

SOLVING LINEAR SYSTEMS OF EQUATIONS

- Quick background on linear systems
- The Gaussian elimination algorithm (review)
- The LU factorization
- Gaussian Elimination with pivoting – permutation matrices.
- Case of banded systems

Background: Linear systems

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

$$Ax = b$$

► x is the **unknown** vector, b the **right-hand side**, and A is the **coefficient matrix**

Example:

$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 + 4x_2 + 4x_3 = 6 \\ x_1 + 5x_2 + 6x_3 = 4 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 8 \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 4 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

 Solution of above system ?

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GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

► Standard mathematical solution by Cramer's rule:

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

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 $b \in \text{Ran}(A)$. There are infinitely many solutions.
3. The matrix A is singular and $b \notin \text{Ran}(A)$. There are no solutions.

4-3

GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

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 $x = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

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

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

► 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

4-4

GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

Background. Triangular linear systems

Example:

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

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

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

$$5x_2 - 2x_3 = 1 \rightarrow 5x_2 - 2 \times 2 = 1 \rightarrow x_2 = 1$$

► Finally x_1 can be determined similarly:

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

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
```

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

► Analogous algorithms for lower triangular systems.

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
```

► We must require that each $a_{ii} \neq 0$

► Operation count?

Background: Gaussian Elimination

► 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:

$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 + 4x_2 + 4x_3 = 2 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + 1x_3 = 1 \\ x_1 + 5x_2 + 6x_3 = -6 \end{cases} \text{ tableau: } \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 & -6 \end{array}$$

► Main operation used: scaling and adding rows.

Gaussian Elimination (cont.)

► Step 1 transforms

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ into: } \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{row}_2 := \text{row}_2 - \frac{1}{2} \times \text{row}_1; \quad \text{row}_3 := \text{row}_3 - \frac{1}{2} \times \text{row}_1:$$

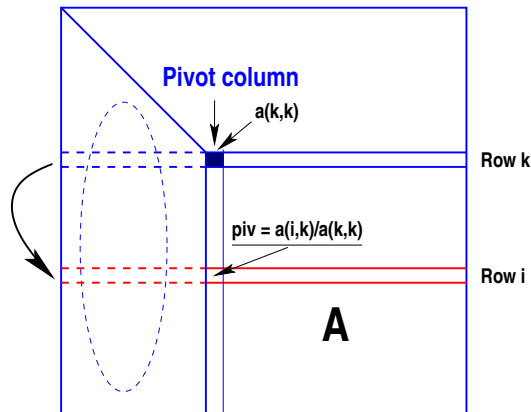
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

► Equivalent to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & 6 & -6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

4-9 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

Gaussian Elimination in a picture



For $i=k+1:n$ Do:
 $\text{piv} = a(i,k)/a(k,k)$
 $\text{row}(i) := \text{row}(i) - \text{piv} * \text{row}(k)$

4-11 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

► Step 2 must transform:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix} \text{ into: } \begin{bmatrix} x & x & x & x \\ 0 & x & x & x \\ 0 & 0 & x & x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{row}_3 := \text{row}_3 - 3 \times \text{row}_2 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

► Equivalent to

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

► Triangular system ► Solve.

4-10 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

ALGORITHM : 2. Gaussian Elimination

1. For $k = 1 : n - 1$ Do:
2. For $i = k + 1 : n$ Do:
3. $\text{piv} := a_{ik}/a_{kk}$
4. For $j := k + 1 : n + 1$ Do :
5. $a_{ij} := a_{ij} - \text{piv} * a_{kj}$
6. End
6. End
7. End

► Operation count:

$$T = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i=k+1}^n [1 + \sum_{j=k+1}^{n+1} 2] = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \sum_{i=k+1}^n (2(n-k) + 3) = \dots$$

3 Complete the above calculation. Order of the cost?

4-12 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

The LU factorization

► Now ignore the right-hand side and consider only A

Observation: Gaussian elimination is equivalent to $n - 1$ successive Gaussian transformations, i.e., multiplications with matrices of the form $M_k = I - v^{(k)}e_k^T$, where the first k components of $v^{(k)}$ equal zero.

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= M_1 A_0 \quad \text{with} \quad A_0 \equiv A \\ A_2 &= M_2 A_1 = M_2(M_1 A_0) \\ A_3 &= M_3 A_2 = M_3(M_2 M_1 A_0) \\ &\vdots \\ A_{n-1} &= M_{n-1} \cdots M_1 A_0 \rightarrow \\ U &= [M_{n-1} \cdots M_1] A \end{aligned}$$

4-13 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

$$A = \underbrace{[M_{n-1} M_{n-2} \cdots M_1]^{-1}}_L U \equiv LU$$

LU decomposition : $A = LU$, where L is lower triangular with ones on diagonal ('Unit lower triang.'), and U is upper triangular = the last matrix obtained in the process = (A_{n-1}) .

► Easy to get U . How do we get L ? Can show:

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.

► There is an 'algorithmic' approach to understanding the LU factorization [see supplemental notes]

4-14 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

A matrix A has an LU decomposition iff

$$\det(A(1:k, 1:k)) \neq 0 \quad \text{for} \quad k = 1, \dots, n-1.$$

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

If, in addition, A is nonsingular, then the LU factorization is unique.

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

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

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

4-15 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

Gaussian Elimination: Partial Pivoting

Consider again GE for the system:
$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3 = 2 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 + 6x_3 = -5 \end{cases} \quad \text{Or:} \quad \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 6 & -5 \end{array}$$

► $row_2 := row_2 - \frac{1}{2} \times row_1$: $row_3 := row_3 - \frac{1}{2} \times row_1$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 6 & -5 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & -6 \end{array}$$

► Pivot a_{22} is zero. Solution : permute rows 2 and 3:

$$\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{array}$$

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Gaussian Elimination with Partial Pivoting

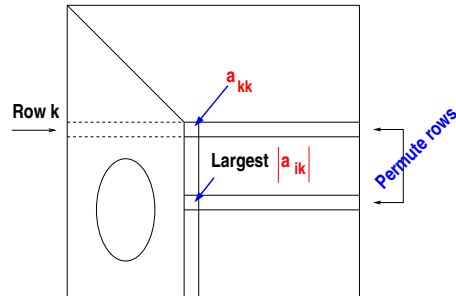
Partial Pivoting

- General step k shown on the right →
- Exchange row k with row l where

$$|a_{lk}| = \max_{i=k, \dots, n} |a_{ik}|$$

- Do this at each step
- Yields a more 'stable' algorithm.

 8 The matlab script `gaussp` will be provided. Explore it from the angle of an actual implementation in a language like C. Is it necessary to 'physically' move the rows? (moving data around is not free).



 9 What is the matrix PA when

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

- Any permutation matrix is the product of interchange permutations, which only swap two rows of I .
- Notation: E_{ij} = Identity with rows i and j swapped

Pivoting and permutation matrices

- A permutation matrix is a matrix obtained from the identity matrix by permuting its rows
- For example for the permutation $\pi = \{3, 1, 4, 2\}$ we obtain

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

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

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

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:

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

 10 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 $\det(PA)$?

Obtaining the LU factorization with pivoting

- The main result is simple (though cumbersome to prove)

We end up with the factorization

$$PA = LU$$

where

- P is the permutation matrix corresponding to the accumulated swaps.
- U is the last upper triangular matrix obtained
- L is the same matrix of multipliers as before, *but* the rows are swapped when those of the (evolving) U are.
- Best explained with examples.

4-21 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

➤ First observation: Gaussian elimination (no pivoting) preserves the initial banded form. Consider first step of Gaussian elimination:

2. For $i = 2 : n$ Do:
3. $a_{i1} := a_{i1}/a_{11}$ (pivots)
4. For $j := 2 : n$ Do :
5. $a_{ij} := a_{ij} - a_{i1} * a_{1j}$
6. End
7. End

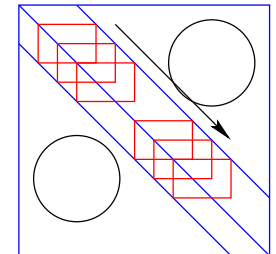
➤ If A has upper bandwidth q and lower bandwidth p then so is the resulting $[L/U]$ matrix. ➤ Band form is preserved (induction)

🔗12 Operation count?

4-23 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

Special case of banded matrices

- Banded matrices arise in many applications
- A has upper bandwidth q if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j - i > q$
- A has lower bandwidth p if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i - j > p$



🔗11 Explain how GE would work on a banded system (you want to avoid operations involving zeros) – Hint: see picture

- Simplest case: tridiagonal ➤ $p = q = 1$.

4-22 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems

What happens when partial pivoting is used?

If A has lower bandwidth p , upper bandwidth q , and if Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting is used, then the resulting U has upper bandwidth $p + q$. L has at most $p + 1$ nonzero elements per column (bandedness is lost).

- Simplest case: tridiagonal ➤ $p = q = 1$.

Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4-24 GvL 3.{1,3,5} – Systems