

## CSC338 Lecture 3

①

Today, we'll start talking about a new class of computational problems.

Solving a system of linear equations:

- $$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$
- ↑ ↑ ↑  
n × n    n × 1    n × 1
- ↳ Develop an efficient algorithm (today)
  - ↳ Develop an efficient and stable algorithm
  - ↳ Determine when the problem is well-conditioned
- } next week.

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  rectangular and

-  $m > n \Rightarrow$  over-determined system

more equations than unknowns

-  $m < n \Rightarrow$  under-determined system

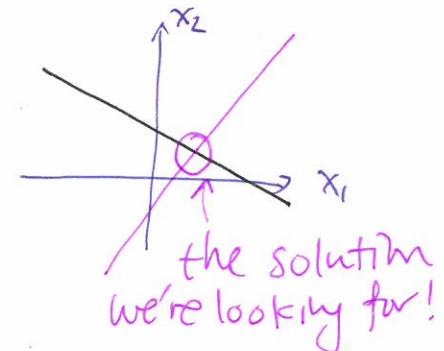
fewer equations than unknowns

eg//  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$      $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$      $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$  unknown.

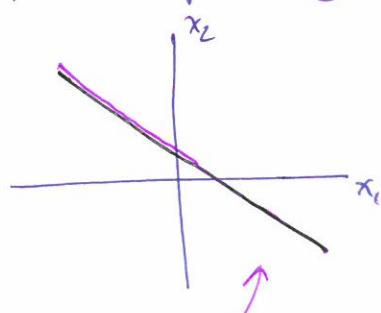
then  $\mathbf{x}$  represents the intersection of 2 lines.

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \Leftrightarrow a_{11}x_1 + a_{12} \cdot x_2 = b_1$$

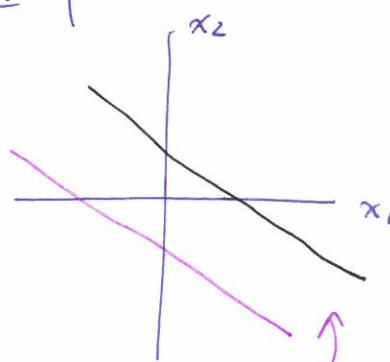
$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22} \cdot x_2 = b_2$$



Two lines intersect at a unique point if they are not parallel.



intersect everywhere



intersect nowhere

Def The matrix  $A$  is non-singular iff there exists a <sup>②</sup> matrix  $A^{-1}$  such that  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$   
(i.e.  $A$  is invertible)

Equivalent Def: .  $\det(A) \neq 0$   
·  $\text{rank}(A) = n \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$   
· for any vector  $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \underline{v} \neq \underline{0}, A\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$

e.g //  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$  is singular.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{has } \infty \text{ solutions.}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{has no solution}$$

If  $A$  is nonsingular, then,  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  has a unique solution.

③ How do we solve  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b} \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  nonsingular?

→ Why not compute  $A^{-1}$ , then set  $\underline{x} = A^{-1}\underline{b}$ ?

↳ But how do we compute  $A^{-1}$ ? (Assume  $n$  is large)

We need solve  $A\underline{Y} = \underline{I}$  which means solving

$$\underline{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}_1 & \underline{y}_2 & \dots & \underline{y}_n \end{bmatrix} \quad A\underline{y}_i = \underline{e}_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \xleftarrow{\text{i-th row}} \text{i-th column of the identity matrix.}$$

for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

we're back to solving systems of linear equations!

To answer ③, start by thinking of situations where  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  is easy to solve. Then maybe convert

general problem  $\Rightarrow$  easy to solve problem

When is  $Ax = b$  easy to solve?

$\Rightarrow$  When  $A$  is diagonal  $a_{ij} = 0$  if  $i \neq j$

$$\text{eg/} A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/4 \\ 3/5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{In general, } a_{ii}x_i = b_i \Rightarrow x_i = \frac{b_i}{a_{ii}}$$

$n \times n$  system  
require  $n$  flops  
to solve

$\Rightarrow$  When  $A$  is non-singular lower triangular

$$\text{eg/} A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} a_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } i < j \\ a_{ii} \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$3x_1 = 1 \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + 4x_2 = 2 \Rightarrow x_2 = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + 2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + 5x_3 = 3 \Rightarrow x_3 = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

In general, use forward substitution algorithm for a lower triangular matrix  $A$ .

$$x_1 = \frac{b_1}{a_{11}}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{b_2 - x_1 a_{21}}{a_{22}}$$

$$x_i = \frac{b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij}x_j}{a_{ii}}$$

$\Rightarrow$  When  $A$  is nonsingular upper triangular,  
use algorithm called backward substitution

$$\text{eg/} A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_i = \frac{b_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij}x_j}{a_{ii}}$$

Idea: transform a system  $A\bar{x} = \underline{b}$  into an upper-triangular system with the same solution. ... using elementary row operations.  
 ⇒ Gauss Elimination

Example System

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{A} \\
 \left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
 R_1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 R_2 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\
 R_3 & 8 & 7 & 9 & 5 \\
 R_4 & 6 & 7 & 9 & 8
 \end{array} \right] \\
 \xrightarrow{\quad} \left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
 x_1 \\
 x_2 \\
 x_3 \\
 x_4
 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 1 \\
 -1 \\
 -1 \\
 3
 \end{array} \right]
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - (2x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 = 1) \\
 & + 4x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 + x_4 = 1 \\
 & \hline
 & x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = -1
 \end{aligned}$$

Step 1 Use elementary row operations to zero out values below  $a_{11}$ .

$$\begin{array}{l}
 R_2 \leftarrow R_2 - 2 \cdot R_1 \\
 R_3 \leftarrow R_3 - 4 \cdot R_1 \\
 R_4 \leftarrow R_4 - 3 \cdot R_1
 \end{array}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
 0 & 3 & 5 & 5 \\
 0 & 4 & 6 & 8
 \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 x_1 \\
 x_2 \\
 x_3 \\
 x_4
 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 1 \\
 -1 \\
 -5 \\
 0
 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 A' \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 b' \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 A' = M_1 \cdot A \\
 b' = M_1 \cdot b \\
 M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

Step 2 zero out below the next diagonal.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 R_3 \leftarrow R_3 - 3R_2 \\
 R_4 \leftarrow R_4 - 4R_2
 \end{array}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\
 0 & 0 & 2 & 4
 \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 x_1 \\
 x_2 \\
 x_3 \\
 x_4
 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 1 \\
 -1 \\
 -2 \\
 4
 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 A'' \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 b'' \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 A'' = M_2 \cdot M_1 \cdot A \\
 b'' = M_2 \cdot M_1 \cdot b \\
 M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

Step 3

$$\begin{array}{l}
 R_4 \leftarrow R_4 - \frac{2}{2} R_3
 \end{array}$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc}
 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 2
 \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 x_1 \\
 x_2 \\
 x_3 \\
 x_4
 \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
 1 \\
 -1 \\
 -2 \\
 6
 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 A''' \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 b''' \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 A''' = M_3 M_2 M_1 \cdot A \\
 b''' = M_3 M_2 M_1 \cdot b \\
 M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

⇒ use backward substitution to solve the system

$$(M_3 M_2 M_1 \cdot A) \bar{x} = (M_3 M_2 M_1 \cdot b)$$

(Resume 4:10pm)

The matrices  $M_1, M_2, M_3$  are called elementary elimination matrices. (5)

### Gauss Elimination Algorithm Pseudocode

loop over columns  $k = \{1, 2, \dots, (n-1)\}$

# eliminate below  $a_{kk}$ .

loop over rows  $i = \{k+1, k+2, \dots, n\}$

$$m = \frac{a_{ik}}{a_{kk}} \quad \text{\# the multiplier}$$

#  $R_i \leftarrow R_i - m R_k$ .

loop over  $j = \{i+1, i+2, \dots, n\}$

$$a_{ij} = a_{ij} - m \cdot a_{ik}$$

(we'll write  
actual python code  
in tutorial)

### Properties of Elementary Elimination Matrices

1.  $M_k$  is lower triangular, have unit diagonals,  
and is non-singular.

2. Can write  $M_k = I - \underline{m} \underline{e}_k^T$  for some

$$m = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ m_{k+1} \\ m_{k+2} \\ \vdots \\ m_n \end{bmatrix} \quad e_k = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \leftarrow \text{kth column of the identity matrix.}$$

3.  $M_k^{-1} = I + \underline{m} \underline{e}_k^T$  (homework 3)

4. If we have  $M_k = I - \underline{m} \underline{e}_k^T$ ,  $M_j = I - \underline{t} \underline{e}_j^T$  then

$$M_k M_j = (I - \underline{m} \underline{e}_k^T)(I - \underline{t} \underline{e}_j^T)$$

$$= I - \underbrace{\underline{m} \underline{e}_k^T}_{=0} - \underline{t} \underline{e}_j^T + \underbrace{\underline{m} \underline{e}_k^T \underline{t} \underline{e}_j^T}_{=0} \quad \text{for } k > j$$

$\Rightarrow$  Products are "unions".

$\Rightarrow M_k M_j$  is lower triangular.

$\Rightarrow \prod_l M_l$  is also lower triangular.

Combining these properties:

$$\underbrace{(M_3 M_2 M_1)}_{\text{lower triangular}} A = \underbrace{A'''}_{\text{upper triangular}}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \underbrace{(M_3 M_2 M_1)^{-1}}_{\text{lower triangular}} \underbrace{A'''}_{\text{upper triangular}} \\ = L \quad U.$$

### LU Factorization

If we keep track of the elementary elimination matrices while running Gauss Elimination, we can factor  $A = LU$  into an upper triangular and a lower-triangular component.

If we have a factorization  $A = LU$ , then we can solve  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  by solving  $LU\underline{x} = \underline{b}$

- ① Solve  $L\underline{y} = \underline{b}$  using forward substitution
- ② Solve  $U\underline{x} = \underline{y}$  using backward substitution.

LU factorization is useful when we want to solve  $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$  for many  $\underline{b}$ 's. (eg/1/ Inverting a matrix)