

Simultaneous Equations

Linear Algebra - Lecture 1
Computational Physics 301

Linear Algebra

- A vast, and incredibly important area of numerical methods
- What is it used for ?
 - Physics, engineering, economics, modelling, simulation, signal analysis, error correction, prediction, machine learning, quantum computing, games, graphics,
- What isn't it used for ?
 - Non-linear problems?
 - But we often find an approximation and use linear techniques anyway !

“Linear algebra is what most computers are doing, most of the time...”

Simultaneous Equations

- A big, big class of problems...

$$\begin{array}{l} ax_1 + bx_2 = y_1 \\ cx_1 + dx_2 = y_2 \end{array} \quad \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \underline{A}\underline{x} = \underline{y}$$

- Numerical methods are unsurprisingly useful when the number of equations (and variables) N becomes large
- Many methods for solving :
 - Matrix inversion
 - Gaussian elimination
 - Matrix decomposition
 - ...

Matrix Inversion

- A solution becomes clear if we use the matrix form :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \begin{array}{l} ax_1 + bx_2 = y_1 \\ cx_1 + dx_2 = y_2 \end{array} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ & \nwarrow & \\ A\underline{x} = \underline{y} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & \begin{array}{l} A^{-1}A\underline{x} = A^{-1}\underline{y} \\ \underline{x} = A^{-1}\underline{y} \end{array} \end{array}$$

- If we can invert the matrix, we can find the solution

Matrix Inversion

- One approach would be to use Cramer's rule : $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} C^T$
- Where C is the matrix of co-factors
- $C_{i,j}$ given in terms of the minor $M_{i,j}$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \text{---} & \text{---} & \text{---} \\ 4 & 0 & \text{---} \\ -1 & 9 & \text{---} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow M_{1,3} = \det \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ -1 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = (4 \times 9) - (-1 \times 0) = 36$$
$$C_{1,3} = (-1)^{1+3} M_{1,3} = -1^4 \times 36 = 36$$

- In theory this should work for any matrix - right ?

Matrix Inversion

- **What happens when N becomes large ?**
 - How many operations are required, in terms of N ? (ie. what is the algorithmic complexity of this method ?)
- **What about singular matrices ?**
 - When $\det A = 0$ we have a divide by zero 😞
- **What about near-singular matrices ?**
 - When $\det A$ is very large, or very small, rounding errors become important

Gaussian Elimination

- Some sets of simultaneous equations are easy to solve

$$\begin{array}{l} ax_1 = y_1 \\ bx_2 = y_2 \\ cx_3 = y_3 \end{array} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1/a \\ y_2/b \\ y_3/c \end{pmatrix}$$

Row echelon form *Reduced row echelon form*

- Gauss-Jordan Elimination is a process that reduces any set of linear equations to this form
 - It can be shown that the reduced row echelon form is unique
 - And therefore independent of the order of operations required to obtain it

Gaussian Elimination

- Usually use the augmented matrix, which includes coefficients of the result :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & | & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 6 & | & 7 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & | & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Augmented matrix

- Then apply simple operations to reduce this to row echelon form
 1. Multiply a row by a constant
 2. Swap two rows
 3. Add two rows in linear combination

Sound familiar? This is just a way to formalist techniques you already use

Gaussian Elimination - Example

Initial matrix :

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 6 & 7 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - R_3$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 6 & 7 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_1$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_3$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -5 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + \frac{2}{5}R_2$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -5 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & \frac{7}{5} \end{array}\right)$$

For reduced row echelon form :

$$\begin{array}{l} R_2 \rightarrow -\frac{1}{5}R_2 \\ R_3 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}R_3 \end{array} \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -\frac{1}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{7}{10} \end{array}\right)$$

Solution is :

$$x_1 = 1$$

$$x_2 = -\frac{1}{5}$$

$$x_3 = \frac{7}{10}$$

Check it !

Gaussian Elimination

- Another clear example from wikipedia

System of equations	Row operations	Augmented matrix
$\begin{array}{rcl} 2x + y - z & = & 8 \\ -3x - y + 2z & = & -11 \\ -2x + y + 2z & = & -3 \end{array}$		$\left[\begin{array}{ccc c} 2 & 1 & -1 & 8 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 & -11 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 & -3 \end{array} \right]$
$\begin{array}{rcl} 2x + y - z & = & 8 \\ \frac{1}{2}y + \frac{1}{2}z & = & 1 \\ 2y + z & = & 5 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} L_2 + \frac{3}{2}L_1 \rightarrow L_2 \\ L_3 + L_1 \rightarrow L_3 \end{array}$	$\left[\begin{array}{ccc c} 2 & 1 & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 5 \end{array} \right]$
$\begin{array}{rcl} 2x + y - z & = & 8 \\ \frac{1}{2}y + \frac{1}{2}z & = & 1 \\ -z & = & 1 \end{array}$	$L_3 + -4L_2 \rightarrow L_3$	$\left[\begin{array}{ccc c} 2 & 1 & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$
The matrix is now in echelon form (also called triangular form)		
$\begin{array}{rcl} 2x + y & = & 7 \\ \frac{1}{2}y & = & \frac{3}{2} \\ -z & = & 1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} L_2 + \frac{1}{2}L_3 \rightarrow L_2 \\ L_1 - L_3 \rightarrow L_1 \end{array}$	$\left[\begin{array}{ccc c} 2 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$
$\begin{array}{rcl} 2x + y & = & 7 \\ y & = & 3 \\ z & = & -1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 2L_2 \rightarrow L_2 \\ -L_3 \rightarrow L_3 \end{array}$	$\left[\begin{array}{ccc c} 2 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$
$\begin{array}{rcl} x & = & 2 \\ y & = & 3 \\ z & = & -1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} L_1 - L_2 \rightarrow L_1 \\ \frac{1}{2}L_1 \rightarrow L_1 \end{array}$	$\left[\begin{array}{ccc c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$

LU Decomposition

- LU decomposition is closely related to Gaussian Elimination
 - Preferred when dealing with multiple sets of equations based on the same matrix
 - We decompose the matrix once, then apply it to multiple equations
- It involves writing a general matrix as the product of two triangular matrices

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow A = LU = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{12} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{13} & l_{23} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{21} & u_{31} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Various methods to find the matrices L and U , including modified form of Gaussian elimination described on the previous slides

LU Decomposition

- We can apply LU decomposition to solve simultaneous equation problems
- By substituting LU for A , we end up with two simultaneous equations

$$\underline{A}\underline{x} = \underline{y} \quad \longrightarrow \quad L(U\underline{x}) = L\underline{c} = \underline{y} \quad \longrightarrow \quad L\underline{c} = \underline{y} \quad U\underline{x} = \underline{c}$$

- We can first solve for \underline{c} then for \underline{x}
- Solving is straightforward, since both L and U are triangular

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ l_{12} & 1 & 0 \\ l_{13} & l_{23} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{21} & u_{31} \\ 0 & u_{22} & u_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Singular Value Decomposition

- Sometimes we have more unknowns than equations
 - eg. $M \times N$ matrix with $M < N$, or $M = N$ but equations are degenerate
 - There may be no solution, or a space of solutions
- Or we have a square matrix with determinant zero
- Such matrices are called singular, and are not invertible
- SVD is useful in these circumstances
 - Also for near-singular, eg. when $\frac{1}{\det A}$ is close to floating point precision, and rounding error becomes a problem

Singular Values

- For an $m \times n$ matrix A , the “singular values” σ satisfy $A\underline{\hat{v}} = \sigma\underline{\hat{u}}$, $A^T\underline{\hat{u}} = \sigma\underline{\hat{v}}$
- This pair of equations are closely related to the eigenvalue equation
 - In fact, the singular values are the square roots of the eigenvalues of $A^T A$
- An SVD decomposition is $A = U\Sigma V^T$
 - U, V are orthonormal matrices, ie. composed from a set of orthogonal unit vectors
 - Σ is a matrix with the singular values of A on its diagonal

Singular Value Decomposition

- SVD allows us to calculate the pseudo-inverse matrix : $A^\dagger = V \Sigma^\dagger U^T$
 - Where Σ^\dagger is obtained by replacing each non-zero element on the diagonal of Σ with its reciprocal, and transposing the result
- Applying the pseudo-inverse matrix to matrix problem $A \underline{x} = \underline{y}$ gives $\bar{x} = V \Sigma^\dagger U^T \underline{y}$
- \bar{x} is interesting for a variety of reasons
 - If A is non-singular, then $\bar{x} = \underline{x}$, the solution to $A \underline{x} = \underline{y}$
 - \bar{x} is also the solution to a *least squares problem* - if there is no solution to $A \underline{x} = \underline{y}$, then \bar{x} is the closest approximation to one

Summary

- Simultaneous equations are a large class of problems
 - *Numerical methods are extremely useful, especially for large N*
- We looked at several methods for finding solutions
 - Matrix inversion
 - Gaussian elimination
 - LU decomposition
 - SVD decomposition
- **Next** - study the notebook on Matrix Inversion to see an example implementation, and application to a very simple physics problem