

Lecture 18

188 200

Discrete Mathematics and Linear Algebra

Pattarawit Polpinit

Department of Computer Engineering
Khon Kaen University

Overview

Topics for today.

- ▶ Partitioned matrices
- ▶ Addition
- ▶ Multiplication
- ▶ Inverse
- ▶ Matrix factorization
- ▶ LU factorization
- ▶ The LU factorization algorithm

Reference : Section 2.4-2.5

Partitioned Matrices

- ▶ Thus far, a key feature working with matrices is the ability to **partition** a matrix into **a list of column vectors**.
- ▶ We wish to consider other **partitions of a matrix**.

Example 1: Consider the 3×6 matrix

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cc|c} 3 & 0 & -1 & 5 & 9 & -2 \\ -5 & 2 & 4 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ -8 & -6 & 3 & 1 & 7 & -4 \end{array} \right]$$

This can also be written as 2×3 partitioned (or block) matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

whose entries are the block (or submatrices) A_{11} , A_{12} , A_{13} , A_{21} , A_{22} and A_{23} corresponding to the original matrix A .

Addition and Multiplication of Partitioned Matrices

- ▶ If A and B are the **same size** and are **partitioned the same way**, $A + B$ is defined.
 - Each block of $A + B$ is the sum of the corresponding block of A and B .

Exmample 2: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix}$

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} + B_{11} & A_{12} + B_{12} \\ A_{21} + B_{21} & A_{22} + B_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ If the column partition of A matches the row partition of B , AB is defined.
 - AB can be computed normally as if blocks are scalar.

Multiplication of Partitioned Matrices, Example

Example 3: Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cc} 2 & -3 & 1 & 0 & -4 \\ 1 & 5 & -2 & 3 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & -4 & -2 & 7 & -1 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{array} \right]$$

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 6 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 \\ -3 & 7 \\ \hline -1 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} B_{11} \\ B_{21} \end{array} \right]$$

AB is defined and equals to

$$AB = \left[\begin{array}{cc} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} B_1 \\ B_2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} A_{11}B_1 + A_{12}B_2 \\ A_{21}B_1 + A_{22}B_2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -5 & 4 \\ -6 & 2 \\ \hline 2 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Inverses of Partitioned Matrices

The next example illustrate how to find **an inverse of a partitioned matrix**.

Example 4: Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$. Assume that A_{11} is $p \times p$, A_{22} is $q \times q$, and A is invertible. Find a formula for A^{-1} .

Solution: Denote A^{-1} by B and partition B so that

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_p & 0 \\ 0 & I_q \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix provide the following four equations:

$$A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} = I_p \quad (1)$$

$$A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$A_{22}B_{21} = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$A_{22}B_{22} = I_q \quad (4)$$

Example 4, cont.

- ▶ Since A is a square matrix, (4) implies that A_{22} is invertible.
 - So $B_{22} = A_{22}^{-1}$
- ▶ (3) and the fact that A_{22} is invertible means $B_{21} = A_{22}^{-1}0 = 0$
- ▶ So (1) can be simplified to $A_{11}B_{11} + 0 = I_p$.
 - So $B_{11} = A_{11}^{-1}$.
- ▶ From (2), $A_{11}B_{12} = -A_{12}B_{22} = -A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}$
 - So $B_{12} = -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}$.

Combining everything together we have

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} & -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \\ 0 & A_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Factorization

- ▶ **A factorization** of a matrix A is an equation that express A as two or more matrices.
- ▶ The motivation to find a factorization of a matrix came from the problem of solving **a sequence of equations**, all with the same coefficient matrix.
 - $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}_1, A\vec{x} = \vec{b}_2, \dots, A\vec{x} = \vec{b}_p.$
- ▶ This can be done, if A is invertible, by compute $A^{-1}\vec{b}_1, A^{-1}\vec{b}_2, \dots, A^{-1}\vec{b}_p.$
- ▶ Instead of repeatedly compute multiplication of A^{-1} with all the vectors \vec{b} , we will use a factorization of a matrix called **LU factorization** which will **speed up** the calculation.

LU factorization

Suppose A is an $m \times n$ invertible matrix that can be row reduced to echelon form without row interchange. Then A can be written as $A = LU$.

- ▶ L is an $m \times m$ lower triangular matrix with 1's on the diagonal. L is invertible and is called a unit lower triangular matrix. Example of L

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ * & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ * & * & 1 & 0 \\ * & * & * & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ U is an $m \times n$ echelon form of A .
- ▶ When $A = LU$ then $A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \rightarrow L(U\vec{x}) = \vec{b}$.
 - So to find \vec{x} , we solve $L\vec{y} = \vec{b}$ and $U\vec{x} = \vec{y}$.
 - This is easy to solve since L and U are triangle.

Is it really easier or faster?

Before learn how to find L and U , the next example shows that LU factorization is useful.

Example 5: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 & 2 \\ -3 & 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & -4 & 0 & -5 \\ -9 & 5 & -5 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$ and let

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 8 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, U = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It can be verified that $A = LU$. Solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$.

► First solve $L\vec{y} = \vec{b}$.

- Solve for \vec{y} by row reducing $\begin{bmatrix} L & \vec{b} \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} I & \vec{y} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\left[L \quad \vec{b} \right] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -9 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\ -3 & 8 & 3 & 1 & 11 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -9 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \left[I \quad \vec{y} \right]$$

▶ This process uses **6 multiplications** and **6 additions**.

▶ Next solve $U\vec{x} = \vec{y}$. $\left[U \quad \vec{y} \right] =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -7 & -2 & 2 & -9 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ -6 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

▶ This requires **4 divisions**, **6 multiplications** and **6 additions**.

▶ In total, we only need **28 arithmetic operations**.

▶ How many operations to row reduce $\left[A \quad \vec{b} \right]$ to $\left[I \quad \vec{x} \right]$? **62**

An LU Factorization Algorithm

The efficiency of LU factorization depends on knowing L and U .
The next algorithm show how to efficiently obtained L and U .

LU factorization algorithm:

1. Reduce A to an echelon form U by a sequence of **row replacement operations** if possible.
2. Place entries in L such that the **same sequence of row operations** reduces L to I .

Note:

- ▶ Step 1 is not always possible. If it is, it implies that LU factorization exist.
- ▶ Make sure that when reduce A to U only **row replacement operations** are used.
- ▶ Using LU factorization to solve a sequence of equations, L and U are computed just **once**.

LU Factorization Algorithm, Proof

Proof:

- ▶ Suppose A can be row reduced to echelon form U using only row replacement.
- ▶ There exist a unit lower triangular elementary matrices E_1, \dots, E_p such that $E_p \cdots E_1 A = U$.

- Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- ▶ Then $A = (E_p \dots E_1)^{-1} U = LU$ where $L = (E_p \dots E_1)^{-1}$.
- ▶ Since products and inverses of unit lower triangular matrices are also lower triangular, L is unit lower triangular.
- ▶ The row operations that reduce A to U , will also reduce L to I , because $E_p \dots E_1 L = (E_p \dots E_1)(E_p \dots E_1)^{-1}$.

Example 6: Find L and U of the following matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & 5 & -2 \\ -4 & -5 & 3 & -8 & 1 \\ 2 & -5 & -4 & 1 & 8 \\ -6 & 0 & 7 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution:

Example 7: ind L and U of the following matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -4 & -2 & 3 \\ 6 & -9 & -5 & 8 \\ 2 & -7 & -3 & 9 \\ 4 & -2 & -2 & -1 \\ -6 & 3 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution:

Recap

- ▶ Partitioned matrices
- ▶ LU factorization

Next time, we will close the third chapter with Subspaces, Dimension and Rank.