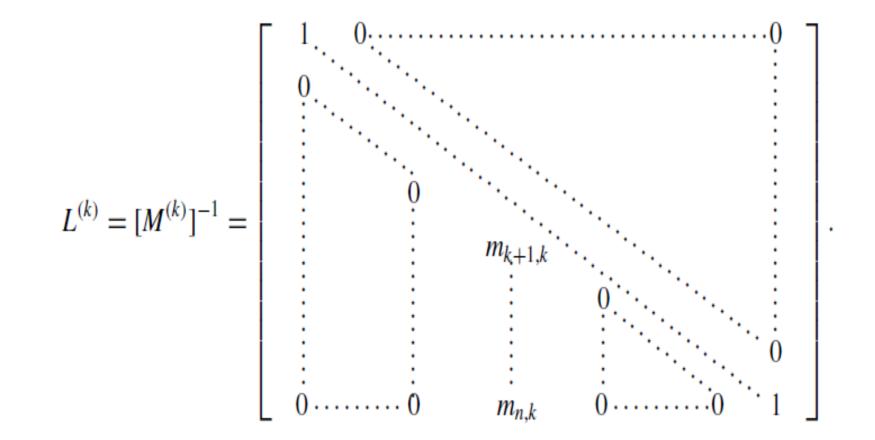
This process forms the $U = A^{(n)}$ portion of the matrix factorization A = LU. To determine the complementary lower triangular matrix L, first recall the multiplication of $A^{(k)}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}^{(k)}$ by the Gaussian transformation of $M^{(k)}$ used to obtain (6.9):

$$A^{(k+1)}\mathbf{x} = M^{(k)}A^{(k)}\mathbf{x} = M^{(k)}\mathbf{b}^{(k)} = \mathbf{b}^{(k+1)},$$

where $M^{(k)}$ generates the row operations

$$(E_j - m_{j,k}E_k) \rightarrow (E_j), \text{ for } j = k+1,\ldots,n.$$

To reverse the effects of this transformation and return to $A^{(k)}$ requires that the operations $(E_j + m_{j,k}E_k) \rightarrow (E_j)$ be performed for each j = k + 1, ..., n. This is equivalent to multiplying by the inverse of the matrix $M^{(k)}$, the matrix



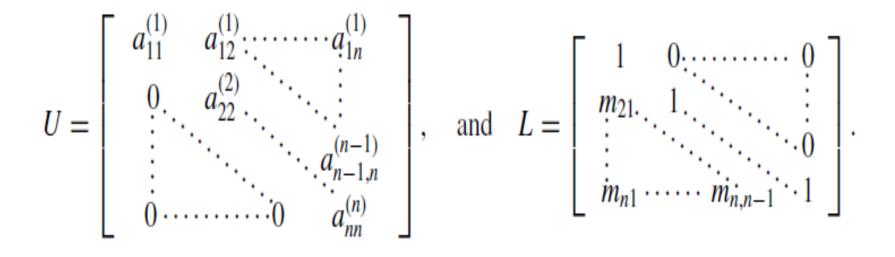
The lower-triangular matrix L in the factorization of A, then, is the product of the matrices $L^{(k)}$:

$$L = L^{(1)}L^{(2)}\cdots L^{(n-1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ m_{21} & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ m_{n1} & \cdots & m_{n,n-1} & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

since the product of *L* with the upper-triangular matrix $U = M^{(n-1)} \cdots M^{(2)} M^{(1)} A$ gives $LU = L^{(1)} L^{(2)} \cdots L^{(n-3)} L^{(n-2)} L^{(n-1)} \cdot M^{(n-1)} M^{(n-2)} M^{(n-3)} \cdots M^{(2)} M^{(1)} A$ $= [M^{(1)}]^{-1} [M^{(2)}]^{-1} \cdots [M^{(n-2)}]^{-1} [M^{(n-1)}]^{-1} \cdot M^{(n-1)} M^{(n-2)} \cdots M^{(2)} M^{(1)} A = A.$

Theorem

If Gaussian elimination can be performed on the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ without row interchanges, then the matrix A can be factored into the product of a lower-triangular matrix L and an upper-triangular matrix U, that is, A = LU, where $m_{ji} = a_{ji}^{(i)}/a_{ii}^{(i)}$,



Example

(a) Determine the LU factorization for matrix A in the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(b) Then use the factorization to solve the system

$$x_{1} + x_{2} + 3x_{4} = 8,$$

$$2x_{1} + x_{2} - x_{3} + x_{4} = 7,$$

$$3x_{1} - x_{2} - x_{3} + 2x_{4} = 14,$$

$$-x_{1} + 2x_{2} + 3x_{3} - x_{4} = -7.$$

Solution

(a) operations $(E_2 - 2E_1) \rightarrow (E_2)$ $(E_3 - 3E_1) \rightarrow (E_3)$ $(E_4 - (-1)E_1) \rightarrow (E_4)$ $(E_3 - 4E_2) \rightarrow (E_3)$ $(E_4 - (-3)E_2) \rightarrow (E_4)$

converts the system to the triangular system

$$x_1 + x_2 + 3x_4 = 4,$$

$$-x_2 - x_3 - 5x_4 = -7,$$

$$3x_3 + 13x_4 = 13,$$

$$-13x_4 = -13.$$

The multipliers m_{ij} and the upper triangular matrix produce the factorization

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 13 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -13 \end{bmatrix} = LU.$$

(**b**) To solve

$$A\mathbf{x} = LU\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 13 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -13 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 7 \\ 14 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix},$$

we first introduce the substitution $\mathbf{y} = U\mathbf{x}$. Then $\mathbf{b} = L(U\mathbf{x}) = L\mathbf{y}$. That is,

$$L\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & -3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 7 \\ 14 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This system is solved for **y** by a simple forward-substitution process:

$$y_1 = 8;$$

 $2y_1 + y_2 = 7,$ so $y_2 = 7 - 2y_1 = -9;$
 $3y_1 + 4y_2 + y_3 = 14,$ so $y_3 = 14 - 3y_1 - 4y_2 = 26;$
 $-y_1 - 3y_2 + y_4 = -7,$ so $y_4 = -7 + y_1 + 3y_2 = -26.$

We then solve $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ for \mathbf{x} , the solution of the original system; that is,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 13 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -13 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -9 \\ 26 \\ -26 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Using backward substitution we obtain $x_4 = 2$, $x_3 = 0$, $x_2 = -1$, $x_1 = 3$.

Permutation Matrices

- The LU factorization can be applied when matrix *A* is in a form that no row interchanges are needed in the Gaussian elimination method.
- Using Permutation matrices, LU factorization method is modified for decomposition of other matrices.
- An $n \times n$ permutation matrix $P = [p_{ij}]$ is a matrix obtained by rearranging the rows of I_n , the identity matrix.

Illustration

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

$$PA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, multiplying A on the right by P interchanges the second and third columns of A. \Box

Suppose k_1, \dots, k_n is a permutation of the integers $1, \dots, n$ $p_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j = k_i, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

• PA permutes the rows of A; that is,

$$PA = \begin{bmatrix} a_{k_11} & a_{k_12} & \cdots & a_{k_1n} \\ a_{k_21} & a_{k_22} & \cdots & a_{k_2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k_n1} & a_{k_n2} & \cdots & a_{k_nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- P^{-1} exists and $P^{-1} = P^t$.
- For any nonsingular matrix A, a permutation matrix P exists for which

the system

$PA\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{b}$

can be solved without row interchanges. Therefore, the matrix PA can be

factored into

PA = LU

This produces the factorization

$$A = P^{-1}LU = (P^tL)U$$

Example

Determine a factorization in the form $A = (P^{t}L)U$ for the matrix

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

Solution

The matrix *A* cannot have an *LU* factorization because $a_{11} = 0$. Using operations,

$$(E_1) \leftrightarrow (E_2)$$
$$(E_3 + E_1) \rightarrow (E_3)$$
$$(E_4 - E_1) \rightarrow (E_4)$$

produces,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the row interchange $(E_2) \leftrightarrow (E_4)$, followed by $(E_4 + E_3) \rightarrow (E_4)$, gives

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The permutation matrix associated with the row interchanges is

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

$$PA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gaussian elimination is performed on PA using the same operations as on

A, except without the row interchanges. The nonzero multipliers for PA are

$$m_{21} = 1$$
, $m_{31} = -1$, and $m_{43} = -1$

and the LU factorization of PA is

$$PA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = LU$$

Multiplying by $P^{-1} = P^t$ produces the factorization

$$A = P^{-1}(LU) = P^{t}(LU) = (P^{t}L)U = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

HOMEWORK 8:

Exercise Set 6.5: 8 (parts b, d)

Special Types of Matrices

For these types of matrices Gaussian elimination can be performed without row interchanges.

Diagonally Dominant Matrices

The $n \times n$ matrix A is said to be **diagonally dominant** when

$$|a_{ii}| \ge \sum_{\substack{j=1,\ j\neq i}}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$
 holds for each $i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$.

A matrix is strictly diagonally dominant when

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1,\ j\neq i}}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$
 holds for each $i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$.

Theorem

A strictly diagonally dominant matrix A is nonsingular. Moreover, in this case, Gaussian elimination can be performed on any linear system of the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ to obtain its unique solution without row interchanges,

Proof

suppose that a nonzero solution $\mathbf{x} = (x_i)$ to the system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

exists. Let k be an index for which

$$0 < |x_k| = \max_{1 \le j \le n} |x_j|$$

Because $\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j = 0$ for each i = 1, 2, ..., n, we have, when i = k,

$$a_{kk}x_k = -\sum_{\substack{j=1,\\j\neq k}}^n a_{kj}x_j$$

From the triangle inequality we have

$$|a_{kk}||x_k| \le \sum_{\substack{j=1, \\ j \ne k}}^n |a_{kj}||x_j|, \quad \text{so} \quad |a_{kk}| \le \sum_{\substack{j=1, \\ j \ne k}}^n |a_{kj}| \frac{|x_j|}{|x_k|} \le \sum_{\substack{j=1, \\ j \ne k}}^n |a_{kj}|$$

This inequality contradicts the strict diagonal dominance of *A*. Consequently, the only solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. This is shown in Theorem 6.17 to be equivalent to the nonsingularity of *A*.