MATH 401-Section 0201 APPLICATIONS OF LINEAR ALGEBRA

CHAPTER 1 - Part A. LINEAR ALGEBRAIC SYSTEMS

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Investment Portfolio

You have a portfolio totaling \$200.000 and want to invest in **municipal bonds**, **blue-chip stocks**, and **speculative stocks**. The municipal bonds pay 6% annually. Over a 5-years period you expect blue-chip stocks to return 10% annually and speculative stocks to return 15% annually. You want a combined annual return of 8%, and you also want to have only one-fourth of the portfolio invested in stocks. How much should be allocated to each type of investment?

Solution

Let M represent municipal bonds, B represent blue-chip stocks, and G represent speculative stocks.

M + B + G = 200.000 Eq 1: total investment is 200.000 0.06M + 0.10B + 0.15G = 16.000 Eq 2: combined annual return 8% of 200.000 B + G = 50.000 Eq 3: $\frac{1}{4}$ of investment is allocated to stocks

• 3 equations and 3 unknowns

Definition: System of Linear Equations.

A "system" of equations is a set or collection of equations that you deal with all together at once. The following is a **lineal system of** m **equations and** n **unknowns**:

 $E_{1}: a_{11}x_{1} + a_{12}x_{2} + \cdots + a_{1n}x_{n} = b_{1} \\ E_{2}: a_{21}x_{1} + a_{22}x_{2} + \cdots + a_{2n}x_{n} = b_{2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ E_{m}: a_{m1}x_{1} + a_{m2}x_{2} + \cdots + a_{mn}x_{n} = b_{m} \end{cases}$ (S)

where, for $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ and $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, the constants a_{ij} are the **coefficients**, b_i the **constant terms** and x_1, \dots, x_n are the **unknown of the system**. First we consider that there are the same number of equations and unknowns (m = n).

Gaussian Elimination

Gaussian Elimination is a simple, systematic algorithm to solve systems of linear equation.

Goal

The goal of this method is to weed out selective entries a_{ij} (or coefficients) of the system by performing linear combination of equations.

Example

$$\begin{array}{cccc} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 = & b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 = & b_2 \\ a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 = & b_3 \end{array} \xrightarrow{\sim} \widetilde{a}_{11}x_1 + \widetilde{a}_{12}x_2 + \widetilde{a}_{13}x_3 = & \widetilde{b}_1 \\ \Leftrightarrow & \widetilde{a}_{22}x_2 + \widetilde{a}_{23}x_3 = & \widetilde{b}_2 \\ & \widetilde{a}_{33}x_3 = & \widetilde{b}_3 \end{array}$$

(Triangular form)

Gaussian Elimination

We use three operations to simplify the linear system (S):

- 1. Equation E_i can be multiplied by any nonzero constant λ with the resulting equation used in place of E_i . This operation is denoted $(\lambda E_i) \rightarrow (E_i)$
- 2. Equation E_j can be multiplied by any nonzero constant λ and added to the equation E_i with the resulting equation used in place of E_i . This operation is denoted $(E_i + \lambda E_j) \rightarrow (E_i)$
- 3. Equations E_i and E_j can be transposed in order. This operation is denoted $(E_i) \leftrightarrow (E_j)$

By a sequence of these operations, a linear system can be transformed to a more easily solved linear system that has the same solution.

Example To illustrate, consider a system of three linear equations

$$x + 2y + z = 2$$

$$2x + 6y + z = 7$$

$$x + y + 4z = 3$$



We solved the triangular system by the method of **Back Substitution**:

$$x = -3, \quad y = 2, \quad z = 1.$$

Definición: Matrix

A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers. We use the notation

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix},$$

or $A = (a_{ij})$ for a general matrix of size $m \times n$, where m denotes the number of rows in A and n denotes the number of columns.

Example

$$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1&2&1\\2&6&3\end{array}\right),\quad \left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1.4&-22&0.5\end{array}\right),\quad \left(\begin{array}{rrrr}1\\0\end{array}\right),\quad \left(\begin{array}{rrrr}2.5&1\\2&-8\end{array}\right)$$

Definition

Image the set of all $m \times n$ matrices is denoted by $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$.

Matrix Addition.

Let $A = (a_{ij}), B = (b_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, then the sum A + B is calculated entrywise:

$$A + B = (c_{ij})$$
 with $c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}, \forall i = 1, ..., m, \forall j = 1, ..., n.$

Multiplication by Scalars

Let $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ the the scalar multiplication αA is given by multiplying every entry of A by c:

$$\alpha A = \alpha(a_{ij}) = (\alpha a_{ij}).$$

Definition

Matrix Product

Let $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, B = (b_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$. The matrix product $C = A \cdot B$ belongs to $\mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$, con

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}.$$

Even if both products are defined, they need not be equal, i.e., generally one has $AB \neq BA$.

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example

Matrix-Matrix product

If
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $B = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 7 & 8 \\ 4 & 6 & 0 \\ 5 & 7 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

Then, only AB is possible and we obtain:

$$AB = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 27 & 55 & 31 \\ 17 & 49 & 36 \end{array} \right)$$

.

Definition

- The null matrix is a $m \times n$ matrix consisting of all zero entries. We denote this matrix by θ .
- Solution We denote the identity matrix of order n as I_n or simply by I if the size can be trivially determined by the context. I_n is a square matrix with ones on the main diagonal and zeros elsewhere, moreover

$$A \cdot I = I \cdot A = A, \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

Example

$$I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad I_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Definition: Matrix Inverse.

An $n \times n$ square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called invertible (also nonsingular or nondegenerate) if there exits $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $A \cdot B = I$ and $B \cdot A = I$,

- **•** Matrix *B* is called inverse of *A*, denoted by A^{-1} .
- If A is invertible, then the inverse A^{-1} is uniquely determined.
- If A and B are invertibles, then AB is invertible and

$$(A \cdot B)^{-1} = B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}.$$

Back to the system

$$x + 2y + z = 2$$

$$2x + 6y + z = 7$$

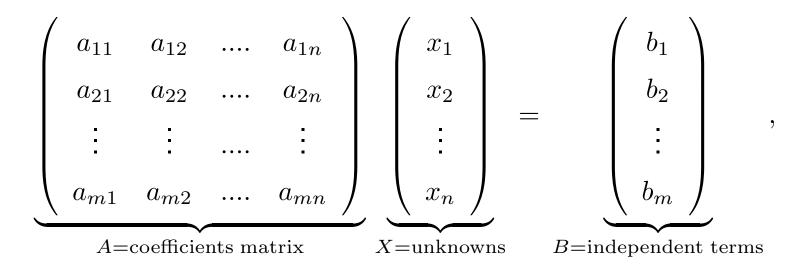
$$x + y + 4z = 3$$

We can write the above system as $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Remark

System (S) can be written as follow:



and we obtain the matrix form:

AX = B.

If $b_1 = b_2 = \cdots = b_m = 0$, the above matrix equation is called **homogeneous**, and **non-homogeneous** or **inhomogeneous** otherwise.

Gaussian Elimination. Regular Case

We begin by replacing the system (S) by its matrix constituents AX = B. For the purpose of performing the same elementary row operations in A and B we introduce the Augmented matrix.

Definition

Given the system AX = B, the **augmented matrix** is given by $M = (A|B) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (n+1)}$

$$M = (A|B) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{pmatrix}$$

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Augmented matrix
$$M = (A|\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example (Cont.)

By applying elementary row operations in M we obtain:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & | & 2 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 & | & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 & | & 3 \end{pmatrix} \sim N = (U|\mathbf{c}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & | & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & | & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{5}{2} & | & \frac{5}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then (1) is equivalent to $U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$, where the coefficient matrix U is upper triangular, namely, $u_{ij} = 0$ whenever i > j.

Definition

A square matrix A will be called regular if the algorithm successfully reduces it to upper triangular U with all non-zero pivots on the diagonal.

Elementary Matrices

A key observation is that elementary row operations can be realized by matrix multiplication.

Example.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{(R_2 - 2R_1) \to R_2}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{E} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(R_2 - 2R_1) \to R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{(R_3 + \frac{1}{2}R_2) \to R_3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{5}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

If we set
$$E_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $E_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $E_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

we obtain that when

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then } E_3 E_2 E_1 A = U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{5}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

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Inverse elementary matrix.

To undo the operation of adding c times row j to row i, we must perform the inverse row operation that subtract c times row j from row i.

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Example.

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
-2 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
2 & 6 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 4
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 2 & -1 \\
1 & 1 & 4
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
2 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}}_{L_{1}}
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 2 & -1 \\
1 & 1 & 4
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 1 \\
2 & 6 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 4
\end{pmatrix}$$

then

Inverse elementary matrix.

To undo the operation of adding c times row j to row i, we must perform the inverse row operation that subtract c times row j from row i.

Example.

The matrices L_1, L_2 and L_3 defined by

$$L_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad L_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad L_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

are the inverses of E_1, E_2 and E_3 , respectively, namely

$$L_1 E_1 = L_2 E_2 = L_3 E_3 = I.$$



Moreover

$$L = L_1 L_2 L_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here L is a lower triangular matrix with all the entries on the diagonal are equal to 1 (unit lower triangular matrix).

Lemma.

If *L* and \widehat{L} are lower triangular matrices of the same size, so is their product $L\widehat{L}$. Similarly, if *U* and \widehat{U} are upper triangular matrices of the same size, so is their product $U\widehat{U}$.

The *LU* Factorization

From the above example we notice that

 $LU = (L_1 L_2 L_3)(E_3 E_2 E_1 A) = L_1 L_2 (L_3 E_3) E_2 E_1 A = L_1 L_2 I E_2 E_1 A$ $=L_1(L_2E_2)E_1A = L_1IE_1A = (L_1E_1)A = IA = A.$



 $\bullet \quad A = LU$

 $\begin{array}{ll} L: & \text{unit lower triangular} \\ U: & \text{upper triangular} \end{array} \right\} LU \text{ Decomposition (of factorization) of } A.$

This procedure is dimension-independent, namely it works for matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ for as long as A has n-1 nonvanishing pivots.

The *LU* Factorization

If A = LU, then $Ax = b \iff L(Ux) = b \iff egin{cases} Ly = b, \ Ux = y. \end{cases}$

Therefore, to solve the system Ax = b is equivalent to:

1. Solve Ly = b and, then,

2. Solve
$$Ux = y$$
.

Both are triangular systems, lower and upper, respectively.

Solving triangular systems

Given

$$\boldsymbol{L} = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ l_{n1} & l_{n2} & \cdots & l_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{U} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1n} \\ 0 & u_{22} & \cdots & u_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & u_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

L is lower triangular and U is upper triangular.

Triangular system solving is easy because the unknowns can be resolved without any further manipulation of the matrix of coefficients.

Example

Consider the following 3-by-3 lower triangular case:

$$\boldsymbol{L} = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{32} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

The unknowns can be determined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= b_1/l_{11} \\ x_2 &= (b_2 - l_{21}x_1)/l_{22} \\ x_3 &= (b_3 - l_{31}x_1 - l_{32}x_2)/l_{33} \end{aligned}$$

This is the 3-by-3 version of an algorithm known as forward substitution. Notice that the process requires l_{11} , l_{22} , l_{33} to be nonzero.

Forward Substitution

Consider the system Lx = b with lower triangular matrix L. We proceed by simple forward substitution of variables:

$$l_{11}x_1 = b_1 \Rightarrow x_1 = b_1/l_{11} l_{21}x_1 + l_{22}x_2 = b_2 \Rightarrow x_2 = (b_2 - l_{21}x_1)/l_{22} \vdots \\ l_{n1}x_1 + \dots + l_{nn}x_n = b_n \Rightarrow x_n = (b_n - l_{n1}x_1 - \dots - l_{nn-1}x_{n-1})/l_{nn}$$

Algorithm:

For
$$i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} x_i = \frac{1}{l_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} l_{ij} x_j \right) \end{array} \right|$$

Backward Substitution

On the other hand, consider the system Ux = b with upper triangular con matrix U. Then we obtain the following algorithm:

For
$$i = n, n - 1, \dots, 1$$

$$x_i = \frac{1}{u_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n u_{ij} x_j \right)$$