Gaussian Elimination

this is how a computer solves systems of linear equations using elimination. Almost all questions in this class will reduce to this procedure!

The interesting part is how they do so.)

Def: Two matrices are now equivalent if your can get from one to the other using now operations.

MB: If augmented matrices are now equivalent then they have the same solution sets.

Algorithm (Gaussian Elimination/row reduction):

Input: Any matrix

Output: A row-equivalent matrix in REF.

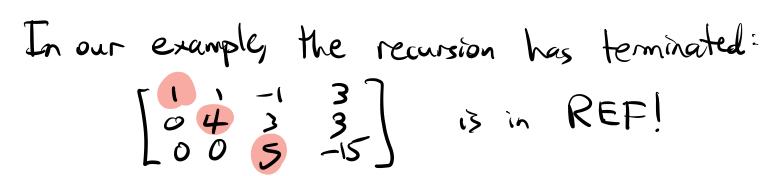
Procedure:

(1a) If the first nonzero column has a zero entry at the top, now swap so that the top entry is nonzero.

 $\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\
1 & 1 & -1 & 3 \\
5 & -3 & -6 & -6
\end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\
0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\
5 & -3 & -6 & -6
\end{bmatrix}$

This is now the first pivot position.

(16) Perform row replacements to clear all entries below the first pivot.
$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 5 & -3 & -6 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 = 5R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & -8 & -1 & -21 \end{bmatrix}$
Now ignore the row & column with the first pivot and recurse into the submatrix below
and to the right:
0433
(2a) If the first nonzero column has a
zero entry at the top, now swap so that the top entry is nonzero.
[04] 3 3] (Not applicable to this matrix)
(26) Perform row replacements to clear all entries below the second pivot.
(26) Perform row replacements to clear all entries below the second pivot. [1
etc. (recurse) Doen't mess up the 1st column!



Important: If you want to apply this algorithm to an augmented matrix, just delete the augmentation line (pretend it's not augmented).

Demo: Gauss-Jordan slideshow

Use Rabinoff's Reliable Row Reducer on the HW!
Lowe the Sage cell when this
gets easy

What about other row operations?

There are usually other (more clever!) ways to use row operations to put a matrix in REF.

These will yield the same solutions, of course!

But for some things, you have to apply the algorithm as written - eg. for LU decompositions (next time).

Jordan Substitution
This is the back-substitution procedure
It is necessary when you have as solutions.
It puts a matrix into the following form:
Def: A matrix is in reduced now echelon from
(RREF) if: (1-2) It is in REF (3) All pivots are equal to 1. (4) A pivot is the only nonzero entry in its column.
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(3) All pivots are equal to 1.
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entry in its column.

Eg: [2 3 6 7 13 in REF. How to Do back substitution!

Back-Sabstitution

$$\chi_{+2} \times_{1} + 3 \times_{3} = 6$$

$$-5 \times_{2} - 10 \times_{3} = -20$$

$$10 \times_{3} = 30$$

$$\chi_{42} \times 43 \times_{3} = 6$$
 $-5 \times_{2} - 10 \times_{3} = -20$
 $\times_{3} = 3$

(kill these)
$$R_2 += 10 R_3$$
Substitute $x_3 = 3$ into R.L.Re
then move the constants to
the RHS

$$X_1 + 2X_2 = -3$$

 $-5x_2 = 10$
 $X_3 = 3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
(kill this)

$$x^{3} = 3$$
 $x^{3} = -3$
 $x^{3} = -3$

$$X_1 = ($$
 $X_2 = -2$
 $X_3 = 3$

This is in RREF:

Upshot, Jordan substitution is exactly back-substitution.

Demo: Gauss-Jordan slideshow, cont'd

Algorithm (Jordan Substitution): Input: A matrix in REF Output: The row-equivalent matrix in RREF. Procedure: Loop, starting at the last pirot: (a) Scale the pivot row so the pivot = 1. (b) Use row replacements to kill the entries theaen above that pivot.

The RREF of a matrix is unique.

In other words, if you start with a matrix, do any legal row operations at all, and end with a matrix in RREF, then it's the same matrix that Gauss-Jordan will produce.

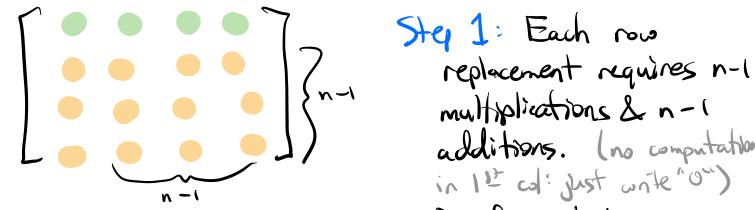
La Gausgian elimination + Jordan substitution.

NB: Jordan substitution gives you a RREF matrix with the same phots. So uniqueness of RREF implies uniqueness of proof positions.

Computational Complexity

How much computer time does Gauss-Jordan take?

Gaussian Elimination on an non matrix takes:



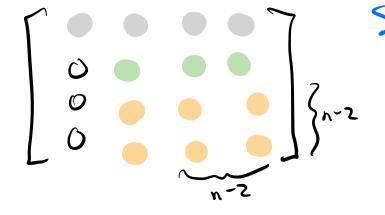
additions. (no computation in 12 cal: just unte "o")

$$(n-1)(n-1)$$
 mult

 $(n-1)(n-1)$ add

 $(n-1)(n-1)^2$ Alops = floating point operations

2 (n-1)2 flops = floating point operations



Step 2: Each row replacement requires n-2 multiplications & n-2 additions. Must do this for n-2 remaining (000)

$$(n-2)(n-2)$$
 mult
+ $(n-2)(n-2)$ add
 $2(n-2)^2$ flops
etc.

Total:
$$2[(n-1)^2 + (n-2)^2 + \dots + 1^2]$$

= $2 \cdot \frac{n(n-1)(2n-1)}{6}$ $\approx \frac{2}{3}n^3$ $\Re p_3$

Rade-Substitution

$$X_n = 1$$
 mult = 1 flop
 $X_{n-1} + X_n = 1$ mult, 1 add = 3 flops
(substitute $X_n \times 0$, subtract, 0)

Xn=1+ Xn=1+ Xn=
 3 mult, 2 add = 5 flops
 (substitute xn & xn=1, x=1, x=1, x=1, x=1)

 $-x_1 + \cdots + x_n = n \text{ mult, } (n-1) \text{ all} = 2n-1 \text{ flops}$ Total: $1+3+5+\cdots+(2n-1)=n^2 \text{ flops}$

MB: $\frac{2}{5}$ n³ is a lot more than n²!

For a 1000×1000 mostrix, $\frac{2}{3}$ n³ $\approx \frac{2}{3}$ gigotlops but n² = 1 megaflop. If we want to solve Ax > b for 1000 values of b, doing elimination each time takes $\frac{2}{3}$ teraflops!

I won't expect you to know a lot about computational complexity. Just learn which procedures are O(n2) and which are O(n2).

Inverse Mortnices

Question: When solving Ax=b, when can we "divide by A"? If $x = \frac{b}{A}$ makes sence, then Ax = b has exactly one solution $x = \frac{b}{A}$ for every b.
This means RREF (A1b) looks like this:

Def: An nxn (square!) matrix A is invertible if there exists another nxn matrix B such that $AB = I_n = BA$. $I_n = [0] n \times n$ identity of therwise it's called singular.

Notn: B=A-1, called the inverse of A.

Eg: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad BA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\Rightarrow B=A^{-1}$

Eg: A=[00] [00][ab]=[ab] + Iz so A 65 singular (non-invertible).

Remarks Since AB & BA in general, you have to require AB = In = BA a priori. But:

Fact: If A and B are non matrices and AB=In or BA=In, then $B=A^{-1}$.

So the Lefmition above is a bit pedantic...

Remark: A non-square matrix closs not admit both a left- and right-inverse, so not invertible.

(Can't solve AB=Im and CA=In unless A is square.)

This is why we only treat invertibility of square matrices.

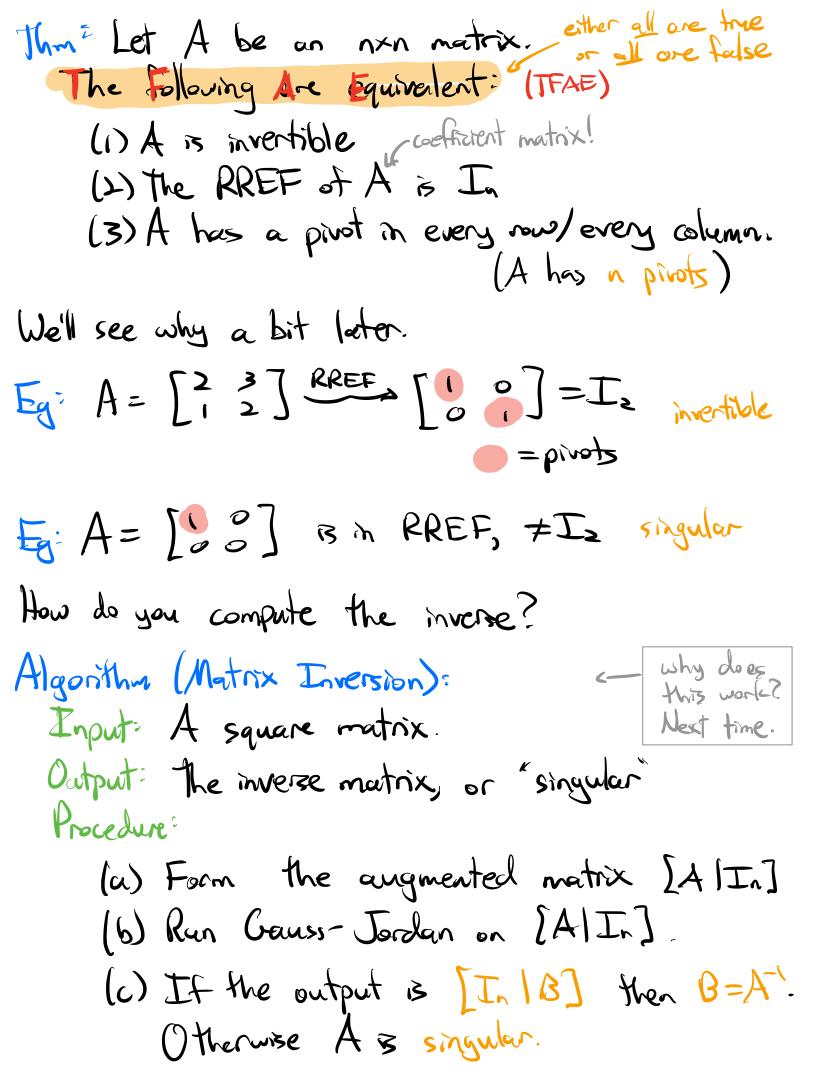
Fact: $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ because $AB = I_n$ means $B = A^{-1}$ and $A = B^{-1}$

Fact: If A & B are inventible, then so is AB, and (AB) - = AB = B-A-1.

Check: (AB)(B-A-1)=A(BB-)A-1=A(In)A-1=In

NB: Why not $(AB)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$? Let's check: $(AB)(A^{-1}B^{-1}) = ABA^{-1}B^{-1} = ???$

In cancellation - can't re-order the terms!)



Eg: Compute [2 3]. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & | & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & | & 0 & | \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - \frac{1}{2}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & | & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & | & -1/2 & | \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{array}{c|c} R_{3} x = 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline & & & & \\ \hline & & & & \\ \end{array}$ $\mathbb{R}_{i} \stackrel{?}{=} 2 \qquad \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$ This has the form $\left[I_2 \right]_{-1}^{2} = \frac{3}{2}$ So $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Eg: Compute $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 7 & 1 \\ -1 & -3 & 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ But this is in RREF and it does not have

the form [Iz 1B] => singular

NB: We knew this after the first step: no pivot in the second column.

Actually there's a shortcut for 2x2 matrices:

Fact: [a b] is invertible ad-be 70, in which case

Eg:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 2 - 3 \cdot 1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is this good for? Suppose A is invertible. Let's solve Ax=b.

$$A_x = b \iff A^-(A_x) = A^-b$$

$$(A^-A)_{\times} = A^{-1}b$$

In particular, Ax=b has exactly one solution for any b, and we have an expression for b in terms of x

Eg. Soluc
$$2x + 3x_2 = b_1$$

 $x_1 + 2x_2 = b_2$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = -b_1 + 2b_2$$

So if you want to solve
$$2x+3x_3 = 3$$

 $x_1+2x_2 = 4$
 $x_2 = -(3)+2(4) = -6$
 $x_2 = -(3)+2(4) = 5$