# Matrix Inversion & LU Factorization

Geometric Algorithms Lecture 11

## Objectives

- >> Demonstrate how to invert a matrix
- » Motivate matrix factorization in general, and the LU factorization in specific
- » Recall elementary row operations and connect them to matrices
- » Look at the LU factorization, how to find it, and how to use it

## Keywords

Matrix Inverse

Invertible Transformation

1-1 Correspondence

numpy.linalg.inv

Determinant

Invertible Matrix Theorem

elementary matrices

LU factorization

$$2x = 10$$

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How do we solve this equation?

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How do we solve this equation?

Divide on both sides by 2 to get x = 5.

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Multiply each side by  $\frac{1}{2}$  a.k.a.  $2^{-1}$ .

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$$2^{-1}(2x) = 2^{-1}(10)$$

How do we solve this equation?

Divide on both sides by 2 to get x = 5.

Multiply each side by 
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 a.k.a.  $2^{-1}$ .

$$1x = 5$$

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$$A^{-1}A\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

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Multiply each side by  $A^{-1}$  to get  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ .

$$I_{\mathbf{X}} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

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Multiply each side by  $A^{-1}$  to get  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ .

$$x = A^{-1}b$$

How do we solve this equation?

Multiply each side by  $A^{-1}$  to get  $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ .

**Definition.** For a  $n \times n$  matrix A, an **inverse** of A is a  $n \times n$  matrix B such that

$$AB = I_n$$
 and  $BA = I_n$ 

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Example. 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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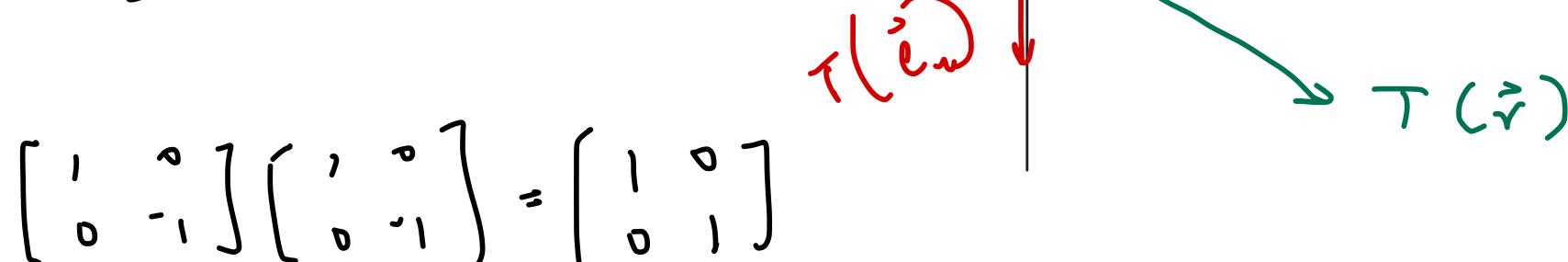
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example: Geometric

Reflection across the  $x_1$ -axis in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is it's own 3 - - (-(3)) 2 - - ((3)) inverse.

Verify:

$$\vec{x} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}$$



#### Example: No inverse

Verify:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b}, & \vec{b}_{x} & \vec{b}_{z} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Inverses are Unique

Theorem. If B and C are inverses of A, then

$$B = C_{\bullet}$$

$$B = C.$$
Verify: 
$$BA = AB = I$$

$$AC = LA = I$$

$$B = BI = B(AC) = (BA) C = IC = C$$

### Inverses are Unique

**Theorem.** If B and C are inverses of A, then B=C.

Verify:

If A is invertible, then we write  $A^{-1}$  for the inverse of A.

## Unique Solutions

If Ax = b has a <u>unique</u> solution for any choice of b, then it has

» exactly one solution for any choice of b

## Unique Solutions

If Ax = b has a <u>unique</u> solution for any choice of b, then it has

- » at least one solution for any choice of b
- » at most one solution for any choice of b

### Unique Solutions

If Ax = b has a <u>unique</u> solution for any choice of b, then it has

- » T is onto
- » T is one-to-one

where T is implemented by A

**Definition.** A transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is **onto** if any vector  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is the image of at least one vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (where  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{b}$ ).

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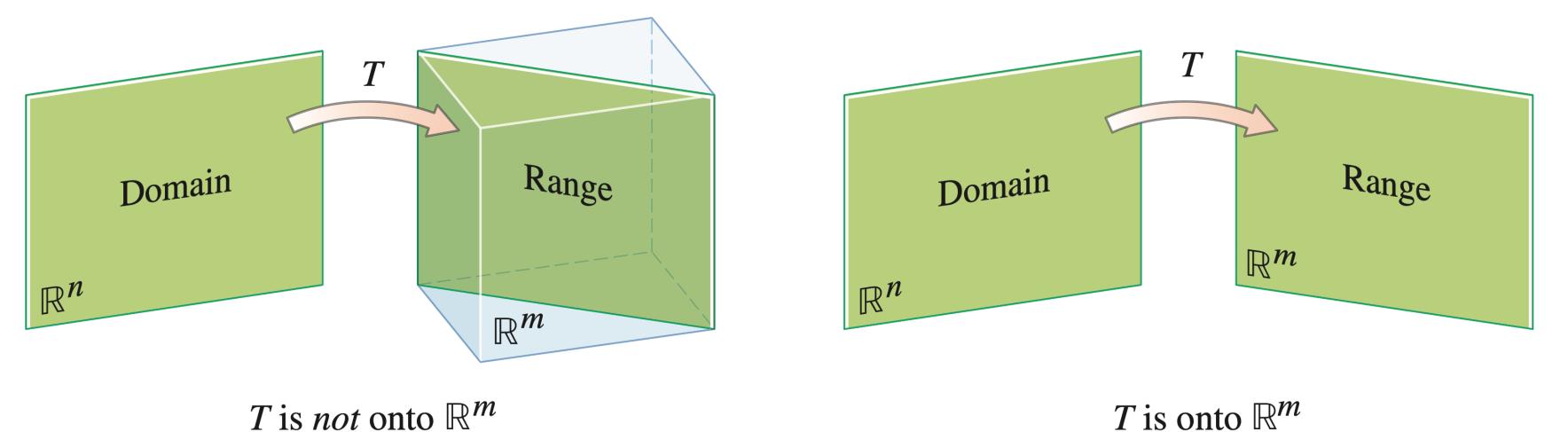


image source: Linear Algebra and its Applications. Lay, Lay, and McDonald

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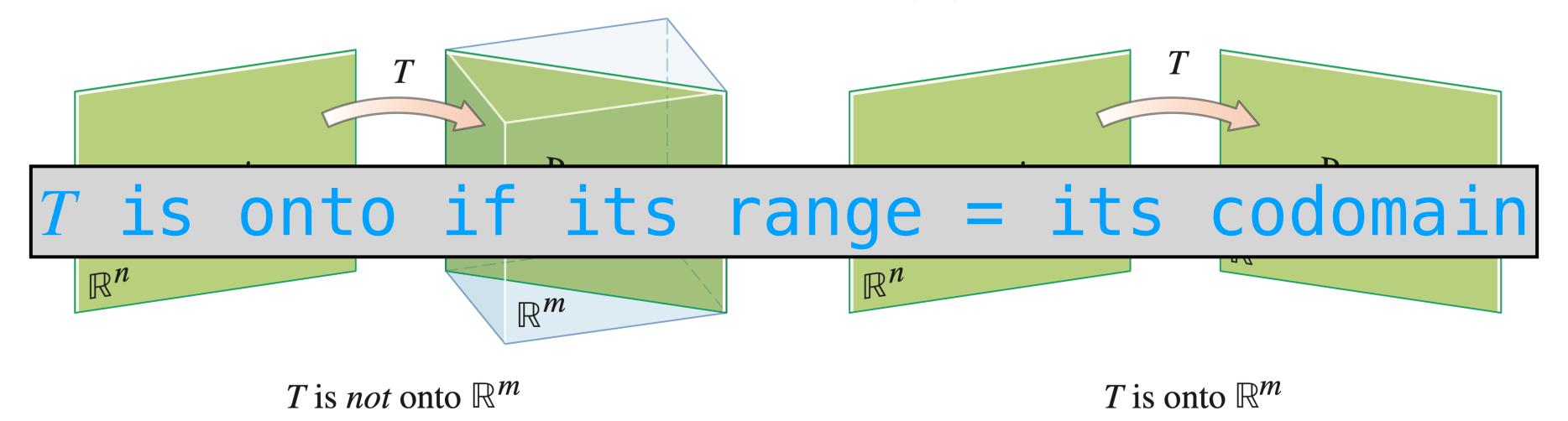


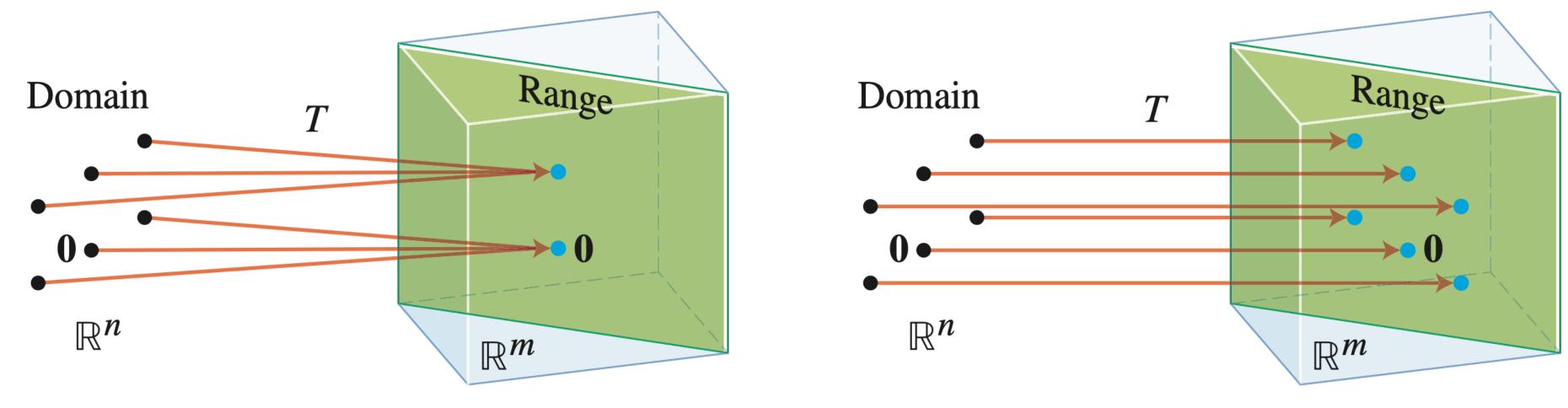
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#### Recall: One-to-one Transformations

**Definition.** A transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is **oneto-one** if any vector  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is the image of at most one vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (where  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{b}$ ).

#### Recall: One-to-one Transformations

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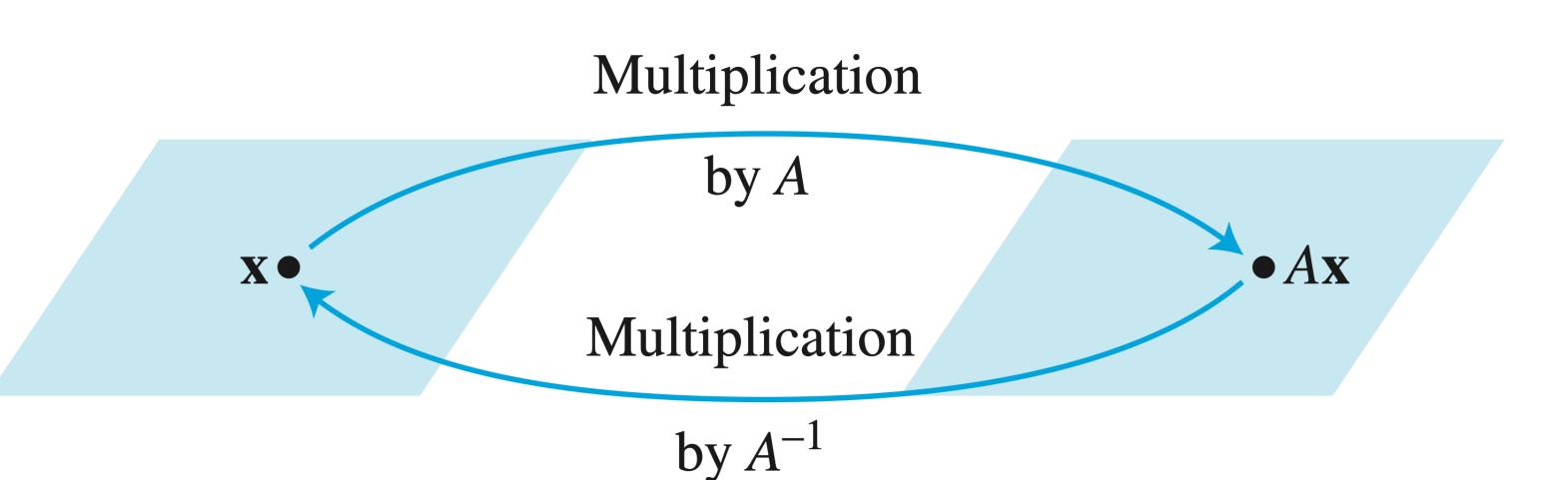


T is not one-to-one

**Definition.** A linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is **invertible** if there is a linear transformation S such that

$$S(T(\mathbf{v})) = \mathbf{v}$$
 and  $T(S(\mathbf{v})) = \mathbf{v}$ 

for any  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 



**Theorem.** A  $n \times n$  matrix A is invertible if and only if the matrix transformation  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$  is invertible

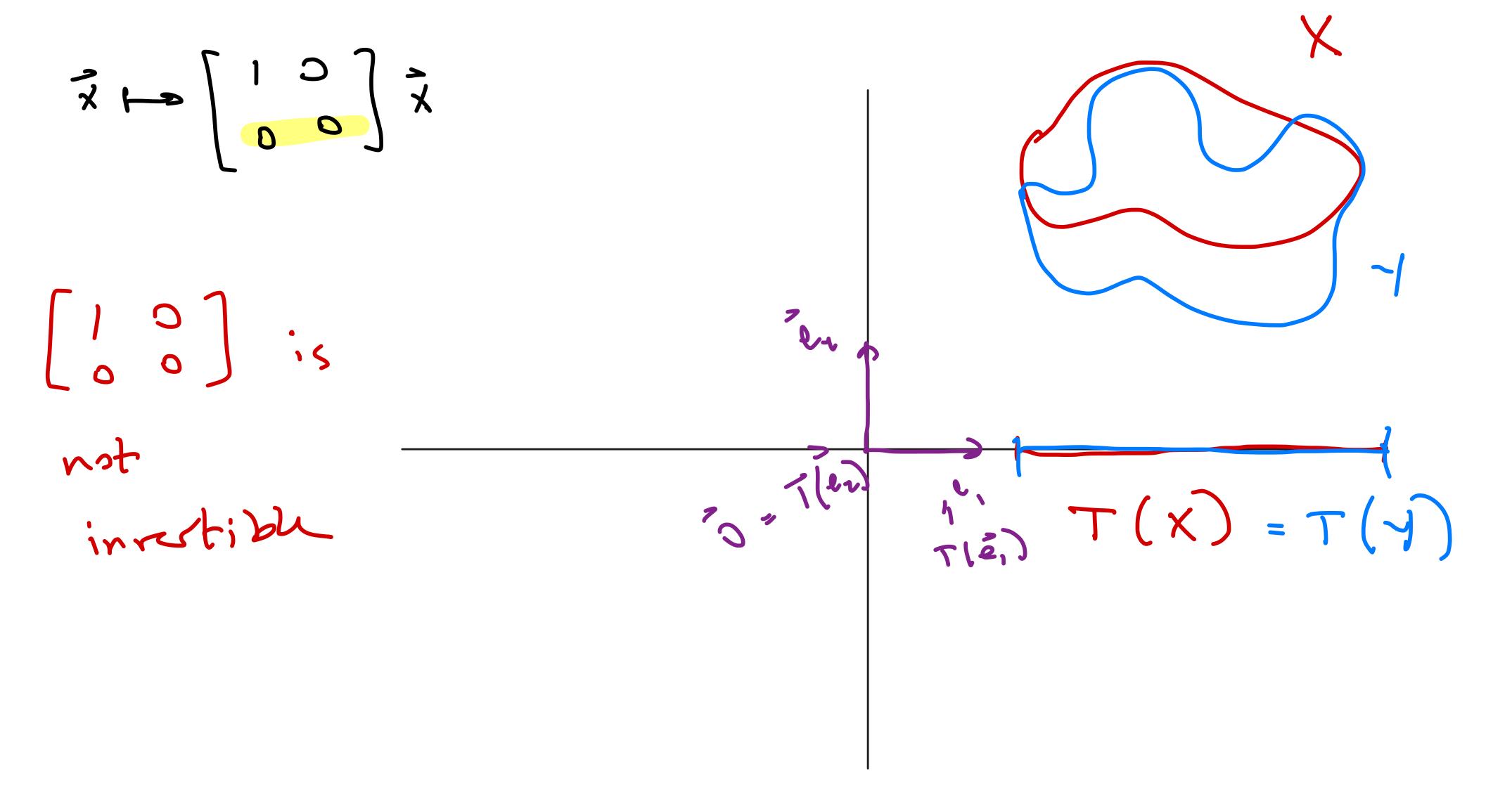
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A matrix is invertible if it's possible to "undo" its transformation without "losing information"

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Non-Example. Projection onto the  $x_1$ -axis



**Definition.** A transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is a **one-to-one correspondence** (bijection) if any vector  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the image of **exactly** one vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (where  $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{b}$ )

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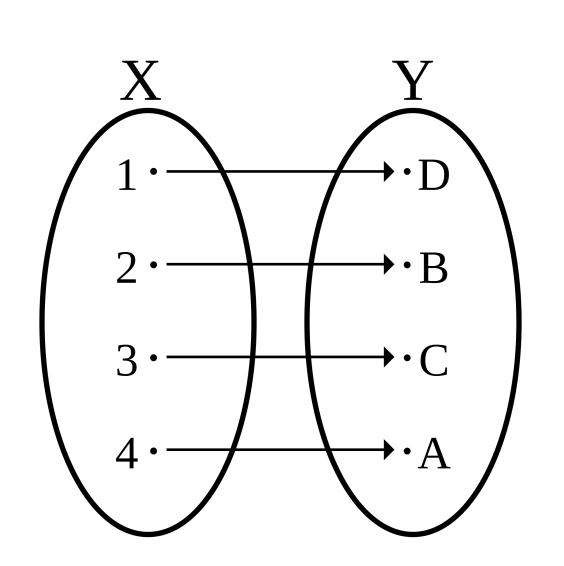
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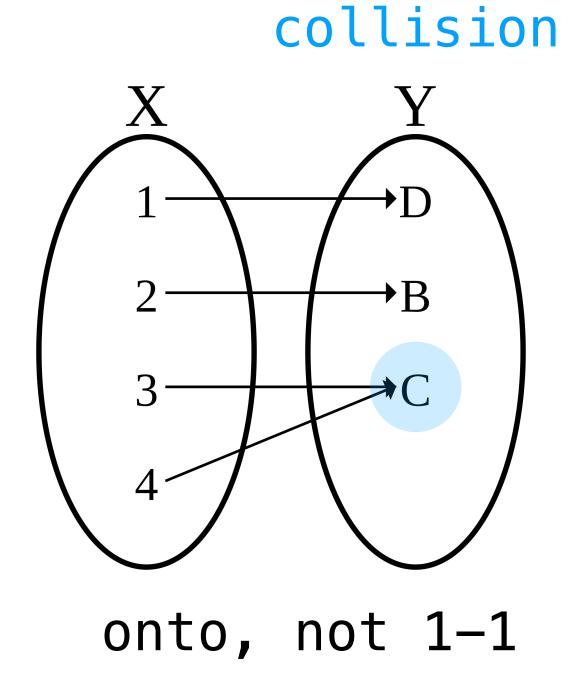
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Invertible transformations are 1-1 correspondences

# Kinds of Transformations (Pictorially)



1-1 correspondence



not covered

X

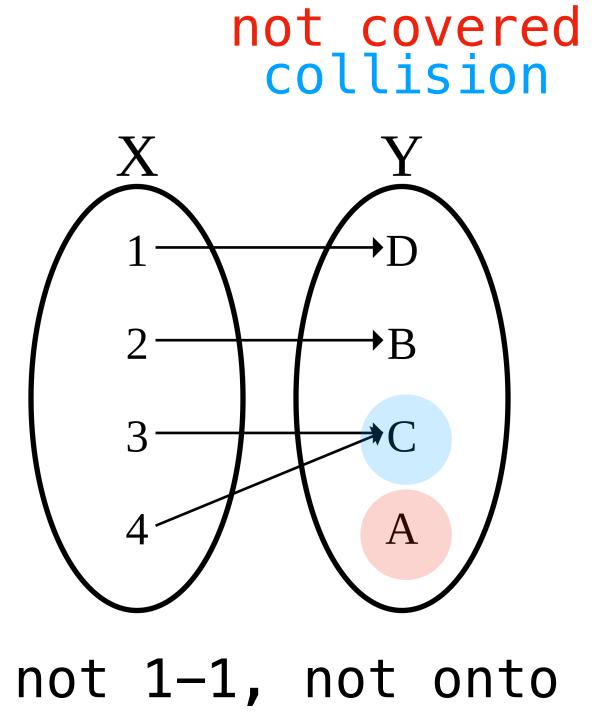
1

D

B

C

1-1 not onto



# Computing Matrix Inverses

# Fundamental Questions

How can we determine if a matrix has an inverse?

If a matrix has an inverse how do we compute it?

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Answer 1: Try to compute it

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Answer 2: the Invertible Matrix Theorem (IMT)

#### In General

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \mathbf{b}_3 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

Can we solve for each 
$$b_i$$
?:

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b}, \vec{b}_2 & \vec{b}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{e}, \vec{e}_2 & \vec{e}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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#### In General

$$A\mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{e}_1$$
  $A\mathbf{b}_2 = \mathbf{e}_2$   $A\mathbf{b}_3 = \mathbf{e}_3$ 

$$Ab_3 = e_3$$

If we want a matrix B such that AB=I, then the above equation must hold (in the case B has 3 columns)

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We need to solve 3 matrix equations

#### How To: Matrix Inverses

**Question.** Find the inverse of an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix A

**Solution.** Solve the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_i$  for every standard basis vector  $\mathbf{e}_i$ . Put those solutions  $\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2, ..., \mathbf{s}_n$  into a single matrix

$$[\mathbf{S}_1 \quad \mathbf{S}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{S}_n]$$

#### How To: Matrix Inverses

**Question.** Find the inverse of an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix A

**Solution.** Row reduce the matrix  $[A \ I]$  to a matrix  $[I \ B]$ . Then B is the inverse of A

This is really the same thing. It's a simultaneous reduction

# demo

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

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The determinant of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix is the value ad - bc

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(see the notes on linear transformations for more information about determinants)

# Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} -6 & 14 \\ 3 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Example

Is the above matrix invertible?

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No. The determinant is (-6)(-7) - 14(3) = 42 - 42 = 0

# Algebra of Matrix Inverses

# Algebraic Properties (Matrix Inverses)

**Theorem.** For a  $n \times n$  invertible matrix A, the matrix  $A^{-1}$  is invertible and

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

Verify:

# Algebraic Properties (Matrix Inverses)

**Theorem.** For a  $n \times n$  invertible matrix A, the matrix  $A^T$  is invertible and  $(AB)^T B^T A^T$ 

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

Verify: 
$$A^{T}(A^{-1})^{T} = (A^{-1}A)^{T} = T^{T} = T$$

# Algebraic Properties (Matrix Inverses)

**Theorem.** For a  $n \times n$  invertible matrices A and B, the matrix AB is invertible and

Verify: 
$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = ATA^{-1} = AA^{-1} = T$$

# Question

Suppose that A is a  $n \times n$  invertible matrix such that  $A = A^T$  and B is a  $m \times n$  matrix

Simplify the expression  $A(BA^{-1})^T$  using the algebraic properties we've seen

#### Answer: $B^T$

$$A (BA^{-1})^{T} =$$

$$A^{T} (BA^{-1})^{T} = ((BA^{-1})A)^{T}$$

$$= (B(A^{-1}A))^{T}$$

$$= (BT)^{T}$$

$$= B^{T}$$

$$A(BA^{-1})^{T}$$

$$A = A^{T}$$

#### Motivation

**Question.** How do we know if a square matrix is invertible?

**Answer.** Every perspective we've taken so far can help us answer this question

**Theorem.** Suppose A is a  $n \times n$  invertible matrix. Then the following hold.

1.  $A^T$  is invertible

- 2. Ax = b has at <u>least</u> one solution for every b
- 3.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has at <u>most</u> one solution for every  $\mathbf{b}$
- 4.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has at <u>exactly</u> one solution for every  $\mathbf{b}$

- 5. A has a pivot in every <u>column</u>
- 6. A has a pivot in every <u>row</u>
- 7. A is row equivalent to  $I_n$

- 8.  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has only the trivial solution
- 9. The columns of A are linearly independent
- 10. The columns of A span  $\mathbb{R}^n$

- 11. The linear transformation  $x \mapsto Ax$  is onto
- 12.  $x \mapsto Ax$  is one-to-one
- 13.  $x \mapsto Ax$  is a one-to-one correspondence
- 14.  $x \mapsto Ax$  is invertible

## Taking Stock: IMT

- 1. A is invertible
- $2 \cdot A^T$  is invertible
- 3. Ax = b has at least one solution for any b
- $4 \cdot Ax = b$  has at most one solution for any b
- $5 \cdot Ax = b$  has a unique solution for any b
- 6.A has n pivots (per row and per column)
- 7.A is row equivalent to I
- 8. Ax = 0 has only the trivial solution
- 9. The columns of A are linearly independent
- **10.** The columns of A span  $\mathbb{R}^n$
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# These all express the same thing

(this is a stronger statement than we just verified)

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!! only for square matrices !!

Theorem. If A is square, then

A is 1-1 if and only if A is onto

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Warning. Remember this only applies square matrices.

Theorem. If A is square, then

A is invertible  $\equiv$  Ax = 0 implies x = 0

Theorem. If A is square, then

A is invertible  $\equiv$   $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  implies  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ 

Invertibility is completely determined by how A behaves on 0.

## Question (Conceptual)

**True** or **False:** If A is invertible, and B is row equivalent to A (we can transform B into A by a sequence of row operations), the B is also invertible.

#### Answer: True

Row reductions don't change the number of pivots.

## Question

If  $[\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \mathbf{a}_3]$  is invertible, then is  $[(\mathbf{a}_1+\mathbf{a}_2-2\mathbf{a}_3)\ (\mathbf{a}_2+5\mathbf{a}_3)\ \mathbf{a}_3]$  also invertible? Justify your answer.

#### Answer

```
Consider [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \mathbf{a}_3]^T. We can get to [(\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2 - 2\mathbf{a}_3) \ (\mathbf{a}_2 + 5\mathbf{a}_3) \ \mathbf{a}_3]^T by row operations
```

## LU Factorization

### Matrix Factorization

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$$A = BC$$

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So far, we've been given two factors and asked to find their product

Factorization is the harder direction

Writing A as the product of multiple matrices can

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 $\gg$  make computing with A faster

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- >> make computing with A faster
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- $\gg$  expose important information about A

Writing A as the product of multiple matrices can

- » make computing with A faster LU Decomposition
- $\gg$  make working with A easier
- $\gg$  expose important information about A

Question. For an matrix A, solve the equations

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_1$$
 ,  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_2$  ...  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_{k-1}$  ,  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}_k$ 

In other words: we want to solve <u>a bunch</u> of matrix equations over the same matrix

**Question.** For a matrix A, solve (for X) in the equation

$$AX = B$$

where X and B are matrices of appropriate dimension

This is (essentially) the same question

Question. Solve AX = B

If A is invertible, then we have a solution:

Find  $A^{-1}$  and then  $X = A^{-1}B$ 

Question. Solve AX = B

If A is invertible, then we have a solution:

Find  $A^{-1}$  and then  $X = A^{-1}B$ 

What if  $A^{-1}$  is not invertible? Even if it is, can we do it faster?

## LU Factorization at a High Level

Given a  $m \times n$  matrix A, we are going to factorize A as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \blacksquare & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & \blacksquare & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \blacksquare & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L \qquad U$$

#### LU Factorization at a High Level

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$$L \qquad U$$

Note. This applies to non-square matrices

#### What are "L" and "U"?

L stands for "lower" as in *lower triangular*U stands for "upper" as in *upper triangular* 

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \bullet & * & * & * \\ 0 & \bullet & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & \bullet & * \\ 0 & 0 & \bullet & \bullet \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L \qquad U$$

$$A = LU$$
 echelon form of  $A$ 

We know how to build U, that's just the forward phase of Gaussian elimination

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 echelon form of  $A$ 

We know how to build U, that's just the forward phase of Gaussian elimination

How do we build L?

$$A = LU$$
 echelon form of  $A$ 

We know how to build U, that's just the forward phase of Gaussian elimination

How do we build L?

**The idea.** L "implements" the row operations of the forward phase

## Elementary Matrices

#### Recall: Elementary Row Operations

scaling multiply a row by a number

interchange switch two rows

replacement add a scaled equation to another

## The First Key Observation

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Elementary row operations are linear transformations (viewed as transformation on columns)

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Example: Scale row 2 by 5

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \leftarrow 5R_2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 5a_{21} & 5a_{22} & 5a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Example: Scaling

Restricted to one column, we see this is the above linear transformation

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ 5v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example: Scaling

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ 5v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's build the matrix which implements it:

#### Another Example: Scaling + Replacement

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ (a_{31} - 2a_{11}) & (a_{32} - 2a_{12}) & (a_{33} - 2a_{13}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \leftarrow (R_3 - 2R_1)$$

#### Another Example: Scaling + Replacement

$$R_3 \leftarrow (R_3 - 2R_1)$$

# Elementary row operations are linear, so they are implemented by matrices

#### General Elementary Scaling Matrix

```
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & k & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
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If we want to perform  $R_i \leftarrow kR_i$  then we need the identity matrix but with then entry  $A_{ii} = k$ .

#### General Replacement Matrix

```
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#### General Replacement Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ k & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we want to perform  $R_4 \leftarrow R_4 + kR_1$ , then we need the identity matrix but with the entry  $A_{41} = k$ .

#### General Replacement Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ k & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we want to perform  $R_4 \leftarrow R_4 + kR_1$ , then we need the identity matrix but with the entry  $A_{41} = k$ .

If we want to perform  $R_i \leftarrow R_i + kR_j$ , then we need the identity matrix but with the entry  $A_{ij} = k$ .

#### General Swap Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If we want to swap  $R_2$  and  $R_3$ , then we need the identity matrix, but with  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  swapped.

#### Elementary Matrices

**Definition.** An **elementary matrix** is a matrix obtained by applying a single row operation to the identity matrix I.

Example.

#### How To: Finding Elementary Matrices

**Question.** Find the matrix implementing the elementary row operation op

**Solution.** Apply op to the identity matrix of the appropriate size

Taking stock:

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- » Elementary matrices implement elementary row operations
- » Remember that Matrix multiplication is transformation composition (i.e., do one then the other)

So we can implement <u>any</u> sequence of row operations as a product of elementary matrices

#### How to: Matrices implementing Row Operations

**Question.** Find the matrix implementing a sequence of row operations  $op_1$ ,  $op_2$ , . .

**Solution.** Apply the row operations in sequence to the identity matrix of the appropriate size

#### Question

Find the matrix implementing the following sequence of elementary row operations on a  $3 \times n$  matrix.

$$R_2 \leftarrow 3R_2$$

$$R_1 \leftarrow R_1 + R_2$$

$$R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3$$

Then multiply it with the all-ones 3×3 matrix.

#### Answer

[1] 3 0[0] 0[1] 0[3] 0

#### Second Key Observation

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Elementary row operations are **invertible** linear transformations

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Elementary row operations are **invertible** linear transformations

This also means the product of elementary matrices is invertible

$$(E_1 E_2 E_3 E_4)^{-1} = E_4^{-1} E_3^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_1^{-1}$$
  
!! the order reverses !!

Describe the inverse transformation for each elementary row operation

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The inverse of scaling by k is scaling by 1/k

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Describe the inverse transformation for each elementary row operation

The inverse of scaling by k is scaling by 1/k

The inverse of  $R_i \leftarrow R_i + kR_j$  is  $R_i \leftarrow R_i - kR_j$ 

The inverse of swapping is swapping again

## Recall: Elementary Row Operations

scaling multiply a row by a number

interchange switch two rows

replacement add a scaled equation to another

# Recall: Elementary Row Operations

We only need these two for the forward phase

interchange switch two rows

replacement add a scaled equation to another

## Recall: Elementary Row Operations

We'll assume we only need this

replacement add a scaled equation to another

## Reminder: LU Factorization at a High Level

Given a  $m \times n$  matrix A, we are going to factorize A as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \blacksquare & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & \blacksquare & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \blacksquare & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L \qquad U$$

$$A \sim A_1 \sim A_2 \sim \dots \sim A_k$$

Consider a sequence of elementary row operations from A to an echelon form

Each step can be represent as a product with an elementary matrix

$$A \sim E_1 A \sim E_2 E_1 A \sim \dots \sim E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_2 E_1 A$$

$$A \sim E_1 A \sim E_2 E_1 A \sim \dots \sim E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_2 E_1 A$$

This exactly tells us that if B is the final echelon form we get then

$$B = (E_k E_{k-1} ... E_2 E_1)A = EA$$

where E implements a <u>sequence</u> of row operations. So:

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Invertible

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$$B = (E_k E_{k-1} ... E_2 E_1)A = EA$$

where  ${\it E}$  implements a <u>sequence</u> of row operations. So:

$$A = E^{-1}B = (E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}...E_{k-1}^{-1}E_k^{-1})B$$

1 FUNCTION LU\_Factorization(A):

```
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2   L ← identity matrix
```

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4    convert U to an echelon form by GE forward step # without swaps
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           E ← the matrix implementing OP
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           L \leftarrow L @ E^{-1} # note the multiplication on the right
                          we'll see how to do this more efficiently
       RETURN (L, U)
```

# The forward part of Gaussian elimination <u>is</u> matrix factorization

## The "L" Part

$$E = E_k E_{k-1} \dots E_2 E_1$$

This a product of elementary matrices

So  $L = E^{-1} = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} ... E_{k-1}^{-1} E_k^{-1}$  !! the order reverses !!

We won't prove this, but it's worth thinking about: why is this lower triangular?

And can we build this in a more efficient way?

# demo

# How To: LU Factorization by hand

**Question.** Find a LU Factorization for the matrix A (assuming no swaps)

#### Solution.

- $\gg$  Start with L as the identity matrix
- $\gg$  Find U by the forward part of GE
- » For each operation  $R_i \leftarrow R_i + kR_j$ , set  $L_{ij}$  to -k

We will not use  $O(\cdot)$  notation!

```
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```

For numerics, we care about number of **FL**oating-oint **OP**erations (FLOPs):

- >> addition
- >> subtraction
- >> multiplication
- >> division
- >> square root

```
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For numerics, we care about number of **FL**oating-oint **OP**erations (FLOPs):

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- >> subtraction
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- >> square root

```
2n vs. n is very different when n \sim 10^{20}
```

# Analyzing LU Factorization

that said, we don't care about exact bounds

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A function f(n) is asymptotically equivalent to g(n) if

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{f(i)}{g(i)} = 1$$

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A function f(n) is asymptotically equivalent to g(n) if

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{f(i)}{g(i)} = 1$$

for polynomials, they are equivalent to their dominant term

the dominant term of a polynomial is the monomial with the highest degree

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \frac{3x^3 + 100000x^2}{3x^3} = 1$$

 $3x^3$  dominates the function even though the coefficient for  $x^2$  is so large

## How To: Solving systems with the LU

**Question.** Solve the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  given that A = LU is a LU factorization.

**Solution.** First solve  $L\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  to get a solution  $\mathbf{c}$ , then solve  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$  to get a solution  $\mathbf{d}$ .

Verify:

## How To: Solving systems with the LU

**Question.** Solve the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  given that A = LU is a LU factorization.

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Why is this better than just solving Ax = b?

# FLOPs for Solving General Systems

The following FLOP estimates are based on  $n \times n$  matrices

Gaussian Elimination:  $\sim \frac{2n^3}{3}$  FLOPS

GE Forward:  $\sim \frac{2n^3}{3}$  FLOPS

GE Backward:  $\sim 2n^2$  FLOPS

Matrix Inversion:  $\sim 2n^3$  FLOPS

Matrix-Vector Multiplication:  $\sim 2n^2$  FLOPS

Solving by matrix inversion:  $\sim 2n^3$  FLOPS

Solving by Gaussian elimination:  $\sim \frac{2n^3}{3}$  FLOPS

# FLOPS for solving LU systems

LU Factorization: 
$$\sim \frac{2n^3}{3}$$
 FLOPS

Solving  $L\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ :  $\sim 2n^2$  FLOPS (by "forward" elimination)

Solving  $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ :  $\sim 2n^2$  FLOPS (already in echelon form)

Solving by LU Factorization:  $\sim \frac{2n^3}{3}$  FLOPS

If you solve several matrix equations for the same matrix, LU factorization is <u>faster</u> than matrix inversion on the first equation, and the same (asymptotically) in later equations (and it works for rectangular matrices).

If A doesn't have to many entries (A is **sparse**), then its likely that L and U won't either.

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But  $A^{-1}$  may have *many* entries  $(A^{-1}$  is dense)

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But  $A^{-1}$  may have *many* entries  $(A^{-1}$  is **dense**)

Sparse matrices are faster to compute with and better with respect to storage.

## Summary

Matrix inverses allow us to easily solve many matrixes equations over the same A

LU Factorizations allows us to do the same, but more generally more efficiently