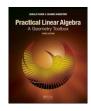
Practical Linear Algebra: A GEOMETRY TOOLBOX Third edition

Chapter 12: Gauss for Linear Systems

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CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, An A K Peters Book www.farinhansford.com/books/pla

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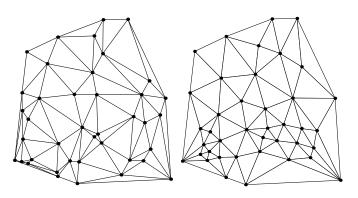


Outline

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- Inverse Matrices
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Introduction to Gauss for Linear Systems

Linear systems arise in virtually every area of science and engineering Some as big as 1,000,000 equations in as many unknowns



 $Triangulation \ smoothing \ application$

Left: "rough" triangulation Right: smoother triangulation

Linear system: a set of linear equations

$$3u_1 - 2u_2 - 10u_3 + u_4 = 0$$

$$u_1 - u_3 = 4$$

$$u_1 + u_2 - 2u_3 + 3u_4 = 1$$

$$u_2 + 2u_4 = -4$$

Unknowns: u_1, \ldots, u_4

Number of equations = number of unknowns

 4×4 linear system in matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & -10 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \\ u_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

General $n \times n$ linear system:

$$a_{1,1}u_1 + a_{1,2}u_2 + \ldots + a_{1,n}u_n = b_1$$

 $a_{2,1}u_1 + a_{2,2}u_2 + \ldots + a_{2,n}u_n = b_2$
 \vdots
 $a_{n,1}u_1 + a_{n,2}u_2 + \ldots + a_{n,n}u_n = b_n$

Matrix form:

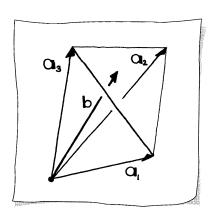
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \dots & a_{1,n} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \dots & a_{2,n} \\ & & \vdots & & \\ a_{n,1} & a_{n,2} & \dots & a_{n,n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{a}_n \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$$

A is called the coefficient matrix

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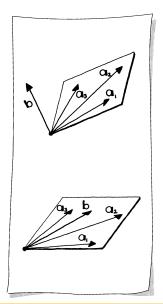
Underlying principles with a geometric interpretation



$$\begin{bmatrix} \textbf{a}_1 & \textbf{a}_2 & \textbf{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} \textbf{u} = \textbf{b}$$

Write \mathbf{b} as a linear combination of \mathbf{a}_i

If a_i truly 3D (form a tetrahedron) \Rightarrow unique solution



$$\begin{bmatrix} \textbf{a}_1 & \textbf{a}_2 & \textbf{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} \textbf{u} = \textbf{b}$$

If \mathbf{a}_i all lie in a plane then no unique solution

Top: no solution

Bottom: non-unique solution

In general:

If the a_i have a *nonzero n*-dimensional volume

⇒ linear system is *uniquely solvable*

If \mathbf{a}_i span a k-dimensional subspace (k < n)

 \Rightarrow non-unique solutions only exist if ${f b}$ is itself in that subspace

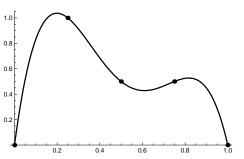
A linear system is called consistent if at least one solution exits

Example: Polynomial Interpolation **Given:** observations

$$p(t_i) = 0, 1, 0.5, 0.5, 0$$

at
$$t_i = 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1$$
 seconds

Find: a polynomial $p(t) = c_0 + c_1t + c_2t^2 + c_3t^3 + c_4t^4$ that interpolates data \Rightarrow estimate values between observations



$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & t_0 & t_0^2 & t_0^3 & t_0^4 \\ 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 & t_1^3 & t_1^4 \\ & \vdots & & \\ 1 & t_4 & t_4^2 & t_4^3 & t_4^4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho(t_0) \\ \rho(t_1) \\ \vdots \\ \rho(t_4) \end{bmatrix}$$

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Gauss elimination = forward elimination + back substitution

Review a 2 × 2 example:
$$A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$

Forward elimination transform system to upper triangular with a shear

$$S_1 A \mathbf{u} = S_1 \mathbf{b}$$
 $S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ \Rightarrow $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Corresponds to *elementary row operations*

$$\operatorname{row}_1 \leftarrow \operatorname{row}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{row}_2 \leftarrow \operatorname{row}_2 - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{row}_1$$

Apply back substitution to upper triangular system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_2 = \frac{1}{4} \times 2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$u_1 = \frac{1}{2}(4 - 4u_2) = 1$$

Can interpret this step as a scaling:

$$S_2S_1A\mathbf{u} = S_2S_1\mathbf{b}$$
 $S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/4 \end{bmatrix}$ \Rightarrow $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$

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Pivoting revisited:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Equations reordered so *pivot element* $a_{1,1}$ largest in first column Row exchange can be represented as a *permutation matrix*

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $P_1 A \mathbf{u} = P_1 \mathbf{b}$

Then – Gauss elimination as before:

$$S_2S_1P_1A\mathbf{u} = S_2S_1P_1\mathbf{b}$$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & -2 \\ 4 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 4 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Zero entries in the first column

$$\operatorname{row}_2 \leftarrow \operatorname{row}_2 - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{row}_1 \qquad \operatorname{row}_3 \leftarrow \operatorname{row}_3 - \operatorname{row}_1$$

shear
$$G_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1/2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

 G_1 called a Gauss matrix

Example continued:

No pivoting necessary: $P_2 = I$

Zero last element in second column:

$$row_3 \leftarrow row_3 + row_2$$

$$G_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{1} \\ u_{2} \\ u_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example continued:

Matrix in upper triangular form — ready for back substitution:

$$u_3 = \frac{1}{-1}(7)$$
 $u_2 = \frac{1}{-2}(5 - u_3)$ $u_1 = \frac{1}{4}(-2 + 2u_3)$

(Implicitly incorporates a scaling matrix)

Solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ -6 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Original equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & -2 \\ 4 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ -6 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Summary:

Gauss elimination = forward elimination (pivoting and shears) + back substitution (scaling)

Elementary row operations of Gauss elimination:

- Pivoting results in the exchange of two rows
- Shears result in adding a multiple of one row to another
- Scaling results in multiplying a row by a scalar

Algorithm: Gauss Elimination with Pivoting

Given: $n \times n$ coefficient matrix A and $n \times 1$ vector \mathbf{b}

 $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$

Find: unknowns u_1, \ldots, u_n of $n \times 1$ vector **u**

```
Initialize the n \times n matrix G = I
For j = 1, ..., n-1 (j counts columns)
      Pivoting step:
      Find element in largest absolute value in column i
      from a_{i,i} to a_{n,i}; this is element a_{r,i}
             If r > i, exchange equations r and i
      If a_{i,j} = 0, the system is not solvable
      Forward elimination step for column j:
      For i = j + 1, \dots, n (elements below diagonal of column j)
             Construct the multiplier g_{i,j} = a_{i,j}/a_{i,j}
             a_{i,i} = 0
             For k = j + 1, ..., n (each element in row i after column j)
                    a_{i,k} = a_{i,k} - g_{i,i}a_{i,k}
             b_i = b_i - g_{ij}b_i
```

All elements below diagonal set to zero ⇒ matrix is upper triangular

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Back substitution:

$$u_n = b_n/a_{n,n}$$

For $j = n - 1, \dots, 1$
 $u_j = \frac{1}{a_{j,j}}[b_j - a_{j,j+1}u_{j+1} - \dots - a_{j,n}u_n]$

Programming environment: convenient to form *augmented matrix* A augmented with the vector \mathbf{b}

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & b_1 \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & b_2 \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the k steps run to n+1— no need for the extra line for the b_i element

Forward elimination steps written in matrix form: To produce zeroes under $a_{i,j}$ use

Elements $-g_{i,j}$ of G_j are multipliers G_j is called a Gauss matrix

$$G = G_{n-1}P_{n-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot G_2 \cdot P_2 \cdot G_1 \cdot P_1$$
 then $GA\mathbf{u} = G\mathbf{b}$

If no pivoting is required: possible to store $g_{i,j}$ in the zero elements of A For efficiency: do not to (explicitly) multiply A and \mathbf{b} by G

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Scaling to achieve row echelon form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

If matrix is rank deficient (rank < n)

 \Rightarrow rows with all zeroes should be the last rows

More efficient to do the scaling as part of back substitution

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Gauss elimination requires $O(n^3)$ operations \Rightarrow an estimated number of n^3 operations

Algorithm is suitable for a system with thousands of equations Not suitable for a system with millions of equations

When the system is very large often times many matrix elements are zero — sparse linear system lterative methods are a better approach (discussed in next chapter)

$$Au = 0$$

Trivial solution is always an option — but of little interest

How do we use Gauss elimination to find a nontrivial solution if it exists?

Nontrivial solution $\mathbf{u} \Rightarrow c\mathbf{u}$ are solutions as well

The answer: slightly modify the back substitution step

Example: rank one matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

For each *zero row* of the transformed system set the corresponding u_i — the free variables — to one:

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

All vectors cu are solutions

Previous example: 3×3 rank one matrix

- Two dimensional null space
- Number of free variables = dimension of the null space
- Systematically construct two vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2$ that span the null space
- Set one of the free variables to one and the other to zero

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -3\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix}$

All linear combinations of elements of null space are also in null space Example: $\textbf{u}=1\textbf{u}_1+1\textbf{u}_2$

Column pivoting

Example: homogeneous system from an eigenvector problem

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 6 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Leads to $0u_3 = 0$ and $2u_3 = 0$ — instead apply column exchanges:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_2 \\ u_3 \\ u_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Set the free variable: $u_1 = 1$ — then back substitution

Solution: all vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Inverse of a square matrix A "undoes" A's action

$$AA^{-1} = I$$

$$\begin{vmatrix}
1 & 0 & -1 \\
3 & 1 & -3 \\
1 & 2 & -2
\end{vmatrix}$$

$$-4 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0$$

$$-3 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0$$

$$-5 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1$$

How to compute the inverse of an $n \times n$ matrix A?

Vectors $\overline{\mathbf{a}}_i$ and \mathbf{e}_i are $n \times 1$

Vector \mathbf{e}_i : zero entries except *i*th component equals 1

$$A\begin{bmatrix} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_1 & \dots & \overline{\mathbf{a}}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{e}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

n linear systems:

$$A\overline{\mathbf{a}}_1 = \mathbf{e}_1, \ldots, A\overline{\mathbf{a}}_n = \mathbf{e}_n$$

Solve with with Gauss elimination:

- Apply forward elimination to A and to each of the \mathbf{e}_i
- Back substitution to solve for each $\overline{\bf a}_i \Rightarrow A^{-1}$
- More economical to use LU decomposition next section

Inverse matrices are primarily a theoretical concept

Inverse suggests to solve $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b}$ via $\mathbf{v} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ Don't do that! – very expensive

Gauss elimination or LU decomposition is much cheaper:

- Explicitly forming inverse:
 - forward elimination
 - *n* back substitution algorithms
 - matrix-vector multiplication
- Gauss elimination:
 - forward elimination
 - 1 back substitution algorithm

Inverse exists if matrix is $n \times n$ and rank n — full rank

- \Rightarrow Action of A does not reduce dimensionality
- ⇒ All columns are linearly independent

Is A invertible?

Perform Gauss elimination

- A upper triangular with all nonzero diagonal elements \Rightarrow invertible
- Otherwise: A is singular

Matrix rank review:

- Matrix does not reduce dimensionality \Rightarrow rank n or full rank
- Matrix reduces dimensionality by $k \Rightarrow \text{rank } n k$
- $n \times n$ identity matrix has rank n
- Zero matrix has rank 0

Apply forward elimination to achieve row echelon form:

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{rank 2}$$

$$M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{rank 3}$$

$$M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{rank 4}$$

Compute the inverse of the $n \times n$ Gauss matrix G_j

$$G_j$$
 is a shear $\Rightarrow G_j^{-1}$ "undoes" G_j

Suppose $k \neq 0$ and kA is an invertible matrix: $(kA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{k}A^{-1}$ A and B are invertible then AB is invertible

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Forward elimination (no pivoting) in terms of Gauss matrices:

$$G_{n-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot G_1 \cdot A = U$$
$$A = G_1^{-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot G_{n-1}^{-1} U$$

Lower triangular matrix with elements $g_{i,j}$:

$$L = G_1^{-1} \cdot \ldots \cdot G_{n-1}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ g_{2,1} & 1 & & & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ g_{n,1} & \cdots & g_{n,n-1} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = LU$$
 \Rightarrow LU decomposition of A

Also called the triangular factorization of A

Every invertible matrix has such a decomposition

— pivoting might be necessary

4 D > 4 A > 4 B > 4 B > B = 90

A = LU for 3×3 matrix:

			<i>u</i> _{1,1} 0	$u_{1,2}$ $u_{2,2}$	$u_{1,3} = u_{2,3}$
			0	0	<i>u</i> _{3,3}
1	0	0	a _{1,1}	a _{1,2}	a _{1,3}
$I_{2,1}$	1	0	$a_{1,1} \\ a_{2,1}$	a _{1,2} a _{2,2}	a _{2,3}
$I_{3,1}$	$I_{3,2}$	1	a _{3,1}	a _{3,2}	<i>a</i> 3,3

Given: $a_{i,j}$ **Find:** $l_{i,j}$ and $u_{i,j}$

Elements of A below diagonal:

$$a_{i,j} = l_{i,1}u_{1,j} + \ldots + l_{i,j-1}u_{j-1,j} + l_{i,j}u_{j,j}; \quad j < i$$

Elements of A on or above diagonal:

$$a_{i,j} = l_{i,1}u_{1,j} + \ldots + l_{i,i-1}u_{i-1,j} + l_{i,i}u_{i,j}; \quad j \ge i$$

 \Longrightarrow

$$l_{i,j} = \frac{1}{u_{j,j}} (a_{i,j} - l_{i,1}u_{1,j} - \dots - l_{i,j-1}u_{j-1,j}); \quad j < i$$

$$u_{i,j} = a_{i,j} - l_{i,1}u_{1,j} - \dots - l_{i,i-1}u_{i-1,j}; \quad j \ge i$$

If A has a decomposition A = LU then system can be written

$$LU\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$$

Solving linear system is a two-step procedure:

$$L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$$
 where $\mathbf{y} = U\mathbf{u}$
 $U\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y}$

The two systems are triangular and easy to solve:

- Forward substitution applied to L
- Back substitution applied to U

Given: Coefficient matrix A and right-hand side **b** of $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$

Find: The unknowns u_1, \ldots, u_n of **u**

Algorithm:

Initialize L as the identity matrix and U as the zero matrix Calculate the nonzero elements of L and U:

For
$$k=1,\ldots,n$$

$$u_{k,k}=a_{k,k}-l_{k,1}u_{1,k}-\ldots-l_{k,k-1}u_{k-1,k}$$
 For $i=k+1,\ldots,n$
$$l_{i,k}=\frac{1}{u_{k,k}}[a_{i,k}-l_{i,1}u_{1,k}-\ldots-l_{i,k-1}u_{k-1,k}]$$
 For $j=k+1,\ldots,n$
$$u_{k,j}=a_{k,j}-l_{k,1}u_{1,j}-\ldots-l_{k,k-1}u_{k-1,j}$$

Using forward substitution solve Ly = b. Using back substitution solve Uu = y

The $u_{k,k}$ term must not be zero \Rightarrow requires pivoting or matrix is singular L being filled column by column and U being filled row by row

Example:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & -3 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

First step: decompose *A*

$$\begin{array}{lll} k=1: & & & & & & \\ u_{1,1}=a_{1,1}=2 & & & & & \\ l_{2,1}=a_{2,1}/u_{1,1}=-1/2 & & & & \\ l_{3,1}=a_{3,1}/u_{1,1}=1/2 & & & \\ u_{1,2}=a_{1,2}=2 & & & \\ u_{1,3}=a_{1,3}=4 & & & \\ \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{ll} k=2: & & & \\ u_{2,2}=a_{2,2}-l_{2,1}u_{1,2}=2+1=3 \\ & & & \\ l_{3,2}=\frac{1}{u_{2,2}}[a_{3,2}-l_{3,1}u_{1,2}]=\frac{1}{3}[2-1]=1/3 \\ & & & \\ u_{2,3}=a_{2,3}-l_{2,1}u_{1,3}=-3+2=-1 \end{array}$$

$$k = 3$$
: $u_{3,3} = a_{3,3} - l_{3,1}u_{1,3} - l_{3,2}u_{2,3} = 2 - 2 + 1/3 = 1/3$

Check decomposition:

			2	2	4
			0	3	-1
			0	0	1/3
1	0	0	2	2	4
-1/2	1	0	-1	2	- 3
1/2	1/3	1	1	2	2

Next: solve $L\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$ with forward substitution — solving for y_1 , then y_2 , and then y_3

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\3/2\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Last step: solve $U\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y}$ with back substitution

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Simple to check that solution correct: \mathbf{a}_2 is a multiple of \mathbf{b}

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Suppose A is nonsingular, but in need of pivoting

- Permutation matrix P used to exchange row(s)
- System becomes $PA\mathbf{u} = P\mathbf{b}$ and find PA = LU

Major benefit of the LU decomposition: speed

Solving multiple linear systems with the same coefficient matrix

- Construct decomposition
- Perform the forward and backward substitutions for each right-hand side Example: finding the inverse of a matrix

Chapter 8 3D Geometry: scalar triple product to measure volume in 3D

— Provided a geometric derivation of 3×3 determinants

Now: $n \times n$ determinants

Matrix A transformed to upper triangular U via forward elimination

- Sequence of shears and row exchanges
- Shears do not change volumes
- Row exchange changes the sign of the determinant
- \Rightarrow column vectors of U span same volume as A

$$\det A = (-1)^k (u_{1,1} \times \ldots \times u_{n,n})$$

where k is the number of row exchanges

One of the best (and most stable) methods for computing the determinant

Example from the Gauss Elimination Section – one row exchange (k = 1):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 9 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Method 1: Cofactor expansion

$$\det A = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 4$$

Method 2: Product of diagonal elements of U

$$\det A = (-1)^1 [2 \times -1 \times 2] = 4$$

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Cofactor expansion for $n \times n$ matrices

Choose any column or row of the matrix – for example entries $a_{1,j}$

$$\det A = a_{1,1}C_{1,1} + a_{1,2}C_{1,2} + \ldots + a_{1,n}C_{1,n}$$

where each cofactor is defined as

$$C_{i,j} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{i,j}$$

 $M_{i,j}$ are called the minors

- Each is determinant with $i^{
 m th}$ row and $j^{
 m th}$ column removed
- Each is an $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ determinant
- Each computed by yet another cofactor expansion

Process repeated until reduced to $2\times 2\mbox{ determinants}$

Technique also known as expansion by minors

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Example:

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

Choose the first column to form the cofactors

— Minimize number of non-zero cofactors

$$\det A = 2 \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 2(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 2(-1)(10) = -20$$

Since matrix is in upper triangular form — could also compute as

$$\det A = (-1)^0 (2 \times -1 \times 2 \times 5) = -20$$

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Cofactor expansion is more a theoretical tool than a computational one

- Important theoretical role in the analysis of linear systems
- Advanced theorems involving cofactor expansion and the inverse Computationally: Gauss elimination and the calculation of $\det U$ is superior

Revisit *Cramer's rule* – solution to $n \times n A \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$:

— Necessary that det $A \neq 0$

$$u_1 = \frac{\det A_1}{\det A}$$
 $u_2 = \frac{\det A_2}{\det A}$... $u_n = \frac{\det A_n}{\det A}$

where A_i is matrix obtained by replacing entries in the $i^{\rm th}$ column by **b** Cramer's rule is an important *theoretical tool*

— Only use it for 2×2 or 3×3 linear systems

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Example of Cramer's rule:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 9 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_1 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 6 & 2 & 0 \\ 9 & 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}} \quad u_2 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 6 & 0 \\ 1 & 9 & 2 \\ 2 & 7 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}} \quad u_3 = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 2 & 6 \\ 1 & 1 & 9 \\ 2 & 1 & 7 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}$$

$$u_1 = \frac{4}{4} = 1 \qquad u_2 = \frac{8}{4} = 2 \qquad u_3 = \frac{12}{4} = 3$$

Identical to solution found with Gauss elimination



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Determinant of a positive definite matrix is always positive \Rightarrow matrix is always nonsingular

Upper-left submatrices of an $n \times n$ matrix A are

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} \end{bmatrix}$$
 $A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} \end{bmatrix}$... $A_n = A$

(Different from A_i in Cramer's rule)

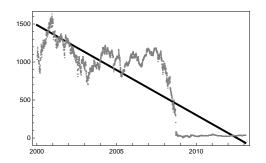
If A is positive definite then the determinants of all A_i are positive

Rules for working with determinants: see Chapter 9 Linear Maps in 3D

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Presented with large amounts of data

- Need method to create a simpler view or synopsis of the data
- Example: graph of AIG's monthly average stock price over twelve years A lot of activity in the price, but a clear declining trend



Mathematical tool to capture this: linear least squares approximation

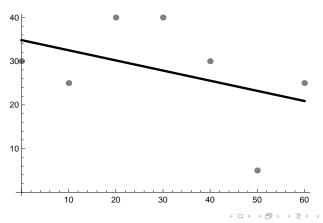
— "Best fit" line or best approximating line

Linear least squares approximation also useful when analyzing experimental data

- Data can be "noisy"
 - data capture method encounters error
 - observation method lapse
 - round-off from computations that generated the data
- Might want to
 - make summary statements about data
 - estimate values where data missing
 - predict future values

Example: Experimental data of temperature (Celsius) over time (seconds)

 $\begin{bmatrix} \text{time} \\ \text{temperature} \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 30 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 20 \\ 40 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 40 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 40 \\ 30 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 50 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 60 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix}$



Want to establish a simple linear relationship between the variables

$$temperature = a \times time + b$$

Write down relationships between knowns and unknowns:

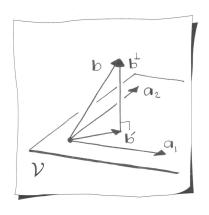
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 10 & 1 \\ 20 & 1 \\ 30 & 1 \\ 40 & 1 \\ 50 & 1 \\ 60 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 25 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 30 \\ 5 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}$

Overdetermined system of 7 equations in 2 unknowns

- In general: will not have solutions; it is inconsistent Unlikely that ${\bf b}$ lives in subspace ${\mathcal V}$ formed by columns of A
- ⇒ Find an approximate solution

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Derivation of the least squares solution



Let \mathbf{b}' be a vector in \mathcal{V} (subspace formed by columns of A)

$$A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}'$$

System is solvable (consistent)
— still overdetermined (7 equations in 2 unknowns)

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}' + \mathbf{b}^{\perp}$$

 \mathbf{b}' is closest to \mathbf{b} and in \mathcal{V}

 \mathbf{b}^{\perp} is orthogonal to $\mathcal V$

$$\mathbf{a}_1^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b}^{\perp} = 0$$
 and $\mathbf{a}_2^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b}^{\perp} = 0$ \Rightarrow $A^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b}^{\perp} = \mathbf{0}$
$$\mathbf{b}^{\perp} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b}' \quad \text{then } A^{\mathrm{T}}(\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b}') = \mathbf{0}$$

$$A^{\mathrm{T}}(\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$A^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b} - A^{\mathrm{T}}A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$$

Rearranging results in the normal equations

$$A^{\mathrm{T}}A\mathbf{u} = A^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{b}$$

Linear system with a square, symmetric matrix $A^{T}A$ Solution to the new system minimizes the *error*

$$\|A\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{b}\|^2 \Rightarrow least squares solution$$

Recall: \mathbf{b}' is closest to \mathbf{b} in $\mathcal{V} \Rightarrow$ minimizes $\|\mathbf{b}' - \mathbf{b}\|$

Continue Example — Form the normal equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 10 & 1 \\ 20 & 1 \\ 30 & 1 \\ 40 & 1 \\ 50 & 1 \\ 60 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 25 \\ 40 \\ 40 \\ 30 \\ 5 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 9100 & 210 \\ 210 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5200 \\ 195 \end{bmatrix}$$

Least squares solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.23 \\ 34.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{line } x_2 = -0.23x_1 + 34.8$$



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Real-world problem:

Data capture method fails due to some environmental condition Want to remove data points if they seem outside the norm

- Such data called outliers
- Point six in Figure looks to be an outlier
- Least squares line provides a means for finding outliers

Least squares approximation can be used for data compression

Numerical problems can creep into the normal equations

- Particularly so when the $n \gg m$ in $n \times m$ matrix A
- Other methods to find least squares solution
 - Chapter 13: the Householder method
 - Chapter 16: SVD

Application: Fitting Data to a Femoral Head

Hip bone replacement:

- Remove an existing femoral head and replace it by a transplant
- Consists of new head and shaft for attaching to existing femur
- Data points collected from existing femoral head with MRI or PET
- Spherical fit is obtained
- Transplant is manufactured





Application: Fitting Data to a Femoral Head

Given: a set of 3D vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_L$

— approximately of equal length: ρ_1, \ldots, ρ_L

Find: a sphere (centered at the origin) with radius r closely fitting the \mathbf{v}_i

If all \mathbf{v}_i on the desired sphere $r = \rho_1, \dots, r = \rho_L$ In matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \vdots \\ \rho_L \end{bmatrix}$$

A very overdetermined linear system — L equations in only 1 unknown r Multiply both sides by $[1 \ldots 1]$ gives

$$Lr = \rho_1 + \ldots + \rho_L \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad r = \frac{\rho_1 + \ldots + \rho_L}{L}$$

Least squares solution is simply the average of the given radii

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WYSK

- \bullet $n \times n$ linear system
- coefficient matrix
- consistent system
- subspace
- solvable system
- unsolvable system
- Gauss elimination
- upper triangular matrix
- forward elimination
- back substitution
- elementary row operation
- permutation matrix

- row echelon form
- pivoting
- Gauss matrix
- multiplier
- augmented matrix
- singular matrix
- matrix rank
- full rank
- rank deficient
- homogeneous linear system
- inverse matrix
- LU decomposition
- factorization

- forward substitution
- lower triangular matrix
- determinant
- cofactor expansion
- expansion by minors
- Cramer's rule
- overdetermined system
- least squares solution
- normal equations