SOLVING LINEAR SYSTEMS OF EQUATIONS

- Background on linear systems
- Gaussian elimination and the Gauss-Jordan algorithms
- The LU factorization
- Gaussian Elimination with pivoting

Background: Linear systems

The Problem: A is an $n \times n$ matrix, and b a vector of \mathbb{R}^n . Find x such that:

Ax = b

 $\succ x$ is the unknown vector, b the right-hand side, and A is the coefficient matrix

Example:

	$\int 2x_1 + 4x_2 + 4x_3 = 6$	(2 4 4)	$\langle x_1 \rangle$		6
3	$x_1 + 5 x_2 + 6 x_3 = 4$ or	1 5 6	$oldsymbol{x_2}$	=	4
	$egin{pmatrix} 2x_1+4x_2+4x_3=6\ x_1+5x_2+6x_3=4\ x_1+3x_2+x_3=8 \end{pmatrix}$ or	131	$\langle x_3 \rangle$		<u>8</u>

Solution of above system ?

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> Standard mathematical solution by Cramer's rule:

 $x_i = \det(A_i)/\det(A)$

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 A_i = matrix obtained by replacing *i*-th column by *b*.

> Note: This formula is useless in practice beyond n = 3 or n = 4.

Three situations:

- 1. The matrix A is nonsingular. There is a unique solution given by $x = A^{-1}b$.
- 2. The matrix A is singular and $b \in \operatorname{Ran}(A)$. There are infinitely many solutions.
- 3. The matrix A is singular and $b \notin \operatorname{Ran}(A)$. There are no solutions.

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Example: (1) Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ $b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$. A is nonsingular > a unique solution $x = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

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Example: (2) Case where A is singular $\& b \in \operatorname{Ran}(A)$:

$$A=egin{pmatrix} 2&0\0&0\end{pmatrix},\quad b=egin{pmatrix} 1\0\end{pmatrix}.$$

▶ infinitely many solutions: $x(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix} \quad \forall \ \alpha.$

Example: (3) Let A same as above, but $b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

No solutions since 2nd equation cannot be satisfied

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Triangular linear systems

Example:

$$egin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 \ 0 & 5 & -2 \ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} egin{pmatrix} x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = egin{pmatrix} 2 \ 1 \ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

> One equation can be trivially solved: the last one. $x_3 = 2$

> x_3 is known we can now solve the 2nd equation:

 $5x_2 - 2x_3 = 1 \ o \ 5x_2 - 2 imes 2 = 1 \ o \ x_2 = 1$

> Finally x_1 can be determined similarly:

 $2x_1 + 4x_2 + 4x_3 = 2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_1 = -5$

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Column version of back-substitution

Back-Substitution algorithm. Column version

For
$$j = n: -1: 1$$
 do:
 $x_j = b_j/a_{jj}$
For $i = 1: j - 1$ do
 $b_i := b_i - x_j * a_{ij}$
End
End

Justify the above algorithm [Show that it does indeed compute the solution]

> See text for analogous algorithms for lower triangular systems.

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ALGORITHM : 1 Back-Substitution algorithm

For
$$i = n : -1 : 1$$
 do:
 $t := b_i$
For $j = i + 1 : n$ do
 $t := t - a_{ij}x_j$
End
 $x_i = t/a_{ii}$
End
 $t := t - (a_{i,i+1:n}, x_{i+1:n})$
 $= t - an$ inner product
 $x_i = t/a_{ii}$

- \blacktriangleright We must require that each $a_{ii}
 eq 0$
- Operation count?

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Linear Systems of Equations: Gaussian Elimination

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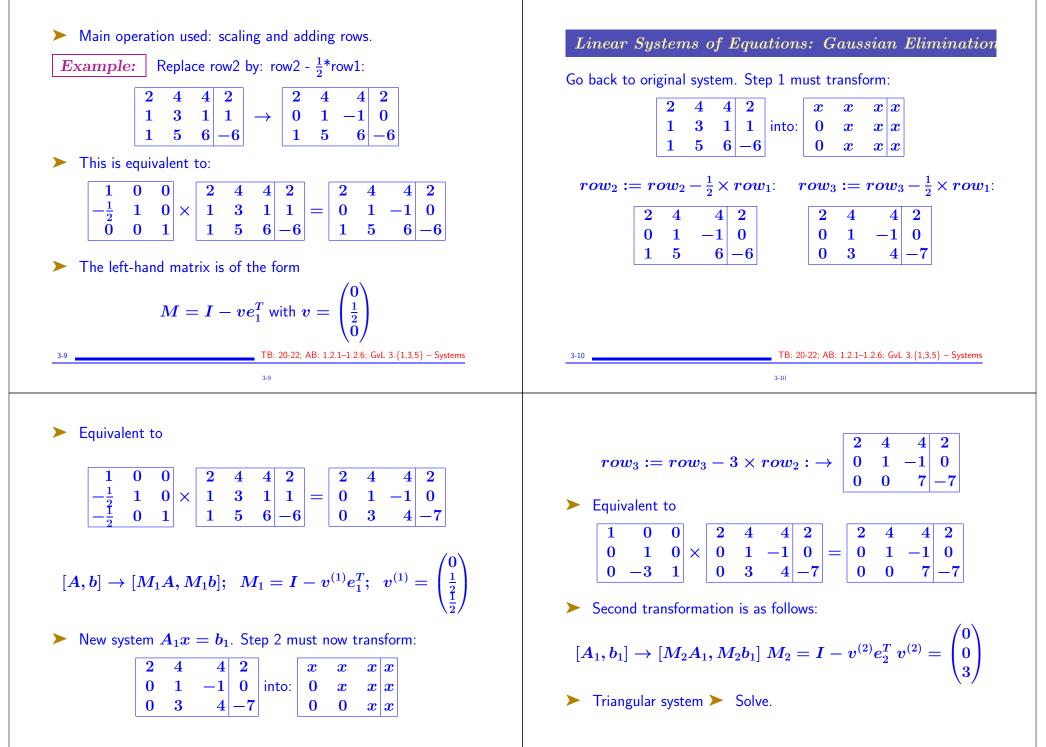
Back to arbitrary linear systems.

Principle of the method: Since triangular systems are easy to solve, we will transform a linear system into one that is triangular. Main operation: combine rows so that zeros appear in the required locations to make the system triangular.

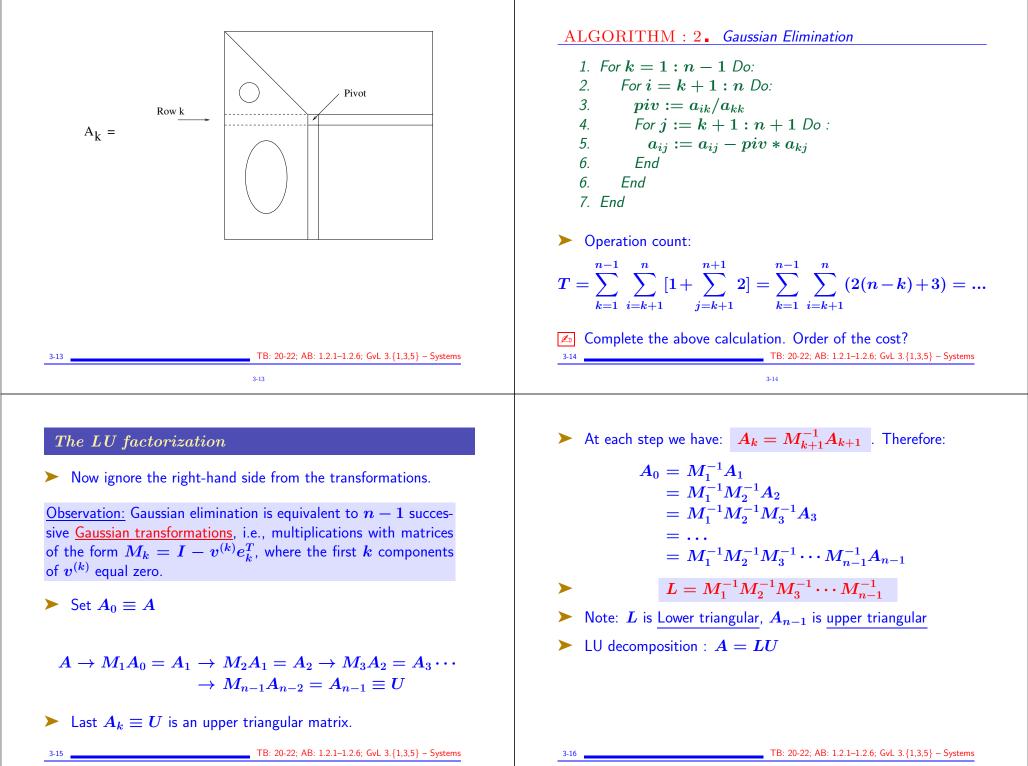
Notation: use a Tableau:

	$2x_1 + 4x_2 + 4x_3 = -$	2		2	4	4	2
{	$egin{array}{rcl} 2x_1+4x_2+4x_3=\ x_1+3x_2+1x_3=\ \end{array}$	1	tableau:	1	3	1	1
	$x_1 + 5x_2 + 6x_3 = -$						-6

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How to get L?

$L = M_1^{-1} M_2^{-1} M_3^{-1} \cdots M_{n-1}^{-1}$

Consider only the first 2 matrices in this product.

Note $M_k^{-1} = (I - v^{(k)}e_k^T)^{-1} = (I + v^{(k)}e_k^T)$. So: $M_1^{-1}M_2^{-1} = (I + v^{(1)}e_1^T)(I + v^{(2)}e_2^T) = I + v^{(1)}e_1^T + v^{(2)}e_2^T$.

► Generally,

 $M_1^{-1}M_2^{-1}\cdots M_k^{-1} = I + v^{(1)}e_1^T + v^{(2)}e_2^T + \cdots v^{(k)}e_k^T$

The L factor is a lower triangular matrix with ones on the diagonal. Column k of L, contains the multipliers l_{ik} used in the k-th step of Gaussian elimination.

A matrix A has an LU decomposition if

 $\det(A(1:k,1:k))
eq 0 \hspace{0.1in}$ for $\hspace{0.1in} k=1,\cdots,n-1.$

In this case, the determinant of A satisfies:

$$\det A = \det(U) = \prod_{i=1}^n u_{ii}$$

If, in addition, \boldsymbol{A} is nonsingular, then the LU factorization is unique.

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Practical use: Show how to use the LU factorization to solve linear systems with the same matrix A and different b's.

LU factorization of the matrix
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
?

 \checkmark Determinant of A?

True or false: "Computing the LU factorization of matrix A involves more arithmetic operations than solving a linear system Ax = b by Gaussian elimination".

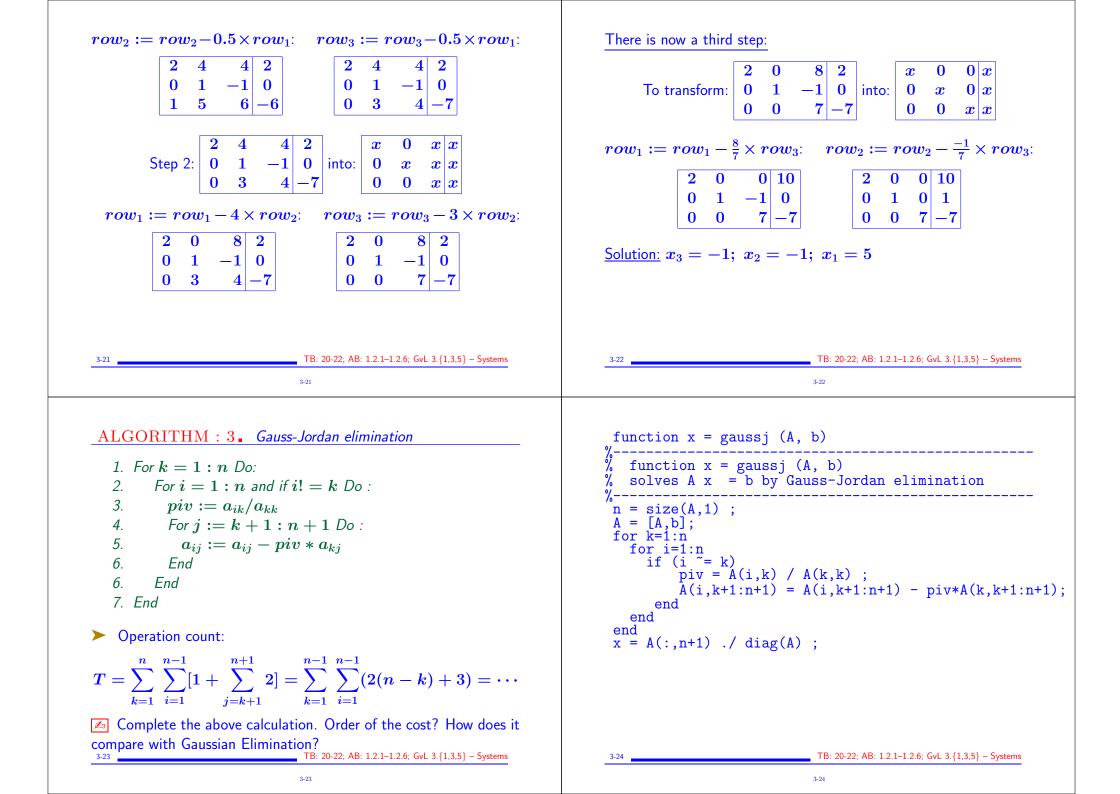
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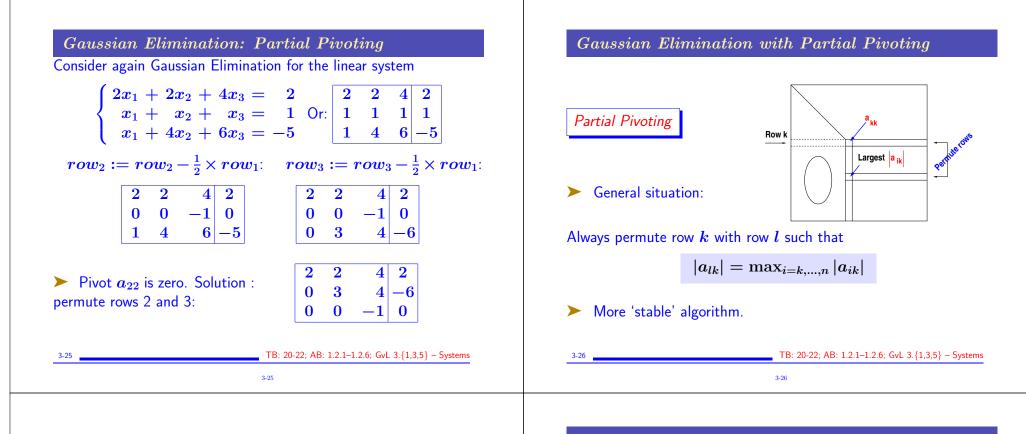
Gauss-Jordan Elimination

Principle of the method: We will now transform the system into one that is even easier to solve than triangular systems, namely a diagonal system. The method is very similar to Gaussian Elimination. It is just a bit more expensive.

Back to original system. Step 1 must transform:

2	4	4	2		\boldsymbol{x}	\boldsymbol{x}		
1	3	1	1	into:	0	\boldsymbol{x}	\boldsymbol{x}	\boldsymbol{x}
1	5	6	-6		0	\boldsymbol{x}	x	\boldsymbol{x}





```
function x = gaussp (A, b)
  function x = guassp(A, b)
  solves A = b by Gaussian elimination with
  partial pivoting/
n = size(A, 1);
A = [A,b]
 for k=1:n-1
     [t, ip] = max(abs(A(k:n,k)));
     ip = ip+k-1;
%% swap
     temp = A(k,k:n+1);
     A(k,k:n+1) = A(ip,k:n+1);
     A(ip,k:n+1) = temp;
     for i=k+1:n
     piv = A(i,k) / A(k,k);
     A(i,k+1:n+1) = A(i,k+1:n+1) - piv*A(k,k+1:n+1);
   end
 end
x = backsolv(A,A(:,n+1));
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Pivoting and permutation matrices

P

► A permutation matrix is a matrix obtained from the identity matrix by permuting its rows

 \blacktriangleright For example for the permutation $\pi = \{3, 1, 4, 2\}$ we obtain

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

> Important observation: the matrix PA is obtained from A by permuting its rows with the permutation π

$$(PA)_{i,:}=A_{\pi(i),:}$$

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 \checkmark What is the matrix PA when

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \ A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ -3 & 4 & -5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} ?$$

> Any permutation matrix is the product of interchange permutations, which only swap two rows of I.

 \blacktriangleright Notation: $E_{ij} =$ Identity with rows i and j swapped

Example: To obtain $\pi = \{3, 1, 4, 2\}$ from $\pi = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ - we need to swap $\pi(2) \leftrightarrow \pi(3)$ then $\pi(3) \leftrightarrow \pi(4)$ and finally $\pi(1) \leftrightarrow \pi(2)$. Hence:

$$P = egin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = E_{1,2} imes E_{3,4} imes E_{2,3}$$

In the previous example where

>>
$$A = [1 2 3 4; 5 6 7 8; 9 0 -1 2; -3 4 -5 6]$$

Matlab gives det(A) = -896. What is det(PA)?

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At each step of G.E. with partial pivoting: $M_{k+1}E_{k+1}A_k = A_{k+1}$	Result: $A_0 = E_1 M_1^{-1} A_1$
where E_{k+1} encodes a swap of row $k + 1$ with row $l > k + 1$. Notes: (1) $E_i^{-1} = E_i$ and (2) $M_j^{-1} \times E_{k+1} = E_{k+1} \times \tilde{M_j}^{-1}$ for $k \ge j$, where \tilde{M}_j has a permuted Gauss vector: $(I + v^{(j)}e_j^T)E_{k+1} = E_{k+1}(I + E_{k+1}v^{(j)}e_j^T)$ $\equiv E_{k+1}(I + \tilde{v}^{(j)}e_j^T)$	$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligne} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin$
$\equiv E_{k+1}\tilde{M}_j$ Here we have used the fact that above row $k+1$, the permutation matrix E_{k+1} looks just like an identity matrix.	ln the end $PA = LU$ with $P = E_{n-1} \cdots E_1$

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