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?

2x = 10

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

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$$1x = 5$$

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

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

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

Example: Geometric

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

Verify:

Example: No inverse

Verify:

```
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
```

Inverses are Unique

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

Verify:

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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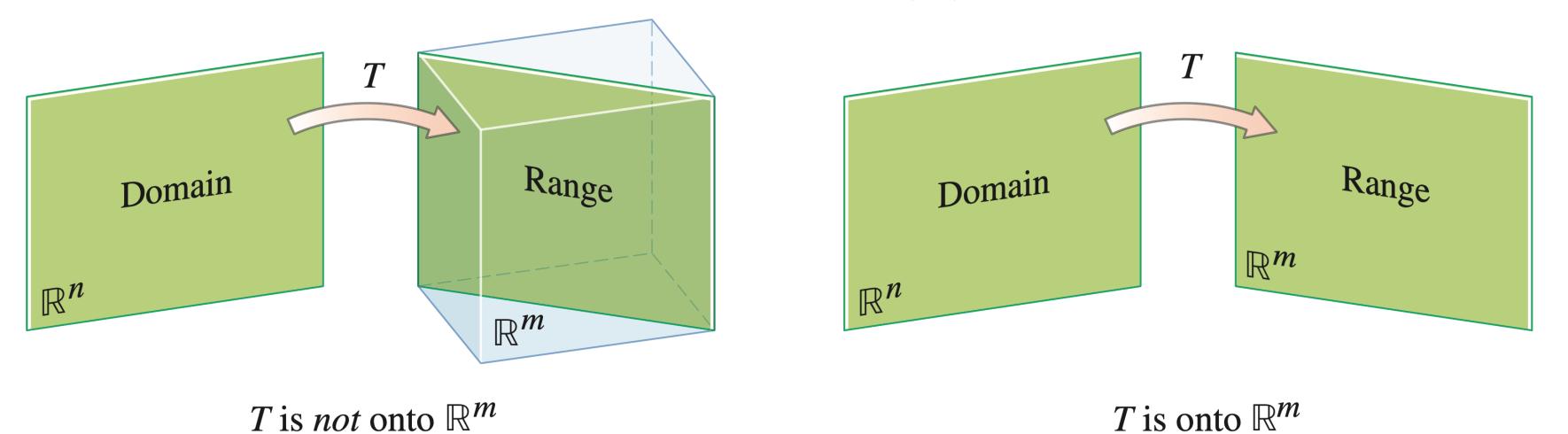


image source: Linear Algebra and its Applications. Lay, Lay, and McDonald

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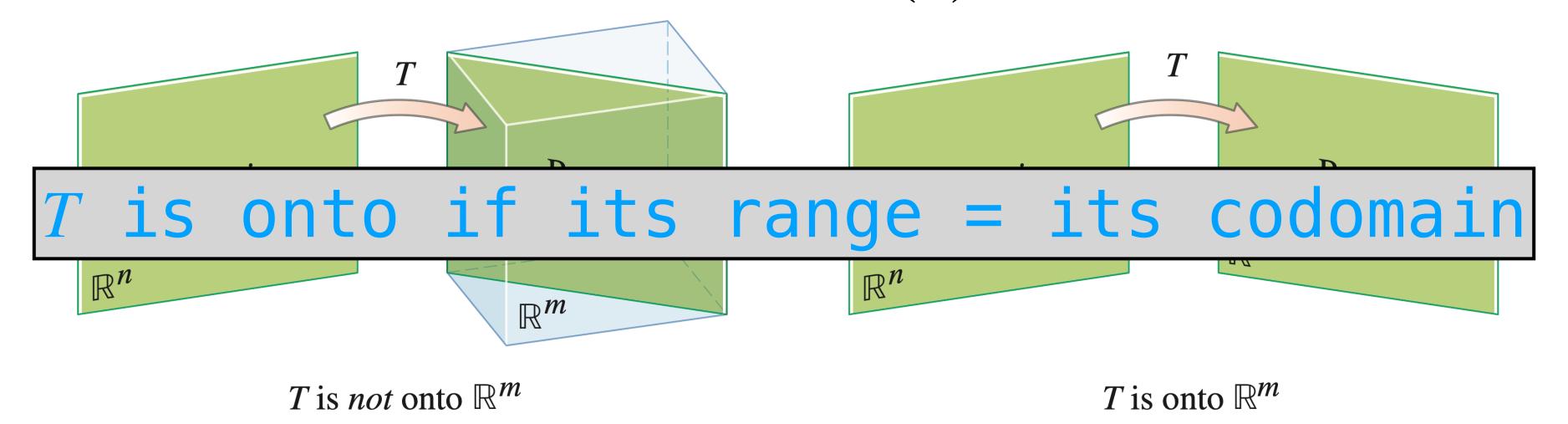


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Definition. A transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is **oneto-one** if any vector \mathbf{b} in \mathbb{R}^m is the image of at most one vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n (where $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{b}$).

Recall: One-to-one Transformations

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 $T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{b}$).

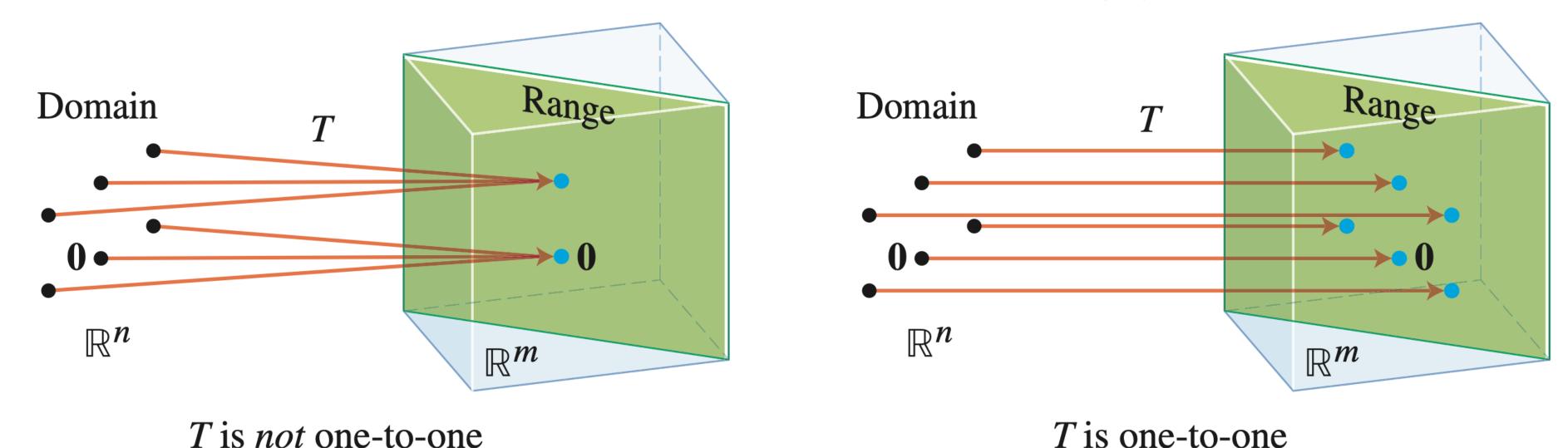
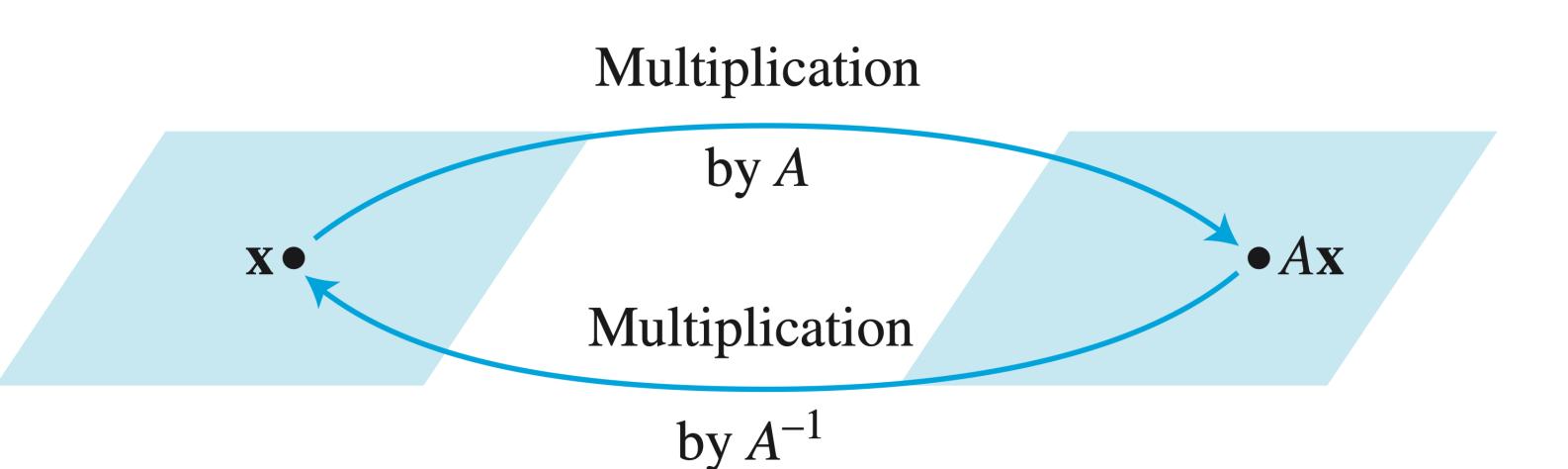


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Definition. A linear transformation $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is **invertible** if there is a linear transformation S such that

$$S(T(\mathbf{v})) = \mathbf{v}$$
 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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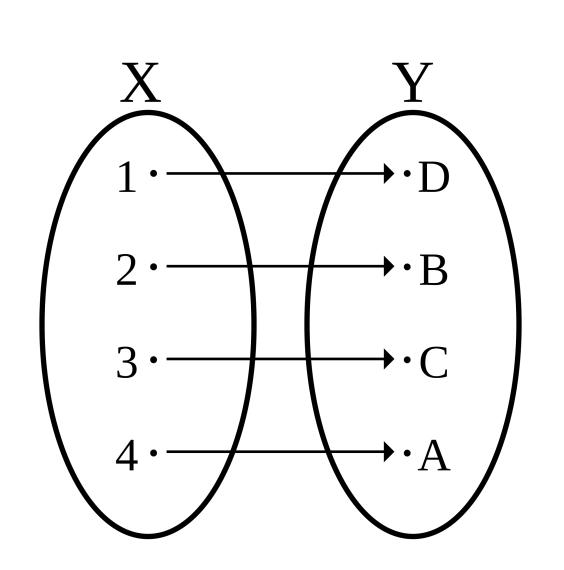
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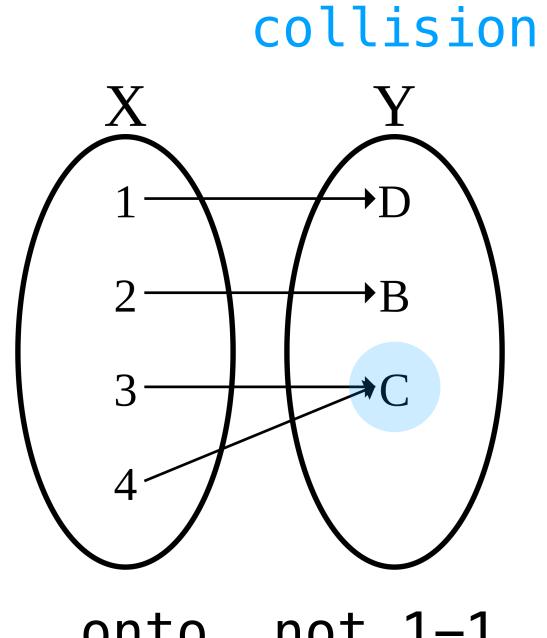
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Invertible transformations are 1-1 correspondences

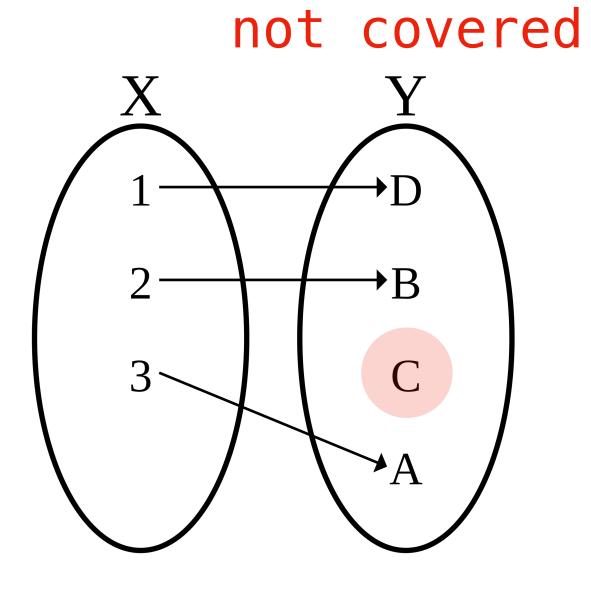
Kinds of Transformations (Pictorially)



1-1 correspondence

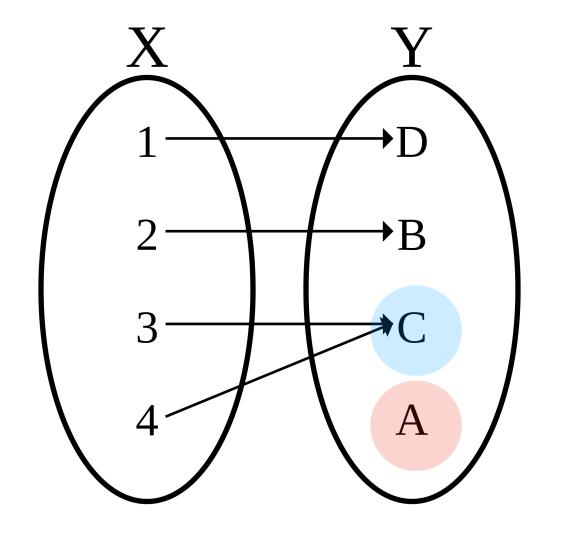


onto, not 1-1



1-1 not onto

not covered collision



not 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?

Fundamental Questions

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 \mathbf{b}_i ?:

In General

$$Ab_1 = e_1$$

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

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

In General

$$Ab_1 = e_1$$

$$A\mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{e}_1$$
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$$Ab_3 = e_3$$

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

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 2×2 matrix is the value ad - bc

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The inverse is defined only if the determinant is nonzero

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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?

Example

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

Is the above matrix invertible?

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

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

Verify:

Algebraic Properties (Matrix Inverses)

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

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

Verify:

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

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

$$A = A^{T}$$

Invertible Matrix Theorem

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
- $3 \cdot Ax = b$ 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
- 11. The linear transformation $x \mapsto Ax$ is onto
- $12 \cdot x \mapsto Ax$ is one-to-one
- $13.x \mapsto Ax$ is a one-to-one correspondence
- 14. $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is invertible

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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We only need to check one of these.

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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

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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 $[{\bf a}_1\ {\bf a}_2\ {\bf a}_3]$ is invertible, then is $\left[({\bf a}_1+{\bf a}_2-2{\bf a}_3)\ ({\bf a}_2+5{\bf a}_3)\ {\bf a}_3\right] \ also \ invertible?$ 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 <u>row operations</u>
```

LU Factorization

Matrix Factorization

Matrix Factorization

A **factorization** of a matrix A is an equation which expresses A as a product of one or more matrices, e.g.,

$$A = BC$$

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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

Writing A as the product of multiple matrices can

 \gg make computing with A faster

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 \gg make working with A easier

Writing A as the product of multiple matrices can

- >> make computing with A faster
- \gg make working with A easier
- \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

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

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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

$$A = LU$$
 echelon form of A

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

How do we build L?

$$A = LU$$
 echelon form of A

We know how to build U_{\bullet} , 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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Elementary row operations are linear transformations (viewed as transformation on columns)

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}
```

General Elementary Scaling Matrix

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

If we want to perform $R_3 \leftarrow kR_3$ then we need the identity matrix but with the entry $A_{33} = k$.

General Elementary Scaling Matrix

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

If we want to perform $R_3 \leftarrow kR_3$ then we need the identity matrix but with the entry $A_{33} = k$.

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

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

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

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

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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

 71
 3
 0

 0
 0
 1

 0
 3
 0

Second Key Observation

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Elementary row operations are **invertible** linear transformations

Second Key Observation

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!!

Question (Conceptual)

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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

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

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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:

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

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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 $R_i \leftarrow R_i + kR_i$, set L_{ii} 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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```
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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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:

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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**)

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