matrices. Let $A_k = (a_{ij})$ be the Hermitian positive definite Toeplitz matrix, built from a sequence of complex numbers $c_0, c_1, c_2, \ldots$. Thus we have $a_{ij} = c_{i-j}$ (for $i, j = 0, \ldots, n_k - 1$), $c_1 = \bar{c}_{-1}$, and

$$A_k = T_{n_k}^{(0)} = \begin{pmatrix} c_0 & \bar{c}_1 & \bar{c}_2 & \cdots & \bar{c}_{n_k-1} \\ c_1 & c_0 & \bar{c}_1 & \cdots & \bar{c}_{n_k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n_k-1} & c_{n_k-2} & c_{n_k-3} & \cdots & c_0 \end{pmatrix}. $$
In this case, $A_{k+1}$ can be obtained from $A_k$ by bordering either at the bottom and on the right or at the top and on the left. In both cases, due to the particular structure of the matrix, we have $v_k = \overline{w}_k^T$.

Thus we can choose between two bordered matrices of dimension $n_{k+1} = n_k + p_k$

$$A_{k+1} = \begin{pmatrix} A_k & u_k \\ \overline{w}_k^T & a_k \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad A_{k+1}' = \begin{pmatrix} a_k & \overline{w}_k^T \\ w_k & A_k \end{pmatrix}.$$ 

Obviously the two possibilities are not equivalent and the systems to be solved are different. However, in both cases, the bordering method can be applied after the simplification due to the special structure of the matrices.

If we consider the reverse unit matrix $J$ (i.e., the unit matrix with its columns in the reverse order) of order $n_k$ and the reverse unit matrix $J'$ of order $p_k$, we have

$$w_k = J\overline{w}_k J'.$$

6. Numerical examples. When solving a system of linear equations by the bordering method some intermediate systems can be nearly singular. In that case, the block bordering method described in [5] allows us to jump over these near-singularities and the numerical stability of the process is thus improved.

Before giving a numerical example, let us discuss our strategy for deciding when and how far to jump. This strategy is based on the relation

$$\det A_{k+1} = \det A_k \cdot \det \beta_k.$$ 

Assuming that $A^{-1}_{k-1}$ has already been obtained, we first add one new row and one new column to the matrix $A_k$; that is, we use the formulæ of §2 (or, equivalently, those of §3 with $p_k = 1$). If

$$|\beta_k| \leq \varepsilon$$

for some given $\varepsilon > 0$, we will add one more new row and one more new column to $A_k$ and use the formulæ of §3 with $p_k = 2$. If

$$|\det \beta_k| \leq \varepsilon$$

we again add one new row and one new column to $A_k$ and repeat the process until, after having added $p_k$ new rows and columns, we obtain a matrix $\beta_k$ such that

$$|\det \beta_k| > \varepsilon.$$ 

Then $A_{k+1}^{-1}$ and $z_{k+1}$ can be computed by the formulæ of §3. Let us also mention that the determinant of $\beta_k$ is computed as the product of the pivots in a Gaussian elimination process. Such a strategy avoids the inversion of nearly singular matrices $\beta_k$, thus improving the numerical stability of the bordering method as shown by the following examples.

We first consider the system

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 13 \\ -2 \\ 22 \\ 25 \\ 18 \end{pmatrix}.$$
TABLE 1
Solutions with the bordering method (\(\eta = 10^{-14}\)).

| \(n\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1001(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\)
---|---|---|---|---
1 | \(-0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1001(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\)
2 | \(0.1001(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
3 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | 
4 | \(-0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
5 | \(-0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
6 | \(-0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
7 | \(-0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 

TABLE 2
Solutions with the block bordering method (\(\eta = 10^{-14}\), \(\varepsilon = 10^{-14}\)).

| \(n\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1001(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\)
---|---|---|---|---
1 | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.1501(16)\) | \(0.1001(16)\) | \(0.0000(1)\)
2 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
3 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
4 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
5 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
6 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 
7 | \(0.0000(1)\) | \(-0.2000(1)\) | \(0.0000(1)\) | 

In this system, the subsystems of dimensions 2, 3, and 6 are singular. Thus we add a perturbation \(\eta\) to \(a_{11}\) and \(a_{35}\). So that the solution of the system remains the same, we also add \(\eta\) to the first component of the right-hand side and \(5\eta\) to its fifth component.

Using the bordering and the block bordering methods for solving this system, we obtain the results in Tables 1 and 2 (\(\varepsilon\) denotes the threshold under which the block bordering method jumps and the numbers in parentheses denote the powers of 10).

However, in some applications, it is necessary to compute the solutions of all the intermediate systems. For example, this is the case in the computation of orthogonal polynomials [9], the Padé approximation, and the implementation of the progressive forms of extrapolation processes where the first step consists of the computation of the first descending diagonal of the triangular array [4]. In such cases, the block bordering method allows us to jump over the near-singular systems and then the reverse bordering method allows us to compute afterwards their solution with an improved numerical stability.

Let us first discuss the strategy used in the reverse bordering method. We assume that \(A_{k-1}^{-1}\) and \(A_{k+1}^{-1}\) are known and we want to compute the solutions of the intermediate systems of dimensions \(n_{k+1} - 1\), \(\ldots\), \(n_k + 1\), which were skipped in the block bordering method when climbing to higher dimensions. We begin by deleting the last row and the last column of \(A_{k+1}^{-1}\), that is, we use the formula of §4 with \(p'_k = 1\) and \(n'_k = n_{k+1} - 1\). For that, we must compute \(a_{k-1}^{-1}\). If \(a'_k\) is nearly singular, we delete the last two rows and the last two columns of \(A_{k+1}^{-1}\); that is, we use the formula of §4 with \(p'_k = 2\) and \(n'_k = n_{k+1} - 2\) and so on until a nonnearly singular matrix \(a'_k\) has been obtained. The near singularity of \(a'_k\) is tested by computing its determinant (again by Gaussian elimination) and checking to see if \(|\det a'_k| \leq \varepsilon'\) or not. However, if, in this test, we take \(\varepsilon' \geq \varepsilon\) (where \(\varepsilon\) is the threshold used in the block bordering method) then a jump will occur from \(n_{k+1}\) to \(n_k\) and the intermediate systems that were not solved when climbing to higher dimensions will again be skipped. Thus we must choose \(\varepsilon' < \varepsilon\).
Let us now return to our previous example. Table 3 shows this improvement ($\varepsilon'$ is the threshold for jumping in the reverse bordering method).

Let us now give an example with the $\varepsilon$-algorithm. This algorithm is an extrapolation process whose theory can be found in [4]. It can be interpreted as solving the system

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_0 S_0 + a_1 S_1 + \cdots + a_k S_k = 1 \\
& a_0 S_1 + a_1 S_2 + \cdots + a_k S_{k+1} = 1 \\
& \vdots \\
& a_0 S_k + a_1 S_{k+1} + \cdots + a_k S_{2k} = 1
\end{align*}
$$

and then computing [1]

$$
\varepsilon_{2k}^{(0)} = 1/\sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i.
$$

Let us apply the $\varepsilon$-algorithm to the partial sums of the series expansion of

$$
f(x) = \frac{1 + b_1 x + \cdots + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + x^m}{1 + x^m}.
$$

Thanks to the theory of the $\varepsilon$-algorithm and its connection with Padé approximants (see the next section), we should have

$$
\varepsilon_{2m}^{(0)} = f(x).
$$

With $\eta = 0.25, m = 10, x = 2$, and $b_i = i \cdot \eta$, we have $f(x) = 2.998536585365854$. We set $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ and $\varepsilon' = 10^{-30}$ for the block bordering and reverse bordering methods and we obtain the following results for $\varepsilon_{2k}^{(0)}$. R means that the corresponding value was obtained by the reverse bordering method.
Thus, only two exact digits are obtained for $\varepsilon_{10}^{(0)}$ with the bordering method and fifteen exact digits with the block bordering and reverse bordering methods.

Let us now take $\eta = 0.1$, $m = 10$, $x = 1$, $b_i = \eta/i$, and $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$.

We have $f(x) = 1.141448412698413$ and we obtain

\begin{align*}
\text{Bordering method} & \quad \text{Block and reverse} \\
0 & : 1.000000000000000 & 1.000000000000000 \\
1 & : 1.200000000000000 & 1.200000000000000 \\
2 & : 1.299999999999898 & 1.299999999999898 \\
3 & : 1.36666666630687 & 1.36666666630683 \text{ R} \\
4 & : 1.416666663166007 & 1.41666665980086 \text{ R} \\
5 & : 1.41669182535733 & 1.4166918348150 \text{ R} \\
6 & : 1.370133070676631 & 1.370133070822927 \text{ R} \\
7 & : 1.36379438853716 & 1.36379438821982 \\
8 & : 1.299241827763746 & 1.299241827748625 \\
9 & : 1.221626694709201 & 1.221626694709201 \\
10 & : 1.141448412733146 & 1.141448412698013
\end{align*}

Again the precision has been improved by the reverse bordering method.

In both examples, the subsystems of dimensions 3, 4, 5, and 6 were nearly singular and their solutions were obtained by the reverse bordering method from the solution of the system of dimension 7.

7. Application to Padé approximants. An important application of the bordering and the reverse bordering methods is the recursive computation of Padé approximants. We now recall the necessary definitions (see [2]).

A Padé approximant is a rational function whose series expansion in ascending powers of the variable agrees with a given power series $f$ up to the term whose degree is the sum of the degrees of its numerator and its denominator. Such a Padé approximant is denoted by $[p/q]_f(x)$, where $p$ is the degree of the numerator and $q$ the degree of the denominator. By definition we have

$$[p/q]_f(x) - f(x) = O(x^{p+q+1}).$$

Let us define the linear functional $c$ on the vector space of polynomials by

$$c(x^i) = c_i \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \ldots.$$

We consider the polynomial $P_k$ of degree $k$ belonging to the family of orthogonal polynomials with respect to $c$; that is,

$$P_k(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \cdots + b_k x^k$$

such that

$$c(x^i P_k(x)) = \sum_{j=0}^{k} c_{i+j} b_j = 0 \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1, \ldots, k - 1.$$  

One of the $b_i$'s is arbitrary and we choose the normalization $b_0 = 1$.

The coefficients $b_1, \ldots, b_k$ are obtained as the solution of a linear system

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
    c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_k \\
    c_2 & c_3 & \cdots & c_{k+1} \\
    \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
    c_k & c_{k+1} & \cdots & c_{2k-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
    b_1 \\
    b_2 \\
    \vdots \\
    b_k
\end{pmatrix} =
\begin{pmatrix}
    c_0 \\
    c_1 \\
    \vdots \\
    c_{k-1}
\end{pmatrix}.
$$
If we denote by $A_k$ the Hankel matrix of the preceding system, by $d_k$ its right-hand side, and by $z_k = (b_1, \ldots, b_k)^T$ its solution, we can solve this system by the block bordering and the reverse bordering methods.

We consider the formal power series

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots$$

and the polynomial $\widetilde{P}_k(x)$ given by

$$\widetilde{P}_k(x) = x^k P_k(x^{-1}) = b_k + b_{k-1} x + \cdots + b_1 x^{k-1} + x^k.$$

From the connections between Padé approximants and orthogonal polynomials, we know that $\widetilde{P}_k(x)$ is the denominator of the Padé approximant $[k-1/k]_f(x)$. If we want to have the normalization $b_k = 1$ one can simply consider the polynomial

$$P_k^*(x) = b_k^{-1} \widetilde{P}_k(x).$$

Thus the block bordering and the reverse bordering methods allow us to compute recursively the coefficients of the denominators of the Padé approximants $[0/1], [1/2], [2/3], \ldots$.

To control the accuracy and numerical stability of the reverse bordering method, we take $f$ as the power series expansion of a rational function with numerator of degree $k-1$ and denominator of degree $k$. In that case, the Padé approximant $[k-1/k]_f$ must be identical to $f$. We set

$$f(x) = \frac{1 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 + \cdots + \alpha_{k-1} x^{k-1}}{1 + \beta_0 x^k} = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots.$$

Giving some values to the $\alpha_i$’s and to the $\beta_i$’s, we compute the $c_i$’s so that $[k-1/k]_f = f$; that is, in order to have

$$P_k^* = 1 + \beta_0 x^k = 1 + \frac{b_0}{b_k} x^k,$$

where $b_0 = 1$, $b_k$ is the coefficient of $x^k$ in the orthogonal polynomial $P_k$, and all the $b_i, i = 1, \ldots, k-1$ are zero. The $\alpha_i$’s depend on a parameter $\eta$ and we give to it different values.

We set $\varepsilon$ as the threshold under which the block bordering method jumps, and $\varepsilon'$ as the threshold under which the reverse bordering method jumps.

In the following examples, we give the residual $r_k = |A_k z_k - d_k|$, where $z_k$ is the vector of the coefficients $b_i, i = 1, \ldots, k$ of the polynomial $P_k$ (the numbers in parenthesis denote again the powers of 10). The coefficients of the polynomial $P_k^*$, which is the denominator of $[k-1/k] = f$, are also given.

7.1. Example 1. We consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{1 + \eta x + \eta x^2}{1 - x^3} = 1 + \eta x + \eta x^2 + x^3 + \eta x^4 + \eta x^5 + x^6 + \cdots.$$

We should have $[2/3]_f = f$, that is, $P_3^* = 1 - x^3$. 
Example 2. We consider the function

\[ f(x) = \frac{1 + \eta x + 2\eta x^2 + 3\eta x^3}{1 - x^4} = 1 + \eta x + 2\eta x^2 + 3\eta x^3 + x^4 + \eta x^5 + 2\eta x^6 + 3\eta x^7 + \cdot \]

We should have \([3/4]f = f\), that is, in particular, \(P_4^* = 1 - x^4\).

The system to be solved is

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
\eta & 2\eta & 3\eta & 1 \\
2\eta & 3\eta & 1 & \eta \\
3\eta & 1 & \eta & 2\eta \\
1 & \eta & 2\eta & 3\eta \\
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
b_1 \\
b_2 \\
b_3 \\
b_4 \\
\end{pmatrix}
= -
\begin{pmatrix}
1 \\
\eta \\
2\eta \\
3\eta \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]
### $\eta = 10^{-4}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$k$</th>
<th>Block and reverse $\varepsilon = 1.1 \cdot 10^{-4}, \varepsilon' = 10^{-10}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$0.67(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$0.20(-12)$, $0.17(-12)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.11(-15)$, $0.23(-15)$, $0.52(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$0.11(-15)$, $0.12(-15)$, $0.92(-16)$, $0.61(-12)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$P_4^* = 1 + 0.6 \cdot 10^{-17}x + 0.91 \cdot 10^{-16}x^2 - 0.61 \cdot 10^{-12}x^3 - x^4$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$k$</th>
<th>Block and reverse $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}, \varepsilon' = 10^{-10}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$0.67(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$0.67(-15)$, $0.24(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.11(-15)$, $0.23(-15)$, $0.76(-16)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$0.0$, $0.0$, $0.0$, $0.0$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$P_4^* = 1 + 0.94 \cdot 10^{-21}x + 0.11 \cdot 10^{-19}x^2 - 0.24 \cdot 10^{-19}x^3 - x^4$

### $\eta = 10^{-10}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$k$</th>
<th>Bordering method no jump $\varepsilon = 10^{-9}, \varepsilon' = 10^{-15}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$0.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$0.11(-15)$, $0.26(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.0$, $0.45(-15)$, $0.35(-5)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$0.22(-15)$, $0.83(-16)$, $0.36(-6)$, $0.36(-16)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$P_4^* = 1 + 0.19 \cdot 10^{-15}x - 0.36 \cdot 10^{-6}x^2 - x^4$

### $\eta = 10^{-10}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$k$</th>
<th>Block and reverse $\varepsilon = 10^{-9}, \varepsilon' = 10^{-15}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$0.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$0.0$, $0.37(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.0$, $0.83(-17)$, $0.41(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$0.0$, $0.0$, $0.52(-25)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$P_4^* = 1 - 0.37 \cdot 10^{-26}x - 0.93 \cdot 10^{-26}x^2 - 0.51 \cdot 10^{-25}x^3 - x^4$

### $\eta = 10^{-15}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$k$</th>
<th>Bordering method no jump $\varepsilon = 10^{-9}, \varepsilon' = 10^{-15}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$0.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$0.0$, $0.16(-15)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.44(-15)$, $0.12(-14)$, $0.96(-2)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$0.22(-15)$, $0.11(-14)$, $0.96(-2)$, $0.96(-17)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$P_4^* = 1 + 0.1 \cdot 10^{-14}x + 0.96 \cdot 10^{-2}x^2 - x^4$
7.3. Example 3. We consider the function

\[ f(x) = \frac{1 + x + \eta x^2 + 2\eta x^3 + 3\eta x^4}{1 - x^5} = 1 + x + \eta x^2 + 2\eta x^3 + 3\eta x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + \eta x^7 + 2\eta x^8 + 3\eta x^9 + \cdots \]

We should have \([4/5]_f = f\), that is, \(P^*_5 = 1 - x^5\).
8. Conclusions. In Gaussian elimination, pivotal strategies are often necessary to ensure a better numerical stability. In particular, they avoid division by numbers close to zero (which are possibly due to cancellation errors in the previous steps), thus preventing possible catastrophic errors. The block bordering method provides a similar strategy in a different context for the same drawback. However, with such a strategy, the solutions of the intermediate systems that were skipped when climbing to higher and higher dimensions are not computed. It was the purpose of this paper to propose an algorithm (the reverse bordering method) for obtaining these solutions.

REFERENCES