



2 Gauss Elimination

2.1 Inverse matrices

A is **invertible** if there exists a matrix A^{-1} such that

$$A^{-1}A = I \quad \text{and} \quad AA^{-1} = I$$

1. inverse exists \Leftrightarrow elimination produces n pivots (row exchanges allowed)
2. A cannot have two different inverses.
If $BA = I$, $AC = I$, then $B(AC) = (BA)C \Rightarrow B = C$.
i.e. A left-inverse and right-inverse are the same.
3. If A is invertible, the one and only solution to $AX = b$ is $x = A^{-1}b$.
4. If there is a nonzero vector x such that $AX = 0$, then A cannot have an inverse. If A is invertible, $x = 0$ is the only solution to $AX = 0$
5. A is invertible \Leftrightarrow *determinant* is not zero.

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

6. diagonal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & d_n \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/d_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1/d_n \end{bmatrix}$$

7. If A and B are invertible, then so is AB.
 $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$

2.2 Calculating A^{-1} by Gauss - Jordan Elimination

$$\begin{aligned} AA^{-1} &= I \\ \parallel \\ A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Gauss - Jordan method solves three systems of equations ($Ax_i = e_i$) together.

Example . Compute the inverse of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Apply elimination to the augmented matrix

$$[A \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$\frac{1}{2}$ row 1 + row 2
 \implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & -1 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$\frac{2}{3}$ row 2 + row 3
 \implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & -1 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

upper triangular. continue

$\frac{3}{4}$ row 3 + row 2
 \implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 0 & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$\frac{2}{3}$ row 2 + row 1
 \implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 0 & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

divide each row by its pivots

\implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{4} \end{array} \right] = [I \mid x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3]$$

i.e

G-J process multiplies
 $A^{-1} [A \quad I]$
to get $[I \quad A^{-1}]$

- Let A be a square matrix.
 A^{-1} exists (and Gauss-Jordan finds it) exactly when A has n pivots.
If $AC = I$ then $CA = I$ and $C = A^{-1}$.

Example . If L is lower triangular with 1's on the diagonal, so is L^{-1} .

$$\begin{aligned} [L \quad I] &= \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\ &\implies \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & * & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & * & 1 & * & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \\ &\implies \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & * & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * & 1 \end{array} \right] = [I \mid L^{-1}] \end{aligned}$$

2.3 Elimination = LU Factorization

(Stang Pg.83)

Example . $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

$$E_{21}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

$$\underbrace{E_{21}^{-1}}_{LU=A} U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} = A$$

Example . A is 3×3 , no row exchange needed.

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{then, } E_{21}A \\ &E_{31}(E_{21}A) \\ &E_{32}(E_{31}E_{21}A) = U \\ \implies A &= \underbrace{(E_{21}^{-1}E_{31}^{-1}E_{32}^{-1})}_{\text{lower triangular 1's on the diagonal}} U = LU \\ &\text{lower multiplier } l_{ij} \text{ goes directly into (i,j) position} \end{aligned}$$

Example .

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & \bar{0} \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ \underline{0} & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ A_{31} = 0 &\rightarrow \text{don't need the step } E_{31} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1 & 0 \\ \underline{0} & 2/3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & \bar{0} \\ 0 & 3/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 4/3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad L \quad U \end{aligned}$$

observation :

- If a row of A starts with 0,
then so does that row of L
- If a column of A starts with 0,
then so does that column of U

In the above example,

$$\text{Row 3 of } U = \text{Row 3 of } A - l_{31} (\text{Row1 of } U) - l_{32}(\text{Row2 of } U)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies \text{Row3 of } A & \\ &= l_{31}(\text{Row1 of } U) + l_{32}(\text{Row2 of } U) + 1 \cdot (\text{Row3 of } U) \\ &= \text{Row3 of } LU \end{aligned}$$

$$\implies \text{This shows why } A = LU.$$

2.4 LDU Factorization

\implies Divide U by diagonal elements so that U has 1's on the diagonal.

In the previous example,

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & L & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{U_{12}}{d_1} & \frac{U_{13}}{d_1} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{U_{23}}{d_2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.5 Transposes

$A^T = \underline{\text{transpose}}$ of A

column of $A^T = \text{row of A}$

$$(A^T)_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

$$\bullet (A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$$

$$\bullet (AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

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

• For any vectors x and y,

$$(Ax)^T y = x^T A^T y = x^T (A^T y)$$

• symmetric matrix : $A^T = A$ ($a_{ji} = a_{ij}$)

• inverse of an invertible, symmetric matrix is also symmetric.

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

• Choose any matrix R, then $R^T R$ is square, and

$$(R^T R)^T = R^T (R^T)^T = R^T R$$

$\therefore R^T R$ is a symmetric matrix.

(RR^T is also a symmetric matrix.)

In the previous example,

$$\underbrace{A}_{\text{symmetric}} = LDU = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = LDL^T$$

\implies If $A = A^T$, $A = LDU$ (with no row exchange),

then $U = L^T$, and $A = LDL^T$.