

Gaussian Elimination.

We now analyze ~~this~~ the most basic algorithm for solving $Ax = b$.

Definition. A permutation matrix P is an identity matrix with permuted rows.

We Know:

Lemma. Let P, P_1, P_2 be permutation matrices and X be any $n \times n$ matrix.

1. PX is X with rows permuted.

XP is X with columns permuted.

2. $P^{-1} = P^T$ (or P is an orthogonal matrix)

3. $\det(P) = \pm 1$

4. $P_1 P_2$ is also a permutation matrix.

The proof is homework.

②

Algorithm. (Gauss Elimination)

1. Factorize A into $A = PLU$ where

P = permutation matrix

L = a lower triangular matrix
with 1's on the diagonal

U = nonsingular upper triangular matrix

2. Solve $PLUx = b$ for LUx using $P^{-1} = P^T$
and writing

$$P^{-1}(PLUx) = P^{-1}b$$

$$LUx = P^T b$$

This permutes the entries of b.

3. Solve $LUx = P^T b$ for Ux using
back substitution:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} \cancel{1} & & & & \\ a_{21} & \cancel{1} & & & \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 1 & & \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & 1 & \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} (Ux)_1 \\ (Ux)_2 \\ (Ux)_3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (P^T b)_1 \\ (P^T b)_2 \\ (P^T b)_3 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

(3)

We know

$$(Ux)_1 = (P^T b)_1$$

$$(Ux)_2 = (P^T b)_2 - a_{21}(Ux)_1$$

⋮

$$(Ux)_n = (P^T b)_n - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_{ni}(Ux)_i$$

so it isn't hard to solve a lower triangular system. The resulting vector is $L^{-1}(P^T b)$.

This

4. Solve $Ux = L^{-1}(P^T b)$ for x by forward substitution.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{31} & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L^{-1}(P^T b)_1 \\ L^{-1}(P^T b)_2 \\ L^{-1}(P^T b)_3 \\ \vdots \\ L^{-1}(P^T b)_n \end{bmatrix}$$

This works just like back substitution except we start by solving for x_n

(4)

and work our way back to x_1 rather than vice versa.

A few points are worth making before we go on.

- 1) We compute P , L , and U rather than A^{-1} . In fact, we don't explicitly compute L^{-1} or U^{-1} either.
- 2) Once we have P , L , and U , solving for a new right hand side is very inexpensive.

Now why do we need the permutation matrix P ?

(5)

Definition. The leading $j \times j$ principal submatrix of A is the upper left $j \times j$ block submatrix.

Theorem. The following are equivalent:

\exists a unique unit lower triangular L and nonsingular upper triangular U so that $A = LU$



all leading principal submatrices of A are nonsingular.

Proof. Suppose $A = LU$. Then for any j , we can write A in block form

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L_{11} & 0 \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{11} & U_{12} \\ 0 & U_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} L_{11}U_{11} & L_{11}U_{12} \\ L_{21}U_{11} & L_{21}U_{12} + L_{22}U_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

where A_{11}, L_{11}, U_{11} are $j \times j$ matrices.

(6)

Now

$$\det A_{11} = \det(L_{11}U_{11}) \\ = \det(L_{11}) \cdot \det(U_{11})$$

We now need a useful linear algebra fact:

Fact. If B is lower (or upper) triangular, then $\det B = \prod_{i=1}^n b_{ii}$.

Thus

$$\det L_{11} \cdot \det U_{11} = 1 \cdot \prod_{k=1}^j (U_{11})_{kk} \neq 0$$

Since L is unit (1's on diagonal), and U is nonsingular (if $\prod_{k=1}^j (U_{11})_{kk} = 0$, $\det U = \prod_{k=1}^n U_{kk} = 0$).

This ~~implies~~ proves \Downarrow .

Now we prove \uparrow by induction on n . ⑦

For $n=1$, $[a] = [1] \cdot [a]$ where $[a]$ is nonsingular if $a \neq 0$ and there is only one leading principal submatrix.

So suppose we know:

- 1) \tilde{A} is an $n \times n$ matrix with all leading principal submatrices nonsingular.
- 2) For $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrices, all leading principal submatrices nonsingular $\Rightarrow \exists$ a unique LU decomposition.

So write

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A & b \\ c^T & \delta \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } A \text{ is } (n-1) \times (n-1),$$

b, c are vectors in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} ;
 δ is a scalar.

We know $A = LU$. If we can complete this to an LU decomposition of \tilde{A} , we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & b \\ C^T & \delta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L & 0 \\ L^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U & u \\ 0 & \eta \end{bmatrix}$$

(8)

$$= \begin{bmatrix} LU & Lu \\ L^T U & L^T u + \eta \end{bmatrix}$$

So we need to choose u, l, η so that

$$Lu = b, \quad L^T u = C^T, \quad \eta + L^T u = \delta$$

The first equation can clearly be solved by back substitution, the second can be written

$$U^T l = C, \quad \text{and again solved by back substitution}$$

The last equation can be solved as

$$\eta = \delta - L^T u \quad \text{once we know } l, u.$$

Clearly, l, u, η are determined uniquely.

We need only check η nonzero.

⑨

But

$$0 \neq \det \tilde{A} = \det \begin{bmatrix} L & 0 \\ 0^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} \det \begin{bmatrix} U & U \\ 0 & n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= 1 \cdot (\det U) \cdot n$$

and $\det U \neq 0$ by induction. \square .

This explains why we need permutations:
for example the matrix

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

has singular leading
principal 1×1 and 2×2
submatrices

and so has no LU decomposition.

Of course, we haven't proved that a suitable permutation will give any nonsingular matrix nonsingular leading principal submatrices.

In fact, this is true:

(10)

Theorem. If A is nonsingular, there exist permutations P_1 and P_2 so that

$$P_1 A P_2 = LU \text{ and } AP_2 = LU$$

where $P_2 L$ is unit lower triangular,
 U is nonsingular upper triangular. Further,
there are ~~different~~ the statement ~~holds~~ holds
with ei

Proof. See Demmel, p.40 for a messy,
but basically straight forward proof
by induction on n .

