

Linear Systems

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Fitness training with linearity:

- linear expressions
- linear combinations
- linear operators
- left- vs. right-multiplication (rows vs. columns)
- linear equations
- solving linear equations
 - Gauss elimination
 - LU decomposition
- singular matrices and non-square matrices
- using operators to solve linear equations

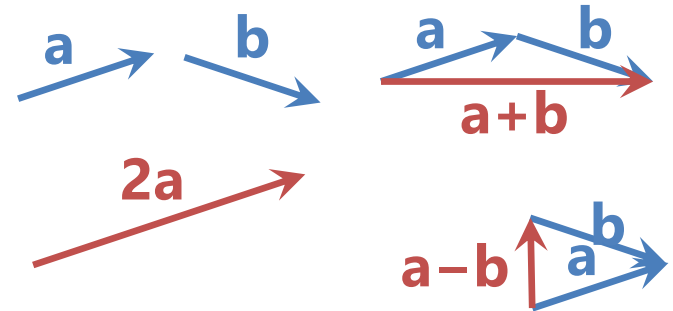
Linear system:

- system of linear equations (relations between variables)
- good to deal with, because
 - straight-forward to solve (if possible)
 - numerically stable (usually)
 - efficient
- lots *and lots* of real-world problems are mapped to / approximated by linear systems
- well supported by
 - tools like MATLAB, Mathematica, ...
 - libraries like LAPACK, NumPy, ...

Linearity in Math

Linear operations

- scalar multiplication: $\mathbf{c} = n \mathbf{a}$
- addition (& subtraction): $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$
($\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} + -1 \mathbf{b}$)



Expression “ q is linear in x ” (read also as “ $q(x)$ is linear in x ”)

- interpretation:
 - if you vary x linearly, q (or \mathbf{q}) varies linearly (with x)
- q (or \mathbf{q}) is a function of x (maybe not only of x), for ex.:
 - $q(x) = q_{k,d}(x) = kx + d \dots$ is linear in x (k, d : parameters)
 - $q(x, y) = q_k(x, y) = y^2 + kx \dots$ is linear in x (not linear in y)
 - $\mathbf{q}(x) = (2 \ kx)^T \dots$ is linear in x (\mathbf{q} : vector-valued function, 2D)

Linearity in Math



Linear operations

- scalar multiplication: $\mathbf{c} = n \mathbf{a}$
- addition (& subtraction): $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$
($\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} + -1 \mathbf{b}$)

x	$q(x) = 2x + 1$
0	1
1	3
2	5
\vdots	\vdots

example

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Rewriting Linear Expressions

The inner product: your friend! :-)

- often, it's useful to think of an expression $ax + by + \dots$ as of $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ with $\mathbf{u} = (a \ b \ \dots)^T$ and $\mathbf{v} = (x \ y \ \dots)^T$

- example:

equation of a plane \mathbf{p} in 3D: $3x + 4y + 5z = 12$

becomes $(3 \ 4 \ 5) \cdot \mathbf{x} = 12$

with $\mathbf{x} = (x \ y \ z)^T$ being an arbitrary point on plane \mathbf{p} !

- even more useful:
with “parameters”

$$\mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{x} = 12 \quad (= \mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{q})$$

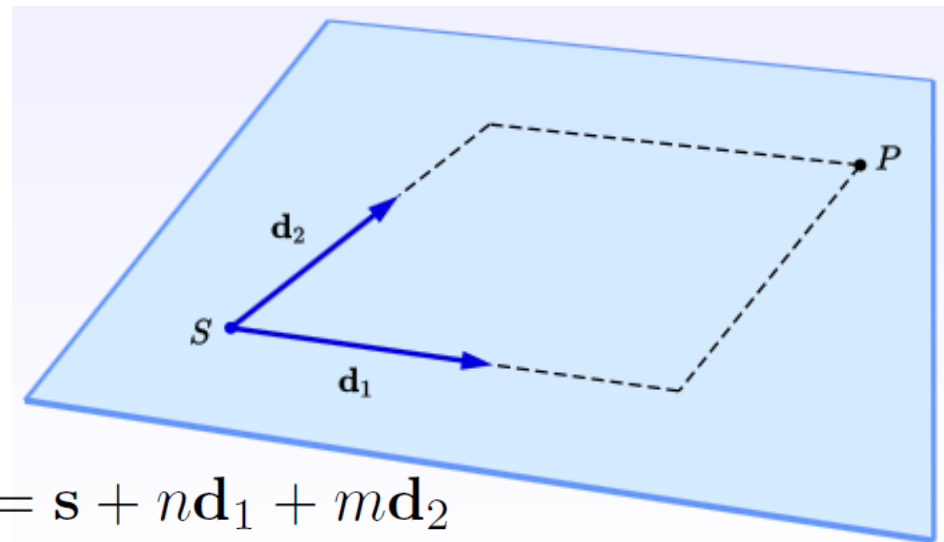
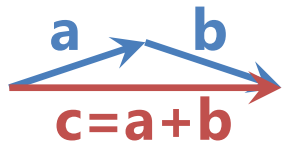
- $\mathbf{n} = (3 \ 4 \ 5)^T$ being a normal of \mathbf{p}
- $\mathbf{q} = (1 \ 1 \ 1)^T$ being one point on \mathbf{p}

\mathbf{x} : variable of this equ.

Linear Combinations

Aka. weighted sum:

- **c** is a **linear combination** of **a** and **b** (and ...),
if $\mathbf{c} = n \mathbf{a} + m \mathbf{b}$ (+ ...)
- for arbitrary n and m , $n \mathbf{a} + m \mathbf{b}$ forms a plane through the origin:
any **c** in that plane is a linear combination of **a** and **b**
- if **c** is a linear combination of **a** and **b** (and ...),
then **a**, **b**, and **c** (and ...) are **linearly dependent** on each other



$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_s(n, m) = \mathbf{p}(s, n, m) = \mathbf{s} + n\mathbf{d}_1 + m\mathbf{d}_2$$

Linear Combination as an Operator



Operators:

- mapping from one vector space to another
(more on vector spaces later)
- examples (we'll come back to them later, also):
 - operator ∇ maps to the vector of all partial derivatives
 - operator \int_0^t maps to the antiderivative

Given some $\mathbf{x} = (x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n)^T$ **and** $\mathbf{c} = (c_1 \ c_2 \ \dots \ c_n)^T$:

- $b = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_n x_n$
is a linear combination of all x_i
with the weights / coefficients c_i
- using the inner product, we can write $b = \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ or $\langle \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$
- using matrix multiplication, we can write $b = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$ or $\mathbf{c}^* \mathbf{x}$
- we can also write this linear combination as an operator $\Lambda_{\mathbf{c}}$,
acting on \mathbf{x} , parameterized by \mathbf{c} : $b = \Lambda_{\mathbf{c}} \mathbf{x}$

"Just" one Linear Combination

Given one vector \mathbf{x} (of values x_i from \mathbb{R})
and one vector of coefficients \mathbf{c} :

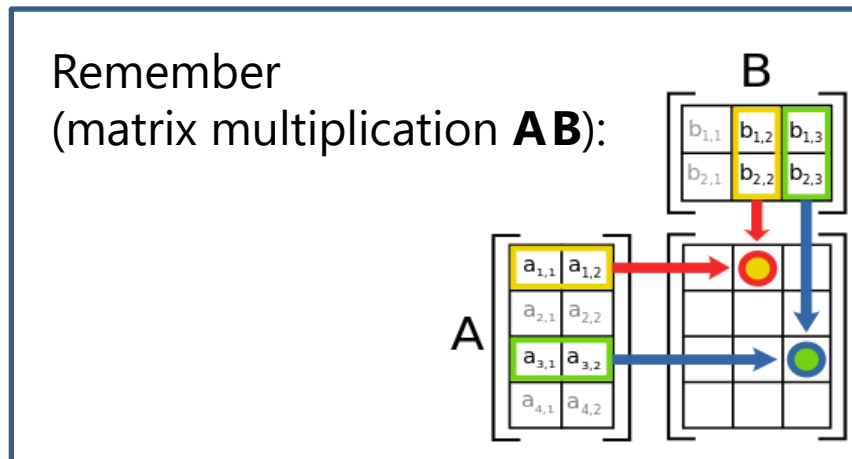
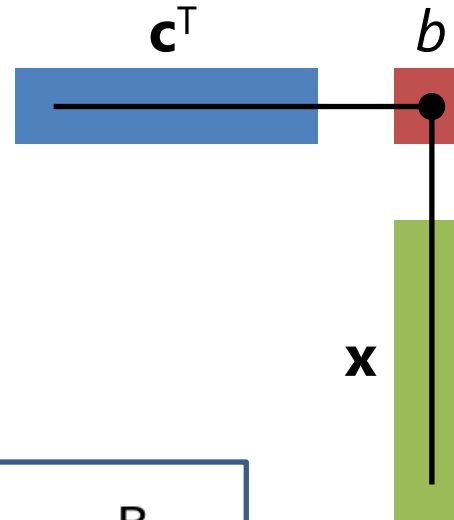
$$- \quad b = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$

← "read" right-to-left:
 – starting with a vector \mathbf{x} ,
 – we use coefficients \mathbf{c}
 – to compute b (as $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$)

$$b \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



More 1a: a Linear Combination of m \mathbf{x}_j



Given m vectors \mathbf{x}_j
and one vector of coefficients \mathbf{c} :

$$\mathbf{b}^T = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{M}$$

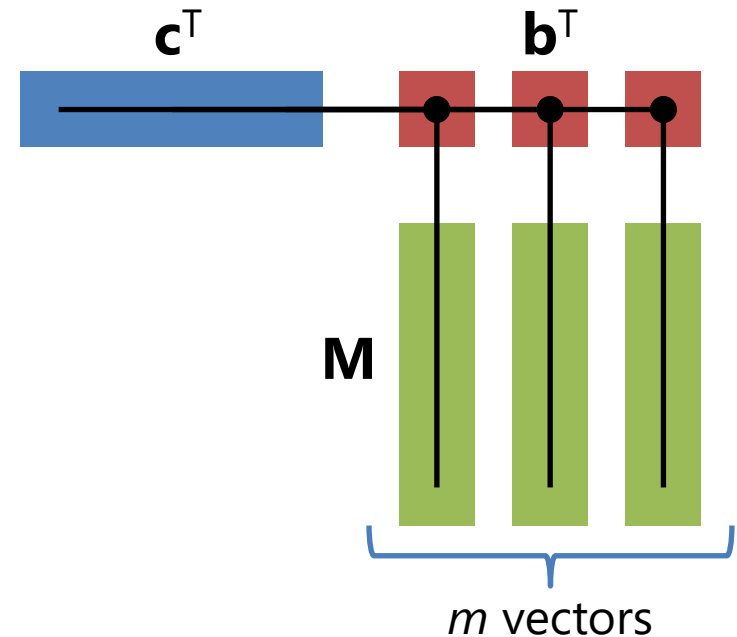


with $\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2 \dots \mathbf{x}_m)$

$$\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$$



After the multiplication,
 \mathbf{b} “hosts” the results of all the m linear combinations of \mathbf{x}_j
(all with the same vector of coefficients \mathbf{c})

More 1b: k Linear Combs. “in parallel”



Given one vector \mathbf{x}

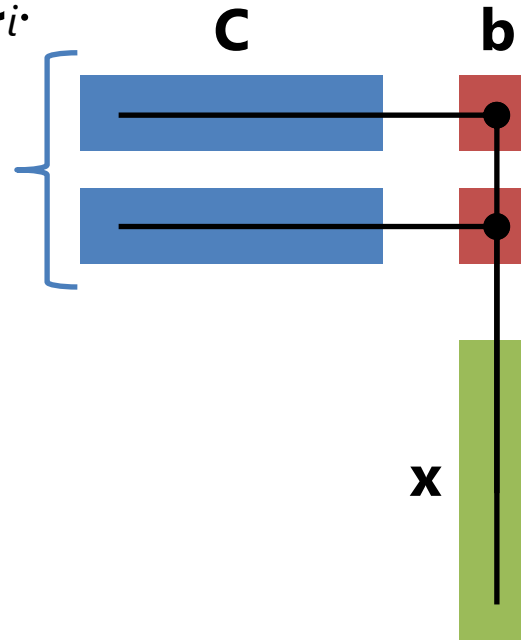
and k vectors of coefficients \mathbf{c}_i :

$$-\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x}$$



with $\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{c}_2 \dots \mathbf{c}_k)^\top$

k coeff.-vectors



$$\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

$$\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{k,n}$$

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

After the multiplication,

\mathbf{b} “hosts” the results of k different linear combinations of \mathbf{x}
(each one with its own vector of coefficients \mathbf{c}_i)

More 2: k LinCombs. of m \mathbf{x}_j

Given m vectors \mathbf{x}_j
and k vectors of coefficients \mathbf{c}_i :

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{M}$$

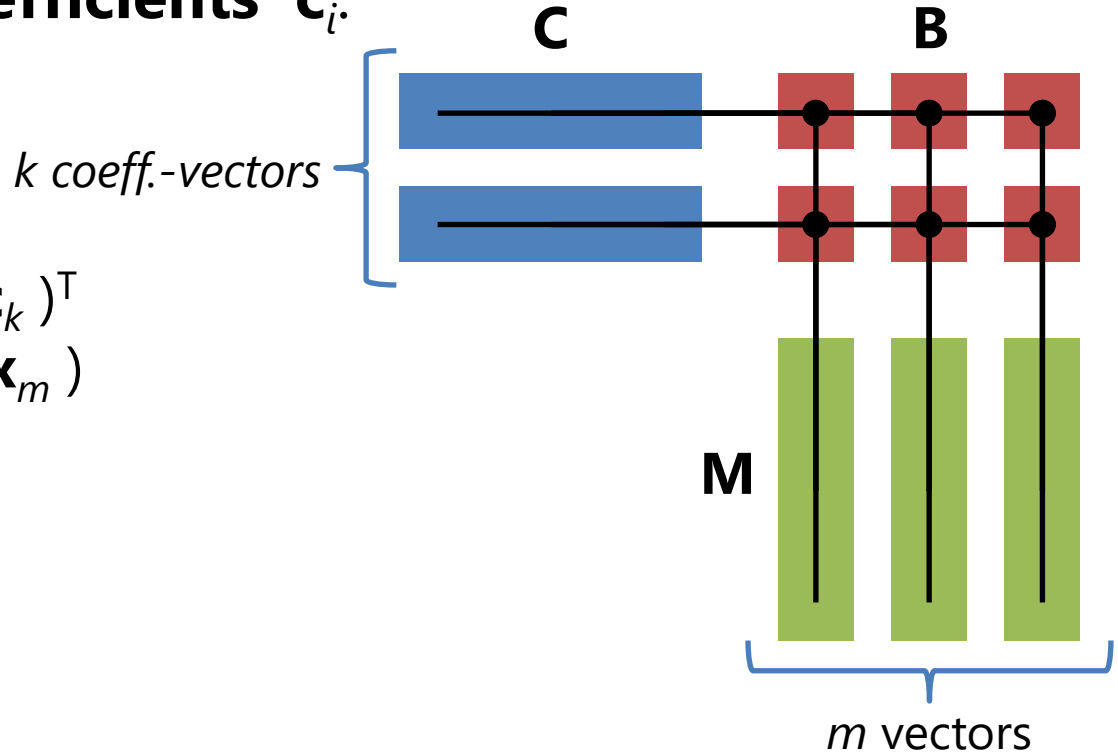
with $\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{c}_2 \dots \mathbf{c}_k)^\top$

with $\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2 \dots \mathbf{x}_m)$

$$\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k,m}$$

$$\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{k,n}$$

$$\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$$



After the multiplication,
 \mathbf{B} "hosts" the results of k linear combinations of m vectors \mathbf{x}_j

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{M} = \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{M}$$

Accordingly,

we can see the left-multiplication of an $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{M} with an $k \times n$ matrix \mathbf{C}

as applying a linear operation $\mathbf{\Lambda} = (\Lambda_1 \ \Lambda_2 \ \dots \ \Lambda_k)^\top$ to \mathbf{M} ,

resulting into an $k \times m$ matrix \mathbf{D}

with k rows $\mathbf{d}_i^\top = (d_{i,1} \ d_{i,2} \ \dots \ d_{i,m})$,

each consisting of m components—



as many as there were (column-)vectors in \mathbf{M} .

Rows vs. Columns



The matrix product $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$

- takes a $k \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} (can be “just” one row-vector – then $k=1$) and an $n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{x} (can be “just” one column-vector – then $m=1$)
- and produces $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$,
i.e., a $k \times m$ matrix \mathbf{b} (k can be 1, and/or m can be 1)

$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ can be interpreted as

- the *left-multiplication* of \mathbf{x} with \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{A} working on the *rows* of \mathbf{x})
 $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$

- the *right-multiplication* of \mathbf{A} with \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{x} working on the *columns* of \mathbf{A})
 $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$


It's symmetric through transposition

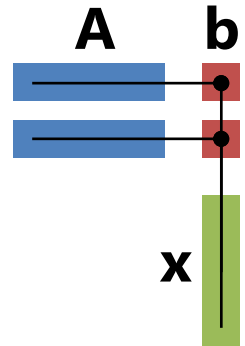
- transposing $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, i.e., forming $(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x})^T = \mathbf{b}^T$

- leads to $\mathbf{b}^T = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}^T$ (rows became columns)


Left-Multiplication (\mathbf{A} acting on \mathbf{x} -rows)



Interpreting $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ as *left-multiplying* \mathbf{x} with \mathbf{A} :

- every **row** of $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of the **rows** of \mathbf{x}
 - the coeffs. of the linear comb. producing **row #i** of \mathbf{b} are in **row #i** of \mathbf{A}
- examples:
 - \mathbf{x} is an n -dimensional vector (n “rows”) then $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is a k -dimensional vector where each of the k components of \mathbf{b} is a linear combination of the n components of \mathbf{x} (with the rows of \mathbf{A} hosting n coeffs. per combination)
 - \mathbf{x} is an $n \times m$ matrix and $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ can be an elimination operation on \mathbf{x} (more on elim. later), for ex., to eliminate $x_{2,1}$, $\mathbf{E}_{2,1}$ would be chosen as \mathbf{A}

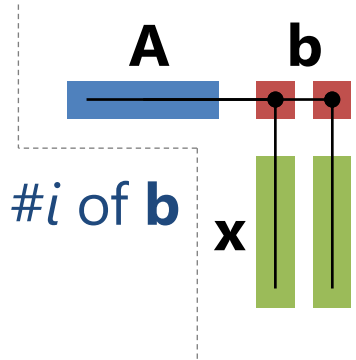


Right-Multiplication (\mathbf{x} acting on \mathbf{A} -cols.)



Interpreting $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ as *right-multiplying* \mathbf{A} with \mathbf{x} :

- every **column** of $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of the columns of \mathbf{A}
 - the coeffs. for the linear comb. producing column # i of \mathbf{b} are in column # i of \mathbf{x}



- examples:
 - \mathbf{x} is an n -dimensional vector (n “rows”, here coefficients) and $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is a k -dimensional vector which is a linear combination of the n columns of \mathbf{A} (with the elements of \mathbf{x} being the n coeffs.)
 - given \mathbf{A} as a $k \times n$ matrix; then, for all possible $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ is a sub-space of \mathbb{R}^k , i.e., the image of \mathbb{R}^n under mapping $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$

Transposition Switches Roles

Given m vectors \mathbf{x}_j
and k vectors of coefficients \mathbf{c}_i :

– $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{M}$

with $\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{c}_2 \dots \mathbf{c}_k)^\top$

with $\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2 \dots \mathbf{x}_m)$

$\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{k,m}$

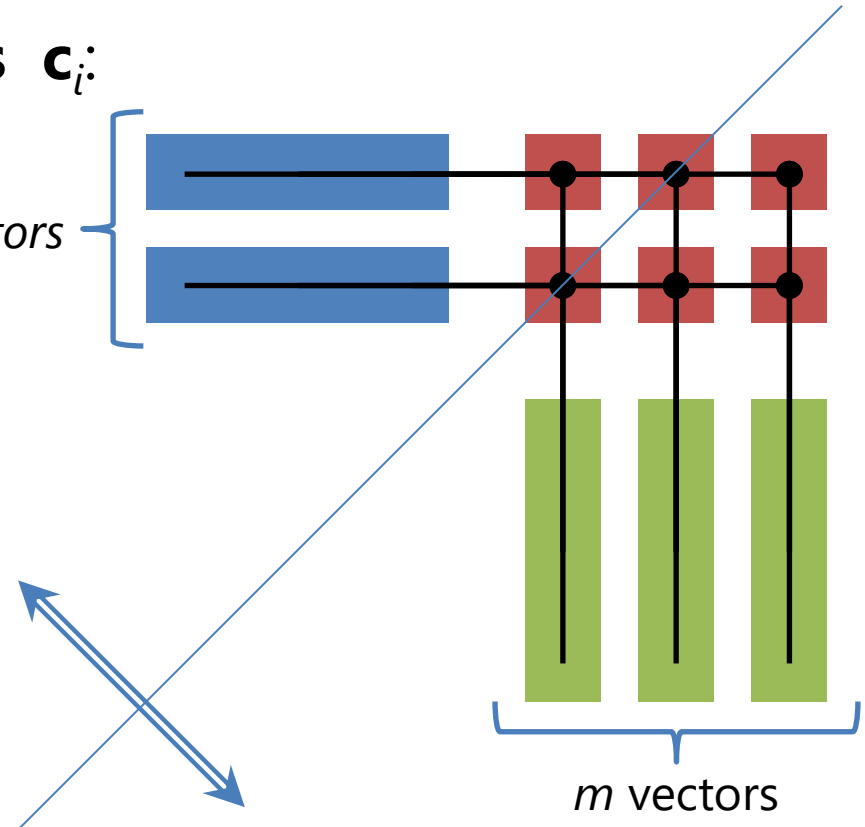
$\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{k,n}$

$\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$

– after transposition:

$\mathbf{M}^\top \mathbf{C}^\top = \mathbf{B}^\top$

k coeff.-vectors



transposition
flips the roles of \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{M}
and their rows and columns

Linear Equations



A linear equation is

- an algebraic equation in which each term
 - is either a constant (like parameter d or number 2)
 - or the product of a constant and a single variable (like kx)
 - no products of variables! → parameters are not variables!
- constants may be numbers, parameters, linear or even non-linear functions of parameters (but since parameters don't change, also their functions do not)

Linear Equations, examples

A linear equation with one unknown x (1D scenario)

- can be written as $ax = b$ with one solution $x = b/a$ (if $a \neq 0$)

Forms of linear equations with two unknowns x and y :

- standard form: $ax + by = c$
- slope-intercept form: $y = mx + b$ (no “vertical” lines!)
- intercept form: $x/a + y/b = 1$... x -crossing at $x=a$, y -cr. at $y=b$
- point-slope form: $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$... Δy proportional to Δx
- matrix form: $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} = c$ (or $\mathbf{a}^* \mathbf{x} = c$ in the case of complex numbers)
- ...

ChemBob Example



Bob buys supply for his chemistry lab—he buys

- small containers of lead nitrate (n), sulfur (s), and magnesium chloride (c)
 - the store offers the following (per container):
 - lead nitrate: 90g (\leftrightarrow 20cm³) for \$14,25
 - sulfur: 40g (\leftrightarrow 20cm³) for \$5
 - magn. chloride: 30g (\leftrightarrow 20cm³) for \$2,75
 - Bob buys in total 800g (\leftrightarrow 340cm³) and pays \$104
- ? How many containers of lead nitrate, sulfur, and magnesium chloride did he purchase?

n:



s:



c:



ChemBob, (manual) solution



Bob buys n containers with lead nitrate, s with sulfur, and c containers with magnesium chloride:

$$n \cdot 90\text{g} + s \cdot 40\text{g} + c \cdot 30\text{g} = 800\text{g} \quad (1.)$$

$$n \cdot 20\text{cm}^3 + s \cdot 20\text{cm}^3 + c \cdot 20\text{cm}^3 = 340\text{cm}^3 \quad (2.)$$

$$n \cdot 14.25\$ + s \cdot 5\$ + c \cdot 2.75\$ = 104\$ \quad (3.)$$

$$9n + 4s + 3c = 80 \quad (\alpha: 1./10\text{g})$$

$$n + s + c = 17 \quad (\beta: 2./20\text{cm}^3) \quad \Leftarrow$$

$$57n + 20s + 11c = 416 \quad (\gamma: 3. \cdot 4/\$)$$

$$5s + 6c = 73 \quad (\text{I: } 9\beta - \alpha) \quad \Leftarrow$$

$$37s + 46c = 553 \quad (\text{II: } 57\beta - \gamma)$$

$$4s = 20 \quad (\Sigma: 23 \text{ I} - 3 \text{ II}) \quad \Leftarrow$$

$$\boxed{s = 5}(\Sigma), \boxed{c = 8}(\text{I: } 25 + 6c = 73), \boxed{n = 4}(\beta: n + 5 + 8 = 17)$$

ChemBob, (manual) solution



Bob buys n containers with lead nitrate, s with sulfur, and c containers with magnesium chloride:

$$n \cdot 90\text{g} + s \cdot 40\text{g} + c \cdot 30\text{g} = 800\text{g} \quad (1.)$$

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ChemBob, (manual) solution – what?



Bob buys n containers with lead nitrate, s with sulfur, and c containers with magnesium chloride:

$$n \cdot 90\text{g} + s \cdot 40\text{g} + c \cdot 30\text{g} = 800\text{g} \quad (1.)$$

$$n \cdot 20\text{cm}^3 + s \cdot 20\text{cm}^3 + c \cdot 20\text{cm}^3 = 340\text{cm}^3 \quad (2.)$$

$$n \cdot 14.25\$ + s \cdot 5\$ + c \cdot 2.75\$ = 104\$ \quad (3.)$$

$Ax=b$

$$9n + 4s + 3c = 80$$

$$n + s + c = 17$$

$$57n + 20s + 11c = 416$$

$$5s + 6c = 73$$

$$37s + 46c = 553$$

**Gauss
elimination**

$$(I: 9\beta - \alpha) \Leftarrow$$

$$(II: 57\beta - \gamma)$$

$$(I - 3II) \Leftarrow$$

back-substitution

$$s = 5 (\Sigma), c = 8 (I: 25 + 6c = 73), n = 4 (\beta: n + 5 + 8 = 17)$$

ChemBob, linear algebra setup



Input: masses, volumes, prices, totals (without units)

– $\mathbf{m} = (90, 40, 30)^\top$; $\mathbf{v} = (20, 20, 20)^\top$; $\mathbf{p} = (14.25, 5, 2.75)^\top$

– $\mathbf{t} = (t_m, t_v, t_p)^\top = (800, 340, 104)^\top$

– $\mathbf{x} = (n, s, c)^\top$ – the yet unknown numbers of containers

Setup: inner products \Rightarrow matrix multiplication

$$\begin{aligned} - & \left. \begin{aligned} \mathbf{m}^\top \mathbf{x} &= 90n + 40s + 30c \\ \mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{x} &= 20n + 20s + 20c \\ \mathbf{p}^\top \mathbf{x} &= 14.25n + 5s + 2.75c \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} &= t_m = 800; \\ &= t_v = 340; \\ &= t_p = 104 \end{aligned} \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{aligned} &\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{t} \\ &\text{with } \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{m}^\top \\ \mathbf{v}^\top \\ \mathbf{p}^\top \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 90 & 40 & 30 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ s \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 800 \\ 340 \\ 104 \end{pmatrix}$$

ChemBob, linear algebra setup

Input: masses, volumes, prices, totals (without units)

$$- \mathbf{m} = (90, 40, 30)^T; \quad \mathbf{v} = (20, 20, 20)^T; \quad \mathbf{p} = (14.25, 5, 2.75)^T$$

$$- \mathbf{t} = (t_m, t_v, t_p)^T = (800, 340, 104)^T$$

$$- \mathbf{x} = (n, s, c)^T - \text{the yet unknown numbers of containers}$$

Setup: inner products \Rightarrow matrix multiplication

$$\left. \begin{aligned} - \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{x} &= 90n + 40s + 30c = t_m = 800; \\ - \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x} &= 20n + 20s + 20c = t_v = 340; \\ - \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{x} &= 14.25n + 5s + 2.75c = t_p = 104 \end{aligned} \right\} \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{t} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{m}^T \\ \mathbf{v}^T \\ \mathbf{p}^T \end{pmatrix}$$

nice!

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 90 & 40 & 30 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ s \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 800 \\ 340 \\ 104 \end{pmatrix} \img alt="smiley face icon" data-bbox="808 900 870 980"/>$$

ChemBob, MATLAB solution



[see MATLAB example 2a_A]

in MATLAB: „ $m = [90; 40; 30]; v = [20; 20; 20];$
 $p = [14.25; 5; 2.75]; A = [m.'; v.'; p.'];$
 $t = [800; 340; 104];$ “ and then „ $x = A \backslash t$ “



Setup: inner products \Rightarrow matrix multiplication

$$\left. \begin{aligned} - \quad \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{x} &= 90n + 40s + 30c &= t_m = 800; \\ - \quad \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x} &= 20n + 20s + 20c &= t_v = 340; \\ - \quad \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{x} &= 14.25n + 5s + 2.75c &= t_p = 104 \end{aligned} \right\} \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{t} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{m}^T \\ \mathbf{v}^T \\ \mathbf{p}^T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 90 & 40 & 30 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ s \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 800 \\ 340 \\ 104 \end{pmatrix}$$

Gaussian Elimination



Idea: eliminate $n-1$ variables, one by one

- bring the equation system into triangular form (this allows to solve it by back-substitution!)

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 6x + y - 4z & = & 4 \\ 2y + 3z & = & -5 \\ 11z & = & -33 \end{array}$$

Useful operations not affecting the solution:

- swapping equations (rows)
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x + y = 2 \\ x - y = 0 \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x - y = 0 \\ x + y = 2 \end{array} \right.$$
- multiplying equations (rows) by a (non-zero) scalar
$$x + y = 2 \} = \{ 2x + 2y = 4$$
- adding equations (rows) to each other
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x + y = 2 \\ x - y = 0 \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x + y = 2 \\ 2x = 2 \end{array} \right.$$

Gaussian Elimination



Augmented matrix

- since we operate on both sides of the equations, we form the augmented matrix: $\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b})$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 90 & 40 & 30 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ s \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 800 \\ 340 \\ 104 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 90 & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 & 340 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 & 104 \end{array} \right)$$

→ this way, we keep track of both sides!

Steps:

1. choose a **non-zero pivot element** from the left-most column (one with a large absolute value is usually a good choice)
2. **form new rows** by “intelligent” multiplications and additions so that the matrix-elements in the pivot-column become 0
3. proceed **to the next column and repeat** (the pivot-row from above stays as it was)

Gaussian Elimination, ChemBob ex.



Choosing 90 as the pivot-element in $(a_{i,1})$:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} \underline{90} & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 & 340 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 & 104 \end{array} \right)$$

To “eliminate” $a_{2,1}$: new $(a_{2,j}) = 20(a_{1,j}) - 90(a_{2,j})$,
to “eliminate” $a_{3,1}$: new $(a_{3,j}) = 14.25(a_{1,j}) - 90(a_{3,j})$:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 90 & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ \underline{0} & -1000 & -1200 & -14\,600 \\ \underline{0} & 120 & 180 & 2040 \end{array} \right)$$

Gaussian Elimination, ChemBob ex.



Dividing the (new) 2. row by -100, the (new) 3. row by 10, and choosing 12 as the new pivot-element, we get:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 90 & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ 0 & \underline{12} & 18 & 204 \\ 0 & 10 & 12 & 146 \end{array} \right)$$

To “eliminate” $\bar{a}_{3,2}$: new $(\bar{a}_{3,j}) = 10(\bar{a}_{2,j}) - 12(\bar{a}_{3,j})$:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 90 & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ \underline{0} & 12 & 18 & 204 \\ \underline{0} & \underline{0} & 36 & 288 \end{array} \right)$$

Gaussian Elimination, ChemBob ex.



Thus, system

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 90 & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ 20 & 20 & 20 & 340 \\ 14.25 & 5 & 2.75 & 104 \end{array} \right)$$

became

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 90 & 40 & 30 & 800 \\ \underline{0} & 12 & 18 & 204 \\ \underline{0} & \underline{0} & 36 & 288 \end{array} \right)$$

note the change
on the right side!

Back-substitution leads to:

$$\begin{aligned} 36 c &= 288 &\Rightarrow c &= 8 \\ 12 s + 18 \cdot 8 &= 204 &\Rightarrow s &= 5 \\ 90 n + 40 \cdot 5 + 30 \cdot 8 &= 800 &\Rightarrow n &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

Gauss Elimination as Operation

One elimination operation = left-multiplication with an elimination matrix

- If $\mathcal{E}_{2,1}$ is the operation to eliminate element $a_{2,1}$ from \mathbf{A} , then $\mathcal{E}_{2,1}$ corresponds to left-multiplying \mathbf{A} with $\mathbf{E}_{2,1}$:

$$\mathbf{E}_{2,1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -\frac{a_{2,1}}{a_{1,1}} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

\rightarrow a certain multitude of the pivot row (#1) is subtracted from \mathbf{A} 's row #2
 \rightarrow all rows of \mathbf{A} (except for row #2) stay the same (for now)

Left-multiplying \mathbf{A} with $\mathbf{E}_{2,1}$ results into a new matrix \mathbf{A}' that is exactly like \mathbf{A} only that its 2nd row ($a'_{2,j}$) is a linear combination of rows 1 & 2 of \mathbf{A} : $(a'_{2,j}) = (a_{2,j}) - \frac{a_{2,1}}{a_{1,1}} (a_{1,j})$ with $a'_{2,1} = a_{2,1} - \frac{a_{2,1}}{a_{1,1}} a_{1,1} = 0$ (as intended).

left-multiplication:
working on \mathbf{A} -rows:
 $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{E}_{2,1} \mathbf{A}$

$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ transforms then into $\mathbf{A'x} = \mathbf{b'}$, accordingly, with $\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{E}_{2,1} \mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{b}' = \mathbf{E}_{2,1} \mathbf{b}$ (\mathbf{b}' is the same as \mathbf{b} with the exception that $b'_2 = b_2 - \frac{a_{2,1}}{a_{1,1}} b_1$).

Interpreting Elimination Operations

Matrix to eliminate a_{ij} from \mathbf{A} ($i > j$):

$$\mathbf{E}_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & -\frac{a_{i,j}}{a_{j,j}} & \dots & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \dots \text{pivot-row } \#j \\ \\ \dots \text{row } \#i \end{array}$$

Interpretation:

– new row $\#i$ = old row $\#i$ minus $\frac{a_{i,j}}{a_{j,j}}$ times the pivot row ($\#j$)

note: the pivot row ($\#j$) of \mathbf{A} has $a_{j,j}$ in the j -th column

Eliminating An Entire Column

To eliminate all a_{ij} with $i > j$ from **A**:

$$\mathbf{E}_j = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & -\frac{a_{j+1,j}}{a_{j,j}} & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & -\frac{a_{n,j}}{a_{j,j}} & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \left. \begin{array}{l} \dots \text{ row } \#j \\ \dots \text{ use the pivot row } (\#j) \\ \text{to adjust all rows } \#i > \#j \\ \text{by elimination} \end{array} \right\}$$

Interpretation:

- subtract the appropriate multitude of the pivot row ($\#j$) from all rows underneath ($\#i > j$) in order to eliminate all a_{ij} with $i > j$

Gaussian Elimination as Operation(s)



We can now write the Gaussian elimination as operation(s):

$$\begin{aligned} - \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{E} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_{n-1} \mathbf{E}_{n-2} \cdots \mathbf{E}_1}_{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_{n-1} \mathbf{E}_{n-2} \cdots \mathbf{E}_1}_{\mathbf{E}} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{E} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{d} \end{aligned}$$

note the change
on the right side!

ChemBob Example, another day



Bob buys again for his chemistry lab—he buys

- small containers of lead nitrate (n), sulfur (s), and magnesium chloride (c)
 - the store offers the following (per container):
 - lead nitrate: 90g (\leftrightarrow 20cm³) for \$14,25
 - sulfur: 40g (\leftrightarrow 20cm³) for \$5
 - magn. chloride: 30g (\leftrightarrow 20cm³) for \$2,75
 - Bob now buys in total 640g (\leftrightarrow 300cm³) and pays \$80
- ? How many containers of lead nitrate, sulfur, and magnesium chloride did he purchase?

n:



s:



c:

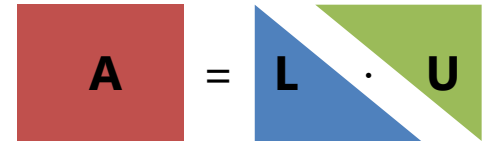


What now? All Gaussian elimination— $O(n^3)$!—again?

LU Decomposition

Rewriting **A** into product **L** **U** ...

- **L**: lower-diagonal matrix
- **U**: upper-diagonal matrix


$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{U}$$

... makes repeated solving cheaper

- system $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ becomes $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
can be split into two systems
 - by setting $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$
 - we get $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$
- both systems can be solved by substitution ($O(n^2)$):
 1. solve $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ for \mathbf{y} by forward-substitution
 2. solve $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ for \mathbf{x} by back-substitution

compare to

$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{d}$
in Gauss elimination

→ no change on the right-hand side!

LU Decomposition, how-to

Nice case first (**A** non-singular, i.e., invertible):

- we start from **A** = **I****A** (with **I** being the identity matrix),
example (from the book):

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

- similar to Gaussian elimination, we
 - transform **A** into **U** (row by row)
 - and **I** into **L** (simultaneously)

LU Decomposition, example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

In Gaussian elimination, we “eliminated” $a_{2,1} = -2$ by forming a new row $(\bar{a}_{2,j}) = (a_{2,j}) + \frac{1}{2}(a_{1,j})$:

$$(\bar{a}_{2,j}) = (0 \quad -2.5 \quad 4.5)$$

Putting $(a_{2,j})$ to the left (as above!),
we get $(a_{2,j}) = -\frac{1}{2}(a_{1,j}) + (\bar{a}_{2,j})$ and thus

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -2.5 & 4.5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

LU Decomposition, example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -2.5 & 4.5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Accordingly, we “eliminate” $a_{3,1} = 1$
by forming $(\bar{a}_{3,j}) = (a_{3,j}) - \frac{1}{4}(a_{1,j})$:

$$(\bar{a}_{3,j}) = (0 \quad 1.25 \quad 6.25)$$

Putting $(a_{3,j})$ to the left, we get $(a_{3,j}) = \frac{1}{4}(a_{1,j}) + (\bar{a}_{3,j})$
and thus

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -2.5 & 4.5 \\ 0 & 1.25 & 6.25 \end{pmatrix}$$

LU Decomposition, example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -2.5 & 4.5 \\ 0 & 1.25 & 6.25 \end{pmatrix}$$

Next, we “eliminate” $\bar{a}_{3,2} = 1.25$
by forming $(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (\bar{a}_{3,j}) + \frac{1}{2}(\bar{a}'_{2,j})$:

$$(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (0 \quad 0 \quad 8.5)$$

$$(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (a_{3,j}) - \frac{1}{4}(a_{1,j})$$

Expressing $(\bar{a}_{3,j})$ by rows that show up, we get

$$(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (\bar{a}_{3,j}) + \frac{1}{2}(\bar{a}'_{2,j}) = (a_{3,j}) - \frac{1}{4}(a_{1,j}) + \frac{1}{2}(\bar{a}'_{2,j})$$

Putting $(a_{3,j})$ to the left,

we get $(a_{3,j}) = \frac{1}{4}(a_{1,j}) - \frac{1}{2}(\bar{a}'_{2,j}) + (\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j})$ and thus

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & -4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -2.5 & 4.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 8.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Construction with Operators (1)

Decomposition steps: construct **L** and **U** in parallel

– example:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

– next: use \mathbf{E}_1 to eliminate all $a_{i>1,1}$ from \mathbf{A} ...
(in parallel: adapt the left matrix, accordingly)

[see MATLAB example 2a_B]

Construction with Operators (2)



Decomposition steps: construct \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{U} in parallel

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- next: use \mathbf{E}_1 to eliminate all $a_{i>1,1}$ from \mathbf{A} ...
(in parallel: adapt the left matrix, accordingly)

$$\mathbf{E}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{-1}{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{0}{1} & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{1} & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E}_1^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(more on inverse matrices later)

- with \mathbf{E}_1 , we can now write $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_1^{-1} \mathbf{E}_1}_{\mathbf{I}} \mathbf{A} = \underbrace{\mathbf{I} \mathbf{E}_1^{-1}}_{\mathbf{L}_1} \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_1 \mathbf{A}}_{\mathbf{U}_1}$
 - left-multiplication of \mathbf{A} with \mathbf{E}_1
 - right-multiplication of \mathbf{I} with \mathbf{E}_1^{-1} (only 1st column of \mathbf{I} changes!)

Construction with Operators (3)



Decomposition steps: construct L and U in parallel

$$\mathbf{A} = \underbrace{\mathbf{I} \mathbf{E}_1^{-1}}_{\mathbf{L}_1} \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_1 \mathbf{A}}_{\mathbf{U}_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- next: use \mathbf{E}_2 to eliminate all $a_{i>2,2}$ from \mathbf{U}_1 ...
(in parallel: adapt the left matrix, accordingly)

$$\mathbf{E}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{0}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{-2}{2} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E}_2^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- now we can write $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{U}_1 = \mathbf{L}_1 \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_2^{-1} \mathbf{E}_2}_{\mathbf{I}} \mathbf{U}_1 = \underbrace{\mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{E}_2^{-1}}_{\mathbf{L}_2} \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_2 \mathbf{U}_1}_{\mathbf{U}_2}$

Construction with Operators (4)



Decomposition steps: construct L and U in parallel

$$\mathbf{A} = \underbrace{\mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{E}_2^{-1}}_{\mathbf{L}_2} \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_2 \mathbf{U}_1}_{\mathbf{U}_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- next: use \mathbf{E}_3 to eliminate $a_{4,3}$ from \mathbf{U}_2 ...
(in parallel: adapt the left matrix, accordingly)

$$\mathbf{E}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{3}{-3} & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E}_3^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- now we can write $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{U}_2 = \mathbf{L}_2 \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_3^{-1} \mathbf{E}_3}_{\mathbf{I}} \mathbf{U}_2 = \underbrace{\mathbf{L}_2 \mathbf{E}_3^{-1}}_{\mathbf{L}} \underbrace{\mathbf{E}_3 \mathbf{U}_2}_{\mathbf{U}}$

Construction with Operators (5)



Decomposition steps: construct L and U in parallel

$$A = \underbrace{L_2 E_3^{-1}}_L \underbrace{E_3 U_2}_U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

All steps combined:

$$A = I A = \underbrace{I E_1^{-1} \dots E_{n-1}^{-1}}_L \underbrace{E_{n-1} \dots E_1 A}_U = \underbrace{E^{-1}}_L \underbrace{E A}_U$$

LU Decomposition with Permutation



What, if the targeted pivot-element is 0?

- then permutation helps:
- a permutation matrix \mathbf{P}
is an identity matrix \mathbf{I} with swapped rows
- then \mathbf{PA} is \mathbf{A} with swapped rows,
example:

in MATLAB: „ $[\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{P}] = \text{lu}(\mathbf{A})$ “ gives
the LU decomposition of \mathbf{A} (with permutation)

- so given that a standard LU decomposition of \mathbf{A} fails,
an appropriate \mathbf{PA} can be decomposed (if \mathbf{A} non-singular), thus
- $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \mathbf{PAx} = \mathbf{Pb} \Rightarrow \mathbf{LUX} = \mathbf{Pb} \Rightarrow$
use \mathbf{Pb} for substitution

Solve $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with the Inverse of \mathbf{A}



Given the linear equation system $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$:

- solving $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ for \mathbf{x} means, in principle, to find \mathbf{A}^{-1} ,
since $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b}$
- usually,
finding \mathbf{A}^{-1} is not easy... (if possible at all!)
- for some types of \mathbf{A} , however, finding \mathbf{A}^{-1} is easy! :-)

Easy Inverses (easiest)

Unitary matrices \mathbf{M} are easily inverted: $\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^T$

(for complex numbers, $\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}^*$)

- example 1: the identity matrix $\mathbf{I} \Rightarrow \mathbf{I}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}^T = \mathbf{I}$
- example 2: all permutation matrices $\mathbf{P} \Rightarrow \mathbf{P}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}^T$,

f.i.:

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

- example 3: all orthonormal matrices $\mathbf{V} \Rightarrow \mathbf{V}^{-1} = \mathbf{V}^*$,

since $\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_j = \delta_{i,j}$

$$\mathbf{V}^T \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^T \\ \mathbf{v}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_n^T \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{V}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Inverting (Undoing) An Elimination

As we can take out (a certain multitude of) **the pivot row,**
we also can add (a certain multitude of) **it back in:**

– For example:

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{E}_{3,2} \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Component $a_{3,2}$ was eliminated by subtracting the pivot-row (\mathbf{A} 's 2nd row) twice from row #3.

To get back to \mathbf{A} , do the exactly the opposite, i.e., we add the pivot-row back in (also twice):

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{E}_{3,2}^{-1} \mathbf{A}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Easy Inverses (very easy)

Straight-forward inversion of elimination matrices:

$$\mathbf{E}_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & -\frac{a_{i,j}}{a_{j,j}} & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E}_{i,j}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & +\frac{a_{i,j}}{a_{j,j}} & \cdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{E}_j = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & -\frac{a_{j+1,j}}{a_{j,j}} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & -\frac{a_{n,j}}{a_{j,j}} & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{E}_j^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & +\frac{a_{j+1,j}}{a_{j,j}} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & +\frac{a_{n,j}}{a_{j,j}} & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

– i.e., $\mathbf{E}_{i,j}^{-1} = 2 \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{E}_{i,j}$ and $\mathbf{E}_j^{-1} = 2 \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{E}_j$

Easy Inverses (easy)



Triangular matrices (upper & lower) **are easy to invert:**

- we can use Gauss-Jordan elimination to invert triangular matrices:

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{use appropriate elimination operations } \hat{\mathbf{E}}_k \text{ to transform } \mathbf{U} \text{ into } \mathbf{I}$$

- iterative elimination transforms \mathbf{U} into \mathbf{I} :

$$\hat{\mathbf{E}}_2 \cdots \hat{\mathbf{E}}_n \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$$

- all elimination matrices multiplied are then, of course, the inverse of \mathbf{U} :

$$\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \hat{\mathbf{E}} = \hat{\mathbf{E}}_2 \cdots \hat{\mathbf{E}}_n$$

$$\mathbf{U}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

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

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

Inverting General Matrices

**Many methods exist to invert matrices;
one (based on the above) is:**

- first decompose **A** into **L U** (LU decomposition)
- then invert **L** and **U** (easy: Gauss-Jordan elimination)
- then recombine them to get the inverse of **A**:

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = (\mathbf{L U})^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^{-1} \mathbf{L}^{-1}$$

Singular A (System not Solvable?)



What if **A** (in **Ax = b**) is singular (not invertible)?

- depending on **b**, there
 - is either no solution at all
 - or infinitely many of them!

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad \det \mathbf{A} = 0$$

Let's try and solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_1 = (1 \ 2 \ 3)^\top$ for \mathbf{x} :

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 & 3 \end{array} \right)$$

Rewriting row 3, $(\bar{a}_{3,j}) = (a_{3,j}) - (a_{1,j})$:

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

Trying another step, $(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (\bar{a}_{3,j}) + 2(a_{2,j})$:

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

The last equation ($0 = 6$) cannot be solved, i.e., $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_1$ does not have any solution.

Singular A



What if \mathbf{A} (in $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$) is singular (not invertible)?

- depending on \mathbf{b} , there
 - is either no solution at all
 - or infinitely many of them!

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad \det \mathbf{A} = 0$$

Now, let's try to solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_2 = (1 \ 2 \ -3)^\top$ for \mathbf{x} :

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 & -3 \end{array} \right)$$

Rewriting row 3, $(\bar{a}_{3,j}) = (a_{3,j}) - (a_{1,j})$:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & -4 \end{array} \right)$$

Trying another step, $(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (\bar{a}_{3,j}) + 2(a_{2,j})$:

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

Now the last equation ($0 = 0$) is a tautology, i.e., $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_2$ has infinitely many solutions.

Singular A



What if \mathbf{A} (in $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$) is singular (not invertible)?

- depending on \mathbf{b} , there
 - is either no solution at all
 - or infinitely many of them!

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad \det \mathbf{A} = 0$$

Now, let's try to solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_2 = (1 \ 2 \ -3)^\top$ for \mathbf{x} :

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 & -3 \end{array} \right)$$

Which?

The last row did not resolve z (so we set $z = t$).

The middle row reads $y - z = 2$ or $y = 2 + t$.

Then, the top row is $x + 2y + 3z = x + 4 + 2t + 3t = 1$,
i.e., $x = -5t - 3$

Accordingly, all points on the one-parameter line

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} -5t - 3 \\ t + 2 \\ t \end{pmatrix}$$

solve $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_2$.

Test:

$$\text{equ. 1: } x + 2y + 3z = -5t - 3 + 4 + 2t + 3t = 1$$

$$\text{equ. 2: } y - z = 2 + t - t = 2$$

$$\text{equ. 3: } x + 5z = -5t - 3 + 5t = -3$$

Rewriting row 3, $(\bar{a}_{3,j}) = (a_{3,j}) - (a_{1,j})$:

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & -4 \end{array} \right)$$

Trying another step, $(\bar{\bar{a}}_{3,j}) = (\bar{a}_{3,j}) + 2(a_{2,j})$:

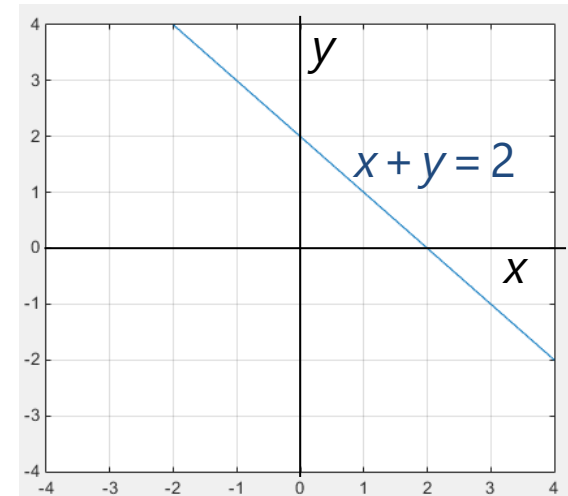
$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Now the last equation ($0 = 0$) is a tautology, i.e., $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}_2$ has infinitely many solutions.

Illustration

Any linear equation involving x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

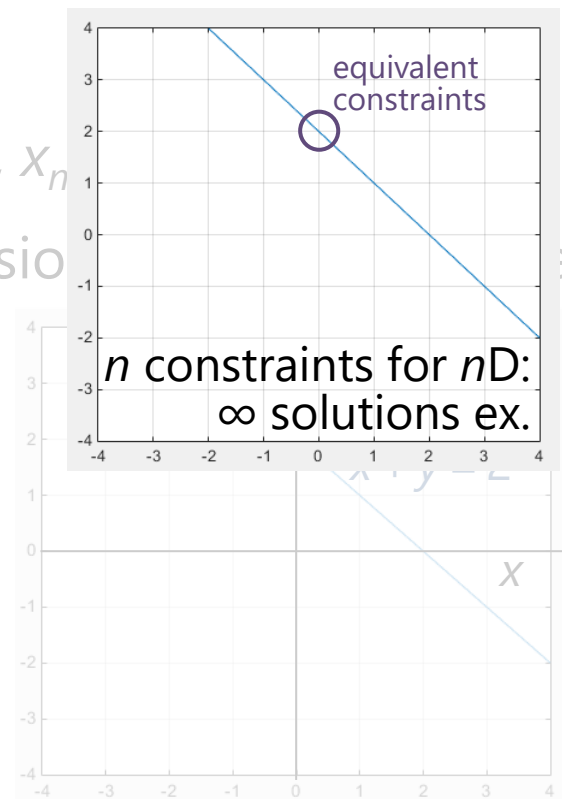
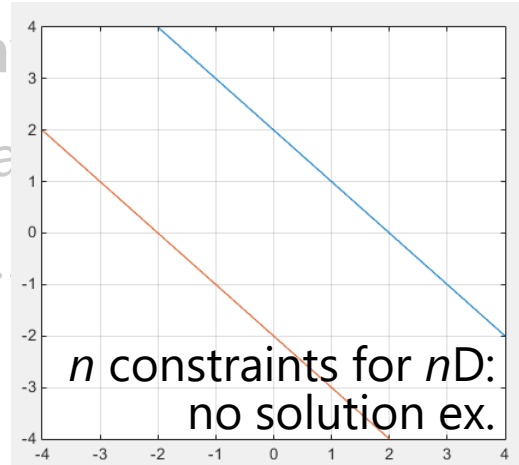
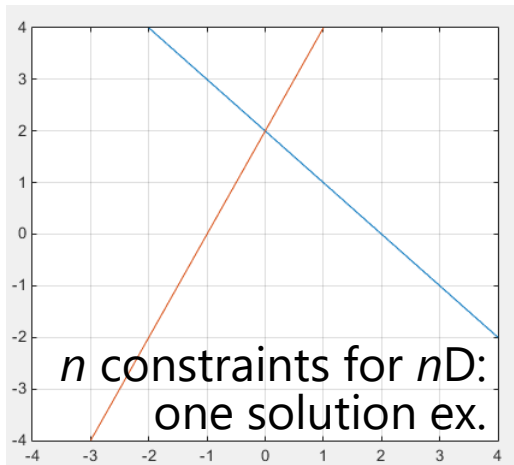
- can be seen as a linear constraint on x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n
- confining $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$ to an $(n-1)$ -dimensional, linear subspace
- example:
 - $x + y = 2$ confines $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$ to a line
 - $x + y + z = 2$ confines $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z)^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ to a plane (in 3D)



Multiple linear equations

- invoke multiple constraints—can result in
 - a system with one solution,
 - no solution,
 - or infinitely many solutions

Illustration



- $x + y + z = 2$ confines $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z)^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ to a plane (in 3D)

Multiple linear equations

- invoke multiple constraints—can result in
 - a system with one solution, no solution, or infinitely many solutions

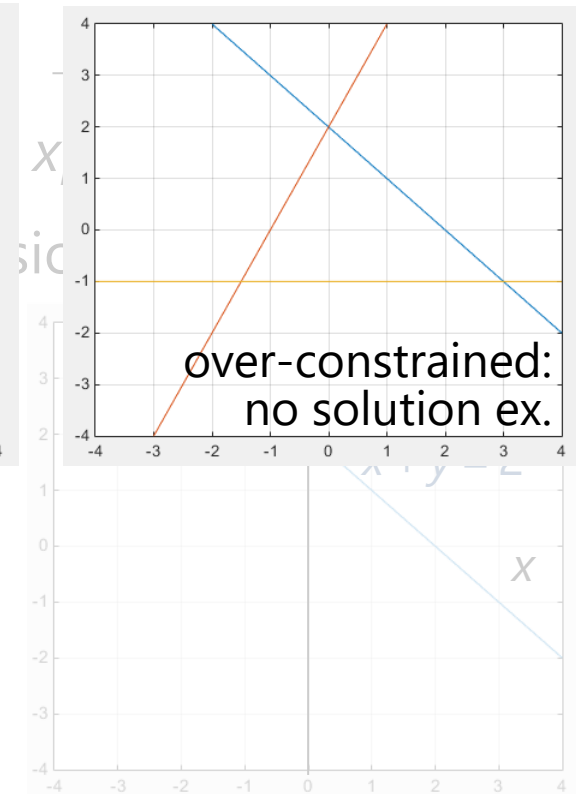
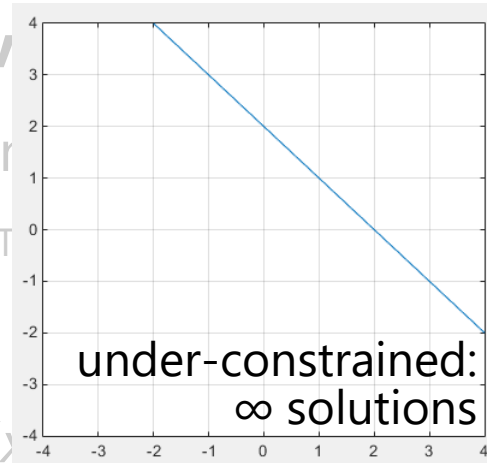
Illustration



Any linear equation involv

- can be seen as a linear constraint
- confining $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$
- example:

- $x + y = 2$ confines $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)^T$
- $x + y + z = 2$ confines $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z)^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ to a plane (in 3D)



Multiple linear equations

- invoke multiple constraints—can result
 - a system with one solution, no solution, or ∞ solutions
 - an under-constrained system: n constraints in mD , $n < m$
 - an over-constrained system: n constraints in mD , $n > m$

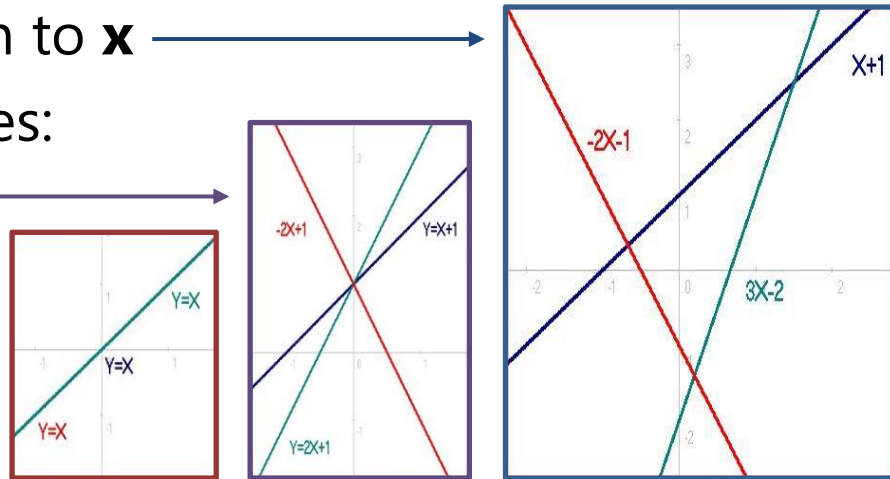
Non-square Matrices

In $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, \mathbf{A} is an $n \times m$ matrix (and \mathbf{x} is mD and \mathbf{b} is nD):

– if $n > m$, then $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is an over-determined system

- usually no solution to \mathbf{x}

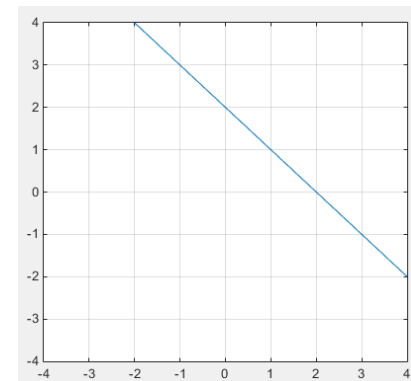
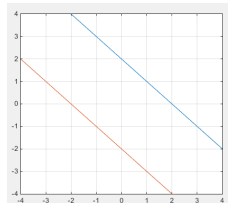
- in exceptional cases:
one solution,
or even ∞



– if $n < m$, then $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is an under-determined system

- usually infinitely many solutions

- in exceptional cases:
no solution



Non-square Matrices

In $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, \mathbf{A} is an $n \times m$ matrix (and \mathbf{x} is mD and \mathbf{b} is nD):

- if $n \neq m$, i.e., \mathbf{A} is non-square,
 - \mathbf{A} cannot be inverted, of course
 - \mathbf{A} can be “somehow” LU decomposed (LUP decomp.), however!

Case $m > n$:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{LUx} = \mathbf{b} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ux} = \mathbf{y} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Ly} = \mathbf{b}$$

$\mathbf{Ly} = \mathbf{b}$ can be (usually) solved for \mathbf{y} , leaving an under-determined, triangular system $\mathbf{Ux} = \mathbf{y}$ that can be “solved” on the basis of parameters.

Non-square Matrices

In $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$, \mathbf{A} is an $n \times m$ **matrix** (and \mathbf{x} is mD and \mathbf{b} is nD):

- if $n \neq m$, i.e., \mathbf{A} is non-square,
 - \mathbf{A} cannot be inverted, of course
 - \mathbf{A} can be “somehow” LU decomposed (LUP decomp.), however!

Case $n > m$:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 1 \\ 2/3 & 4/5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 5/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{LUx} = \mathbf{b} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ux} = \mathbf{y} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Ly} = \mathbf{b}$$

Usually, $\mathbf{Ly} = \mathbf{b}$ cannot be solved.

Next time: vector spaces

- basis of a vector space
- standard basis
- basis of a sub-space
- coordinates wrt. a basis
- changing the basis
- changing the basis of a mapping
- projections

Thereafter:

- singular value decomposition (SVD)
- eigenanalysis
- principal component analysis (PCA)

Reading and Related Material

In the book:

- chapter 2 (on linear systems), mostly section 2.1, and related parts
- chapter 15 (on SVD, etc.): coming soon! :–)

Course notes:

- section 4

An interactive online-book:

- <http://ImmersiveMath.com/>,
chapters (1–4 &) 5 (on Gaussian elimination)
and 6 (on The Matrix)

On Wikipedia:

- many good pages