

CMPT-439

Numerical Computation

Fall 2020

Solving Systems of Linear Equations
Introduction, Cramer's Rule

Linear Algebraic Equations

- An equation of the form $ax + by + c = 0$ or $ax + by = -c$ is called a linear equation in unknowns x and y
- $ax + by + cz = d$ is a linear equation in three unknowns x , y , and z
- Thus, a linear equation in n unknowns is

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b \quad a_1, \dots, a_n, b \in R \text{ or } a_1, \dots, a_n, b \in C$$

- A solution of such an equation consists of numbers $c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_n$
- If we have to deal with more than one linear equation, a set (system) of linear equations must be solved **simultaneously**

Systems of Linear Equations

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \cdots = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \cdots = b_2$$

$$a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 + \cdots = b_3$$

\vdots

➤ In a matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow Ax = b$$

Systems of Linear Equations

- Solve $Ax=b$, where A is an $n \times n$ matrix and b is an $n \times 1$ column vector
- Can also talk about non-square systems where A is $m \times n$, b is $m \times 1$, and x is $n \times 1$
 - *Overdetermined* if $m > n$:
“more equations than unknowns”
 - *Underdetermined* if $n > m$:
“more unknowns than equations”

Square Matrices

- A **square matrix** of order n contains the same number of rows and columns

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Square matrices are particularly important when a system of equations to be solved

A Symmetric Matrix

- A square matrix is called a **symmetric matrix** when the pairs of elements with the symmetric indexes across the diagonal are equal

$$a_{ij} = a_{ji}; i, j = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & x & y \\ x & a_{22} & z \\ y & z & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Transpose of a Matrix

- The **transpose** of a matrix is a matrix obtained by writing the rows as columns or (which is the same) by writing the columns as rows

$$A = [a_{ij}]; A^T = [a_{ji}]$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}; A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{n1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{n2} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Diagonal Matrix

- If all elements in a square matrix except those on the main diagonal are zero, the matrix is called a **diagonal matrix**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \ddots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & a_{n-1n-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Triangular Matrices

- A square matrix is called **triangular** if all the elements above or below diagonal are zeros

- **Lower-triangular**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0\dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \ddots & 0 \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Upper-triangular**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix

- If the nonzero elements of a diagonal matrix of order n all are equal to 1, the matrix is called the **identity matrix** of order n

$$I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \ddots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- For any square matrix A of order n $I_n A = A I_n = A$

Transposition Matrix

- If two rows of an identity matrix are interchanged, it is called a **transposition matrix**

$$I_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xRightarrow{\text{2nd and 4th rows are interchanged}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = P_{24} = P_{42}$$

Transposition Matrix

- If a transposition matrix is multiplied with a square matrix A of the same size, the product will be the A matrix, but with the same two rows interchanged as in the transposition matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}; P_{24}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

Transposition Matrix

- If a square matrix A is multiplied with the transposition matrix P of the same size, the product will be the A matrix, but with the columns of A interchanged according to the rows of P interchanged

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}; AP_{24} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 13 & 2 & 6 \\ 4 & 11 & 8 & 2 \\ 0 & 9 & 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 8 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Permutation Matrix

- A **permutation matrix** is obtained by multiplying several transposition matrices

$$P_{24}P_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{P}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}; \tilde{P}A = P_{24}(P_{12}A) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \\ 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 8 & 11 \\ 3 & 2 & 6 & 8 \\ 0 & 7 & 1 & 9 \\ 9 & 6 & 2 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

Permutation

- A **permutation** is a function that reorders an ordered set of integers. This function can be determined by a table containing two rows: the 1st row contains the integers in the initial order, the 2nd row contains the corresponding reordered set

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \dots & \alpha_n \end{pmatrix}; \alpha_i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, i = 1, \dots, n$$

- Symbols ***r*** and ***s*** in a permutation create an inversion if ***r*** > ***s*** and ***r*** precedes ***s***:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ \alpha_1 & \textcolor{red}{r} & \dots & \textcolor{blue}{s} \dots & \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

2,1 and 4,3 are inversions

- A permutation is **even** if it contains the even number of inversions, and it is **odd** if it contains the odd number of inversions

Permutation and Permutation Matrix

- A permutation corresponding to a permutation matrix determines a new order of rows:

$$P_{24}P_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{P}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Determinant

- A determinant of order n corresponding to a given square matrix of order n is a value, which equals to the algebraic sum of $n!$ additive terms such that every term is a product of exactly the n elements from the matrix taken by 1 from every row and every column
- The additive term appears in the sum with the “+” sign if the permutation created from the numbers of rows (the 1st row of the permutation) and columns (the second row of the permutation) is even, and with the “-” sign if this permutation is odd
- $\det(A)$ is a common notation for the determinant of A

Determinant

- 2x2 matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \det(A) = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

0 invers. 1 invers.

- 3x3 matrix

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

$$\det(A) = a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32} - a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} - a_{13}a_{12}a_{31}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

0 invers. 1 invers. 2 invers. 1 invers. 2 invers. 3 invers.

Singular Matrix

- A matrix is called **singular** if its determinant equals 0
- A singular matrix is **not invertible!**
- A matrix is always singular if some row (column) is a linear combination of some other rows (columns)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ ka_{11} & ka_{12} & ka_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ k_1 a_{11} + k_2 a_{31} & k_1 a_{12} + k_2 a_{32} & k_1 a_{13} + k_2 a_{33} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

- **A system of n linear equations in n unknowns has a single non-zero solution only if its matrix is not singular**

Singular Systems of Linear Equations

- Singular systems can be **underdetermined**:

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 = 5$$

$$4x_1 + 6x_2 = 10$$

(the second equation is coefficient-wise proportional to the first one)

- or **inconsistent**:

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 = 5$$

$$4x_1 + 6x_2 = 11$$

(the system matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ is singular)

Minor

- Let us have an $n \times m$ matrix A . Let us choose in this matrix arbitrarily k rows and k columns $k \leq p; p = \min(m, n)$.
- The elements located in the intersection points of these k rows and k columns form a $k \times k$ matrix.
- The **determinant** of this $k \times k$ matrix is called a **minor** of order k of the matrix A .

Minor

- Any $n \times m$ matrix has more than 1 minor of order $k < n$ for any k .
- A **rank** of an $n \times m$ matrix is the highest order of a non-zero minor of this matrix

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

$$D_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{22} a_{33} - a_{32} a_{23};$$

$$D_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{21} a_{33} - a_{31} a_{23}; D_{13} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix} = a_{21} a_{32} - a_{31} a_{22}$$

Systems of Linear Equations

- Solve $Ax=b$, where A is an $n \times n$ matrix and b is an $n \times 1$ column vector
- Usually not a good idea to compute $x=A^{-1}b$
 - Inefficient (because finding an inverse matrix is a special and computationally very costly procedure)
 - Prone to round-off errors
- So some numerical methods are needed...

Systems of Linear Equations

- Solve $Ax=b$, where A is an $n \times m$ matrix and b is an $m \times 1$ column vector
- A is called a matrix of the system of linear equations
- $\begin{bmatrix} & b_1 \\ A & \dots \\ & b_m \end{bmatrix}$ is an augmented $n \times (m+1)$ matrix of the system
- **Rouché-Kronecker-Capelli Theorem:** A system of linear equations has a solution if and only if the rank of its coefficient matrix is equal to the rank of its augmented matrix

Methods for Solving Systems of Equations

- For small number of equations and unknowns ($n \leq 3$) linear equations can be solved by simple techniques such as “method of elimination by hand”
- On the other hand, Linear Algebra provides the tools to solve such systems of linear equations
- Nowadays, easy access to computers makes the solution of large sets of linear algebraic equations possible and practical

Methods for Solving Systems of Equations

Solving Systems of Equations

- There are many ways to solve a system of linear equations:

- Graphical method
- Cramer's rule
- Method of elimination
- Directed elimination
- Other Numerical methods

For small n

For large n

Example: Graphical Method

- For two equations:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$

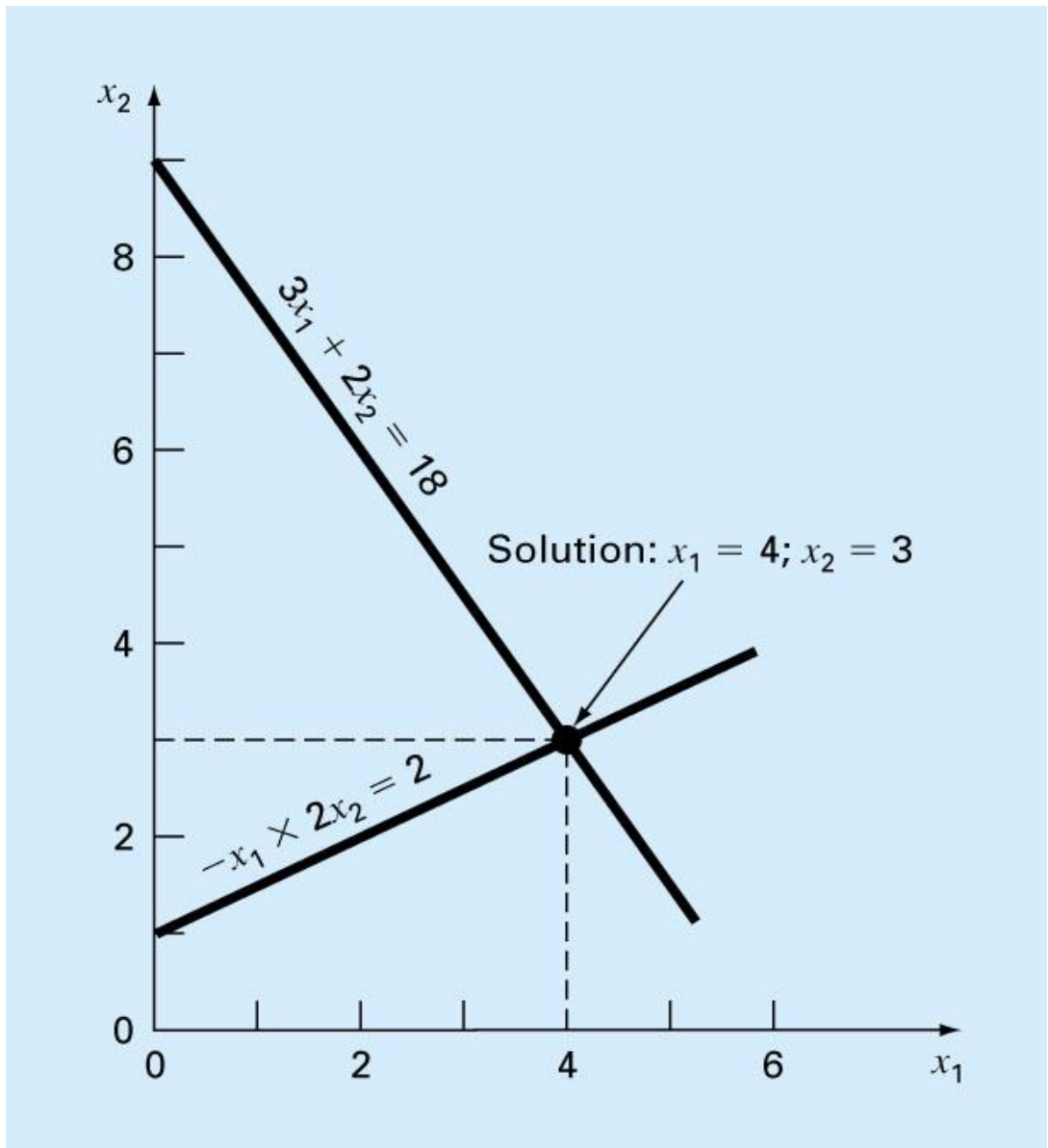
$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$$

- Solve both equations for x_2 :

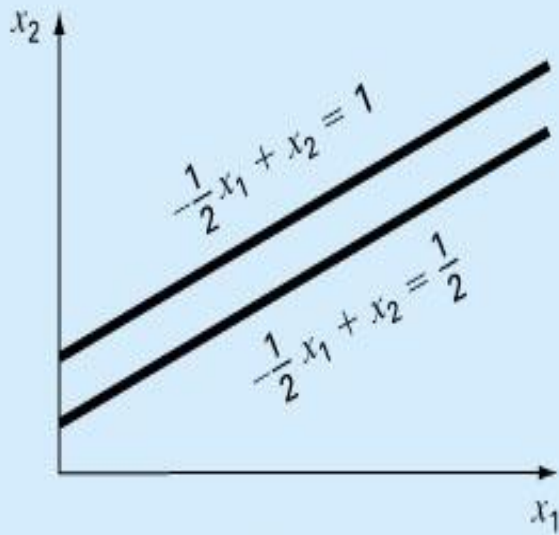
$$x_2 = -\left(\frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}\right)x_1 + \frac{b_1}{a_{12}} \Rightarrow x_2 = (\text{slope}_1)x_1 + \text{intercept}_1$$

$$x_2 = -\left(\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}}\right)x_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_{22}} \Rightarrow x_2 = (\text{slope}_2)x_1 + \text{intercept}_2$$

- Plot x_2 vs. x_1 for both equations.
- The intersection of the lines present the solution

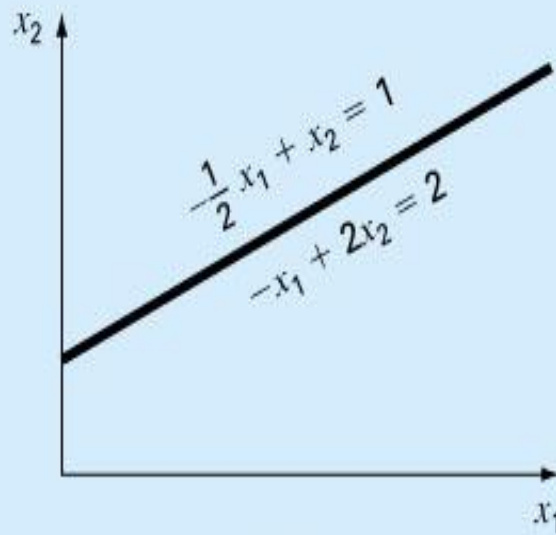


Graphical Method



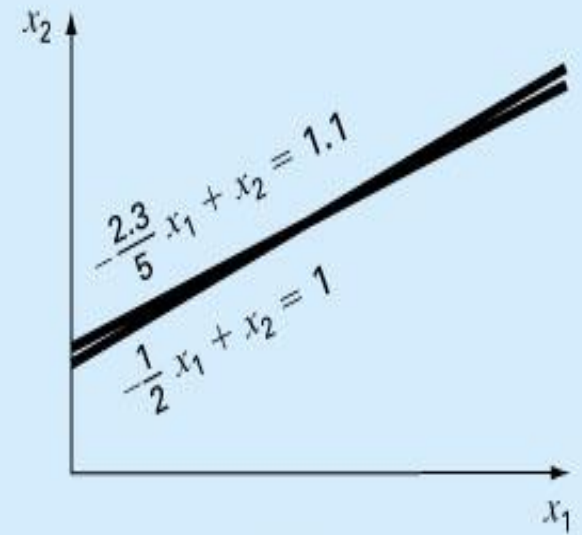
(a)

No solution



(b)

Infinite solutions



(c)

Ill-conditioned
(Slopes are too close)

Trivial Elimination Method

- For two equations:

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$

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

- Let us solve both equations for x_2 :

Trivial Elimination Method

From the 1st eq.

$$x_2 = -\left(\frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}\right)x_1 + \frac{b_1}{a_{12}} = -\left(\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}}\right)x_1 + \frac{b_2}{a_{22}}$$

From the 2nd eq.

Then

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}} - \frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}\right)x_1 + \frac{b_1}{a_{12}} - \frac{b_2}{a_{22}} = 0$$

And now

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = -\frac{\left(\frac{b_1}{a_{12}} - \frac{b_2}{a_{22}}\right)}{\left(\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}} - \frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}\right)} = \frac{\left(\frac{b_2}{a_{22}} - \frac{b_1}{a_{12}}\right)}{\left(\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}} - \frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}\right)}$$

x_2 can now easily be found from either of the two equations

Cramer's Rule

- Cramer's rule expresses the solution of a system $Ax=b$ (where A is an $n \times n$ matrix) of linear equations in terms of ratios of determinants
- The unknown x_i is equal to the ratio of the determinant created from the one of the matrix A by replacement of its i th column with a column of “free” coefficients to the determinant of the matrix A .

Cramer's Rule

- For example: $Ax = b$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}; x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}; b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}; D = |A| = \det(A)$$

$$x_1 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ b_2 & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ b_3 & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}}{D}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & b_3 & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}}{D}$$

$$x_3 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & b_2 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & b_3 \end{vmatrix}}{D}$$

Cramer's Rule Example

Find x_2 in the following system of equations:

$$0.3x_1 + 0.52x_2 + x_3 = -0.01$$

$$0.5x_1 + x_2 + 1.9x_3 = 0.67$$

$$0.1x_1 + 0.3x_2 + 0.5x_3 = -0.44$$

Find the determinant D

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} 0.3 & 0.52 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 1.9 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix} = 0.3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1.9 \\ 0.3 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix} - 0.52 \begin{vmatrix} 0.5 & 1.9 \\ 0.1 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \begin{vmatrix} 0.5 & 1 \\ 0.1 & 0.4 \end{vmatrix} = -0.0022$$

Find determinant D_2 by replacing D 's second column with b

$$D_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 0.3 & -0.01 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 0.67 & 1.9 \\ 0.1 & -0.44 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix} = 0.3 \begin{vmatrix} 0.67 & 1.9 \\ -0.44 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix} - 0.01 \begin{vmatrix} 0.5 & 1.9 \\ 0.1 & 0.5 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \begin{vmatrix} 0.5 & 0.67 \\ 0.1 & -0.44 \end{vmatrix} = -0.0649$$

Divide

$$x_2 = \frac{D_2}{D} = \frac{0.0649}{-0.0022} = -29.5$$

Cramer's Rule

- Advantage of the Cramer's rule is its formal algebraic simplicity
- Disadvantage of the Cramer's rule is a computational complexity of determinants computation for large values of n